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The effects of gender role conflict and psychological reactance on relationship beliefs

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THE EFFECTS OF GENDER ROLE CONFLICT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL REACTANCE ON RELATIONSHIP BELIEFS

by

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ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the multivariate relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs. Because intimate relationships have the potential to affect lives in many ways, it is important to examine factors that contribute to successful relationships. Although previous research has linked these constructs, no research exists that includes all three. The final sample included 346 undergraduate males and females who completed a demographic questionnaire, the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986), Therapeutic Reactance Scale (TRS; Dowd, Milne, & Wise, 1991), and Relationship Beliefs Inventory (RBI; Eidelson & Epstein, 1981). The research hypotheses were tested using canonical correlation and hierarchical regression. The results of the study indicate relationships among the variables. Significant gender differences led to separate hypothesis testing for males and females. Males and females demonstrated a relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs. Females, but not males, showed relationships between psychological reactance and maladaptive relationship beliefs, and gender role conflict and psychological reactance. Additionally, psychological reactance was shown to moderate the relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs. The current research added to the body of knowledge that exists for these constructs and has important implications for therapists, educators, and individuals involved in intimate interpersonal relationships. For instance, therapists who work with couples can use the results to assist their clients in

understanding the factors contributing to maladaptive beliefs about their relationships, thus empowering them to alter detrimental or inappropriate beliefs. College counselors, faculty, and administrators can use this knowledge to better understand interpersonal issues that might contribute to students' failure in the classroom. Partners in relationships can use this information to discern elements of their dysfunctional relationship beliefs, leading to more satisfying and lasting relationships. The results of the study might also be useful in providing suggestions for further research.

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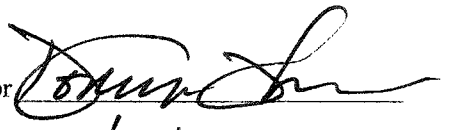
Author 

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The study of intimate relationships is a broad area of interest in psychological literature. Researchers have examined relationship outcome variables such as satisfaction (Locke & Wallace, 1959; Snyder, 1979), closeness (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989), and quality (Glenn, 1990; Norton, 1983). Such studies investigate the relationship itself, generally not focusing on the individuals within that relationship. These studies explore existing relationships and are useful in isolating the components of successful and unsuccessful relationships.

Other studies have focused on the development of relationships and the psychological factors that influence relationships (Brennom, 2001; Gabardi & Rosen, 1992). Such studies are likely to examine the traits of individuals within relationships to determine how characterological and environmental factors influence relationships. An examination of the literature regarding intimate relationships yields proof that intimate relationships are influenced by environmental factors. These include familial patterns (Franklin, Janoff-Bulman, & Roberts, 1990), personal experiences (Harvey, Agostinello, & Weber, 1989), and social cognition (Fincham, Bradbury, & Scott, 1990; Fletcher & Fincham, 1991; Miller & Read, 1991). In addition to external influences, cognitive variables shape intimate relationships. Fletcher and Kininmonth (1992) stated "people do

not enter into close relationships as cognitive tabula rasa." Their statement suggests that individuals carry their personal histories into relationships, imposing them onto partners with equally complex relationship pasts. One important cognitive variable affecting the nature and course of close relationships is one's set of beliefs about relationships.

Individuals enter intimate relationships with a predisposed notion of what an ideal relationship should be. Relationship beliefs are formed, in part, by individuals' observations of others' relationships (Baucom & Epstein, 1990; McDonald, 1981). Additionally, modern media influences expectations of relationships by exposing individuals to unrealistic portrayals as models of "good" relationships (Shapiro & Kroeger, 1991). Shapiro and Kroeger (1991) found that popular media exposure is associated positively with unrealistic relationship beliefs. Further, relationship beliefs are developed as part of the socialization process and through cultural norms (Goodwin & Gaines, 2004; Sprecher & Toro-Morn, 2002). Mullins (2000) found that moderately depressed individuals are more likely to have irrational relationship beliefs than those who are not depressed. So, it is evident that relationship beliefs are multimodal and evolutionary in nature.

One's beliefs and expectations of relationships have been shown to affect the course and success of intimate relationships. The impact of relationship beliefs on relationships is demonstrated in numerous studies. Studies have shown that individuals' expectations about their relationships have been associated with marital dysfunction (O'Leary & Turkewitz, 1978; Sager, 1976). Epstein and Eidelson (1981) concluded that unrealistic relationship beliefs negatively impacted couples' overall marital satisfaction as well as their chances of improving in therapy. In fact, Eidelson and Epstein (1982)

reported that much of relationship research has focused on relationship beliefs and how they might adversely affect the quality of the relationship. However, less attention has been given to studying psychological variables that might contribute to or influence relationship beliefs. Knowledge of these factors might provide insight into the development and maintenance of more successful close relationships (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992). Therapists can use the etiology of clients' relationship beliefs to show how unrealistic expectations might contribute to relational conflict. Unrealistic relationship beliefs may lead to anticipation of perfectionism in relationships or intolerance of common relationship differences. Presumably, many psychological factors contribute to the development of relationship beliefs. One such factor is psychological reactance.

Psychological reactance (reactance) is a person's tendency to attempt to defend personal freedoms from real or imagined threats (Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Brehm, 1981). Brehm (1966) further described psychological reactance as a "motivational force" that drives individuals to preserve their autonomy. Reactance was initially presented as a construct within social psychology (Brehm, 1966), indicating that, by definition, it is a variable associated with relationships. Although later research has shown reactance is also relevant in clinical and applied settings, it remains germane within the context of relationship research.

Several studies have examined the association of reactance and relationships. In close relationships, high levels of reactance have been positively related to relationship conflict (Hockenberry & Billingham, 1992). Seibel (1994) concluded that reactance is related to interpersonal isolation, implying that highly reactant individuals might be less

successful in interpersonal relationships than their less reactant counterparts. Derbyshire (1997) examined relationships among various levels of reactance and marital satisfaction to determine whether a balance or imbalance of reactance levels between partners affected satisfaction. Because reactance is a trait versus a state variable (Brehm & Brehm, 1981), its potential effect on relationship beliefs should prove to affect an individual's close relationships throughout the course of his or her life.

Another factor affecting relationships is gender role conflict. Gender role conflict is "a psychological state in which gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the person or others" (O'Neil, 1981, p. 203). Gender role conflict has been related positively to strain in relationships (O'Neil, 1981) and negatively to relationship satisfaction (Campbell & Snow, 1992) and quality (Arnold & Chartier, 1984; Mahalik, 1996). One logical inference that might be derived from this pattern is that gender role conflict also is related to one's beliefs about close relationships.

Studies have established separate associations between relationships and psychological reactance (Derbyshire, 1997; Hockenberry & Billingham, 1992) and relationships and gender role conflict (Arnold & Chartier, 1984; Campbell & Snow, 1992; Mahalik, 1996; O'Neil, 1981). Additionally, relationships are known to be affected by relationship beliefs and expectations (Frazier, 1990; Haferkamp, 1994; O'Leary & Turkewitz, 1978). The current study seeks to determine the separate and combined effects of psychological reactance and gender role conflict on relationship beliefs, hoping to uncover significant implications for successful interpersonal relationships and treatment outcomes.

Statement of the Problem

Studying relationships has far reaching implications for therapeutic outcomes and society. Therapists report relationship difficulties as an important factor in therapeutic success (Epstein & Eidelson, 1982; Jacobsen & Margolin, 1979). Incidence of relationship-related stress and depression is common (Sheffield, 2003). High divorce rates have led to disintegration of families. Children of divorced parents are known to experience greater difficulty in achieving love, sexual intimacy, and commitment to marriage and parenthood (Wallerstein, 2004). Increased prevalence of behavioral disorders is related to a higher number of children from broken families (Epstein, Cullinan, Quinn, & Cumblad, 1994). Mass marketing efforts (e.g., television programs, self-help books, radio programs) are increasingly directed toward relationship building, repair, and maintenance.

To determine routes to successful relationships, one must analyze contributing factors. Both psychological reactance and gender role conflict are widely studied areas of interest for behavioral scientists. Psychological reactance has been associated with certain negative personality characteristics that typically are considered detrimental to relationships, such as aggressiveness, dominance, and an inability to understand others (Dowd & Wallbrown, 1993; Dowd, Wallbrown, Sanders, & Yesenosky, 1994). Gender role conflict has been associated negatively with relationship quality (Arnold & Chartier, 1984; Mahalik, 1996). Similarly, relationship beliefs have been investigated extensively and have been shown to impact satisfaction and quality in relationships. Although

extensive research exists to explain the effects of these constructs, there is no known study linking psychological reactance and gender role conflict to their effects on relationship beliefs. Because one's beliefs about relationships have been shown to affect the nature and course of relationships, it is worthy to determine factors that might impact relationship beliefs.

Much of the previous research surrounding relationship beliefs has centered solely on marital relationships (Emmelkamp, Krol, Sanderman, & Ruephan, 1987; Epstein & Eidelson, 1981; Jones & Stanton, 1988; Moeller & Van Zyl, 1991). Studies show that dysfunctional beliefs are negatively related to marital satisfaction, decisions on seeking marital therapy, expectations of success in marital therapy, and interest in relationship improvement (Bradbury & Fincham, 1988; Epstein & Eidelson, 1981; Moeller & Van Zyl, 1991). As society's definitions of and attitudes toward relationships have evolved to include cohabitation, relationship beliefs within that context have been examined as well (Brennom, 2001). Brennom (2001) showed that unconventional relationship beliefs likely mediate young adults' choices to cohabit rather than marry as a first union.

The present study sought to assess both the independent and combined impact of psychological reactance and gender role conflict on relationship beliefs. Examining these variables using a college student population will help researchers generalize findings to include the effect of relationship beliefs outside of and prior to marriage, hopefully leading to more successful long-term or marital relationships. Knowledge of associations among these variables will lead to more realistic relationship beliefs and expectations. Understanding these factors' association will provide therapists better insight into the relational problems of their clients and help them in determining appropriate treatment

strategies. Further, treatment efficacy is likely to improve through a better understanding of these important components and influences of intimate relationships.

Justification

Relationships neither develop nor exist in a vacuum. Although numerous variables affect relationships, it is also true that relationships affect virtually all other aspects of individuals' lives. Healthy, fulfilling relationships can positively influence decisions about careers, children, recreational activities, and worship, just to name a few. Conversely, unhealthy, unfulfilling relationships can lead to poor choices in the same areas. Knowing the factors that can affect relationships has far reaching consequences and can lead to improved quality of life (Simon, 2002).

Relationship beliefs have been associated significantly with stress (Baltimore, 1995), specifically cognitive hardiness, psychological well-being, and coping. Scientific and anecdotal evidence increasingly point to the damaging effects of stress on our minds and bodies. Generally defined as mental or physical tension resulting from general distress, stress has been linked to physiological factors such as heart disease, hypertension, and obesity (Astin & Forys, 2004). Psychologically, stress can lead to problems with memory consolidation and performance (Lupien et al., 2005), executive functioning, and integrative processing (VonDras, Powless, Olson, Wheeler, & Snudden, 2005). Discovering ways to understand or improve relationships can decrease stress, perhaps deferring, or preventing altogether, the potential for life-threatening conditions.

Divorce is relatively common in the United States, with 49% of marriages ending in divorce. When marital relationships end, one parent typically assumes primary physical and financial responsibility for the children. Children raised by single parents

are more likely to suffer from depression (Videon, 2003), low self-esteem, and behavior disorders (Hilton, Desrochers, & Devall, 2001). Divorced women and their children are more likely to receive government subsidy than married women and children of two-parent households. This reliance on government aid can be demeaning to them and places undue burden on taxpayers. Through recognizing factors that contribute to successful marital relationships, psychologists can assist parents in seeking resolutions other than divorce.

Failed or strained relationships between parents can often lead to behavior problems in the children. Children of divorce might feel powerless and frustrated, leading them to exhibit poor impulse control, aggression, and possibly delinquent or criminal behavior (Fox, 2001). Additionally, bad relationships can lead to domestic violence (Erwin & Vidales, 2001). Lisak and Ivan (1995) posit that domestic violence affects far more than the family involved; rather, domestic violence typically is a cyclical pattern of behavior that spans generations. The emotional and financial costs are extremely high. Determining contributing factors to poor relationships can lead to better relationships that might result in decreased incidence of domestic violence.

Discord in marital relationships has been related to higher prevalence of depressive disorders and symptoms (Denton, Golden, & Walsh, 2003). Therapy participants report relationship problems as one of the primary stressors in their lives. Although psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy can improve the symptoms of psychological disorders, emotional problems might be diminished or prevented entirely by understanding the factors that contribute to healthier relationships.

Copious research has focused on relationships, both good and bad. Although much has been learned, therapists continue to seek the means through which they can best serve their clients suffering from relationship-related problems. Understanding key factors contributing to relationship development and strength is critical in helping therapists, their clients, and by extension, society achieve success. Relationship beliefs have been shown to affect relationships, and psychological reactance and gender role conflict have been associated with relationship research. It was therefore reasonable to determine the separate and corporate effects of psychological reactance and gender role conflict on relationship beliefs.

Review of the Literature

Theory of Gender Role Conflict

History of Gender Role Conflict. Gender role conflict and role strain emerged as constructs of interest in the 1970s as society began to reevaluate the roles of males and females. The feminist and women's movement provided the impetus for questioning traditional gender roles and their importance in leading the best possible life (David & Brannon, 1976; Goldberg, 1977). Additionally, increased interest in the psychology of gender roles fueled research to determine how gender roles and socialization might affect or restrict emotional expression (Astin, Parelman, & Fisher; Bardwick, 1971; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Although subsequent research suggested enlightened views of gender roles might preclude continued extensive research into gender role conflict (Brooks, 1990), society has not yet evolved to the point where issues of "appropriate" masculinity and femininity are resolved.

Gender role issues are important in the study and application of counseling psychology (O'Neil, 1981). Psychologists must recognize gender role issues and the socialization process as critical in their contribution to interpersonal, emotional, and vocational problems (O'Neil, 1981). Several researchers have recommended including sex role issues in the counseling process (Bear, Berger, & Wright, 1979; Kenworthy, 1979; Marlowe, 1979). Although most authors suggest gender role issues as important in the counseling of men (Marino, 1979; Marlowe, 1979; Skovholt, 1978), increasing focus has been placed on gender role conflict in women (Gleason, 1994; Korcuska & Thombs, 2003). One can assume that if counselors should address gender role issues in men, counselors also should address similar conflicts in women.

The formal study of gender role conflict grew from increased focus on the psychology of males. O'Neil (1981) determined that the negative aspects of male socialization merited a closer look. His study of sexism and subsequent search for masculinity without sexism led to his interest in the Sex Role Strain Model and his first publication on the psychology of men (O'Neil, 1979). Subsequently, the Gender Role Conflict Scale was developed in 1986 (O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman).

Definition of Gender Role Conflict. O'Neil and Good (1997) defined gender role conflict as "a psychological state in which socialized gender roles have negative consequences on the person or others." Gender role conflict occurs when one's rights or the rights of others are violated or devalued because of restrictive gender roles. The impact of gender role conflict can not be underestimated. O'Neil (1981) believed its eventual product is the limited ability to realize one's own or another's human potential. Because gender role conflict has the potential to affect many individuals, and

consequently, society, it is important to develop a deeper awareness of the construct (O'Neil & Good, 1997).

Gender role socialization is the "process whereby children and adults acquire and internalize the values, attitudes, and behaviors associated with femininity, masculinity, or both" (O'Neil, 1981). Critics of conventional gender role socialization argue that its result is an incomplete individual, male or female. Obsatz (1997) stated that traditional gender role socialization leads to dependent females and males who are emotionally stunted.

In general, societies place certain expectations on men and women based on their sex. These expectations are known as gender roles, and consist of the "nonphysiological components of sex that are culturally regarded as appropriate to males or to females" (Unger, 1979). Individuals do not always adhere to the respective expectations placed on them according to their gender. Societies with inflexible gender roles do not permit individuals to behave autonomously if their behaviors conflict with traditional gender roles. Such inflexibility can lead to devaluation of those who might depart from traditional roles or to over-expression of "deviant" gender behavior. Rebecca, Hefner, and Oleshansky (1976) noted that the free expression of nonstandard gender behavior is typically unwelcome by society-at-large. The discrepancy between societies' expectations and an individual's needs and aspirations results in gender role conflict (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995).

A negative consequence of gender role conflict is gender role strain, defined as "excessive mental or physical tension caused by gender role conflict" (O'Neil, 1981). O'Neil (1981) noted that the expression of behaviors considered discrepant with traditional gender roles might lead one to feel anger or other intense emotions toward

those restricting gender roles. Further, failure to express these emotions can lead to negative psychological effects such as low self-esteem, anxiety, and depression.

In men, gender role conflict might manifest through the Masculine Mystique and the resulting fear of femininity (O'Neil, 1981). The Masculine Mystique is a learned set of values and beliefs that optimally define masculinity. It leads to the belief that feminine values, attitudes, behaviors, or those who exhibit them, are inferior. Fear of Femininity is a learned reaction to feminine values, attitudes, and behaviors.

Men's gender role conflict can be conceptualized through six patterns that emerge from gender role socialization, the Masculine Mystique, and the Fear of Femininity (O'Neil, 1981). These patterns are restrictive emotionality, homophobia, obsession with achievement and success, health care problems, restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior, and socialized control, power, and competition issues. Because these six patterns influence men's lives in differing manners and degrees, gender role conflict differs from one man to another.

Restrictive emotionality occurs when a person has difficulty expressing his feelings or denies others their rights to express emotions (O'Neil, 1982). Men traditionally are not socialized to express emotions directly (Goldberg, 1977). Skovholt (1978) believes restricted emotionality is a big problem for men. Nichols (1975) posited that restrictive emotionality leads to perceptual difficulties that result in negatively impacted interpersonal relationships. A man's inability or unwillingness to express emotions might lead to maladaptive relationship beliefs. O'Neil (1982) stated that differences in the communication styles of men and women, possibly attributable to men's restrictive emotionality, might limit intimacy and constructive problem solving in

their interpersonal relationships. The most extreme consequences of restrictive emotionality are domestic violence, child abuse, incest, or rape (O'Neil, 1982).

Homophobia is another serious consequence of gender role conflict. By rejecting and demeaning homosexual people and behaviors, gender role conflicted men attempt to preserve social control and conformity (Lehne, 1976). Homophobia does not typically occur in isolation; it is related to men's fear of femininity (O'Neil, 1982). Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978) suggest men are afraid of homosexuality similarly to the way they are afraid of femininity. An analysis by Morin and Garfinkle (1978) concludes that individuals with negative views of homosexuality tend to possess personality characteristics such as authoritarianism, cognitive rigidity, status consciousness, and sexual rigidity that might be deleterious to relationships.

Gender role conflict can limit the way one expresses sexuality and affectionate behavior; this is known as restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior (O'Neal, 1982). In fact, some men might have difficulty distinguishing sexual from affectionate behavior. This lack of distinction is important in relationships because it might make men less able to differentiate these behaviors in their partners. Men's gender socialization, the Masculine Mystique, and the fear of femininity contribute to restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior by idealizing a set of "accepted" behaviors and discouraging any deviation from them.

Gender role conflict in men also can lead to health problems, for example, disregarding physical symptoms that might be associated with serious injury or disease. Men with a fear of femininity do not readily acknowledge the vulnerability that accompanies illness or injury (O'Neil, 1982). These problems can occur actively or

passively. For instance, a man's ignoring obvious signs of illness or injury is an active way to avoid the appearance of weakness. Or, men might passively create health care problems by failing to appropriately address diet, exercise, or stress management needs (O'Neil, 1982). Harrison's (1978) review analyzes literature that leads to the conclusion that traditional male gender roles are unhealthy for men and can lead to shortened life expectancies. Stillson, O'Neil, and Own (1991) showed a strong relationship between physical strain and several dimensions of gender role conflict.

Gender role conflicted men might also exhibit an obsession with achievement and success. O'Neil (1982) defines this as "a man's persistent and disturbing preoccupation with work, accomplishments, and eminence as a means of substantiating and demonstrating his masculinity." Levinson et al. (1978) identified a man's occupation as central to his identity and representative of his status in society. Men avoid any misconception of femininity by embracing typically masculine traits such as competition, achievement, wealth, status, and power (O'Neil, 1982). He further related that threats to male success and achievement are associated with poor interpersonal relations.

Socialized control, power, and competition issues are associated with gender role conflict and the fear of femininity. These personality characteristics are related to the Masculine Mystique and are fundamental in the development of a man's self-concept (O'Neil, 1982). O'Neil (1982) suggests that during the gender socialization process, boys are encouraged to compete and exert control more often than are girls. The need for superiority might stem from boys' misperceptions that men are more powerful than women. Socialized control, power, and competition are not typically associated with positive interpersonal communication or relationships (Nichols, 1975).

The six patterns of gender role conflict are manifested in varying degrees and combinations. This creates the likelihood that there are as many different expressions of gender role conflict as there are different men. However, some of these patterns are more influential on relationships and relationship beliefs than others. O'Neil, Good, and Holmes (1995) found that men exhibiting high levels of competition, power, and control are more likely to have relationship difficulties because of their maladaptive relationship beliefs. These characteristics are detrimental to open and honest communication, a common component in successful relationships. O'Neil (1981) characterized men's power and control issues as inhibiting the development of intimacy in their relationships with women.

The vast majority of gender role conflict studies have focused on evidence of the construct in men. In many studies, the only references to women are those that discuss the impact of men's gender role conflict on men's relationships with women. Although this area of study certainly is valuable, one should not overlook the existence of gender role conflict in women. O'Neil's 1990 (p. 25) definition of gender role conflict, "a psychological state in which gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the individual or on others," includes no mention of "male" or "masculine." Recent studies by Korcuska and Thombs' (2003) and Gleason (1994) specifically address gender role issues as problematic for women.

Women's psychological and behavioral effects of gender role conflict and strain are both similar and different from the effects on men. Gleason (1994) found that gender role strain in both men and women is associated with problematic consumption of alcohol. However, Korcuska and Thombs (2003) demonstrated that women are more

likely to exhibit restricted affectionate behavior between women than restricted emotionality, the primary manifestation of gender role conflict in men. Their study concluded that "gender role strain for women and men may be converging in overall structure" (p. 213). Korcuska and Thombs (2003) found that role strain in men and women appears to develop from the same general sources, but certain components of the construct influence men and women differently.

Gender Role Conflict Research. In general, research on gender role conflict has fallen into four general categories: psychological well-being, interpersonal interactions, therapy, and multiculturalism. The following summary of available research is presented within the context of these four areas of interest.

Blazina and Watkins (1996) determined that psychological well-being is negatively affected by gender role conflict. In their study, psychological distress was best predicted by high scores on two factors of the Gender Role Conflict Scale: Success, Power, and Competition Issues and Restrictive Emotionality. These two factors, as well as Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, also are related to higher incidences of depression in men (Sheppard, 1994). Additionally, gender role conflict is negatively related to a man's ability to process emotions (Fisher & Good, 1995; Sheppard, 1994). Specifically, Fisher and Good (1995) demonstrated that Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations appear to diminish a man's emotional processing.

Other indicators of psychological well-being are guilt, self-esteem, anxiety, and depression. While high levels of guilt (Thompson, 1995) and anxiety and depression

(Sharpe and Heppner, 1991) are positively related to gender role conflict, self-esteem is negatively associated with gender role conflict. Significant gender role conflict factors that were related to self-esteem, anxiety, and depression are Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations.

A man's ability to experience intimacy is inhibited by high levels of gender role conflict (Mahalik, Locke, Theodore, Cournoyer, & Lloyd, 2001; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men are the subscales that significantly predict difficulty in experiencing intimacy. However, it should be noted that these intimacy deficits do not portend a significant relationship between gender role conflict and relationship satisfaction.

Gender role conflict is positively associated with certain psychological disturbances such as paranoia, psychotic thoughts and behaviors, depression, interpersonal insensitivity, and obsessive-compulsive disorder (Good et al., 1995). The use of certain psychological defense mechanisms is related to gender role conflict. Mahalik, Cournoyer, DeFranc, Cherry, and Napolitano (1998) showed that men who tend to use immature, neurotic defense mechanisms and men who use defense mechanisms that turn against others are likely to value success, power, and competition and to display restricted emotions.

Numerous studies have examined the negative effects of gender role conflict on interpersonal relationships. Sileo (1996) showed that gender role conflict is negatively related to intimacy and closeness in relationships. Additionally, Arnold and Chartier

(1984) identified high ego identity and lower levels of gender role conflict as an effective combination for high levels of intimacy. Fischer and Good (1995) showed that less restricted emotional expression is related to high levels of intimacy. Mahalik (1996) showed that negative interpersonal behaviors in *all* relationships are predicted by gender role conflict. Gender role conflict is associated with interpersonal behaviors such as mistrust, detachment, and hostility (Mahalik, 1996).

Marital relationships also are affected by gender role conflict. Mintz and Mahalik (1996) found that men who adhere to traditional male-dominant family roles rather than a less traditional sharing of roles also place high value in being successful, powerful, and competitive. Overall marital satisfaction is negatively associated with gender role conflict (Campbell & Snow, 1992).

Gender role conflict has been positively connected to ominous relationship characteristics such as hostility and violence toward women. Chartier, Graff, and Arnold (1986) related hostility toward women with gender role conflict. Sexual assault also has been related to high levels of gender role conflict (Rando, Brittan, & Pannu, 1994; Rando, McBee, & Brittan, 1995). These researchers demonstrated that rape myth acceptance and hostility toward women are related to Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. These same factors were more likely to be seen in sexually aggressive males in the 1994 study.

O'Neil (1992) analyzed research indicating that high levels of gender role conflict are predictive of violence in men. O'Neil and Harway (1997) discuss the possibility that issues of power, control, success, and restrictive emotionality might contribute to men's

violence against women. They hypothesize that violence against women is perpetrated by men who perceive their partners as threats to their own success, power, and competition and are unable to resolve and express their emotions related to the threat. O'Neil and Nadeau (1999) suggest the higher likelihood of violence might be related to learned defensiveness, fear of emasculation, threat to masculinity, anger, guilt, or anxiety.

A less-studied area of interest is the effect of gender role conflict on interpersonal relationships between men. Male-male interpersonal relationships are affected by gender role conflict (Horhoruw, 1991). Gender role conflicted men also have difficulty establishing intimacy and closeness with male friends (Sileo, 1996), specifically due to Success, Power, and Competition issues, Restrictive Emotionality, and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men.

Research indicates that gender role conflict is negatively associated with help-seeking behaviors such as seeking therapy. Wisch, Mahalik, Hayes, and Nutt (1993) demonstrated that men with lower levels of gender role conflict are more likely to seek help for psychological problems than men with higher levels of gender role conflict. The presence of negative help-seeking behaviors in men is significantly related to Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989). These researchers also found that highly gender conflicted men preferred nontraditional counseling brochures describing more communal methods to traditional counseling information describing conventional, direct counseling.

Psychologists and counselors must learn to understand the particular issues of gender conflicted men who *do* enter therapy. It is important to have an understanding of the presenting problem and the underlying emotions related to gender role conflict

(Wisch, Mahalik, Hayes, & Nutt, 1993). Mahalik (1996) suggests that therapy focused on maladaptive interpersonal patterns might be helpful to gender role conflicted men. O'Neil (1981) stressed a counselor's awareness of gender role conflict's impact on emotional, interpersonal, and physical lives as critical to the success of therapy. He further highlighted the need for counselors to recognize adherence to male and female stereotypes and the resulting effects on relationships.

Multicultural aspects of gender role conflict provide another important area of research. Although most research has been conducted with college-educated, White, middle-class men (Stillson, O'Neil, & Owen,1991), Tolson (1977) believed this approach was one-dimensional and unsophisticated. More recent research has examined the construct within the context of multiculturalism. Stillson et al., (1991) postulated that racially and culturally different men likely conceptualize and experience gender role conflict in differing ways. Finn (1986) found that the gender role attitudes of Whites are more traditional than those of African Americans. However, Finn (1986) demonstrated that men of both races have similar attitudes on the use of physical force. Issues of Success, Power, and Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations are significantly related to low vocational strain and high physical strain in White, Black, and Hispanic men (Stillson et al., 1991). However, Asian men displayed different patterns of gender role conflict.

Kim, O'Neil, and Owen (1996) stated that highly gender role conflicted Asian men have difficulty acculturating in America. They did not, however, show that men of varying Asian descents experienced acculturation and gender role conflict differently from one another. Similarly, Fragoso (1996) found that Mexican American males with

high levels of gender role conflict have lower rates of acculturation. Fragoso (1996) showed that stress in Mexican American men is predicted by gender role conflict, acculturation, and machismo. Finally, O'Neil, Owen, Holmes, Dolgopolov, and Slastenin (1994) demonstrated the presence of gender role conflict in Russian American men.

Counselors who work with men of different cultures must understand gender role conflict within the context of multiculturalism. Wade (1996) concluded that men's issues that appear racial-oriented might actually originate in gender role issues.

Theory of Psychological Reactance

History and Definition of Psychological Reactance. Brehm (1966) initially proposed his theory of psychological reactance as a construct within social psychology. Psychological reactance is a motivational force that drives individuals to attempt to regain personal freedoms that were lost, reduced, or threatened. The theory posits that individuals possess a set of "free behaviors" (Brehm, 1966) that can readily be used to meet specific needs and are more attractive to an individual when jeopardized. Behaviors are only considered "free" if they are realistic. For instance, an individual might wish to fly, but this behavior is not free because it is not realistically available to the individual, no matter the magnitude of the desire. Brehm (1966) further stated an individual must have the necessary physical and psychological resources to engage in a free behavior and the knowledge of the availability of the behavior.

The importance of psychological reactance theory is seen in Brehm's (1966) assertion that individuals who are denied access to free behaviors to meet their needs could experience pain or even death. He further stated that individuals thrive and survive when they perceive having the freedom to choose behaviors.

Brehm (1966) originally suggested the magnitude of reactance is a direct function of "(1) the importance of the free behaviors which are eliminated or threatened, (2) the proportion of free behaviors eliminated or threatened, and (3) where there is only a threat of elimination of free behaviors, the magnitude of that threat" (p. 4).

The importance of eliminated or threatened free behaviors is the value of that behavior in meeting a person's needs multiplied by the actual or potential importance of the needs. Further, the importance of the need can be immediate or perceived by the individual as important at some future time. The more unique the eliminated or threatened free behavior is in meeting a need, the greater the magnitude of psychological reactance. The importance of eliminated or threatened free behaviors is weighed in light of other available free behaviors to meet the same need (Brehm, 1966).

Brehm's (1966) findings suggested that individuals experience higher levels of psychological reactance when a greater number of free behaviors are threatened or eliminated. Tennen, Press, Rohrbaugh, and White (1981) reaffirmed this finding in their analysis, finding that individuals possessing fewer freedoms experienced higher levels of reactance to the threat or loss of a freedom. Brehm and Brehm (1981) further demonstrated the arousal of reactance in individuals who only anticipated a threat rather than actually experiencing one. They defined a threat as any social influence, behavior, event that obstructs an individual's ability to exercise freedoms.

Brehm and Brehm (1981) also demonstrated that individuals consider the potential costs of attempting to regain a lost or threatened freedom in deciding whether to attempt to regain the freedom. When the costs associated with regaining lost or threatened freedoms is perceived to be high, an individual is less likely to attempt to

regain the freedom, and the individual may actually experience denial with respect to the threatened or lost freedom. In this instance, the individual does not actually have to experience the loss or threat of losing a freedom to experience reactance.

Brehm (1966) postulated that the magnitude of a threat to free behaviors influences the magnitude of psychological reactance. The loss of one freedom might lead an individual to generalize his or her reactance into a fear of the loss of related freedoms. Similarly, an individual can experience a sort of "vicarious reactance" by witnessing the threat or elimination of another person's freedoms (Brehm, 1966). Fogarty (1997) also demonstrated that reactance can result from witnessing or having knowledge of a threat to another individual. Brehm (1966) and Brehm (1976) discussed reactant responses resulting from threats to lesser valued freedoms if those freedoms were related to or were foundations for higher valued freedoms.

Research of Psychological Reactance. In 1981, Brehm and Brehm revised their original theory of psychological reactance. They proposed four factors that influence psychological reactance: (1) perceived importance of the lost or threatened freedom, (2) number of lost or threatened freedoms, (3) the strength of an individual's belief that he or she possesses the freedom, and (4) the magnitude of the threat to the freedom. In adding the strength of an individual's belief in his or her possession of the freedom, Brehm and Brehm (1981) proposed that reactance levels are lower if an individual does not see a behavior as free at any given time. Likewise, a strong belief that an individual has a free behavior is likely to lead to higher levels of reactance if that free behavior is lost or threatened.

Reactant individuals respond to lost or threatened freedoms in various ways (Brehm, 1966). Pepper (1996) stated that the degree of arousal and the cost of restoring freedoms affects one's response to reactance Direct restoration occurs when an individual engages in the lost behavior without regard for consequence (Brehm & Brehm, 1981).Or an individual might choose indirect restoration by witnessing others engaging in the lost or threatened behavior (Brehm & Brehm, 1981). Further, individuals might restore their lost or threatened freedom by engaging in a similar behavior (Brehm & Brehm, 1981). Finally, reactance might be reduced with an aggressive response toward the person or situation that resulted in the threat to or loss of a free behavior (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Dowd, 1993; Dowd, Milne, & Wise, 1991).

Reactance was originally proposed as a situational variable and later presented as normally distributed among the population (Cherulnik & Citrin,1974). Cherulnik and Citrin (1974) also viewed reactance as situation-specific, further moderated by cognitive variables such as locus of control and information processing style. This view implies that individuals would experience similar reactant arousal in similar situations. However, recent research suggests reactance is likely a trait variable (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Dowd, Milne, & Wise, 1991); Hong & Page, 1989; Jahn & Lichstein, 1980; Rohrbaugh, Tennen, Press, & White, 1981; Seemann, Buboltz, & Thomas, 2000), indicating that individuals might react differently to threats to or the loss of similar free behaviors.

Control is a common theme in reactance literature. Seemann, (2004) stated that the objective of reactance is the control to restore lost or threatened free behaviors. He further reported that control is expressed through (1) controlling access to the behavior, (2) controlling situations in which lost or threatened behaviors might occur, or (3)

controlling the outcome of an undesirable situation. Brehm (1993) asserted that an individual's reactance is related to his or her perception that he or she has the control to engage in free behaviors rather than the need to actually perform the behavior. Dowd (1989) postulated an individual's failure to maintain control over oneself might lead to other forms of reactance such as internal discomfort, hostility, aggression, and direct restoration of freedoms.

Although control of external factors has been related to psychological reactance, Mulry, Fleming, and Gottschalk (1994) demonstrated that self control and reactance were not significantly related. In their study of academic procrastinators, they indicated control is not the only theme of reactance. Seemann, Buboltz, and Thomas (2000) found that high reactance related to high scores on Desirability of Control scale. They also found a relationship between reactance and social desirability, although the effect was small. Both of these studies approached psychological reactance as a trait versus situational variable.

Although Derbyshire (1997) found reactance was associated with power-related constructs (dominance and authority), reactance was not necessarily related to power as an overall construct. Seemann (2004) noted that control, as it relates to psychological reactance, is not the same as power, particularly when considering interpersonal relationships. With regard to reactance, control is exerted over one's ability to engage in free behavior. On the other hand, power is the exercise of one's authority over another person or situation. Additionally, control, in reactance, is a response to a threat; this is not necessarily the case with the exercise of power in interpersonal relationships.

Locus of control is another aspect of control that appears to be related to reactance (Cherulnik & Citrin, 1974). Cherulnik and Citrin (1974) demonstrated a strong relationship between reactance and locus of control. Specifically, high levels of reactance to the loss of personal freedoms were exhibited in individuals with an internal locus of control. Conversely, high levels of reactance to loss of impersonal freedoms were seen in individuals with an external locus of control. Although Cherulnik and Citrin (1974) discussed reactance as either low or high with respect to locus of control, Brehm and Brehm (1981) reported reactance as existing on a continuum versus being dichotomous. Brehm and Brehm (1981) did demonstrate a significant relationship between high levels of psychological reactance and internal locus of control.

Control also is a factor in research examining reactance and Seligman's (1975) construct of learned helplessness. Wortman and Brehm (1975) showed that individuals faced with only a few failures still have an expectation of control over outcomes, thereby improving performance because of their reactant response. But, individuals faced with many failures experience a loss of control, manifested in learned helplessness, and performance deficits.

Psychological reactance has been associated with numerous personality variables. Hannah, Hannah, and Wattie (1976) found reactance was displayed when participants were told choice follows "personality" and not free will. Participants changed their ratings on an aesthetic preferences scale when their original ratings, supposedly predicted by a spurious personality test, were devalued. Brehm and Brehm (1981) demonstrated a positive correlation between reactance and Type A behavior. Dowd and Wallbrown (1993) showed that highly reactant individuals were more likely to exhibit Type A

characteristics like defensiveness, dominance, aggression, and autonomy. These apparently negative characteristics were balanced by the fact that reactant persons were more likely to take action and be leaders in society. Several studies indicate reactant individuals view themselves as self-confident, aggressive, domineering, and independent (Buboltz, Woller, & Pepper, 1999); Dowd et al., 1993; Dowd et al., 1994). Seemann, Buboltz, and Thomas (under review) found a negative relationship between reactance and agreeableness and a positive relationship between reactance and extraversion. Additionally, Joubert (1990) found that reactant individuals are more likely to respond in antagonistic manner when threatened. Joubert (1990) also demonstrated a positive relationship between reactance and loneliness and a negative relationship between reactance and self-esteem. Shaver and Rubenstein (1980) found that loneliness and self-esteem are inversely correlated.

Buboltz et al., (1999) examined reactance in the context of Holland's personality types and found that higher levels of reactance were exhibited in individuals with the Investigative (analytical, independent, intellectually oriented, and curious) and Enterprising (adventurous, domineering, self-confident, ambitious) types. On the other hand, individuals who were cooperative, empathetic, sociable, friendly, and helpful (Social type) were lower in reactance levels. In 1983, Merz demonstrated that reactance is positively correlated with autonomy and insecurity. The body of research that includes reactance and various personality variables indicates a complex relationship between personality and reactance. It is apparent that highly reactant individuals exhibit personality characteristics viewed positively and negatively by society.

In addition to the apparent relationships between reactance and personality characteristics, research has linked psychological reactance to a number of personality disorders. Seibel and Dowd (2001) demonstrated a positive relationship between reactance and borderline personality traits. They also found low levels of reactance in individuals exhibiting dependent personality traits, as did Huck (1998). Several studies showed a positive association between reactance and antisocial behaviors (Huck, 1998; Mallon, 1992; Seemann (2004). Seemann (2004) also demonstrated a positive relationship between psychological reactance and passive-aggressive and aggressive personality styles.

Psychological reactance has been studied within the context of various demographic variables including age, gender, and cultural differences. Because the bulk of reactance research has been conducted with university students (Hong, 1990), little empirical evidence exists to establish a strong link between reactance and age. However, Hong et al.(1993) tested Brehm and Brehm's (1981) hypothesis that older persons might be better equipped to manage reactance responses. Hong et al. (1990) found that, in their study of 1,749 adult subjects, younger persons were more likely than older persons to be highly reactant.

In researching the existence of a relationship between reactance and gender, studies that have shown a difference generally indicate that men are more reactant than women (Joubert, 1990; Loucka, 1991; Mallon, 1992). Mallon (1992) and Loucka (1991) found men to be more reactant than women using the Therapeutic Reactance Scale (TRS). Loucka (1991) also demonstrated this finding using the Questionnaire for the Measurement of Psychological Reactance (QMPR). Several other studies support these

studies (Dowd & Wallbrown, 1993; Joubert, 1990; Seemann, Buboltz, & Flye, under review; Seemann, Buboltz, Jenkins, Soper, & Woller, 2004). However, several studies (Hong & Page, 1989; Hong, 1990; Hong, Giannakopoulos, Laing, & Williams, 1994) found no significant differences in reactance between men and women. Dowd et al. (1994) speculated that gender differences in reactance levels of men and women might be the results of gender role socialization patterns.

Only a few studies have reported cultural or ethnic difference with regard to reactance. Seemann et al. (under review) demonstrated a higher level of reactance in African American subjects than in Caucasian subjects. Dowd (1995) reported higher levels of reactance in German students than in American students.

Psychological reactance has been shown as an important variable in therapy (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Seemann, et al., 2000; Seibel & Dowd, 1999). Seibel and Dowd (1999) showed a strong positive relationship between reactance and premature termination of therapy while demonstrating a negative relationship between reactance and overall therapeutic improvement. Additionally, they found a very weak association between reactance and compliance and collaborative behaviors. While their study indicates that different processes and techniques should be used depending on the reactance level of the client, they did demonstrate that therapy is effective for highly reactant clients. Dowd and Sanders (1994) suggest that clients low in reactance would benefit from compliance-based interventions (homework, practice exercises) more than highly reactant individuals. They further posit that defiance-based approaches might be more appropriately used in highly reactant clients.

Beutler (1979) related reactance in therapy to resistance. The basis for many therapeutic interventions is submission or the surrender of control to the therapist (Prochaska & Norcross, 1999). Highly reactant individuals might exhibit reactant responses because they perceive the therapeutic process as a threat to personal freedoms. Their attempts to regain control of those freedoms can take the form of resistance in therapy. Brehm (1976) endorsed teaching reactance theory to clients to help demonstrate how clients struggle to maintain control of pathological feelings and behaviors. Brehm (1976) specifies several theoretical frameworks, including psychoanalysis, behavior modification, and paradoxical intent, in which reactance acts as a form of resistance. It should be noted that Dowd and Sanders (1994) and Seemann (2004) stipulate that reactance and resistance are not interchangeable terms. Reactance is a motivational force that might act as one of many forms of resistance.

Courchaine, Loucka, and Dowd (1995) found that clients' levels of reactance were more likely to affect the working alliance between the client and therapist than the actual technique used in therapy. They further found that highly reactant clients reported less positive ratings of therapists than clients lower in reactance. Seibel and Dowd (1999) demonstrated a greater likelihood for highly reactant clients to prematurely terminate therapy. Morgan (1986), however, reported that reactant clients are more likely to stay in therapy longer because they are less successful in therapy. But, similar to the results found by Seibel and Dowd (1999), Morgan (1986) did see a higher incidence of missed appointments by highly reactant individuals. Although reactance does appear to be related to some potential problems in therapy, resourceful therapists can use reactance as

part of the therapeutic process to help ensure better therapeutic outcomes for reactant clients.

With respect to general well-being, reactance appears to have an effect on individuals' help-seeking and clinical compliance behaviors. Several studies have shown an association between high reactance levels and medical noncompliance (Fogarty & Youngs, 2000; Graybar et al., 1988; Rhodewalt & Davison, 1983; Rhodewalt & Strube, 1985; Rhodewalt & Marcroft, 1988). In a study of running-related injuries, Rhodewalt and Strube (1985) found that reactant subjects were more likely to be noncompliant with physicians' advice. Rhodewalt and Marcroft (1988) found that highly reactant diabetic patients were less likely to follow their doctors' orders than those scoring lower in reactance.

In a study of unemployed subjects, Baum, Fleming, and Reddy (1986) demonstrated subjects' high levels of reactance resulting from unemployment-related stressors early. However, as their unemployment period lengthened, subjects appeared more likely to exhibit learned helplessness when faced with unemployment-related stressors. In another vocationally themed study, Sachau, Houlihan, and Gilbertson (1999) indicated reactance as the best predictor of employees' self-reports of complaints against supervisors.

Theory of Relationship Beliefs

History of Relationship Beliefs. Relationships have existed for as long as people have. For as long as people have had relationships, they have sought the ideal relationship and the best way to achieve it. The formal study of relationships is relatively young (Hendrick, 1988). Psychologists have studied relationships from a number of

perspectives: relationship development (Philbrick & Leon, 1991), satisfaction (Locke & Wallace, 1959; Snyder, 1979), closeness (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989), and quality (Glenn, 1990; Norton, 1983.

Additionally, relationship analysis has included the research of cognition within relationships (Epstein & Eidelson, 1981; Fletcher, 1993). In fact, the cognitive aspects of relationships have been studied extensively (Baltimore, 1995; Dryden, 1981; Eidelson & Epstein, 1982; Ellis & Harper, 1975; Epstein & Eidelson, 1981). Some studies have focused on irrational or dysfunctional beliefs in relationships (Eidelson & Epstein, 1982; Romans & DeBord, 1995). Research of relationship beliefs has emerged as one of the more common contexts within which relationships are studied.

Various instruments measuring beliefs about close relationships approach the construct from different viewpoints. Eidelson and Epstein's Relationship Belief Inventory (RBI) is comprised of items measuring individuals' beliefs about their own relationships *and* general beliefs about all close relationships (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992). Conversely, the Relationship Beliefs Questionnaire (Romans & DeBord, 1995) measures one's beliefs about only his or her own relationship, but, like the RBI, it focuses on beliefs detrimental to successful relationships. The failure of some studies to make this difference clear was criticized by Baucom, Epstein, Sayers, and Sher (1989), who concluded that the "tendency to ignore or blur the distinction" between specific and general relationship beliefs resulted in a lack of progress in the study of close relationships. This study will focus on both specific and general relationship beliefs.

Operational Definition of Relationship Beliefs. Just as relationships have been studied from many angles, relationship beliefs have been researched from several points-

of-view (Wood, 2004). These include same-sex platonic relationships (Markiewicz, Doyle, & Brendgen, 2001; Noack, Krettek, & Walper, 2001), opposite-sex platonic relationships (Paz Galupo & St. John, 2001) marital relationships (Derbyshire, 1996; Kenny & Acetelli, 1994), heterosexual romantic relationships (Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto, 1989; Cramer, 2002; Cramer, 2003; Fletcher et al., 1999;), homosexual romantic relationships (Mackey, Diemer, & O'Brien, 2000), and unspecified relationships (Beesley & Stoltenberg, 2002). This study will expressly research general and specific relationship beliefs in heterosexual intimate relationships.

Further, researchers have examined relationship beliefs that are "normal" (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992), "ideal" (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999), and "maladaptive" (DeBord & Romans, 1994; Eidelson & Epstein,). This study will specifically examine maladaptive relationship beliefs. Maladaptive relationship beliefs are beliefs about one's own or any intimate relationship that are detrimental to the health of relationships. Kurdek (1993) defined unrealistic relationship beliefs as predisposed beliefs that lead to irrational interpretation of relationship events.

Research of Relationship Beliefs. Fletcher et al., (1999) reported that individuals might not discover serious differences between them until they have entered into a serious relationship. With respect to relationship beliefs, differences can lead to relationship dissatisfaction (Stackert & Bursik, 2003). Thibaut and Kelley (1959) suggested individuals should compromise their beliefs. Although compromise appears to be a fair solution, it can make one or both partners feel as though they have lost individuality (Saffrey et al., 2003).

Not all research of relationship beliefs centers on dysfunctional or irrational beliefs. Fletcher and Kininmonth (1992) chose to investigate general relationship beliefs, both constructive and destructive, that impact relationships. In contrast to the RBI and the RBQ, Fletcher & Kininmonth's Relationship Beliefs Survey (RBS, 1992) was developed to examine only ones' general relationship beliefs and it focuses on beliefs held regarding all close relationships, not just the relationship in which one currently finds himself or herself.

The study of relationship beliefs has led to questions of how relationship beliefs are formed. Frazier and Esterly (1990) found that relationship beliefs are mediated by gender and personality, but are better predicted by actual relationship experience. Kurdek and Schmitt (1986) demonstrated a significant relationship between gender role and dysfunctional relationship beliefs. They demonstrated that relationship partners with feminine or undifferentiated gender roles are more likely to believe that disagreement is destructive or that partners cannot change than partners with androgynous gender roles. Additionally, androgynous partners reported greater relationship satisfaction than any other combination of gender roles in a relationship.

Sullivan and Schwebel (1996) studied the relationships between birth-order, gender, and irrational relationship beliefs. They reported that birth order contributes to a unique set of cognitions about how relationships function. Specifically, they found that firstborn children hold more irrational relationship beliefs than lastborn children. And, they showed that middle born men held more irrational relationship beliefs than middle born women. With respect to gender alone, men were shown to have more irrational relationship beliefs than women (Sullivan & Scwhebel, 1996). Stackert and Bursik

(2003) reported a relationship between irrational relationship beliefs and attachment style.

Another contributor to the formation of relationship beliefs is the marital status of an individual's parents. Mahl (2001) reported that painful parental divorce can lead to maladaptive relationship beliefs. Gabardi and Rosen (1992) also found that adults who experienced conflict after their parents' divorce are more likely to hold negative relationship beliefs. Conversely, adult children of divorced parents who experience successful remarriages are more likely to develop rational relationship beliefs (Mahl, 2001). Adult children of parents who remained in marital conflict also appear more likely to have negative beliefs about relationships (Gabardi & Rosen, 1992).

Various psychological variables appear to influence the formation of relationship beliefs. Mullin (2000) related incidence of depression to maladaptive relationship beliefs. Moderately depressed individuals were shown to hold more maladaptive relationship beliefs than non-depressed or severely depressed individuals. Baltimore (1995) found that stress is positively related to dysfunctional relationship beliefs. Baltimore (1995) also showed that hardiness and coping style are negatively related to dysfunctional relationship beliefs. Murray, Holmes, Griffin, Bellavia, and Rose (2001) demonstrated that individuals struggling with self-doubt are more likely to hold faulty perceptions about their partners and their partners' feelings toward them. As a result, they experienced less relationship satisfaction and tended to be less optimistic about the future of their relationships.

Maladaptive relationship beliefs have been associated with problem-solving (Bushman, 1999; Metts & Cupach, 1990). Metts and Cupach (1990) demonstrated a

positive relationship between destructive problem-solving responses and two dysfunctional relationship beliefs: disagreement is destructive and partners cannot change. Further, problem-solving responses were found to mediate the relationship between relationship satisfaction and dysfunctional relationship beliefs. Bushman (1999) also demonstrated that men and women who adhere to the relationship beliefs that disagreement is destructive and partners cannot change are more likely to rely on destructive problem-solving techniques. Bushman (1999) further found that women are more likely to use destructive problem-solving techniques if they adhere to the dysfunctional relationship belief that mind reading is expected.

Research has linked relationship beliefs to perfectionism. Flett, Hewitt, Shapiro, & Rayman, 2001) found that perfectionists are more likely to have high relationship standards and beliefs than non-perfectionists. These rigid relationship beliefs were also related to difficulty in adjusting to new relationships.

Maladaptive relationship beliefs have been associated with other relational measures linked to relationship satisfaction. Relationship adjustment is negatively associated with maladaptive relationship beliefs (Moeller & Van Zyl, 1991). Similarly, Haferkamp reported a negative association between relationship satisfaction and two relationship beliefs, disagreement is destructive and partners cannot change. Conversely, positive relationship beliefs are related to adjustment problems when relationships end (Helgeson, 1994).

Distress in relationships can be predicted by dysfunctional relationship beliefs (Haferkamp, 1994; Holtzworth & Stuart, 1994). Although Holtzworth and Stuart (1994) were not able to establish a significant relationship between relationship beliefs and

violence in relationships, they did positively correlate relational distress with maladaptive relationship beliefs.

Jacobsen and Margolin (1979) found that irrational relationship beliefs, specifically the belief that one's spouse is incapable of change, might lead spouses engaged in marital therapy to conclude that treatment can not be effective, thereby causing them to prematurely terminate therapy. They also posited that behaviorally oriented therapy is more successful when the therapist modifies the spouses' unrealistic beliefs. Epstein and Eidelson (1981) also found that clients' unrealistic beliefs about relationships diminish their expectations for success in marital therapy and their desire to continue, versus terminate, therapy. Studies also have shown that dysfunction in relationships is associated with the failure of a relationship to meet spouses' expectations (O'Leary & Turkewitz, 1978; Sager, 1976).

There is some evidence that maladaptive relationship beliefs can be modified. Doherty (1997) sought to determine the effect of therapy on relationship beliefs. Specifically, Doherty (1997) demonstrated a significant decrease in maladaptive relationship beliefs following premarital education. The specific relationship beliefs that were affected are disagreement is destructive, mind reading is expected, and partners cannot change. Although maladaptive beliefs were altered, there were no measurable differences in the way the couples interacted. Education about relationship beliefs appears to reduce maladaptive beliefs (Sharp & Ganong, 2000). Maladaptive relationship beliefs were reduced in both the experimental and the control groups.

Hypotheses

The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) has four subscales: Success, Power, and Competition (SPC), Restrictive Emotionality (RE), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Women (RABBM/RABBW), and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (CBWF). The GRCS also yields an overall measure of Gender Role Conflict (GRC). The Therapeutic Reactance Scale consists of two components: Verbal Reactance (VR) and Behavioral Reactance (BR). Additionally, a total Therapeutic Reactance score (TR) is computed. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory has five factors: Disagreement is Destructive (D), Mindreading is Expected (M), Partners Cannot Change (C), Sexual Perfectionism (S), and the Sexes are Different (MF).

The review of related literature led to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1

Gender role conflict will be significantly related to maladaptive relationship beliefs.

Justification for Hypothesis 1. Research has indicated that relationship beliefs are influenced by intrapsychic (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992) and environmental factors (Fincham, Bradbury, & Scott, 1990; Fletcher & Fincham, 1991; Franklin, Janoff-Bulman, & Roberts, 1990; Harvey, Agostinello, & Weber, 1989; Miller & Read, 1991). Several factors important in relationships have been related to gender role conflict in psychological literature: relationship dissatisfaction (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Cramer, 2002; Mintz & Mahalik, 1996), intimacy problems (Chartier & Arnold, 1985; O'Neil, 1982; Sileo, 1996), maladaptive interpersonal behaviors (Berko, 1994; Mahalik, 1996; O'Neil & Good, 1997), and divorce (Mackey et al., 2000).

Hypothesis 2

Reactance will be significantly related to maladaptive relationship beliefs.

Justification for Hypothesis 2. Psychological research has indicated a relationship between psychological reactance and relationship beliefs. Hockenberry and Billingham (1992) demonstrated that high levels of reactance correlate with relationship conflict. Seibel's (1994) study indicates that highly reactant individuals enjoy less success in interpersonal relationships than individuals with lower levels of reactance. Derbyshire (1997) found that highly reactant individuals also tend to exhibit behavior patterns that are inconsistent with successful relationship management.

Hypothesis 3

Gender role conflict will be significantly related to reactance.

Justification for Hypothesis 3. Several components of gender role conflict are related to active or passive attempts by a gender role conflicted individual to exert control over others (O'Neil, 1982). Psychological reactance theory is permeated by the theme of control (Seemann, 2003). Additionally, both of these constructs appear to differ in individuals according to gender (Dowd & Wallbrown, 1993; Joubert, 1990; Pinhas, Weaver, Bryden, Ghabbour, & Toner, 2002; Rustemeyer, 2001; Seemann, Buboltz, Jenkins, Soper, & Woller, 2004). Studying the hypothesized relationship between gender role conflict and psychological reactance can lead to information of therapeutic value with respect to clients with interpersonal relationship issues.

Hypothesis 4

Reactance moderates the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

Justification for Hypothesis 4. Wood et al. (2000) discussed similarities between attitudes toward women and gender role conflict. Wood (2004) demonstrated significant moderating effects of attitudes toward women on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. Negative attitudes toward women and psychological reactance have been associated with issues of control (Seemann, 2003; Valentine, 1999). Inherent in psychological reactance theory is the implication that "lost" free behaviors might be taken by or surrendered to another person with whom one has a relationship. This assumption further implies a moderating relationship in which reactance changes the direction and strength of the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to determine the individual and corporate effects of gender role conflict and psychological reactance on relationship beliefs. Gender role conflict was being measured using the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS: O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986). Psychological reactance was measured with the Therapeutic Reactance Scale (TRS; Dowd, Milne, & Wise, 1991). Relationship beliefs were measured using the Relationship Belief Inventory (RBI; Eidelson & Epstein, 1981).

Participants

Participants were recruited to volunteer from undergraduate psychology classes at Louisiana Tech University. Participation was completely voluntary. Participants were treated in accordance with the ethical guidelines established by the American Psychological Association (APA, 1992). All participants were guaranteed anonymity. Survey packets approved by the university's institutional review board were distributed in class to approximately 150 males and 150 females. The survey packet consisted of a consent form explaining the nature of the study, a demographics questionnaire, and the three instruments of interest, the GRCS, TRS, and RBI. Participants were asked to read and sign the consent form before completing the demographic questionnaire and surveys.

All collected data were held in confidence. Data were analyzed collectively; no data were analyzed individually.

Instrumentation

Gender Role Conflict Scale

The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) is a 37-item self-report scale with Likert-type responses ranging from (1) strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." The instrument was designed to measure males' gender role conflict within the context of four factors (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). It was later adapted for use with females. Four subscales emerged from a factor analysis: Success, Power, and Competition (SPC, 13 items) measures one's emphasis on achievement, authority over others, and competition against others. Restrictive Emotionality (RE; 10 items) is a measure of one's self-disclosure and difficulty in the expression of one's emotions. Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women (RABBM/RABBW; 8 items) measure the degree of discomfort associated with emotional expression toward members of the same sex. Finally, Conflicts Between Work and Family (CBWF; 6 items) measures an individual's distress caused by the intrusion of work or school into his or her family life. An overall GRCS score and subscales are obtained by adding the scores of all items or the subscale items, respectively. Higher scores indicate higher levels of gender role conflict.

The four factors of the GRCS explain 36% of the total variance (O'Neil et al., 1986). O'Neil et al. (1986) reported internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha ranging from .75 to .85. They further demonstrated four-week test-retest reliabilities for each factor ranging from .72 to .86. Good et al. (1995) determined concurrent validity by

comparing the GRCS with the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Therapeutic Reactance Scale

The Therapeutic Reactance Scale (TRS; Dowd et al., 1991) is a 28-item self-report scale designed to measure psychological reactance. The items are scored on a four point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (4) strongly agree. Administration of the TRS generates three scores: Behavioral Reactance (BR; 17 items), Verbal Reactance (VR; 11 items), and Total Reactance (TR; 28 items). The factors were derived through factor analysis. Scores are obtained by adding the responses to applicable items for each measure. Eight items are reverse scored.

Dowd et al. (1991) reported internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha for the TRS ranging from .75 to .84. Test-retest reliability ranges from .57 to .60. However, one-week test-retest reliability of .76 was reported by Lukin, Dowd, Plake, and Kraft (1985). Several studies have demonstrated the construct validity of the TRS (Buboltz et al., 1999; Huck, 1998; Seibel & Dowd, 1999).

A mean Total Reactance score of 66.68 and a standard deviation of 6.59 was found in the original norming sample (N = 211). A second norming sample of 150 students produced a mean score of 68.87 with a standard deviation of 7.19. Other studies have produced similar means and standard deviations (Buboltz et al., 1999; Huck, 1998; Seemann et al., under review).

Relationship Beliefs Inventory

The Relationship Beliefs Inventory (RBI; Eidelson & Epstein, 1981) was developed as a measure of dysfunctional beliefs about intimate relationships. Its 40 items

are scored using a Likert-type scale ranging from (0) "I strongly believe that the statement is false" to (5) "I strongly believe that the statement is true." Fifteen items are reverse scored. Scores are obtained by totaling items from the five subscales, derived from factor analysis. Higher scores indicate more maladaptive relationship beliefs (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

Each of the five subscales is composed of eight items. The subscale Disagreement is Destructive (D) is a measure of partners' beliefs that discrepancies in opinions, attitudes, or values threaten the security of the relationship. Mindreading is Expected (M) measures the degree to which partners believe their mate should be know needs and preferences without clear communication. Partners Cannot Change (C) measures beliefs about mates' ability to change themselves or the relationship. Sexual perfectionism (S) measures the degree to which partners believe they must be "perfect" sexual partners. Finally, the Sexes are Different (MF) measure beliefs about significant differences in men and women that lead to stereotyped expectations and perceptions.

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire consisted of questions eliciting standard demographic and other information deemed important to this study. Standard information includes age, gender, college level and grade-point average, and race. Additionally, participants were asked to report their marital status, parents' marital status, relationship status, and person primarily responsible for their rearing. These variables were included because of their particular relevance to this study.

Eidelson and Epstein (1981) demonstrated reliability using Cronbach's alpha ranging from .72 to .81. Coefficients for the subscales are as follows: D = .81; M = .75; C

= .76; S = .72; MF = .72. They found convergent validity by comparing the scale to the Irrational Beliefs Test (IBT; Jones, 1968) for all subscales except The Sexes are Different. Evidence of construct validity was obtained using the Marital Adjustment Scale (MAS; Locke & Wallace, 1959) to compare.

Procedure

Participants read and signed a consent form explaining the purpose of the study and guaranteeing their anonymity, as well as their right to refuse participation. They were assured that all data would be confidential and that results would be reported collectively only. Contents of the packet differed only with respect to the GRCS, which has a male and female version.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed to determine relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs. Analysis examined relationships between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs, psychological reactance and maladaptive relationship beliefs, gender role conflict and reactance, and the moderating effects of psychological reactance on the relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs.

The data were analyzed using canonical correlations and hierarchical regressions. Tabachnik and Fidell (2001) described canonical correlation as a statistical technique designed to examine the relationship between several continuous dependent variables and several continuous independent variables. Cross-loadings greater than .30 indicated relative importance of the variables. Tabachnik and Fidell (2001) described hierarchical regression as a statistical technique in which independent variables are prioritized based

on prior research and theoretical justification to assess their contributions in predicting the dependent variables. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze potential gender differences related to the other analyses. An alpha level of .05 determined significance for all analyses.

Hypotheses One through Three

Hypotheses one, two, and three were analyzed using canonical correlations. Results were analyzed separately according to gender.

Hypothesis 1. The relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs was assessed with canonical correlations using the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Relationship Beliefs Inventory as variables. Four subscale scores were obtained from the GRCS: Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women; and Conflicts Between Work and Family Issues. Five subscale scores were obtained from the RBI: Disagreement is Destructive; Mindreading is Expected; Partners Cannot Change; Sexual Perfectionism; and The Sexes are Different. The four subscales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale served as the first canonical variate. Subscales of the Relationship Beliefs Inventory served as the other canonical variate.

Hypothesis 2. The relationship between psychological reactance and maladaptive relationship beliefs was determined through canonical correlations using the Therapeutic Reactance Scale and the Relationship Beliefs Inventory as variables. Two subscales were obtained from the Therapeutic Reactance Scale: Verbal Reactance and Behavioral Reactance. The scores of these subscales were used as the first canonical variate. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory yielded scores for five subscales including Disagreement

is Destructive, Mindreading is Expected, Partners Cannot Change, Sexual Perfectionism, and The Sexes are Different. These subscale scores were used as the other canonical variate.

Hypothesis 3. The Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Therapeutic Reactance Scale were analyzed using canonical correlations to determine the relationship between gender role conflict and psychological reactance. Subscales of the GRCS included Success, Power, and Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Issues. Verbal Reactance and Behavioral Reactance scores will be derived from the Therapeutic Reactance Scale. Subscale scores from the GRCS were the first canonical variate; subscale and total scores from the TRS were the other canonical variate.

Hypothesis Four

Hierarchical regression was used to test Hypothesis Four. Results were analyzed separately according to gender.

Hypothesis 4. The moderating effect of psychological reactance on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs was determined using the Therapeutic Reactance Scale, Gender Role Conflict Scale, and Relationship Beliefs Inventory. Moderating effects reflect the tendency of psychological reactance to change the direction and strength of the relationship between two variables (Baron & Kenny, 1985), gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. Effects of gender role conflict were blocked against the components of relationship beliefs. Then, psychological reactance was blocked against the components of relationship beliefs. Finally, the interactions between gender role conflict and psychological reactance were entered. Interactions that

add incremental variance indicate psychological reactance moderates the effects of gender role conflict on relationship beliefs.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Participants

Participants in this study consisted of student volunteers enrolled in undergraduate classes. From an initial sample of 350 subjects, data from 346 participants were retained for analysis. Four participants were excluded for failure to complete the surveys.

Male Participants

One hundred forty-nine males ranging in age from 15 to 44 participated in the current study. The mean age was 20.18 with a standard deviation of 2.86. Males accounted for 43% of the overall sample. The male sample consisted of 116 Caucasian Americans (77.9%), 19 African Americans (12.8%), 6 Asian Americans (4.0%), 2 Latino (1.3%), 2 Native Americans (1.3%), and 4 males (2.7%) who did not indicate an ethnic background.

Male participants consisted of 67 Freshmen (45%), 31 Sophomores (20.8%), 29 Juniors (19.5%), and 22 Seniors (14.8%). One hundred forty-three males (96%) were single and 6 (4%) were married. Of the overall sample, 76 males (51%) reported they currently were not in an intimate relationship; 73 (49%) reported they were currently in an intimate relationship.

Female Participants

One hundred ninety-seven females ranging in age from 18 to 54 participated in the current study. The mean age was 20.51 with a standard deviation of 3.69. Females accounted for 57% of the overall sample. The female sample consisted of 157 Caucasian Americans (79.7%), 24 African Americans (12.2%), 7 Asian Americans (3.6%), 3 Latino (1.5%), 2 Native Americans (1.0%), and 3 females (1.5%) who did not indicate an ethnic background.

Female participants consisted of 84 Freshmen (42.6%), 39 Sophomores (19.8%), 37 Juniors (18.8%), and 34 Seniors (17.3%). One hundred seventy-seven (89.8%) were single and 18 (9.1%) were married. Of the overall sample, 70 females (35.5%) reported they currently were not in an intimate relationship; 127 (64.5%) reported they were currently in an intimate relationship.

Results

The present study investigated the relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs. The results are presented in this chapter. Gender differences were assessed and are presented in Table 1. Significant gender differences were found for three subscales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale, both subscales of the Therapeutic Reactance Scale, and one scale of the Relationship Beliefs Inventory. Because a number of significant gender differences were found, data were analyzed separately for males and females.

Table 1

Gender Differences

Variables	Mean		*F*	*df*	*p*
	Males	Females			
Gender Role Conflict					
SPC	51.75	47.81	10.60	342	.001
RE	32.31	28.19	11.95	319	.001
RABBM/W	28.89	20.95	65.73	334	.000
CBWF	21.16	21.20	.004	341	.952
Psychological Reactance	70.58	66.63	26.43	336	.000
BR	39.67	36.77	27.61	338	.000
VR	30.91	29.84	8.47	343	.004
Relationship Beliefs					
D	14.63	13.52	2.61	341	.107
M	17.48	16.49	2.23	340	.136
C	14.79	14.22	.93	336	.337
S	18.67	15.57	19.96	314	.000
MF	21.37	21.49	.03	340	.861

Note: SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM/W = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different; *F* = F ratio of ANOVA; *df* = degrees of freedom; *p* = probability

Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities

Significant Gender Differences

Scores of males and females differed significantly on several variables. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, males and females demonstrated significant differences for three subscales: Success, Power, and Competition, F (1, 344) = 10.604, p = <.001; Restrictive Emotionality, F (1,321) = 11.952, p = <.001; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women, F, (1,335) = 65.732, p = <.001. Total scores on the Therapeutic Reactance Scale differed significantly, F (1,338) = 26.443, p = <.001. Of the five subscales of the Relationship Beliefs Inventory, scores on only one scale, Sexual Perfectionism, differed significantly, F (1,316) = 19.964, p = <.001.

Male Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities

Table 2 presents a summary for males and females of the means, standard deviations, and reliability coefficients of the Gender Role Conflict Scale, Therapeutic Reactance Scale, and the Relationship Beliefs Inventory. Means and standard deviations for the Gender Role Conflict Scale subscales were as follows: Success, Power, and Competition (M = 51.75, SD = 10.71); Restrictive Emotionality (M = 32.31, SD = 10.33); Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (M = 28.89, SD = 9.21), Conflicts Between Work and Family (M = 21.168, SD = 6.66). Means and standard deviations from the initial validation study (O'Neil et al., 1981) were similar. O'Neil et al. (1981) found mean scores on Success, Power, and Competition ranging from 50.28 to 56.68 with standard deviations ranging from 8.97 to 11.77. Means on Restrictive Emotionality ranged from 26.33 to 34.09 with standard deviations ranging from 8.08 to 9.24. The initial study's Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men means ranged from 27.04

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviation, and Internal Consistencies of the Variables

Variables	Males			Females		
	M	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*	α
Gender Role Conflict						
SPC	51.75	10.71	.84	47.81	11.48	.86
RE	32.31	10.33	.87	28.19	10.82	.88
RABBM/W	28.89	9.21	.87	20.95	8.66	.86
CBWF	21.16	6.66	.81	21.20	6.04	.77
Psychological Reactance	70.58	6.91	.69	66.63	7.08	.75
BR	39.67	5.07	.62	36.77	5.03	.69
VR	30.91	3.39	.57	29.84	3.30	.54
Relationship Beliefs						
D	14.63	6.63	.78	13.52	6.05	.74
M	17.48	6.09	.69	16.49	6.11	.72
C	14.79	5.70	.62	14.22	5.17	.58
S	18.67	6.79	.69	15.57	5.59	.57
MF	21.37	6.41	.59	21.49	5.80	.49

Note: SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM/W = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; α = alpha

to 31.39 with standard deviations ranging from 6.87 to 9.22. Their Conflicts Between Work and Family means ranged from 20.87 to 21.95 with standard deviations ranging from 5.32 to 6.60. In the present study, internal consistencies of the subscales ranged from .81 to .87 and are within acceptable ranges.

The mean and standard deviation for the Therapeutic Reactance Scale was M = 70.58, SD = 6.91. The original norming sample (N = 211) produced a mean of 66.68 and a standard deviation of 6.59 (Dowd et al., 1991). A second norming sample (N = 150) produced a mean score of 68.87 with a standard deviation of 7.19. The scale's internal consistency was .69, slightly lower than ranges of .75 to .84, reported by Dowd et al. (1991).

For the current study, means and standard deviations for the Relationship Beliefs Inventory were as follows: Disagreement is Destructive (M = 14.63, SD = 6.63); Mindreading is Expected (M = 17.48, SD = 6.09); Partners Cannot Change (M = 14.79, SD = 5.70); Sexual Perfectionism (M = 18.67, SD = 6.79); Sexes are Different (M = 21.37, SD = 6.41). These results are slightly lower than those demonstrated by Wood (2004) on the following scales: Disagreement is Destructive (M = 15.67, SD = 5.42); Mindreading is Expected (M = 18.16, SD = 4.94); Partners Cannot Change (M = 15.94, SD = 4.23); Sexual Perfectionism (M = 19.38.67, SD = 5.14); Wood's (2004) mean score of 21.12 (SD = 5.27) on the Sexes are Different scale was virtually the same. However, the original norming sample (N = 200; Eidelson & Epstein, 1982) produced means and standard deviations slightly lower than those of the present study. They were: Disagreement is Destructive (M = 13.07, SD = 5.77); Mindreading is Expected (M = 14.97, SD = 5.14); Partners Cannot Change (M = 11.38, SD = 5.23); Sexual

Perfectionism (M = 16.63, SD = 5.56); Sexes are Different (M = 13.38, SD = 5.78). Internal consistencies in the current study ranged from .59 to .78. and are within acceptable ranges.

Female Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities

Table 2 presents a summary of the means, standard deviations, and reliability coefficients of the Gender Role Conflict Scale, Therapeutic Reactance Scale, and the Relationship Beliefs Inventory for males and females. Means and standard deviations for the Gender Role Conflict Scale subscales were as follows: Success, Power, and Competition (M = 47.81, SD = 11.47); Restrictive Emotionality (M = 28.19, SD = 10.82); Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women (M = 20.94, SD = 8.66), Conflicts Between Work and Family (M = 21.20, SD = 6.04). Internal consistencies of the subscales range from .77 to .88 and are within acceptable ranges. Means, standard deviations, and internal consistencies are similar to those demonstrated by Good and Mintz (1990).

The mean and standard deviation for the Therapeutic Reactance Scale was M = 66. 63, SD = 7.08. The scale's internal consistency was .75. Means and standard deviations for the Relationship Beliefs Inventory were as follows: Disagreement is Destructive (M = 13.52. SD = 6.05); Mindreading is Expected (M = 16.49, SD = 6.112); Partners Cannot Change (M = 14.22, SD = 5.17); Sexual Perfectionism (M = 15.57, SD = 5.59); Sexes are Different (M = 21.49, SD = 5.80). These results are slightly lower than those demonstrated by Haferkamp (1999) and Wood (2004). Internal consistencies ranged from .49 to .74.

Correlations Among Variables

Correlations Among Variables for Males

Intercorrelations of the variables for males are presented in Table 3. Two significant correlations were found between demographic variables and subscale scores for males. Age was correlated significantly with the Gender Role Conflict Scale's Conflicts Between Work and Family ($r = .25, p < .01$). Grade-point average also was correlated significantly with Conflicts Between Work and Family ($r = .21, p < .05$).

The Success, Power and Competition scale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale was correlated significantly with Restrictive Emotionality ($r = .26, p < .01$), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($r = .36, p < .01$), and Conflicts Between Work and Family ($r = .43, p < .01$). Success, Power, and Competition also was correlated significantly with Psychological Reactance ($r = .23, p < .01$) and The Relationship Beliefs Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .35, p < .01$), Mindreading is Expected ($r = .28, p < .01$), Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .43, p < .01$), and the Sexes are Different ($r = .17, p < .05$). Restrictive Emotionality was correlated significantly with Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($r = .34, p < .01$), Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .28, p < .01$), Partners Cannot Change ($r = .24, p < .01$), Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .18, p < .05$) and the Sexes are Different ($r = .21, p < .05$). Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men was correlated significantly with Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .21, p < .05$), Partners Cannot Change ($r = .18, p < .05$), and the Sexes are Different ($r = .28, p < .01$). Conflicts Between Work and Family was correlated significantly with Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .27, p < .01$), Mindreading is Expected ($r = .23, p < .01$), and Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .18, p < .05$).

Table 3

Correlation Matrix for All Variables for Males

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	1.00	.15	-.01	.03	-.02	.25*	-.03	-.06	.03	.08	-.06	.06	-.08	.02
2. GPA		1.00	.04	-.02	-.12	.21*	-.02	.03	-.09	-.04	.08	-.17	-.01	-.12
3. SPC			1.00	.26*	.36*	.43	.23*	.23*	.14	.35*	.28*	.07*	.43*	-.17*
4. RE				1.00	.34*	.16	.05	.12	-.06	.28*	.03	.24*	.18*	.21*
5. RAB					1.00	.16	.07	.12	-.05	.21*	.12	.18*	.15	.28*
6. CBW						1.00	.07	.07	.05	.27*	.23*	.02	.18*	-.04
7. TRST							1.00	.88*	.72*	.23*	.09	.24*	.09	.08
8. BR								1.00	.31*	.23*	.15	.24*	.10	.14
9. VR									1.00	.13	-.06	.14	.04	-.04
10. D										1.00	.51*	.32*	.27*	.01
11. M											1.00	.01	.29*	.06
12. C												1.00	.15	.27*
13. S													1.00	.21*
14. MF														1.00

Note : SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RAB = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBW = Conflicts Between Work and Family; TRST = Total Reactance; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different; * p , .05 two-tailed

Psychological Reactance was correlated significantly with the Relationship Beliefs Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .23, p < .01$) and Partners Cannot Change ($r = .24, p < .01$). The Relationship Beliefs Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive scale was correlated significantly with Mindreading is Expected ($r = .51, p, < .01$), Partners Cannot Change ($r = .32, p < .01$), and Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .27, p < .01$). Mindreading is Expected was correlated significantly with Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .29, p < .01$). The Sexes are Different was correlated significantly with Partners Cannot Change ($r = .27, p < .01$) and Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .21, p < .05$)

Correlations Among Variables for Females

Intercorrelations of the variables for females are presented in Table 4. Three significant correlations were found between demographic variables and subscale scores for females. Age was correlated significantly with two subscales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale: Success, Power and Competition ($r = -.18, p < .05$) and Conflicts Between Work and Family ($r = .18, p < .05$). Grade-point average was correlated significantly with the Restrictive Emotionality scale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale ($r = -.17, p < .05$).

The Success, Power and Competition scale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale was correlated significantly with Restrictive Emotionality ($r = .34, p < .01$), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women ($r = .15, p < .05$), and Conflicts Between Work and Family ($r = .39, p < .01$). Success, Power, and Competition also was correlated significantly with Psychological Reactance ($r = .44, p < .01$) and The Relationship Beliefs Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .23, p < .01$), Mindreading is Expected ($r = .17, p < .05$), Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .25, p < .01$), and the Sexes are

Table 4

Correlation Matrix for All Variables for Females

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	1.00	-.07	-.18*	-.03	-.05	.18	-.07	-.05	-.07	.08	.05	.01	.13	.00
2. GPA		1.00	-.34	.17	-.09	-.03	-.11	-.05	.16*	.09	-.02	.04	.09	-.14
3. SPC			1.00	.34*	.15*	.39*	.44*	.49*	.22*	.23*	.17*	.14	.25*	.17*
4. RE				1.00	.52*	.20*	.22*	.31*	.02	.14	.15*	.15*	.11	.19*
5. RAB					1.00	.08	.10	.15*	.01	.22*	.19*	.08	-.02	.24*
6. CBW						1.00	.12	.14	.08	.10	.03	.09	.22*	.18*
7. TRST							1.00	.91*	.77*	.06	.03	.11	.30*	.05
8. BR								1.00	.43*	.15*	.18*	.18*	.25*	.05
9. VR									1.00	.08	.18*	-.03*	.25*	.02
10. D										1.00	.54*	.35*	.19*	.09
11. M											1.00	.32*	.04	.07
12. C												1.00	.24*	.15*
13. S													1.00	.10
14. MF														1.00

Note : SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RAB = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBW = Conflicts Between Work and Family; TRST = Total Reactance; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different; * p , .05 two-tailed

Different ($r = .17, p < .05$). Restrictive Emotionality was correlated significantly with Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women ($r = .52, p < .01$), Conflicts Between Work and Family ($r = .20, p < .01$), Psychological Reactance ($r = .22, p < .01$), Mindreading is Expected ($r = .15, p < .05$), Partners Cannot Change ($r = .15, p < .05$), and the Sexes are Different ($r = .19, p < .05$). Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women was correlated significantly with Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .22, p < .01$), Mindreading is Expected ($r = .19, p < .05$), and the Sexes are Different ($r = .24, p < .01$). Conflicts Between Work and Family was correlated significantly with Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .22, p < .01$) and the Sexes are Different ($r = .18, p < .05$).

Psychological Reactance was correlated significantly with the Relationship Beliefs Inventory's Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .30, p < .01$). The Relationship Beliefs Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive scale was correlated significantly with Mindreading is Expected ($r = .54, p, < .01$), Partners Cannot Change ($r = .35, p < .01$), and Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .19, p < .05$). Mindreading is Expected was correlated significantly with Partners Cannot Change ($r = .32, p < .01$. Partners Cannot Change was correlated significantly with Sexual Perfectionism ($r = .24, p < .01$) and the Sexes are Different ($r = .15, p < .05$).

Results for Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis predicted a significant relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs. A canonical correlation analysis was conducted to test this hypothesis. Cross-loadings are the correlations between one set of variables and the canonical variates of the other set of variables. They provided the most

stable index for interpretation as they are most likely to remain the same across samples. Cross-loadings of .30 or higher were retained for interpretation. The first canonical variate was Relationship Beliefs and consisted of the following subscales: Disagreement is Destructive, Mindreading is Expected, Partners Cannot Change, Sexual Perfectionism, and Differences between the Sexes. The second canonical variate was Gender Role Conflict and consisted of the following subscales: Success, Power, and Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women, and Conflicts Between Work and Family.

Results of Hypothesis 1 for Males. Two significant canonical correlations were found; the cross-loadings were retained for interpretation. Results are presented in Table 5. The first significant canonical correlation was .53 and accounted for 28% of the total variance (Wilk's $\lambda = .60$; $\chi^2(20) = 63.69$; $p < .001$). Significant loadings for Relationship Beliefs were Disagreement is Destructive (-.40) and Sexual Perfectionism (-.42). Significant loadings for Gender Role Conflict were Success, Power, and Competition (-.49) and Restrictive Emotionality (-.31). This positive relationship indicates that males who believe that disagreements in relationships are destructive and they must be "perfect" sexual partners are likely to need success, power, and competition and restrict their emotional expression.

The second significant canonical correlation was .35 and accounted for 12% of the variance (Wilk's $\lambda = .84$; $\chi^2(12) = 22.14$; $p < .05$). Although the correlation was significant, no cross-loadings achieved significance. This indicates that the components of Gender Role Conflict are not powerful enough to significantly predict components of Relationship Beliefs.

Table 5

Summary of Canonical Correlation Analysis for Hypothesis 1 for Males

	First Canonical Variate			Second Canonical Variate		
	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient
Relationship Beliefs						
Disagreement is Destructive	-.40	-.76	-.60	-.00	-.01	-.14
Mindreading is Expected	-.27	-.50	.02	.17	.50	.50
Partners Cannot Change	-.14	-.25	.07	-.23	-.66	-.45
Sexual Perfectionism	-.42	-.79	-.58	.08	.22	.29
Sexes are Different	-.23	-.43	-.26	-.23	-.65	-.60
Percent of Variance	.34			.23		
Redundancy	.10			.03		
Gender Role Conflict						
Success, Power, and Competition	-.49	-.93	-.76	.11	.31	.48
Restrictive Emotionality	-.31	-.58	-.31	-.22	-.63	-.66
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men	-.28	-.53	-.15	-.17	-.49	-.50
Conflict Between Work And Family	-.25	-.46	-.07	.15	.43	.43
Percent of Variance	.42			.23		
Redundancy	.12			.03		
Canonical Correlation	.53			.35		

Note: Cross Loading = correlation between variable and the canonical variate corresponding to the other set of variables; Correlation = correlation between the variable and its own canonical variate; Coefficient = standardized canonical coefficient

Results of Hypothesis 1 for Females. One significant canonical correlation was found; the cross-loadings were retained for interpretation. Results are presented in Table 6. The significant canonical correlation was .41 and accounted for 16% of the total variance (Wilk's $\lambda = .76$; $\chi^2(20) = 46.28$; $p < .001$). A significant loading was indicated for Success, Power, and Competition (-.31). Because no other components' loadings achieved significance, it is impossible to specifically identify additional components of the constructs that predict one another.

Hypothesis 2

This hypothesis predicted Psychological Reactance is significantly related to maladaptive Relationship Beliefs. A canonical correlation analysis was conducted to test this hypothesis. Cross-loadings are the correlations between one set of variables and the canonical variates of the other set of variables. They provided the most stable index for interpretation as they are most likely to remain the same across samples. Cross-loadings of .30 or higher were retained for interpretation. The first canonical variate was Psychological Reactance and consisted of Behavioral Reactance and Verbal Reactance. The second canonical variate was Relationship Beliefs and consisted of the following subscales: Disagreement is Destructive, Mindreading is Expected, Partners Cannot Change, Sexual Perfectionism, and Differences between the Sexes.

Results of Hypothesis 2 for Males. No significant canonical correlations were found. Results are presented in Table 7. Due to the fact that no significant canonical correlation was obtained, no further interpretation was warranted.

Results of Hypothesis 2 for Females. Two significant canonical correlations were found; the cross-loadings were retained for interpretation. Results are presented in Table

Table 6

Summary of Canonical Correlation Analysis for Hypothesis 1 for Females

	First Canonical Variate			Second Canonical Variate		
	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient
Relationship Beliefs						
Disagreement is Destructive	-.28	-.70	-.42	-.07	-.26	-.51
Mindreading is Expected	-.24	-.60	-.34	-.05	-.20	-.06
Partners Cannot Change	-.13	-.33	.10	.09	.33	.38
Sexual Perfectionism	-.20	-.50	-.36	.21	.81	.85
Sexes are Different	-.27	-.65	-.55	-.04	-.16	-.24
Percent of Variance	.33			.18		
Redundancy	.05			.01		
Gender Role Conflict						
Success, Power, and Competition	-.31	-.77	-.58	.11	.43	.28
Restrictive Emotionality	-.23	-.56	-.02	.03	.12	.49
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women	-.27	-.67	-.57	-.17	-.68	-.99
Conflict Between Work And Family	-.22	-.54	-.30	.12	.46	.32
Percent of Variance	.41			.22		
Redundancy	.07			.01		
Canonical Correlation	.41			.26		

Note: Cross Loading = correlation between variable and the canonical variate corresponding to the other set of variables; Correlation = correlation between the variable and its own canonical variate; Coefficient = standardized canonical coefficient

Table 7

Summary of Canonical Correlation Analysis for Hypothesis 2 for Males

	First Canonical Variate			Second Canonical Variate		
	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient
Relationship Beliefs						
Disagreement is Destructive	-.22	-.83	-.76	.01	.05	.49
Mindreading is Expected	-.07	-.29	.16	-.11	-.62	-.88
Partners Cannot Change	-.18	-.68	-.36	.03	.14	.15
Sexual Perfectionism	-.10	-.38	-.13	-.03	-.15	.13
Sexes are Different	-.12	-.45	-.27	-.11	-.62	-.68
Percent of Variance	.32			.17		
Redundancy	.02			.01		
Therapeutic Reactance Scale						
Behavioral Reactance	-.25	-.97	-.89	-.05	-.05	-.11
Verbal Reactance	-.13	-.52	-.27	.16	.16	.29
Percent of Variance	.60			.40		
Redundancy	.04			.01		
Canonical Correlation	.26			.18		

Note: Cross Loading = correlation between variable and the canonical variate corresponding to the other set of variables; Correlation = correlation between the variable and its own canonical variate; Coefficient = standardized canonical coefficient

8. The first significant canonical correlation was .37 and accounted for 13% of the total variance (Wilk's $\lambda = .79$; $\chi^2(10) = 40.54$; $p < .001$). No significant loadings were found for Psychological Reactance. However, for Relationship Beliefs, Mindreading is Expected produced a significant loading (-.34). It is interesting to note that the Behavioral Reactance loading is negative in direction while the Verbal Reactance loading is positive. This indicates that, in females, Behavioral Reactance is positively, but not significantly, related to Mindreading is Expected. Conversely, the non-significant relationship between Verbal Reactance and Mindreading is Expected is negative.

The second significant canonical correlation was .30 and accounted for 9% of the variance (Wilk's $\lambda = .91$; $\chi^2(4) = 16.40$; $p < .005$). The Sexual Perfectionism component of Relationship Beliefs narrowly achieved significance at .30. No loadings were significant for Psychological Reactance. This demonstrates a positive, yet weak, relationship between unidentified components of Psychological Reactance and Sexual Perfectionism in females.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis sought to determine relationships among the components of Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance. Canonical correlation analysis was used to test the hypothesis. Cross-loadings are the correlations between one set of variables and the canonical variates of the other set of variables. They provided the most stable index for interpretation as they are most likely to remain the same across samples. Cross-loadings of .30 or higher were retained for interpretation. The first canonical variate was Gender Role Conflict and consisted of Success, Power, and Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men/Women, and

Table 8

Summary of Canonical Correlation Analysis for Hypothesis 2 for Females

	First Canonical Variate			Second Canonical Variate		
	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient
Relationship Beliefs						
Disagreement is Destructive	-.22	-.60	-.10	.05	.17	.10
Mindreading is Expected	-.34	-.94	-.80	.03	.11	.10
Partners Cannot Change	-.21	-.56	-.31	.10	.33	.09
Sexual Perfectionism	.03	.08	.20	.30	.99	.99
Sexes are Different	-.00	-.01	.08	.02	.07	-.03
Percent of Variance	.31			.23		
Redundancy	.04			.02		
Therapeutic Reactance Scale						
Behavioral Reactance	-.15	-.42	-.88	.28	.91	.70
Verbal Reactance	.23	.62	1.02	.24	.78	.47
Percent of Variance	.28			.72		
Redundancy	.04			.07		
Canonical Correlation	.37			.30		

Note: Cross Loading = correlation between variable and the canonical variate corresponding to the other set of variables; Correlation = correlation between the variable and its own canonical variate; Coefficient = standardized canonical coefficient

Conflicts Between Work and Family. The second canonical variate was Psychological Reactance and consisted of Behavioral and Verbal Reactance.

Results of Hypothesis 3 for Males. No significant canonical correlations were found. Results are presented in Table 9. Due to the fact that no significant canonical correlation was obtained, no further interpretation was warranted.

Results of Hypothesis 3 for Females. One significant canonical correlation was found; the cross-loadings were retained for interpretation. Results are presented in Table 10. The significant canonical correlation was .51 and accounted for 26% of the overall variance (Wilk's $\lambda = .73$; $\chi^2(8) = 54.42$; $p < .001$). Behavioral Reactance produced a significant loading of .50. For Gender Role Conflict, significant loadings were produced for Success, Power, and Competition (.48) and Restrictive Emotionality (.30). This positive relationship indicates that females who exhibit high levels of Behavioral Reactance also seek success, power, and competition and restrict their emotional expression.

Hypothesis 4 for Males

This hypothesis predicted that Psychological Reactance moderates the relationship between Gender Role Conflict and Relationship Beliefs. Hierarchical regression analyses were used to assess the moderating effect of reactance on the relationship between Gender Role Conflict and Relationship Beliefs. The dependent variables were the following subscales of the Relationship Beliefs Inventory: Disagreement is Destructive, Mindreading is Expected, Partners Cannot Change, Sexual Perfectionism, and the Sexes are Different. Gender role conflict subscales were entered

Table 9

Summary of Canonical Correlation Analysis for Hypothesis 3 for Males

	First Canonical Variate			Second Canonical Variate		
	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient
Gender Role Conflict						
Success, Power, and Competition	-.22	-.97	-.86	.05	.24	.60
Restrictive Emotionality	-.11	-.50	-.25	-.16	-.77	-.77
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men	-.10	-.43	-.03	-.11	-.53	-.49
Conflict Between Work And Family	-.11	-.48	-.06	.02	.09	.02
Percent of Variance	.40			.23		
Redundancy	.02			.01		
Therapeutic Reactance Scale						
Behavioral Reactance	-.23	-.99	-.94	-.03	-.16	-.47
Verbal Reactance	-.11	-.45	-.17	.18	.89	1.04
Percent of Variance	.59			.41		
Redundancy	.03			.02		
Canonical Correlation	.23			.20		

Note: Cross Loading = correlation between variable and the canonical variate corresponding to the other set of variables; Correlation = correlation between the variable and its own canonical variate; Coefficient = standardized canonical coefficient

Table 10

Summary of Canonical Correlation Analysis for Hypothesis 3 for Females

	First Canonical Variate			Second Canonical Variate		
	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient	Cross Loading	Correlation	Coefficient
Gender Role Conflict						
Success, Power, and Competition	-.48	-.94	-.88	.05	.32	.59
Restrictive Emotionality	-.30	-.60	-.30	-.11	-.73	-.73
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women	-.17	-.33	-.07	-.10	-.70	-.39
Conflict Between Work And Family	-.13	-.26	.13	.02	.13	.04
Percent of Variance	.35			.29		
Redundancy	.09			.01		
Therapeutic Reactance Scale						
Behavioral Reactance	-.50	-1.00	-1.04	.01	.09	-.41
Verbal Reactance	-.19	-.37	.10	.13	.93	1.12
Percent of Variance	.56			.44		
Redundancy	.14			.01		
Canonical Correlation	.51			.14		

Note: Cross Loading = correlation between variable and the canonical variate corresponding to the other set of variables; Correlation = correlation between the variable and its own canonical variate; Coefficient = standardized canonical coefficient

first, followed by the Therapeutic Reactance Scale total. Finally, interactions between gender role conflict and reactance were entered.

Disagreement is Destructive. Using the Relationship Beliefs Inventory as the dependent variable, the following results were obtained and are presented in Table 11. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, Success, Power, and Competition ($B = .25$; $t = 2.58$, $p = < .05$) and Restrictive Emotionality ($B = .18$; $t = 2.12$, $p = < .05$), accounted for 18% [$R = .42$; $F\,(4, 131) = 6.76$; $p < .001$] of the variance. Adding the total reactance score explained another 2% [$R = .45$; $F\,(5, 131) = 6.27$; $p < .001$] of the variance. The results of including the interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance were significant [$R = .49$; $F\,(9, 131) = 4.38$; $p < .001$] and accounted for another 4% of the variance. Although the regression model achieved significance, none of the individual variables contributed significantly to the model.

Mindreading is Expected. Using the Relationship Beliefs Inventory as the dependent variable, the following results, presented in Table 12, were obtained. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, Success, Power, and Competition ($B = .26$; $t = 2.69$, $p = < .01$), accounted for 13% [$R = .36$; $F\,(4, 131) = 4.85$; $p < .001$] of the variance. The total Psychological Reactance score was added and accounted for no measurable change [$R = .36$; $F\,(5, 131) = 3.85$; $p < .005$] in the variance. Adding the interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance accounted for an additional 8% [$R = .46$; $F\,(9, 131) = 3.584$; $p < .001$] of the variance. In this model, Restrictive Emotionality ($B = -1.7.$; $t = -2.05$, $p = < .05$) and the interaction between Psychological Reactance and Restrictive Emotionality ($B = 1.85$; $t = 2.04$, $p = < .05$) were the best predictors of the belief that Mindreading is Expected.

Table 11

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Disagreement is Destructive for Males

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.176		6.764	.000
SPC	.157	.061	.245		2.582		.011
RE	.120	.057	.183		2.122		.036
RABBM	.003	.066	.036		.404		.687
CBWF	.125	.092	.121		1.356		.177
Block 2 (add TRST)				.199		6.266	.000
SPC	.134	.061	.209		2.179		.031
RE	.120	.056	.182		2.136		.035
RABBM	.003	.065	.040		.451		.653
CBWF	.123	.091	.119		1.344		.181
TRST	.152	.079	.158		1.923		.057
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.244		4.378	.000
SPC	.859	.562	1.343		1.529		.129
RE	.315	.540	.481		.583		.561
RABBM	-1.108	.614	-1.496		-1.805		.074
CBWF	.305	.960	.296		.318		.751
TRST	.389	.457	.402		.850		.397
TRST*SPC	-.001	.008	-1.362		-1.269		.207
TRST*RE	-.003	.008	-.308		-.348		.728
TRST*RABBM	.002	.009	1.616		1.840		.068
TRST*CBWF	-.000	.013	-.179		-.175		.861

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM/W = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

Table 12

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Mindreading is Expected for Males

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.133		4.852	.001
SPC	.157	.058	.261		2.685		.008
RE	-.004	.054	-.058		-.652		.516
RABBM	.003	.063	.041		.446		.656
CBWF	.155	.089	.161		1.750		.083
Block 2 (add TRST)				.133		3.854	.003
SPC	.155	.060	.260		2.604		.010
RE	-.004	.055	-.058		-.650		.517
RABBM	.003	.063	.041		.446		.656
CBWF	.155	.089	.160		1.742		.084
TRST	.000	.077	.008		.090		.925
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.209		3.584	.001
SPC	.983	.538	1.641		1.826		.070
RE	-1.062	.517	-1.731		-2.052		.042
RABBM	.411	.588	.592		.698		.486
CBWF	1.123	.919	1.164		1.222		.224
TRST	.614	.438	.679		1.403		.163
TRST*SPC	-.001	.008	-1.720		-1.568		.120
TRST*RE	.002	.007	1.849		2.043		.043
TRST*RABBM	- .000	.008	-.622		-.692		.490
TRST*CBWF	-.001	.013	-1.091		-1.044		.298

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

Partners Cannot Change. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory was the dependent variable. Results are presented in Table 13. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, no component produced a significant change in the variance. However, adding the total Psychological Reactance score ($B = .24$; $t = 2.82$, $p = < .01$) produced a significant model by accounting for 12% [$R = .34$; $F\ (5, 130) = 3.34$; $p < .01$] of the variance. The interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance also produced significant results and accounted for an additional 5% [$R = .41$; $F\ (9, 130) = 2.78$; $p < .01$] of the variance. The best predictors of the belief that partners cannot change were Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($B = 1.98$; $t = 2.28$, $p = < .05$); the interaction between Psychological Reactance and Restrictive Emotionality ($B = 2.05$; $t = 2.21$, $p = < .05$), and the interaction between Psychological Reactance and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($B = -2.02$; $t = -2.19$, $p = < .05$).

Sexual Perfectionism. With the Relationship Beliefs Inventory Sexual as the dependent variable, the following results, presented in Table 14, were obtained. Entering the Gender Role Conflict Scale produced a significant result [$R = .42$; $F\ (4, 129) = 6.72$; $p < .001$] and accounted for 18% of the variance. Specifically, Success, Power, and Competition ($B = .42$; $t = 4.41$, $p = < .001$) was the best predictor of this belief. Adding the Total Reactance score accounted for no measurable change. Interactions between Gender Role Conflict scales and Psychological Reactance resulted in a significant model [$R = .45$; $F\ (9, 129) = 3.30$; $p < .001$] that accounted for another 3% of the variance. In this model, the only significant predictor of Sexual Perfectionism was Success, Power, and Competition ($B = 1.92$; $t = 2.12$, $p = < .05$)

Table 13

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Partners Cannot Change for Males

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.062		2.072	.088
SPC	-.001	.056	-.025		-.243		.809
RE	.117	.052	-.208		2.252		.026
RABBM	.006	.061	.098		1.023		.308
CBWF	-.003	.085	-.035		-.367		.715
Block 2 (add TRST)				.118		3.335	.007
SPC	-.004	.055	-.081		-.798		.426
RE	.117	.051	-.207		2.295		.023
RABBM	.007	.059	.104		1.118		.266
CBWF	-.003	.083	-.039		-.423		.673
TRST	.201	.071	.243		2.816		.006
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.172		2.784	.005
SPC	.443	.505	.810		.877		.382
RE	-.935	.486	-1.659		-1.923		.057
RABBM	1.258	.552	1.984		2.280		.024
CBWF	.142	.864	.160		.164		.870
TRST	.617	.412	.746		1.499		.137
TRST*SPC	-.001	.007	-1.145		-1.015		.312
TRST*RE	.002	.007	1.849		2.211		.029
TRST*RABBM	- .002	.008	2.048		-2.192		.030
TRST*CBWF	-.000	.012	-.215		-.201		.841

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

Table 14

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Sexual Perfectionism for Males

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.177		6.721	.000
SPC	.268	.061	.419		4.412		.000
RE	.005	.056	.071		.815		.417
RABBM	-.002	.066	-.030		-.336		.737
CBWF	-.003	.093	-.030		-.335		.738
Block 2 (add TRST)				.177		5.334	.000
SPC	.267	.062	.419		4.299		.000
RE	.005	.057	.071		.811		.419
RABBM	-.002	.066	-.030		-.334		.739
CBWF	-.003	.093	-.030		-.334		.739
TRST	.000	.083	.002		.020		.984
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.198		3.302	.001
SPC	1.223	.578	1.918		2.115		.036
RE	.183	.555	.283		.330		.742
RABBM	-.001	.639	-1.073		-.013		.990
CBWF	-1.108	1.041	.445		-1.065		.289
TRST	.439	.500	.746		.878		.381
TRST*SPC	-.001	.008	-1.833		-1.659		.100
TRST*RE	.000	.008	-.209		-.227		.821
TRST*RABBM	- .000	.009	-.031		-.033		.973
TRST*CBWF	-.002	.014	1.168		1.061		.291

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

Sexes are Different. Using the Relationship Beliefs Inventory as the dependent variable, Gender Role Conflict variables were entered. Results are presented in Table 15. This model was significant [$R = .35$; $F\ (4, 130) = 4.26$; $p < .005$] and accounted for 12% of the variance. Conflicts Between Work and Family ($B = -.189$; $t = 2.04$, $p = < .05$) was the best predictor of this belief. The Psychological Reactance score was added and accounted for no measurable change in the variance. Interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance were added and produced a significant result [$R = .40$; $F\ (9, 130) = 2.49$; $p < .05$]. In this model, there were no significant predictors of the belief Sexes are Different.

Hypothesis 4 for Females

Disagreement is Destructive. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory was the dependent variable. Results are presented in Table 16. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, the results indicated that Success, Power, and Competition ($B = .18$; $t = 2.16$, $p = < .05$) and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women ($B = .24$; $t = 2.87$, $p = < .005$), accounted for 10% [$R = .32$; $F\ (4, 175) = 4.98$; $p < .001$] of the variance. Adding the total reactance score explained only another 1% [$R = .33$; $F\ (5, 175) = 4.05$; $p < .005$] of the variance. The results of including the interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance were significant [$R = .34$; $F\ (9, 175) = 2.47$; $p < .05$] and accounted for only another 1% of the variance. Although the regression model achieved significance, none of the individual variables contributed significantly to the model.

Mindreading is Expected. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory was the dependent variable. Results are presented in Table 17. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women ($B = .19$; $t = 2.23$, $p = < .05$),

Table 15

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Sexes are Different for Males

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.119		4.262	.003
SPC	.009	.058	.144		1.465		.146
RE	.010	.054	.161		1.799		.074
RABBM	.121	.063	.175		1.904		.059
CBWF	.180	.089	-.189		-2.036		.044
Block 2 (add TRST)				.120		3.415	.006
SPC	.008	.060	.136		1.357		.177
RE	.010	.054	.161		1.792		.076
RABBM	.121	.064	.176		1.905		.059
CBWF	-.181	.089	-.189		-2.034		.044
TRST	.003	.077	.033		.377		.707
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.156		2.487	.012
SPC	.715	.551	1.207		1.299		.197
RE	-.513	.529	-.847		-.969		.335
RABBM	.799	.602	1.161		1.328		.187
CBWF	-1.794	.941	-1.877		-1.906		.059
TRST	-.000	.448	-.001		-.003		.998
TRST*SPC	-.001	.008	-1.346		-1.185		.238
TRST*RE	.001	.007	1.091		1.162		.247
TRST*RABBM	-.001	.008	-1.054		-1.136		.258
TRST*CBWF	.002	.013	1.861		1.723		.088

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different

Table 16

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Disagreement is Destructive for Females

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.104		4.983	.001
SPC	.009	.043	.176		2.155		.033
RE	-.003	.050	-.049		-.546		.586
RABBW	.167	.058	.243		2.872		.005
CBWF	.009	.079	.089		1.132		.259
Block 2 (add TRST)				.106		4.049	.002
SPC	.104	.047	.198		2.223		.028
RE	-.002	.050	-.045		-.499		.618
RABBW	.167	.058	.244		2.868		.005
CBWF	.009	.079	.086		1.093		.276
TRST	-.004	.068	-.050		-.621		.535
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.118		2.471	.011
SPC	.380	.410	.723		.926		.356
RE	-.166	.478	-.297		-.346		.730
RABBW	-.002	.492	-.036		-.050		.960
CBWF	-1.053	.833	-1.049		-1.264		.208
TRST	-.325	.344	-.390		-.946		.346
TRST*SPC	-.000	.006	-.680		-.688		.492
TRST*RE	.000	.007	.271		.284		.777
TRST*RABBW	.000	.007	.296		.385		.700
TRST*CBWF	.002	.012	1.273		1.371		.172

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBW = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

Table 17

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Mindreading is Expected for Females

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.070		3.174	.015
SPC	.007	.044	.134		1.602		.111
RE	.001	.051	.014		.152		.879
RABBw	.132	.059	.194		2.230		.027
CBWF	.003	.080	.026		.327		.744
Block 2 (add TRST)				.073		2.667	.024
SPC	.009	.047	.163		1.792		.075
RE	.001	.051	.019		.211		.833
RABBW	.133	.059	.194		2.228		.027
CBWF	.002	.080	.023		.281		.779
TRST	-.006	.069	-.067		-.815		.416
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.113		2.336	.017
SPC	.784	.411	1.500		1.909		.058
RE	-1.025	.479	-1.844		-2.138		.034
RABBW	.194	.493	.429		.596		.552
CBWF	-.993	.835	-.993		-1.190		.236
TRST	-.259	.345	-.312		-.752		.453
TRST*SPC	-.001	.006	-1.716		-1.726		.086
TRST*RE	.001	.007	2.068		2.159		.032
TRST*RABBW	-.000	.007	-.272		-.352		.725
TRST*CBWF	.002	.012	1.130		1.210		.228

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBW = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

accounted for 7% [$R = .26$; F (4, 174) = 3.17; $p < .001$] of the variance. The total Psychological Reactance score was added and accounted for no measurable change [$R = .27$; F (5, 174) = 2.67; $p < .05$] in the variance. Adding the interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance accounted for an additional 4% [$R = .34$; F (9, 174) = 2.34; $p < .05$] of the variance. In this model, Restrictive Emotionality (B = -1.84.; t = -2.14, p = < .05) and the interaction between Psychological Reactance and Restrictive Emotionality (B = 2.07; t = 2.16, p = < .05) were the best predictors of the belief Mindreading is Expected.

Partners Cannot Change. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory was the dependent variable. Results are presented in Table 18. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, no components accounted for a significant change in the variance. The second model included Gender Role Conflict variables and the total Psychological Reactance score. Again, no significant prediction could be made. Finally, the interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance were entered but did not generate a significant result.

Sexual Perfectionism. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory was the dependent variable. Results are presented in Table 19. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, a significant result was obtained [$R = .33$; F (4, 170) = 4.94; $p < .001$] and accounted for 11% of the variance. Success, Power, and Competition (B = .20; t = 2.41, p = < .05) and Conflicts Between Work and Family (B = .17; t = 2.19, p = < .05) were the best predictors of this belief. Adding the Total Reactance score accounted for another 5% [$R = .40$; F (5, 170) = 6.35; $p < .001$] of the variance. In this model, Conflicts Between Work and Family (B = .18; t = 2.40, p = < .05) and Psychological Reactance (B = .26; t = 3.29,

Table 18

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Partners Cannot Change for Females

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.027		1.179	.322
SPC	.003	.039	.075		.876		.382
RE	.007	.046	.137		1.477		.141
RABBW	-.002	.053	-.404		-.477		.655
CBWF	.003	.071	.004		.051		.959
Block 2 (add TRST)				.030		1.037	.398
SPC	-.002	.042	.049		.532		.595
RE	.006	.045	.133		1.422		.157
RABBW	-.002	.053	-.040		-.448		.655
CBWF	.001	.072	.007		.090		.928
TRST	.004	.061	.059		.696		.487
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.034		.641	.761
SPC	.006	.374	.124		.151		.880
RE	.003	.436	.067		.075		.940
RABBW	-.008	.448	-.126		-.169		.866
CBWF	-.595	.759	-.681		-.784		.434
TRST	-.153	.313	-.211		-.488		.626
TRST*SPC	-.000	.005	.102		-.098		.922
TRST*RE	.000	.006	.068		.068		.946
TRST*RABBW	.000	.007	.090		.112		.911
TRST*CBWF	.001	.011	.773		.795		.428

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBW = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

Table 19

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Sexual Perfectionism for Females

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.106		4.94	.001
SPC	.010	.040	.197		2.409		.017
RE	.004	.046	.069		.774		.440
RABBW	-.004	.054	-.069		-.809		.420
CBWF	.161	.074	.173		2.190		.030
Block 2 (add TRST)				.161		6.353	.000
SPC	.004	.042	.090		1.043		.298
RE	.002	.045	.047		.537		.592
RABBW	-.005	.053	-.072		-.865		.388
CBWF	.171	.072	.184		2.395		.018
TRST	.200	.061	.261		3.291		.001
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.200		4.478	.000
SPC	-.902	.373	-1.848		-2.420		.017
RE	.277	.420	.539		.660		.510
RABBW	-.234	.439	-.371		-.533		.595
CBWF	.883	.738	.947		1.196		.234
TRST	-.203	.303	-.265		-.673		.502
TRST*SPC	.001	.005	2.470		2.554		.012
TRST*RE	-.000	.006	-.543		-.599		.550
TRST*RABBW	.000	.006	.308		.411		.682
TRST*CBWF	-.001	.011	-.861		-.970		.334

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBW = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different

$p = < .001$) were the best predictors of beliefs about one's need to be sexually "perfect." Interactions between Gender Role Conflict scales and Psychological Reactance resulted in a significant model [$R = .45$; $F\ (9, 170) = 4.48$; $p < .001$] and accounted for another 4% of the variance. In this model, significant predictors of Sexual Perfectionism were Success, Power, and Competition ($B = -1.85$; $t = -2.42$, $p = < .05$) and the interaction between Psychological Reactance and Success, Power, and Competition ($B = 2.47$; $t = -2.55$, $p = < .05$)

Sexes Are Different. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory was the dependent variable. Results are presented in Table 20. For the Gender Role Conflict Scale, the model was significant [$R = .32$; $F\ (4, 175) = 4.97$; $p < .001$] and accounted for 10% of the variance. Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women ($B = .20$; $t = 2.32$, $p = < .05$) was the best predictor of the belief that Sexes are Different. The Psychological Reactance score was added and accounted for only another 1% [$R = .33$; $F\ (5, 175) = 4.04$; $p < .005$] of the variance. Interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance were added and produced a significant result [$R = .35$; $F\ (9, 175) = 2.53$; $p < .01$]. In this model, there were no significant predictors of the belief Sexes are Different.

Summary of Results of Hypotheses

Chapter 3 presented separate results for males and females for the four hypotheses. In Hypothesis 1, it was determined that certain facets of Relationship Beliefs do correlate with Gender Role Conflict in males and females. Hypothesis 2 demonstrated a significant relationship between Relationship Beliefs and Psychological Reactance for females, but not males. Similarly, Hypothesis 3 indicated a significant relationship

Table 20

Hypothesis 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Sexes are Different for Females

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2	*t*	*F*	*p*
Block 1 (GRC)				.104		4.973	.001
SPC	.005	.042	.095		1.168		.244
RE	.003	.049	.046		.521		.603
RABBW	.132	.057	.196		2.315		.022
CBWF	.148	.077	.151		1.920		.056
Block 2 (add TRST)				.106		4.041	.002
SPC	.006	.046	.117		1.315		.190
RE	.003	.049	.050		.563		.574
RABBW	.132	.057	.196		2.312		.022
CBWF	.145	.077	.148		1.879		.062
TRST	-.004	.066	-.050		-.617		.538
Block 3 (add Interactions)				.120		2.526	.010
SPC	.003	.401	.065		.083		.934
RE	.002	.468	.042		.048		.961
RABBW	.771	.481	1.146		1.602		.111
CBWF	.668	.815	.679		.820		.413
TRST	.310	.336	.380		.923		.357
TRST*SPC	.000	.006	.072		.073		.942
TRST*RE	.000	.007	.021		.022		.983
TRST*RABBW	-.001	.007	-1.016		1.324		.187
TRST*CBWF	-.001	.012	-.593		-.640		.523

Note: B = unstandardized beta weight; *SE B* = standardized error of unstandardized beta weight; β = standardized beta weight
Note 2: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; TRST = Therapeutic Reactance Scale Total; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBW = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Women; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family; BR = Behavioral Reactance; VR = Verbal Reactance; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different.

between Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance for females, but not males. The results of Hypothesis 4 show a modest moderating effect of Psychological Reactance on the relationship between Gender Role Conflict and all components of Relationship Beliefs for males. For females, Psychological Reactance was shown to moderate the relationship between Gender Role Conflict and all components of Relationship Beliefs, except the belief Partners Cannot Change. Generally, hypothesis 4 was supported, indicating that Psychological Reactance changes the direction and the strength of the relationship between Gender Role Conflict and maladaptive Relationship Beliefs.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

This study investigated the relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs. Four hypotheses were tested: (1) the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs; (2) the relationship between psychological reactance and relationship beliefs; (3) the relationship between gender role conflict and psychological reactance; (4) the moderating effect of psychological reactance on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

Chapter 4 includes a general summary of the research, interpretation of the results of statistical analyses for each of the four hypotheses, and a general discussion of significant results and their implications. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are included.

General Summary of Results

Prior research has established a relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs (Arnold & Chartier, 1984; Campbell & Snow, 1992; O'Neil, 1981). O'Neil (1981) found that relationship strain is positively related to gender role conflict. Arnold and Chartier (1984) and Campbell and Snow (1992) found negative relationships between gender role conflict and relationship satisfaction and quality, respectively.

Previous research also has linked psychological reactance with relationship variables (Derbyshire, 1997; Hockenberry & Billingham, 1992; Seibel, 1994). Derbyshire (1997) and Seibel (1994) related highly reactant individuals with personality characteristics inconsistent with successful relationships. Hockenberry and Billingham (1992) demonstrated a significant relationship between high levels of reactance and relationship conflict.

The current study established relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs, with varying results according to gender. Discussion of the results for each hypothesis will be presented separately by gender to further clarify these relationships and provide impetus for further study.

Discussion of Results

Demographic and Descriptive Data

Because significant gender differences were found in the initial analysis, results were further analyzed separately for males and females. Males and females differed significantly on three of the five components of gender role conflict: the need for success, power, and competition; restriction of emotional expression; and restriction of affectionate behavior toward individuals of the same gender. Males and females demonstrated significant differences in levels of psychological reactance. Regarding relationship beliefs, males and females responded similarly except for responses measuring one's belief that he or she must be a "perfect" sexual partner.

For males, age and grade-point average correlated positively with responses indicating males experience conflicts between work and family obligations. For females, age also was positively correlated with work and family conflicts. However, females' age

was negatively correlated with responses indicating the need for success, power, and competition. Females' grade-point average was negatively correlated with restricted emotional expression.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 1 for Males

The first hypothesis predicted a relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship in males. Hypothesis 1 was supported by the results of the current study. Specifically, males who believe that disagreement in a relationship is destructive and that they must perform perfectly in sexual relations also tend to have the need for success, power, and competition and restrict their emotional expression. Men with these beliefs might seek to control their relationship partners by avoiding disagreement altogether. Additionally, the need for sexual perfectionism likely would lead to withholding affection from intimate partners. Therapists working with such clients might consider the aspect of control inherent in each of these beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors. It is likely that the need for control would influence therapeutic and interpersonal relationships. These results augment Sileo's (1996) findings that relationship difficulties accompany the need for success, power and competition and restricted emotions. Other studies have demonstrated similar relationships between gender role conflict and relationships (Fischer & Good, 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). The current study confirmed and expanded on previous research findings by specifying the components of relationship beliefs related to gender role conflict in males. A second analysis revealed a significant relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs but did not indicate the specific components of the constructs that were related.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 1 for Females

The first hypothesis predicted a relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs in females. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship. Hypothesis 1 was supported by the results of the current study. Females with maladaptive relationship belief also are likely to have the need for success, power, and competition. The results did not delineate the specific aspects of relationship beliefs that were associated with gender role conflict. However, these findings do provide important information for therapists working with females. These results indicate therapists should consider the role of women's ambition and control issues in their interpersonal relationship problems. Women who are highly successful and competitive might not adapt well to traditional relationship roles in which males tend to be the dominant figure.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 2 for Males

Hypothesis 2 predicted a relationship between psychological reactance and maladaptive relationship beliefs. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship in males. This hypothesis was not supported by the results of the current study. Although prior research (Derbyshire, 1997; Hockenberry & Billingham, 1992; Seibel, 1994) demonstrated relationships between reactance and relationships, the current study did not confirm those results. The current results might demonstrate differences among the samples of various studies. This sample consisted primarily of males aged 18 to 22, all of whom are enrolled in undergraduate classes. A clinical sample might produce results more similar to those of previous researchers. It also should be considered that the failure to demonstrate a significant relationship

between reactance and maladaptive relationship beliefs does not necessarily disprove previous research indicating that highly reactant individuals tend to be unsuccessful in interpersonal relationships.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 2 for Females

Hypothesis 2 predicted a relationship between psychological reactance and maladaptive relationship beliefs. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship in females. Hypothesis 2 was supported by the results of the current study. Specifically, results indicated that females who believe their mates should read their minds also experience psychological reactance. Interestingly, females with this belief reported higher levels of behavioral reactance than verbal reactance. In general, research has indicated that females do not experience reactance as often or as intensely as males. However, these results show that females who are highly reactant also are more likely to hold unhealthy relationship beliefs. Although reactance is less prevalent among females, the impact on relationships appears more serious when the female partner experiences reactance. Perhaps females' reactant responses are more likely to manifest in the context of relationships. These results suggest therapists should pay special attention to reactance in females when dealing with problems in interpersonal relationships.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 3 for Males

Previous research demonstrated a relationship between control and gender role conflict (O'Neil, 1982) as well as control and psychological reactance (Seemann, 2003). Additionally, both gender role conflict and psychological reactance have been shown to differ according to gender (Dowd & Wallbrown, 1993; Joubert, 1990; Pinhas, Weaver, Bryden, Ghabbour, & Toner, 2002; Rustemeyer, 2001; Seemann, Buboltz, Jenkins,

Soper, & Woller, 2004).The third hypothesis predicted a relationship between gender role conflict and psychological reactance. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship in males. No significant relationship was found. These findings suggest that males experiencing either gender role conflict or psychological reactance do not rely on the other construct to satisfy their need for control. One possible reason for the current study's failure to demonstrate the predicted relationship between gender role conflict and psychological reactance might be the evolution of males' opinions about gender roles. In the nearly twenty years since the development of the Gender Role Conflict Scale, society in general has adopted a more open-minded perspective with respect to gender roles. The results of this study might reflect the increased tolerance for diversity currently seen in society.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 3 for Females

The third hypothesis predicted a relationship between gender role conflict and psychological reactance. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship in females. The hypothesis was supported by the results of the study. As this hypothesis was not confirmed for males, this finding provides further evidence that gender role conflict and psychological reactance differ according to gender (Dowd & Wallbrown, 1993; Joubert, 1990; Pinhas, Weaver, Bryden, Ghabbour, & Toner, 2002; Rustemeyer, 2001; Seemann, Buboltz, Jenkins, Soper, & Woller, 2004). Specifically, behavioral reactance was significantly and positively related to the need for success, power, and competition and restricted emotional expression. These findings might indicate that ambitious women have learned the value of stifling opinions and emotional expression in order to appease supervisors and coworkers in male-dominated career

fields. Perhaps traditional society's constraints make women more comfortable demonstrating control in a more passive manner than men. Through behavioral reactance and the restriction of emotional expression, women might seek a more socially acceptable way to control their fates. These results indicate therapists should pay special heed to their female clients' passivity rather than relying on overt gestures and statements to identify underlying feelings.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 4 for Males

Hypothesis 4 predicted a moderating effect of psychological reactance on the relationship between gender role conflict and the various components of relationship beliefs. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship in males. The hypothesis was supported by the results of the study.

Previous research has demonstrated a relationship between males' attitudes toward women and gender role conflict (Wood et al., 2000). Wood (2004) later demonstrated significant moderating effects of attitudes toward women on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs in males. Similar to Wood's (2004) conclusion, the current study indicates a moderating effect of psychological reactance on the relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs. This is particularly interesting with respect to the results of Hypothesis 3 for males, which indicated no significant relationship between gender role conflict and reactance.

The results indicated that psychological reactance has a modest moderating effect on gender conflicted males with the belief that disagreement in a relationship is destructive. However, the results did not specify the importance of particular aspects of gender role conflict. Males with gender role conflict are less likely to respect their female

partner's right to disagree with their viewpoints. The effect of psychological reactance on this relationship is important in that it demonstrates a male's willingness to further control or suppress their partner's verbal or behavioral expression. Psychological reactance also was shown to have a moderating effect on gender role conflicted males who believe their mates should read their minds. Specifically, reactance moderates the relationship between restrictive emotionality and the expectation of mindreading by one's partner. The theme of control is pervasive throughout this finding. Males attempting to control their partners by withholding affection and open communication can also be expected to exhibit highly reactant behavior.

Results indicated psychological reactance is a moderator of the relationship between restricted emotional expression, restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and the belief that one's relationship partner cannot change. Additionally, psychological reactance was shown to moderate the relationship between the need for success, power, and competition and the belief by males that they must be perfect sexual partners. Finally, results demonstrated psychological reactance moderates the relationship between conflicted feelings about work and family and the belief that males and females are different. Generally, the moderating effect of psychological reactance on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs implies a male's need to exercise control over his female relationship partners. For therapists, an important implication is to consider males' active and passive mannerisms and address them within the context of relationship problems. Rigidity is intrinsic in the maladaptive relationship beliefs discussed here. The current study's findings suggest the need for therapists to teach male clients the importance of tolerance and flexibility in relationships. Therapists should

consider male clients' reactance levels when making decisions about treatment methods. More direct and provocative therapy methods might trigger highly reactant responses. However, these responses could lead to earlier disclosure of male clients' underlying feelings about their partners and relationships.

Interpretation of Hypothesis 4 for Females

Hypothesis 4 predicted a moderating effect of psychological reactance on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. The hypothesis was tested to determine the nature and direction of the relationship in females. The hypothesis was generally, but not completely, supported by the results of the study. The results of this study are similar to those of Wood (2004) and fill a void in the body of literature about this relationship.

The results indicated that psychological reactance has a moderating effect on gender conflicted females who believe that disagreement in a relationship is destructive. However, the magnitude of the moderation is minimal. Similar to the results for males, the results for females did not specify the importance of particular aspects of gender role conflict. The moderating effect might have been stronger if not for the previously demonstrated significant relationship between reactance and gender role conflict. Perhaps the relationship between the two precludes a strong moderating effect. Psychological reactance also was shown to have a modest moderating effect on gender role conflicted females who believe their mates should read their minds. Like the results in males, these results demonstrate reactance moderates the relationship between restrictive emotionality and the expectation of mindreading by one's partner. Restrictive emotional expression and the expectation of mindreading are passive manifestations of maladaptive

relationship beliefs. Psychological reactance can be either active or passive. Women who are actively reactant might be seeking more overt ways of expressing their thoughts and feelings.

Results indicated psychological reactance is not a moderator of the relationship between any facets of gender role conflict and the belief that one's relationship partner cannot change. Perhaps gender role conflict serves as the means through which females attempt to effect change in their relationship partners. Therefore, psychological reactance is not used as a catalyst for change. Psychological reactance was, however, shown to moderate the relationship between the need for success, power, and competition and the belief by females that they must be perfect sexual partners. Apparently, the drive for perfection in various areas of women's lives is stronger when women also are highly reactant. Finally, results demonstrated psychological reactance moderates the relationship between gender role conflict and the belief that males and females are different. No specific components of gender role conflict were identified as significantly contributing to the moderating effect. Women experiencing gender role conflict hold the belief that the sexes differ. The presence of psychological reactance weakens that relationship, perhaps because the assertiveness that typically accompanies reactance is considered a more masculine trait; its presence might lead females to view males and females as more alike than different.

Implications

Knowing and understanding the key components of relationships can improve one's quality of life (Simon, 2002). The current study can contribute to the body of

knowledge about relationships. The results hold important implications for therapists and individuals seeking to build, strengthen, or mend intimate relationships.

The findings of this study indicate complex relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs. Results demonstrate a significant difference between men and women in levels of psychological reactance and gender role conflict. O'Neil (1981) stressed the importance of therapists' understanding of the effects of gender role conflict in therapy. Psychological reactance has been shown to affect therapeutic outcomes (Courchaine et al., 1995; Dowd et al., 1988; Loucka, 1990). The general finding that men and women do not differ significantly in their beliefs about relationships is encouraging for therapeutic outcomes, particularly in couples therapy.

This study indicates males and females report more conflicts between work or school and family as they get older. These results are indicative of older students' greater likelihood to have spouses, partners, and/or children. Because having a family typically leads to the need for independent financial support, older students are more likely to be employed in addition to their school and family responsibilities. Juggling these responsibilities is stressful and can lead to difficulties at home, school, and work. Males with higher grade-point averages reported similar conflicts, presumably because of their dedication to school or career. Interestingly, females with higher grade-point averages reported less restrictive emotional expression, leading to the conclusion that healthier relationships might lead to greater success in school. These findings are particularly important in light of the fact that this study's participants were undergraduate students. College faculty, administration, and student affairs professionals should understand the effects of students' extracurricular activities on their curricular lives.

Males and females who experience gender role conflict are likely to have maladaptive relationship beliefs. Both genders consistently showed a relationship between the need for success, power, and competition; restricted emotional expression, and maladaptive relationship beliefs. Therapists, particularly those providing couples, marital, or premarital therapy, can benefit from knowing how relationships are affected by both constructs. Human resource professionals can also benefit from these findings. Although the relationships studied here were of a more intimate nature, one can assume that these results' implied need for control will affect all interpersonal relationships, including those with co-workers and consumers.

Psychological reactance and maladaptive relationships are significantly related in females, but not males. Research has shown males experience higher levels of reactance than females (Dowd & Wallbrown, 1993; Seemann, Buboltz, Jenkins, Soper, & Woller, 2004). Perhaps more importantly, this study indicates that, although females are generally less reactant, highly reactant females are more likely to suffer relationship problems. Therapists who witness females' reactant behavior in therapy might have new insight into their relationship difficulties.

The present study demonstrated a significant relationship between gender role conflict and psychological reactance in females, but not in males. A therapist might investigate whether a female client's attempts to control the course of therapy is related to gender role issues. In business settings, this relationship might be related to the differential earning capacity seen between men and women in the workplace. Women earning less than their male counterparts might experience reactance as a result of the loss

of freedom to earn comparable wages. One might conclude that gender role conflict is a likely result.

For the most part, reactance was shown to moderate the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. Prior research linked gender role and relationship issues (Fischer & Good, 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Sileo, 1996; Wood, 2004). Therapists who understand how psychological reactance contributes to that relationship will benefit from having another context within which to understand clients.

The multifaceted relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs offer therapists multiple points-of-view from which to assist clients. By adding to the previously compiled research of these three constructs, this study seeks to increase the knowledge base for therapists, educators, human resource professionals, and therapy clients to improve outcomes in all of these disciplines.

Limitations of the Study

The current study demonstrated several significant and practically useful relationships among the constructs. However, it is not without limitations. Understanding a study's limitations increases its appropriate application. Two important limitations are the sample used and the nature of the instrumentation.

The general characteristics of the sample surveyed for this study are not representative of the general population. Because subjects were undergraduate students, they were primarily between the ages of 18 and 21. The sample was further restricted by geographic location and education level. The vast majority of the respondents were Caucasian American (78%). Ninety-two percent of the sample was unmarried, with 42% reporting they currently are not involved in an intimate relationship. An important sample

characteristic that was not assessed was sexual orientation. The sample's limitations affect the overall generalizability of the study.

The study was limited by its use of self-report instruments. The results are a portrayal of the subjects' self-perceptions and might not accurately depict psychological states or personality characteristics. No measure of social desirability was used, making it impossible to determine whether underlying motives for some responses were present. Several subjects noted the sexual nature of some survey items, indicating that their responses might reflect a desire to provide "appropriate" responses. Hypotheses 2 and 3 employed the subscales of the Therapeutic Reactance Scale. Although these scales strongly correlate with total Reactance scores, they have not been widely used and therefore might not provide the best measure of psychological reactance. Finally, the use of the Gender Role Conflict Scale for Females is suspect due to the rare usage of the instrument and the lack of reliability and validity information.

Limitations are inherent in psychological research. Their presence should not lead readers to misconstrue the results. Rather, they provide incentive for future research to further increase the body of knowledge and its practical application.

Suggestions for Future Research

Having noted the limitations of the current study, it is useful to provide direction for further research into the multivariate relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs. Although this study followed the suggestion of Wood (2004) by including female respondents, more research is needed to discover the relationships of these constructs with respect to gender. This is particularly relevant with respect to gender role conflict.

A more diverse and representative sample would provide more generalizable results. As is the case with many studies involving college populations, the demographics of this study were severely skewed in almost every category. Although studies at other universities might represent the results of similar aged students, there likely would be a different mixture of ethnicities, religions, and cultural backgrounds. Because the study centers on relationships, future research should consider the relationships of the variables in a lesbian, gay, and bisexual context.

A final suggestion is to research the development of relationship beliefs rather than simply the existence of them. This is a little studied area despite the large body of research into other aspects of relationship beliefs.

Summary

The general body of research of gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs was further developed through this study. Relationships among all variables were demonstrated for males and females, with significant differences between the genders. This study confirmed the results of previous related research and added to the body of research by specifically associating gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs.

In addition to the correlational results, the study determined psychological reactance is a moderator of the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. The complexity of this relationship is interesting and merits further examination. When considered in the context of past and future research, the results of this study can be used to improve intimate relationships, therapeutic outcomes, therapeutic

relationships, workplace relationships, and personal knowledge of the constructs for theoretical and utilitarian purposes.

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APPENDIX A

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

MEMORANDUM

TO: Donna Bullard Thomas, Dr. Walter Buboltz

FROM: Nancy Fuller, University Research

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: 2/03/05

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"The Effects of Gender Role Conflict and Psychological Reactance on Relationship Beliefs"
Proposal # HUC-136

The proposed study procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. This approval was finalized on February 3, 2005 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond February 3, 2006. Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the

conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Mary Livingston at 257-2292.

APPENDIX B

HUMAN SUBJECTS CONSENT FORM

HUMAN SUBJECTS CONSENT FORM

The following is a brief summary of the project in which you are asked to participate. Please read this information before signing the statement below.

TITLE OF PROJECT: The effects of gender role conflict and psychological reactance on relationship beliefs.

PURPOSE OF STUDY/PROJECT: To investigate the relationships among gender role conflict, psychological reactance, and relationship beliefs.

PROCEDURE: In this experiment, you will be asked to complete a demographics questionnaire as well as 3 surveys designed to assess your attitudes, feelings, beliefs, behaviors, and personality characteristics.

INSTRUMENTS: The Therapeutic Reactance Scale (TRS), Relationship Beliefs Inventory (RBI), Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS), and a brief demographics questionnaire.

RISKS/ALTERNATIVE TREATMENTS: None.

BENEFITS/COMPENSATION: There will be no benefits or compensation for participants.

I, _____, attest with my signature that I have read and understood the following description of the study, "The effects of gender role conflict and psychological reactance on relationship beliefs," and its purposes and methods. I understand that my participation in this research is strictly voluntary and my participation or refusal to participate in this study will not affect my relationship with Louisiana Tech University or my grades in any way. Further, I understand that I may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any question without penalty. Upon completion of the study, I understand that the results will be freely available to me upon request. I understand the results of my survey will be confidential, accessible only to the principal investigators, myself, or legally appointed representative. I have not been requested to waive nor do I waive any of my rights related to participating in this study.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant or Guardian Date

CONTACT INFORMATION: The principal experimenters listed below may be reached to answer questions about the research, subjects' rights, or related matters.

Donna Bullard Thomas, M.A., Principal Investigator (318) 322-9418, dbthomas@bayou.com
Walter C. Buboltz, Jr., Ph.D., Dissertation Chair (318) 257-4315

Members of the Human Use Committee of Louisiana Tech University may also be contacted if a problem cannot be discussed with experimenters:

Dr. Les Guice (257-4647)
Dr. Mary M. Livingston (257-2292)
Stephanie Herrmann (257-5075)

APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Questionnaire

AGE:_____
GPA:_____

Please place an "X" by the answer that best describes you.

GENDER:
_____ Male
_____ Female

COLLEGE STATUS:
_____ Freshman
_____ Sophomore
_____ Junior
_____ Senior

RACE:
_____ African American
_____ Asian
_____ Caucasian
_____ Latino
_____ Native American
_____ Other

YOUR MARITAL STATUS:
_____ Single
_____ Married
_____ Divorced
_____ Separated
_____ Widowed

YOUR PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS:
_____ Married to each other
_____ Divorced from each other
_____ Never married to each other

YOUR RELATIONSHIP STATUS:
_____ Not currently in a relationship
_____ Currently in a relationship

WHO WAS PRIMARILY RESPONSIBLE FOR REARING YOU?

_____ Mother	_____ Mother and Step-Father	_____ Step Father
_____ Father	_____ Father and Step-Mother	_____ Grandparents
_____ Mother and Father	_____ Step Mother	_____ Other

APPENDIX D

GENDER ROLE CONFLICT SCALE

GRCS

Instructions: In the space to the left of each sentence below, write the number which most closely represents the degree that you Agree or Disagree with the statement. There is no right or wrong answer to each statement; your own reaction is what is asked for.

Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

_____ 1. Moving up the career ladder is important to me.

_____2. I have difficulty telling others I care about them.

_____ 3. Verbally expressing my love to another man is difficult for me.

_____ 4. I feel town between my hectic work schedule and caring for my health.

_____ 5. Making money is part of my idea of being a successful man.

_____6. Strong emotions are difficult for me to understand.

_____ 7. Affection with other men makes me tense.

_____ 8. I sometimes define my personal value by my career success.

_____ 9. Expressing my feelings makes me feel open to attack by other people.

_____ 10. Expressing my emotions to other men is risky.

_____ 11. My career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life.

_____ 12. I evaluate other people's value by their level f achievement and success.

_____ 13. Talking (about my feelings) during sexual relations is difficult for me.

_____ 14. I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man.

_____ 15. I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner.

_____ 16. Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable.

_____ 17. Finding time to relax is difficult for me.

Strongly Agree 6	5	4	3	2	Strongly Disagree 1

_____ 18. Doing well all the time is important to me.

_____ 19. I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings.

_____ 20. Hugging other me is difficult for me.

_____ 21. I often feel that I need to be in charge of those around me.

_____ 22. Telling others of my strong feelings is not part of my sexual behavior.

_____ 23. Competing with others is the best way to succeed.

_____ 24. Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth.

_____ 25. I often have trouble finding words that describe how I am feeling.

_____ 26. I am sometimes hesitant to show my affection to men because of how others might perceive me.

_____ 27. My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like.

_____ 28. I strive to be more successful than others.

_____ 29. I do not like to show my emotions to other people.

_____ 30. Telling my partner my feelings about him/her during sex is difficult for me.

_____ 31. My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life (home, family, health, or leisure).

_____ 32. I am often concerned about how others evaluate my performance at work or school.

_____ 33. Being very personal with other men makes me feel uncomfortable.

_____ 34. Being smarter or physically stronger than other men is important to me.

Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

_____ 35. Men who are overly friendly to me make me wonder about their sexual preference (men or women).

_____ 36. Overwork and stress, caused by a need to achieve on the job or in school, affects/hurts my life.

_____ 37. I like to feel superior to other people.

APPENDIX E

RELATIONSHIP BELIEFS INVENTORY

RBI

The statements below describe ways in which a person might feel about a relationship with another person. Please mark the space next to each statement according to how strongly you believe that it is true or false for you. *Please mark every one.* Write in 5,4,3,2,1, or 0 to stand for the following answers:

5: I *strongly* believe that the statement is true.
4: I believe that the statement is *true.*
3: I believe that the statement is *probably true,* or more true than false.
2: I believe that the statement is *probably false,* or more false than true.
1: I believe that the statement is *false.*
0: I *strongly* believe that the statement is *false.*

_____ 1. If your partner expresses disagreement with your ideas, s/he probably does not think highly of you.
_____ 2. I do not expect my partner to sense all my moods.
_____ 3. Damage done early in a relationship probably cannot be reversed.
_____ 4. I get upset if I think I have not completely satisfied my partner sexually.
_____ 5. Men and women have the same basic emotional needs.
_____ 6. I cannot accept it when my partner disagrees with me.
_____ 7. If I have to tell my partner that something is important to me, it does not mean s/he is insensitive to me.
_____ 8. My partner does not seem capable of behaving other than s/he does now.
_____ 9. If I'm not in the mood for sex when my partner is. I don't get upset about it.
_____ 10. Misunderstandings between partners generally are due to inborn differences in psychological makeups of men and women.
_____ 11. I take it as a personal insult when my partner disagrees with an important idea of mine.
_____ 12. I get very upset if my partner does not recognize how I am feeling and I have to tell him/her.
_____ 13. A partner can learn to become more responsive to his/her partner's needs.
_____ 14. A good sexual partner can get himself/herself aroused for sex whenever necessary.
_____ 15. Men and women probably will never understand the opposite sex very well.
_____ 16. I like it when my partner presents views different from mine.
_____ 17. People who have a close relationship can sense each other's needs as if they could read each other's minds.
_____ 18. Just because my partner has acted in ways that upset me does not mean that s/he will do so in the future.
_____ 19. If I cannot perform well sexually whenever my partner is in the mood, I would consider that I have a problem.
_____ 20. Men and women need the same basic things out of a relationship.
_____ 21. I get very upset when my partner and I cannot see things in the same way.
_____ 22. It is important to me for my partner to anticipate my needs by sensing changes In my minds.
_____ 23. A partner who hurts you badly once probably will hurt you again.
_____ 24. I can feel ok about my lovemaking even if my partner does not achieve orgasm.
_____ 25. Biological differences between men and women are not major causes of couples' problems.

_____ 26. I cannot tolerate it when my partner argues with me.
_____ 27. A partner should know what you are thinking and feeling without you having to tell.
_____ 28. If my partner wants to change, I believe that s/he can do it.
_____ 29. If my sexual partner does not get satisfied completely, it does not mean that I have failed.
_____ 30. One of the major causes of marital problems is that men and women have different emotional needs.
_____ 31. When my partner and I disagree, I feel like our relationship is falling apart.
_____ 32. People who love each other know exactly what each other's thoughts are without A word ever being said.
_____ 33. If you don't like the way a relationship is going, you can make it better.
_____ 34. Some difficulties in my sexual performance do not mean personal failure to me.
_____ 35. You can't really understand someone of the opposite sex.
_____ 36. I do not doubt my partner's feelings for me when we argue.
_____ 37. If you have to ask your partner for something, it shows that s/he was not "tuned into" your needs.
_____ 38. I do not expect my partner to be able to change.
_____ 39. When I do not seem to be performing well sexually, I get upset.
_____ 40. Men and women will always be mysteries to each other.

APPENDIX F

THERAPEUTIC REACTANCE SCALE

TRS

Instructions: Please answer each item by circling the appropriate number below.

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1. If I receive a lukewarm dish at a restaurant, I make an attempt to let that be known.	1	2	3	4
2. I resent authority figures who try to tell me what to do.	1	2	3	4
3. I find that I often have to question authority.	1	2	3	4
4. I enjoy seeing someone else do something that neither of us is supposed to do.	1	2	3	4
5. I have a strong desire to maintain my personal freedom.	1	2	3	4
6. I enjoy playing "devil's advocate" whenever I can.	1	2	3	4
7. In discussions, I am easily persuaded by others.	1	2	3	4
8. Nothing turns me on as much as a good argument!	1	2	3	4
9. It would be better to have more freedom to do what I want on a job.	1	2	3	4
10. If I am told what to do, I often do the opposite.	1	2	3	4
11. I am sometimes afraid to disagree with others.	1	2	3	4
12. It really bothers me when police officers tell people what to do.	1	2	3	4
13. It does not upset me to change my plans because someone in the group wants to do something else.	1	2	3	4
14. I don't mind other people telling me what to do.	1	2	3	4

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
15. I enjoy debates with other people.	1	2	3	4
16. If someone asks a favor of me, I will think twice about what this person is really after.	1	2	3	4
17. I am not very tolerant of others' attempts to persuade me.	1	2	3	4
18. I often follow the suggestions of others.	1	2	3	4
19. I am relatively opinionated.	1	2	3	4
20. It is important to me to be in a powerful position relative to others.	1	2	3	4
21. I am very open to solutions to my problems from others.	1	2	3	4
22. I enjoy "showing up" people who think they are right.	1	2	3	4
23. I consider myself more competitive than cooperative.	1	2	3	4
24. I don't mind doing something for someone even when I don't know why I'm doing it.	1	2	3	4
25. I usually go along with others' advice.	1	2	3	4
26. I feel it is better to stand up for what I believe than to be silent.	1	2	3	4
27. I am very stubborn and set in my ways.	1	2	3	4
28. It is very important for me to get along well with the people I work with.	1	2	3	4