

Ambivalent sexism and the expected distribution of power in romantic relationships

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AMBIVALENT SEXISM AND THE EXPECTED DISTRIBUTION OF
POWER IN ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

by

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ABSTRACT
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Marquette University, 2011

The present study examined the associations between ambivalent sexism toward women and power in heterosexual romantic relationships. Specifically, power was measured globally and in specific domains of relationships (e.g., finances, childcare, sexual activities). College students were asked to complete measures assessing their levels of ambivalent sexism and the amount of power that they expected to have in their future, long-term romantic relationships as well as their perceived power in their current romantic relationships. It was predicted that participants would anticipate having more power in various areas of their relationship according to their gender and their levels of ambivalent sexism. Results indicated that for men, hostile sexism was correlated with expectations of possessing more overall power, decision-making power, and power in traditional masculine activities. For women, benevolent sexism was associated with expectations of having higher levels of sexual submission. For those participants who were in a romantic relationship, benevolent sexism in males was positively associated with power in their current dating activities. Overall, the results suggest that ambivalent sexism in men and women is associated with the amount of power that they expect to have in their future romantic relationships as well as the amount of power that they perceive having in their current romantic relationships.

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INTRODUCTION

Sexism occurs in almost all human societies and predicts gender inequality across different cultures (Glick & Fiske, 1997; Glick, Fiske, Mladinic, Saiz, Abrams, Masser, et al., 2000). Rooted in patriarchy, sexism is the endorsement of prejudicial beliefs and stereotypes based on gender (Glick & Fiske, 1997). Research has shown that women frequently experience sexism and that those experiences are correlated with psychological distress (Swim, Hyers, Cohen, & Ferguson, 2001). More specifically, sexism has been linked to mental health outcomes such as depression and anxiety in women (Jost & Kay, 2005; Klonoff, Landrine, & Campbell, 2000).

Since sexism is prevalent and often accompanied by negative psychological consequences, it is important to identify the various ways in which sexism can be expressed. One way that sexist attitudes are endorsed is through gender role ideology (Fischer, 2006; Rudman & Fairchild, 2007), which is defined as “how one judges the appropriateness of behaviors and characteristics of men and women in our society” (Fitzpatrick, Salgado, Suvak, King, & King, 2004, p. 92). Historically, traditional gender roles prescribe women to positions that are not as highly regarded by society as men’s roles (Faulkner, Kolts, & Hicks, 2008; Fischer, 2006). For example, one who holds traditional gender role beliefs may expect men to take the position of the strong and masculine breadwinner and the women to take on the role of the kind and caring homemaker (Fitzpatrick, et al., 2004). Nontraditional women, on the other hand, defy these standards and often seek professional careers and expect egalitarianism in different aspects of their lives (Wolfe, 1997). Traditional gender role beliefs are potent because they can transcend outside of women’s occupational opportunities and personality

characteristics and into their interactions with their romantic partners (Rudman & Fairchild, 2007). Within intimate relationships, this ideology has so “deeply influenced our cultural views of romantic love that many people are not free to simply and wholeheartedly experience love, but instead feel constrained to enact love in specific, highly gendered ways” (Rudman & Glick, 2008, p. 205). Also, traditional gender roles can perpetuate sexism because they encourage women to be dependant and obedient to their male significant other (Chen, Fiske, & Lee, 2009).

Taking into consideration the impact that traditional gender roles have on the different facets of life, it is essential to investigate how sexist ideology can affect men’s and women's expectations for their future, long-term romantic relationships. This line of research is important because while sexist attitudes about women are often held by men (Glick & Fiske, 2001), men and women still depend on one another for interpersonal needs such as heterosexual intimacy and sexual reproduction (Glick & Fiske, 1996). To help explain this phenomenon, Glick & Fiske (1996) conceptualized sexism as being dualistic or ambivalent in nature. According to their Ambivalent Sexism Theory, sexism is comprised of both hostile and benevolent attitudes toward women (Glick & Fiske, 1997).

Hostile sexism is “an adversarial view of gender relations in which women are perceived as seeking to control men, whether through sexuality or feminist ideology” (Glick & Fiske, 2001, p. 109) and has been the subject of research for many years (Fischer, 2006). One who holds hostile sexists beliefs is overtly negative toward women (Fischer, 2006) and may, for example, hire a less qualified man over a woman for a job position or express disparaging comments about women (Christopher & Mull, 2006).

Those women who defy traditional gender roles or challenge men's power are often the objects of hostile sexism (Chen et al., 2009). This form of sexism is also connected to interpersonal relationships because men may feel threatened by the power that women can gain within sexual relationships by using their physical attractiveness (Glick et al., 2000). Also, women's ability to sexually reproduce is believed to be another factor that promotes hostile sexism since some men resent the fact that they must depend on women in order to procreate (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Hostile sexist attitudes can also influence the nature of sexual activity between men and women. Specifically, men who are high in hostile sexism are more likely to express a willingness to commit rape (Abrams, Viki, Masser, & Bohner, 2003) as well as tolerate sexual harassment against women (Russell & Trigg, 2004).

Unlike the overt nature of hostile sexism, benevolent sexism is a "kinder and gentler justification of male dominance and prescribed gender roles" (Glick & Fiske, 1997, p.120). Benevolently sexist individuals assume that although women are inferior and weak, they should be protected by men because men need women for heterosexual intimacy and reproduction (Glick & Fiske, 2000). This type of sexism is comprised of three attitudes: women are pure and moral, women are fragile and need to be guarded by men, and finally, women and men need one another in order to be whole and happy (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Examples of benevolent sexist behaviors include holding doors open for women but not for men and protecting women from hearing lewd jokes (Forbes, Jung, & Haas, 2006).

Like hostile sexism, benevolent sexism can affect intimate relationships between men and women. Rudman & Fairchild (2007) found that benevolent ideology predicts the

perpetuation of traditional gender roles in romantic relationships. In other words, those who hold benevolent sexist views often believe that women should limit their personal ambitions in order to make the pursuit and nurturance of romantic love the defining goal in their life (Rudman & Glick, 2008). As a result, this can weaken women's power and the amount of influence that they have in society (Rudman & Glick, 2008).

In any context, benevolent sexism can be particularly insidious because it works "effectively and invisibly to promote gender inequality" (Glick et al., 2000, p. 763). Due to its subjectively complimentary façade, women and men are more willing to accept benevolent sexism toward women (Glick & Fiske, 2001). In a study of French women, Dardene, Dumont and Bollier (2007) found that men's expressed benevolent sexism, but not hostile sexism, had negative effects on women's ability to perform on certain tasks. They speculated that since benevolent sexism appears to praise women on the surface while implicitly implying that they lack competence, it can lead women to doubt their abilities (Dardene et al., 2007).

Although seemingly opposing attitudes, benevolent and hostile sexism are connected in that they both promote and perpetuate gender inequality (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Researchers have found that individuals who hold hostile sexist beliefs also endorse benevolent sexist beliefs (Glick et al., 2000). Similarly, people who are benevolently sexist are often hostile sexist as well, suggesting that hostile and benevolent sexism are positively correlated (Glick et al., 2000). It is believed that benevolent sexism may "legitimize hostile sexism, allowing a person to present a veneer of positive attitudes toward women behind which hostile sexist attitudes may lurk, consciously or not" (Fischer, 2006, p. 411).

A number of studies have been conducted examining the presence and effects of ambivalent sexism. Glick and colleagues (2000) gathered data from more than 15,000 participants in 19 countries and found that ambivalent sexism is prevalent across cultures and that men consistently score higher on hostile sexism measures than women. Also, while women generally reject hostile sexist ideology, they are more likely to endorse benevolent sexism. In countries or cultures where sexist attitudes are particularly common, women endorse benevolent sexism at a higher rate than men. This suggests that benevolent sexism can serve as a protective factor for women who perceive their environments as being sexist and hostile toward them (Fischer, 2006). However, utilizing benevolent sexism as protection comes at a high cost because it perpetuates gender inequality and the idea that women are inferior to men (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

Recently, researchers have begun to investigate ambivalent sexism's role in heterosexual, intimate relationships. In a study of Ukrainian college students and young professionals, Yakushko (2005) found that both men and women who endorsed ambivalent sexist ideology expressed negative attitudes toward heterosexual, romantic relationships. Specifically, men who scored higher on hostile sexism measures tended to be avoidant of romantic relationships while men who endorsed benevolent sexist attitudes had more anxiety about relationships, regardless of their lack of avoidance (Yakushko, 2005). Whether they were hostile or benevolently sexist, women experienced anxiety about relationships. Women, who were high on benevolent sexism specifically, reported fears of relational intimacy with men. Overall, this study demonstrated that ambivalent sexism is linked to negative implications for attitudes toward romantic relationships.

Benevolent sexism in particular may impact intimate, heterosexual relationships (Glick & Fiske, 1997). Researchers have found that men and women who endorse benevolent sexist beliefs are more likely to hold traditional views about courtship and dating behaviors (Viki, Abrams, & Hutchinson, 2003). Such individuals may, for example, believe that a man must be chivalrous and ask the woman out on a date and that it is highly inappropriate for a woman to initiate the courting process (Viki et al., 2003). Once a man and woman are involved in a romantic relationship, benevolent sexism can continue to restrict women's role within the relationship (Moya, Glick, Exposito, & Hart, 2007). A study of Spanish women revealed that participants who were high in benevolent sexism were willing to give up some of their independence and were accepting of protective restrictions placed on them by their male partners, even if those restrictions were explicitly sexist (Moya et al., 2007). Others have found that in general, benevolent sexism "may encourage women to accept less independence and autonomy in exchange for men's adoration and love" (Rudman & Glick, 2009, p. 207) and that some women expect or even demand the man to take on the protective role in the relationship, even if that protection limits her freedoms (Rudman & Glick, 2008).

Ambivalent sexism may also be associated with heterosexual mate selection and dating behavior across the world. Generally, men seek attractive women while women prefer resourceful men (Fletcher, 2002). Even in popular television programs and advertisements, men are depicted as desirable mates if they have material resources while women are expected to be beautiful nurturers (Rudman & Glick, 2008). Travaglia et al. (2009) studied college undergraduates in New Zealand and found ambivalent sexism was predictive of the type of qualities men and women found attractive in potential mates. For

example, women who were benevolently sexist preferred partners who would assume the role of the financial provider in their relationship. This could be due to the fact that benevolently sexist women are more likely to abide by gender traditional attitudes and thus expect the male to be the breadwinner in their relationship. Men who endorsed hostile sexist attitudes, on the other hand, preferred attractive and vivacious women. Perhaps this is because hostile sexist men view physically attractive women as “trophy” and utilize them as status markers of their ability to attract beautiful mates (Travaglia et al., 2009).

A similar study found that benevolent sexism is an important factor in mate selection and marriage norms amongst Chinese and American undergraduates (Chen et al., 2009). Benevolent sexism was related to men’s preference of submissive and home-oriented partners and women preference of dominant and resourceful men. Overall, benevolent sexist beliefs operated as an important aspect when it came to mate selection for both genders and in both cultures. Hostile sexism, on the other hand, became more relevant when participants were asked to respond to items assessing their beliefs on gender-role ideology in marriage norms. Hostile sexist men and women were more likely to endorse items that stressed traditional gender roles for both partners, such as the belief that violence against women is sometimes acceptable, male authority should be respected and upheld by all family members, and women should tend to the domestic tasks in marriage. These findings suggest that ambivalent sexism affects both genders’ preferences of romantic partners, the norms that guide how each spouse should behave, and the attitudes that each should hold (Travaglia et al., 2009).

The current study examines how ambivalent sexism affects the amount of power that men and women expect to have in their future, long-term romantic relationships. Generally, power is defined as the “means by which a person (or group) gets what is desired, despite opposition” (Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 1999, p. 689). Within intimate relationships, however, power is made up of a number of different facets. While some researchers define power as one partner’s ability to influence the other partner’s behavior (Blood & Wolfe, 1960), others characterize power according to one’s age, education level, and access to economical resources (Galliher et al., 1999). Historically, women have had less access to socioeconomic resources that would allow them to gain more power in romantic relationships (Chen, Fiske, & Lee, 2009; Femlee, 1994; Galliher et al., 1999). Many researchers speculate that this lower socioeconomic resource is often due to women’s responsibilities of raising children and completing housework coupled with the lower wages that women tend to receive (Chen et al., 2009; Femlee, 1994; Travaglia et al., 2009).

Even in the realm of sexuality, women, who are often celebrated for their sex appeal, are discouraged from using their physical attractiveness to gain power or manipulate men (Rudman & Glick, 2008). Once sexual activity is contemplated, men are expected to take on the role of the strong and masculine initiators while the women are supposed to be the demur and passive recipients (Rudman & Glick, 2008). In other words, women, especially those who are partnered with benevolently sexist men, “must learn to curb their natural instincts (e.g., not to actively seek sex even when they want it) and wrap their sexual desires in the guise of worshipful love and romance” (Rudman & Glick, 2008, p. 239). Studies have found, however, that women and men who take on

these traditional gender roles during intimacy report experiencing less sexual satisfaction (Sanchez, Crocker, & Boike, 2005).

When assessing overall power, research indicates that in the United States, husbands typically possess more power in marital relationships and that imbalances of power within relationships are linked to increases in conflict and psychological distress (Femlee, 1994). As a result, “how couples manage the gendered aspects of power is an important clinical issue” (Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 2009, p. 5). It is believed that tension can arise in marriages when women demand more power in their relationships, yet their husbands are unwilling to agree with their egalitarian views (Amato & Booth, 1995). Results from this line of research have important clinical implications since divorce rates in the United States have soared to approximately 50%, and relationship problems are the most common reason why people seek psychotherapy (Snyder, Heyman, & Haynes, 2005). In addition, studies have found that relationship turmoil is linked to symptoms of depression in both married and premarital couples (Remen & Chambless, 2001; Toplin, Cohen, Gunthert, & Farrehi, 2006).

However, unlike in married couples, certain types of uneven distributions of power do not typically occur in college dating relationships for a number of reasons (Femlee, 1994). First, men and women involved in romantic relationships as undergraduates are likely to be similar in age, income, and education level; this can make it difficult for one partner to gain power over their significant other (Femlee, 1994). In addition, college couples typically do not have children or share finances, both of which can also influence the distribution of power (Femlee, 1994). In order to compensate for this fact, the current study asked college students to envision a long-term, romantic

relationships in their future when responding to items that assessed their ambivalent sexism and their expectations of the amount of power they will have in that relationship. Studying future expectations can have important implications because these assumptions often lay the foundation for what some people, whether or not they have been in a committed, romantic relationship in the past, desire and predict will occur in their future relationships.

Despite the large body of literature examining ambivalent sexism, there is no known research on how ambivalent sexism affects the power dynamics of romantic partners. The current study is unique because it asked participants to rate the amount of power that they anticipate having in their future, long-term romantic relationships. In addition, participants predicted how much power they anticipate having in their relationship as a whole and in various areas of their relationship (e. g., finances, housework, child rearing, career, religious activities, sexual activities, physical appearance, time spent with extended family, and how major holidays are celebrated). Based on previous findings, we hypothesized that women and men would anticipate having power in different areas of their relationship according to their levels of hostile and benevolent sexism. Specifically, for women, benevolent and hostile sexism were hypothesized to positively correlate with expectations of having power in areas such as childcare, housework, time spent with extended family, and the celebrations of major holidays; but negatively correlate with expectations of having control of the finances, religious activities, sexual activities, and aspects of her and her partner's physical appearance. It was also hypothesized that, for women, hostile and benevolent sexism would be negatively associated with overall power, decision-making power and sexual

dominance. For men, benevolent sexism and hostile sexism were hypothesized to positively correlate with expectations of having power in areas such as finances, career choices, religious activities, sexual activities, and aspects of his and his partner's physical appearance; but negatively correlate with expectations of having power in childcare, housework, time spent with extended family, and the celebrations of major holidays. It was also hypothesized that, for men, hostile and benevolent sexism would be positively associated with overall power, decision-making power and sexual dominance.

For those participants who report being in a romantic relationship, it was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would positively correlate with perceived power when it comes to time spent with friends, types of activities that the couple partakes in, how each partner dresses, who pays for dates, and sexual activities for men but negatively for women. Although there were no *a priori* hypotheses regarding how ambivalent sexism correlates with relationship satisfaction, exploratory analyses were conducted.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were female and male undergraduate psychology students enrolled in a medium-sized, private university in the Midwest region of the United States. All participants received partial course credit. Data were collected from 258 participants (141 women, 117 men). The mean age was 18.63 for women ($SD = 0.98$) and 18.97 for men ($SD = 1.14$). Over 60% ($n = 157$) percent of the sample were freshman, 24.4 % ($n = 63$) were sophomores, 7.8 % ($n = 20$) were juniors, and 7% ($n = 18$) were seniors.

The majority of participants (87.2 %, $n = 225$) identified as Caucasian/White. Ethnic breakdown of the remaining participants was 5.4 % ($n = 14$) Asian American, 4.7

% ($n = 12$) African American, 4.7% ($n = 12$) Latino/Latina, 3.1% ($n = 8$) Biracial, 0.8% ($n = 2$) Native American, and 6 ($n = 2.4$) Other Ethnicity (participants were allowed to choose more than one ethnic category). In regards to religious affiliation, 66.3 % ($n = 171$) identified as Catholic while 3.5% ($n = 9$) identified as Methodist, 6.6% ($n = 17$) identified as Lutheran, 16.7% ($n = 43$) identified as “Other,” and 7.8% ($n = 20$) did not identify with any of the provided religious affiliations. Less than 10% ($n = 9$) of participants identified as Baptist, Buddhist, Episcopalian, Hindu, or Muslim; no participants identified as Jewish or Mormon (participants were allowed to choose more than one religious affiliation).

About 38 % ($n = 99$) of participants reported that they were currently in a romantic relationship. Most participants (89.1 %; $n = 230$) categorized their sexual orientation as “completely heterosexual” while the remaining participants (10.5 %; $n = 28$) identified somewhere between 2 and 6 on a continuum, with 1 being “completely heterosexual” and 7 being “completely homosexual”.

Procedure

Sessions were conducted by female and male research assistants. After providing informed consent, all participants were told that the main goal of this study is to assess college undergraduates’ expectations for their lasting, romantic relationships in the future. Next, they were seated at a computer where they responded to all questionnaires. Upon completion, the research assistant debriefed participants about the study and thanked them for their participation.

Instruments

Ambivalent sexism. In order to assess participants’ levels of ambivalent sexism, all participants completed Glick & Fiske’s (1996) Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI).

The ASI (Appendix A) is a 22-item self report measure that assessed both benevolent and hostile sexism in two separate subscales. Every item was scored on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 to 5 as follows: 0 = Disagree strongly, 3 = Agree slightly, 5 = Agree strongly. Scores on each subscale were averaged in order to achieve a hostile and benevolent sexism score with higher scores representing greater sexism. Sample items from the hostile sexism subscale include: “Women are too easily offended” and “Feminists are seeking for women to have more power than men.” Sample items from the benevolent subscale include: “In a disaster, women ought to be rescued before men” and “Women should be cherished and protected by men.” The reliability of the benevolent sexism and hostile sexism subscales were .76 and .83, respectively as assessed by coefficient alpha.

Overall power. To measure the amount of overall power participants expected to have in their future, long-term romantic relationships, they responded to one item known as Global Power (Appendix B). This item had been utilized in a previous study examining power and romantic relationships (Femlee, 1994). The wording of this item was slightly altered to address the future-oriented nature of this study and read: “In your relationship, who do you expect to have more power?” This item was scored on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 7 as follows: 1 = expect that my partner will have much more power than me and 7 = I expect to have much more power than my partner.

Decision-making power. Participants also responded to one item known as Decision-Making Power that assessed the overall amount of decisions they expected to make in their relationship (Appendix C). This item had also been utilized in a prior study (Femlee, 1994) but was slightly reworded to assess participant’s future expectations to

read: “In your relationship, who do you expect to make more of the decisions about what the two of you do together?” A 7-point Likert scale (1 = I expect that my partner will make most of the decisions and 7 = I expect to make most of the decisions) was the scoring criteria for this item.

Categorical Future Expected Power. All participants responded to the Categorical Future Expected Power Scale, which was newly developed and assessed the amount of power they expected to have in various aspects of their relationships (e.g., finances, housework, childcare, career, sexual activity, physical appearance, time spent with extended family, and how major holidays are celebrated). This questionnaire measured the amount of influence that participants expected to have about who engages in a certain activity, how that activity is completed, and when appropriate, where that activity takes place (Appendix D). Sample items from this questionnaire include: “How much influence do you expect to have about who will do the indoor housework (e.g., cooking, cleaning, grocery shopping, etc)?”; “How much influence do you expect to have about how the indoor housework (e.g., cooking, cleaning, grocery shopping, etc) will be done?”; “How much influence do you expect to have about where your family will spend their holidays?”; and “How much influence do you expect to have about your partner’s physical appearance (e.g., his/her hair, clothing, weight, etc)?” Participants were asked to respond to each item in two different ways. First, a 7-point Likert scale (1 = None of the influence, 4 = Some of the influence, 7 = A lot of the influence) assessed the amount of influence that participants expected to possess. Next, in order to determine how much influence participants anticipated having in relation to their romantic partners, five response options were provided (e.g., “My partner and I will have equal influence,” “My

partner will have a little more influence,” “My partner will have a lot more influence,” “I will have a little more influence,” and “I will have a lot more influence”). However, after conducting a factor analysis, it was determined that only the items with the Likert scale response options would be used in all analyses with higher scores indicating more perceived power. Based on the factor analysis, this scale contained six subscales known as: Traditional Feminine Activities ($\alpha = .73$), Activities with Extended Family ($\alpha = .71$), Sexual Activities ($\alpha = .67$), Religious Activities ($\alpha = .60$), Traditional Masculine Activities ($\alpha = .52$), and Control over Partner ($\alpha = .42$).

Sexual Functions Inventory. In order to measure dominance and submission as motives for engaging in sexual activities, participants responded to 16 items from the Nelson’s (1978) Sexual Functions Inventory (Appendix E). These items were scored on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 4 as follows: 1 = Not at all important to 4 = Very important. Sample items from the Sexual Dominance Scale include: “Because I like the feeling that I have someone in my grasp” and “Because I like it when my partner is really open and vulnerable to me,” with higher scores indicating more sexual dominance. Items from the Sexual Submission Scale include: “Because sex allows me to feel vulnerable” and “Because when my partner wants to have sex I feel like I should oblige him/her,” with higher scores representing more sexual submission. The reliability of these subscales were good ($\alpha = .82$ for Sexual Dominance and $\alpha = .79$ for Sexual Submission).

Relationship Quality. Participants who reported currently being in a romantic relationship completed 6 items from Norton’s Quality of Marriage Index (Norton, 1983) to assess current relationship satisfaction (Appendix f). In order to make these items applicable to our participant population, all items were slightly reworded by replacing the

word “marriage” with the word “relationship.” Sample items for this questionnaire include: “We have a good relationship”; “Our relationship is strong”; and “My relationship with my partner makes me happy”. Six of the seven items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1= Very strong disagreement to 7 = Very strong agreement. One item, which asked participants to rate their overall degree of happiness in their current relationship, was on a 10-point Likert scale as follows: 1 = Very unhappy, 10 = Perfectly happy. Mean scores of these items were calculated with higher scores representing greater relationship satisfaction. Reliability for this scale was good for the current sample, with Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .89.

Categorical Current Relationship Power. Participants who reported that they were in a romantic relationship also responded to the Categorical Current Relationship Power Scale, which was newly developed and assessed the amount of power that they currently possessed in various aspects of their relationship (e.g., time spent with friends, types of activities that the couple partakes in, how each partner dresses, who pays for dates, and sexual activities). This questionnaire measured the amount of influence that participants currently have about who engages in a certain activity, how that activity is completed, and when appropriate, where that activity takes place (Appendix G). Sample items from this questionnaire include: “How much influence do you currently have about who pays for dates”; “How much influence do you currently have about when you and your partner engage in sexual activities”; and “How much influence do you currently have about how much time you spend with your friends”. Participants responded to each item in two different ways. First, a 7-point Likert scale (1= None of the influence, 4 = Some of the influence, 7 = A lot of the influence) assessed the amount of perceived

influence that participants currently possessed. Next, in order to determine how much influence participants have in relation to their romantic partners, five response options were provided (i.e., “My partner and I have equal influence,” “My partner has a little more influence,” “My partner has a lot more influence,” “I have a little more influence,” and “I have a lot more influence”). However, after conducting a factor analysis, it was determined that only the items with the Likert scale response options would be used in all analyses with higher scores indicating more power. Based on the factor analysis, this scale contains three subscales: Current Sexual Activities ($\alpha = .86$), Current Control over Partner ($\alpha = .54$), and Current Dating Activities ($\alpha = .30$).

Demographics. All participants responded to demographic items that assessed their gender, class standing, relationship status, religious affiliation, ethnicity and sexual orientation (Appendix H). Participants were given seven options to categorize their racial/ethnic background (Caucasian/White, African American, Hispanic, Native American, Asian/ Pacific Islander, Bi-racial Mixed, and Other). A 7-point Likert scale (1 = Completely Heterosexual, 7 = Completely Homosexual) assessed participants’ sexual orientation (Kinsey, Pomeroy, & Martin, 1984).

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

The original sample size consisted of 147 female and 119 male participants. The data from two participants were excluded from all analyses due to incompleteness while another two participants were excluded because their survey completion time fell three standard deviations below the mean, suggesting careless responding. Also, an additional

four participants were not included in the analyses because they identified as “completely homosexual” on a demographic questionnaire. Due to the fact that there were not enough participants in this group to conduct separate analyses examining homosexual relationships, it was determined these participants would be excluded from the current analyses. The final sample size consisted of 258 participants (141 females, 117 males).

All analyses were conducted in SPSS Version 18 and data were screened to ensure that they met the assumptions of the analyses. The means and standard deviations of each variable for men and women are presented in Table 1. The zero-order correlations between ambivalent sexism and power variables for men and women are presented in Table 2. Factor analyses were performed on the newly developed Categorical Future Expected Power and Categorical Current Relationship Power items.

Factor Analyses

The 18 items on the newly developed Categorical Future Expected Power Scale were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation. PCA revealed the presence of six components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 24.37%, 10.84%, 8.90%, 7.90%, 6.19% and 5.75% of the variance, respectively. Exploratory analysis utilizing less than six components resulted in some items cross-loading on two factors; therefore, the six component model was maintained explaining a total of 63.94% of the total variance. The varimax rotation solution revealed that all six components showed a number of strong loadings and all items loaded substantially on one component, as shown in Table 3. The correlations between the components for men and women are reported in Table 4. Component 1 was named “Traditional Feminine Activities” and included 4 items about indoor housework and childcare ($\alpha = .73$).

Component 2 was named “Activities with Extended Family” and included 3 items about celebration of holidays and time spent with extended families ($\alpha = .71$). Component 3 was labeled “Religious Activities” and included 3 items pertaining to which religion the participant and their children would practice ($\alpha = .60$). Component 4 was named “Sexual Activities” and included 2 items that assessed how and when sexual activities would take place ($\alpha = .67$). Component 5 was labeled “Traditional Masculine Activities” and included 3 items that pertained to outdoor housework and finances ($\alpha = .52$). Finally, Component 6 was named “Control over Partner” and included 3 items that examined the amount of control that participants expected to have over their partner’s physical appearance and behaviors ($\alpha = .42$).

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of Major Variables for Women and Men

Variable	Women	Men
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Hostile Sexism ^a	3.08 (.75)	3.44 (.85)
Benevolent Sexism	3.54 (.72)	3.72 (.64)
Sexual Submission ^b	2.43 (.71)	2.40 (.68)
Sexual Dominance	2.19 (.83)	2.29 (.68)
Overall Power ^c	3.91 (.57)	3.75 (.72)
Decision-Making Power ^d	4.01 (.72)	3.81 (.87)
Traditional Feminine Activities ^e	4.79 (.70)	4.06 (.56)
Traditional Masculine Activities	4.23 (.64)	4.85 (.78)
Activities with Extended Family	4.48 (.69)	4.28 (.52)
Sexual Activities	4.47 (.82)	4.22 (.73)
Religious Activities	5.33 (.87)	5.05 (1.08)
Control Over Partner	2.52 (.87)	2.52 (.96)
Quality of Marriage ^f	6.14 (1.35)	6.06 (1.33)
Current Sexual Activities ^g	4.38 (.89)	4.34 (.89)
Current Control Over Partner	2.18 (.93)	2.38 (.82)
Current Dating Activities	3.98 (.75)	4.96 (.84)

Note. Statistics are based on $N = 258$ for all variables except Quality of Marriage, Current Sexual Activities, Current Control Over Partner and Current Dating Activities, which are based on $n = 99$.

^a Hostile and benevolent sexism were rated on 6-point scales (0 = disagree strongly, 5 = agree strongly)

^b Sexual submission and dominance were rated on 4-point scales (1 = not at all important, 4 = very important)

^c Overall power was rated on a 7-point scale (1 = expect that my partner will have much more power than me, 7 = I expect to have much more power than my partner).

^d Decision-making power was rated on a 7-point scale (1 = I expect that my partner will make most of the decisions, 7 = I expect to make most of the decisions).

^e Subscales of the Categorical Future Expected Power Scale were rated on 7-point scales (1 = None of the influence, 7 = A lot of the influence).

^f Quality of marriage was rated on a 7-point scale (1=very strong disagreement, 7 = very strong agreement).

^g Subscales of the Categorical Current Relationship Power Scale were rated on 7-point scales (1 = None of the influence, 7 = A lot of the influence).

Table 2
Pearson Correlations between Ambivalent Sexism and Power Variables for Women and Men

Variable	Women		Men	
	HS	BS	HS	BS
Sexual Submission	.20*	.24**	.16	-.07
Sexual Dominance	.23**	.25**	.42**	.08
Overall Power	.03*	-.06	.37**	.09
Decision-Making Power	.00	-.02	.30**	.11
Traditional Feminine Activities	.21*	.32**	.04	.10
Traditional Masculine Activities	.12	.09	.37**	.12
Activities with Extended Family	.20*	.12	.34**	.13
Sexual Activities	.11	.14	.20*	.00
Religious Activities	.06	.11	-.02	-.08
Control Over Partner	.22**	.18*	.15	.07
Quality of Marriage	-.19	-.01	-.04	.07
Current Sexual Activities	.33**	.04	.34*	-.02
Current Control Over Partner	.31*	.28*	.11	-.08
Current Dating Activities	.14*	-.02	.24	.31

Note. HS = Hostile Sexism; BS = Benevolent Sexism

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3
Factor Matrix for PCA with Varimax Rotation for Categorical Future Expected Power

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
2. indoor housework (how)	.79	.09	.11	.01	-.15	-.04
1. indoor housework (who)	.79	.07	.03	.16	-.05	.05
5. childcare (who)	.72	.28	.02	.23	-.03	-.05
6. childcare (how)	.45	.41	.27	.04	.33	.12
8. holidays (how)	.11	.82	-.04	.29	.02	.01
7. holidays (where)	.08	.81	-.01	.09	.09	.02
8. extended family	.30	.61	.20	.02	.26	.08
16. religion (how often)	.04	-.01	.76	.18	-.01	.12
15. religion (you practice)	.16	-.05	.71	-.02	.11	-.37
17. religion (children)	-.00	.43	.66	.08	-.04	.34
13. sex (how)	.19	.09	.12	.80	.16	-.00
14. sex (when)	.17	.25	.08	.74	.08	.11
4. finances	.14	.12	-.13	-.15	.72	.14
3. outdoor work (who)	-.27	.06	.02	.21	.66	.03
10. outdoor work (how)	-.13	.11	.17	.24	.65	-.13
18. partner's religion	.00	.20	.21	.11	-.01	.76
11. partner's appearance	.44	.04	-.05	.24	.11	.58
12. own appearance (rev)	-.23	-.18	-.22	-.33	.06	.57

Note. All major loadings for each item are bolded. Factor 1 = Traditional Feminine Activities; Factor 2 = Activities with Extended Family; Factor 3 = Religious Activities; Factor 4 = Sexual Activities; Factor 5 = Traditional Masculine Activities; Factor 6 = Control over Partner.

Table 4
Pearson Correlations of Categorical Future Expected Power Factors for Men and Women

Factors	Feminine	Family	Religion	Sex	Masculine	Control
Feminine	—	.36**	.16	.23**	.02	.10
Family	.49**	—	.13	.39**	.26**	.20
Religious	.27**	.29**	—	.06	.07	.13
Sex	.43**	.41**	.39**	—	.26**	.14
Masculine	.47**	.45**	.25**	.41**	—	.03
Control	.24**	.19*	.00	.15	.16	—

Note. Correlations for men and women are presented in the top and bottom portion of the table, respectively.

Feminine = Traditional Feminine Activities; Family = Activities with Extended Family; Religion = Religious Activities; Sex = Sexual Activities; Masculine= Traditional Masculine Activities; Control = Control over Partner.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

The 8 items on the newly developed Categorical Current Relationship Power Scale were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation. PCA revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 25.65%, 20.38%, and 15.32%, and of the variance, respectively. Exploratory analysis utilizing less than three components resulted in some items cross-loading on two factors. One item (“How much influence do you currently have about how much time you spend with your friends?”) was excluded from all analyses because it loaded individually on its own component. Therefore, the three component model was maintained explaining a total of 61.35% of the total variance. The varimax rotation solution revealed that all three components showed a number of strong loadings and all variables loaded substantially on one component, as shown in Table 5. The correlations between components for women and men are presented in Table 6. Component 1 was labeled “Current Sexual Activities” and included 2 items that assessed how and when sexual activities take place ($\alpha = .86$). Component 2 was labeled “Current Control over Partner” and included 3 items that

assessed control over one's partners' physical appearance and behaviors ($\alpha = .53$).

Finally, Component 3 was named "Current Dating Activities" and included 2 items that assessed control over what types of activities couples engage in and who pays for those activities ($\alpha = .30$).

Table 5

Factor Matrix for PCA with Varimax Rotation for Categorical Current Relationship Power

Item	Current Sexual Activities	Current Control over Partner	Current Dating Activities
8. sex (when)	.92	.05	-.00
7. sex (how)	.91	.02	.03
3. time partner spends with friends	.14	.69	.24
5. own appearance (rev)	-.06	.68	-.25
6. partner's physical appearance	.11	.65	.36
4. who pays for dates	-.19	.04	.76
1. activities on dates	.41	-.12	.68

Note. All major loadings for each item are bolded.

Table 6

Pearson Correlations of Categorical Current Relationship Power Factors for Men and Women

Factors	Current Sexual Activities	Current Control over Partner	Current Dating Activities
Current Sexual Activities	—	.11	.09
Current Control over Partner	.21	—	.07
Current Dating Activities	.19	-.10	—

Note. Correlations for men and women are presented in the top and bottom portion of the table, respectively.

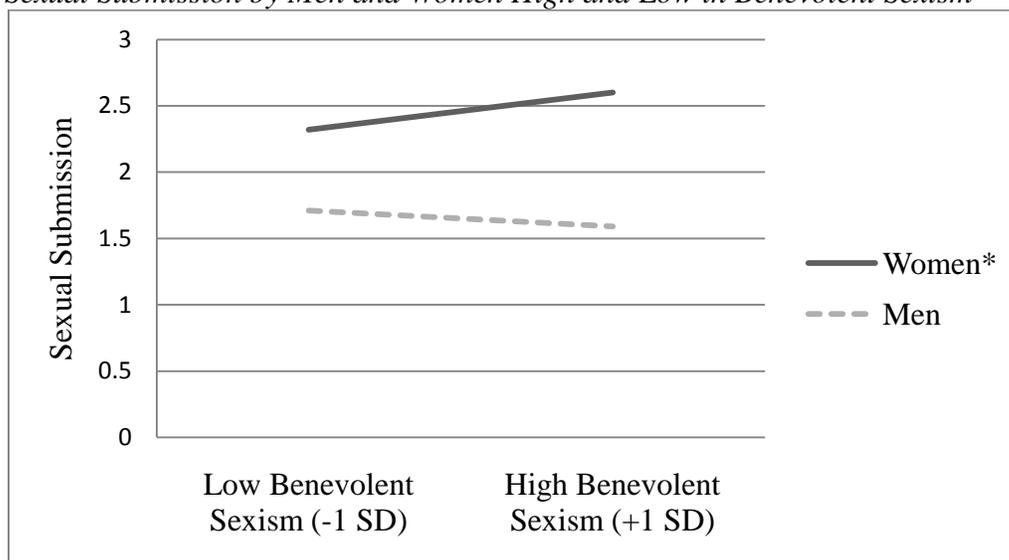
Ambivalent Sexism and Sexual Functioning

To examine the relationship between hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, gender, and their interactions, benevolent and hostile sexism were centered and multiple

regressions were conducted. Separate analyses were conducted for each of the fourteen outcomes: Sexual Submission, Sexual Dominance, Overall Power, Decision-Making Power, Quality of Relationship, the 6 subscales of Categorical Future Expected Power, and the 3 subscales of Categorical Current Relationship Power.

The model testing the hypothesis that ambivalent sexism would be negatively associated with sexual submission for men and positively for women was significant ($F(5,252) = 3.27, p = .01, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .04$) and benevolent sexism was positively associated with sexual submission ($\beta = .20, p = .01$). Hostile sexism ($\beta = .18, p = .06$), gender ($\beta = -.06, p = .34$), the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = -.02, p = .86$) were not significantly associated with sexual submission. However, the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender was significant ($\beta = -.18, p = .03$). Simple slope analyses (Preacher, 2006) testing for benevolent sexism at 1 SD above and below the mean indicated that for women there was a significant positive association between benevolent sexism and sexual submissiveness ($b = .21, p = .02$), however the slope was not significant for men ($b = -.09, p = .39$), see Figure 1.

Figure 1
Sexual Submission by Men and Women High and Low in Benevolent Sexism



*Simple slope test significant at $p < .05$

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively correlated with sexual dominance for men and negatively correlated for women. The model accounted for a significant percentage of the variance in sexual dominance ($F(5,252) = 7.36, p < .001$, Adjusted $R^2 = .11$) Specifically, hostile sexism ($\beta = .22, p = .01$) and benevolent sexism ($\beta = .22, p = .01$) were both positively correlated with sexual dominance. However, gender ($\beta = -.02, p = .73$), the interactions between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = -.11, p = .17$), and hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = .09, p = .31$) were not significantly associated with sexual submission.

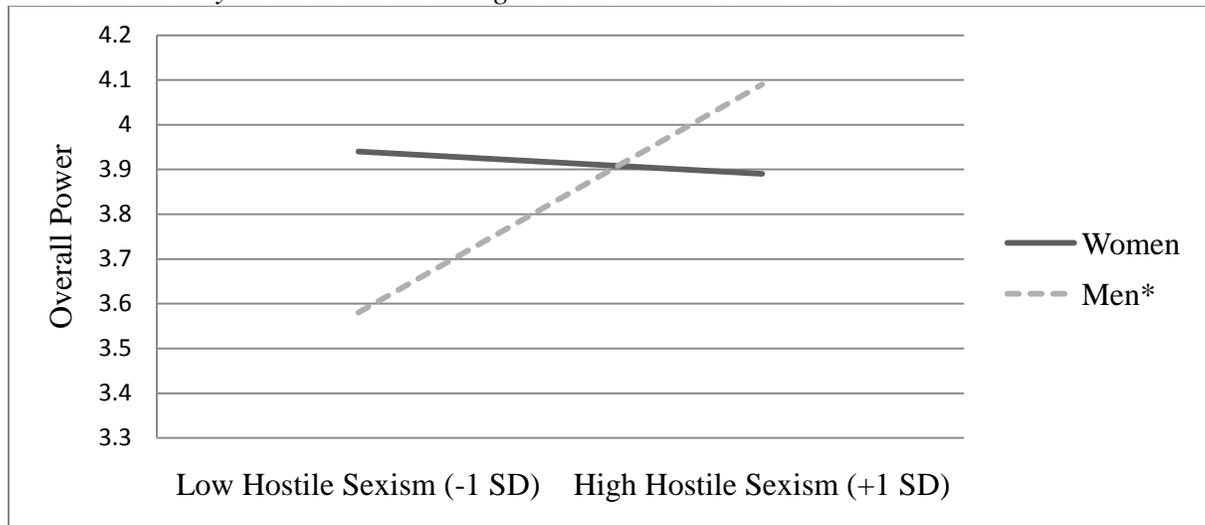
Ambivalent Sexism and Overall Power

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively associated with overall power for men and negatively associated for women. The regression was significant ($F(5,252) = 5.43, p = .001$, Adjusted $R^2 = .08$). Hostile sexism ($\beta = .04, p =$

.66), benevolent sexism ($\beta = -.06, p = .45$), gender ($\beta = -.06, p = .35$), the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = -.01, p = .93$) were not significantly associated with sexual submission. However, the interaction between hostile sexism and gender was significant ($\beta = -.31, p < .001$). Simple slope analyses (Preacher, 2006) testing for hostile sexism at 1 SD above and below the mean indicated that for men there was a significant positive association between hostile sexism and overall power ($b = .31, p = .001$), however the slope was not significant for women ($b = -.31, p = .66$), see Figure 2.

Figure 2

Overall Power by Men and Women High and Low in Hostile Sexism



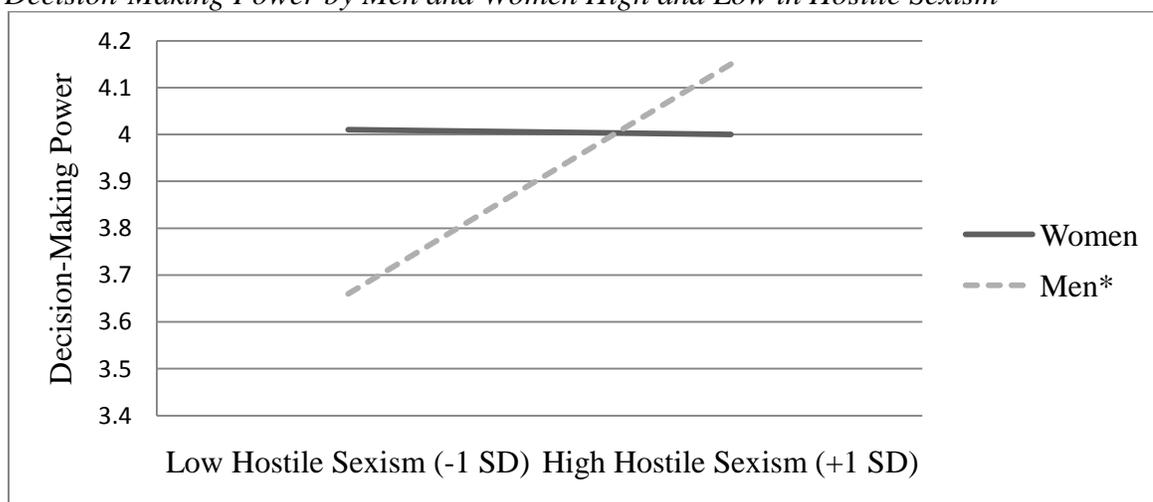
*Simple slope test significant at $p < .05$

Ambivalent Sexism and Decision-Making Power

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively correlated with decision-making power for men and negatively correlated for women. The model accounted for a significant percentage of the variance in decision-making power

($F(5,252) = 3.60, p < .01, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .05$). Hostile sexism ($\beta = .00, p = .96$), benevolent sexism ($\beta = -.02, p = .84$), gender ($\beta = -.06, p = .31$), and the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = -.06, p = .46$) were not significantly associated with sexual submission. However, the interaction between hostile sexism and gender was significant ($\beta = -.22, p = .02$). Simple slope analyses (Preacher, 2006) testing for hostile sexism at 1 SD above and below the mean indicated that for men there was a significant positive association between hostile sexism and decision-making power ($b = .30, p < .001$), however the slope was not significant for women ($b = -.00, p = .96$), see Figure 3.

Figure 3
Decision-Making Power by Men and Women High and Low in Hostile Sexism



*Simple slope test significant at $p < .05$

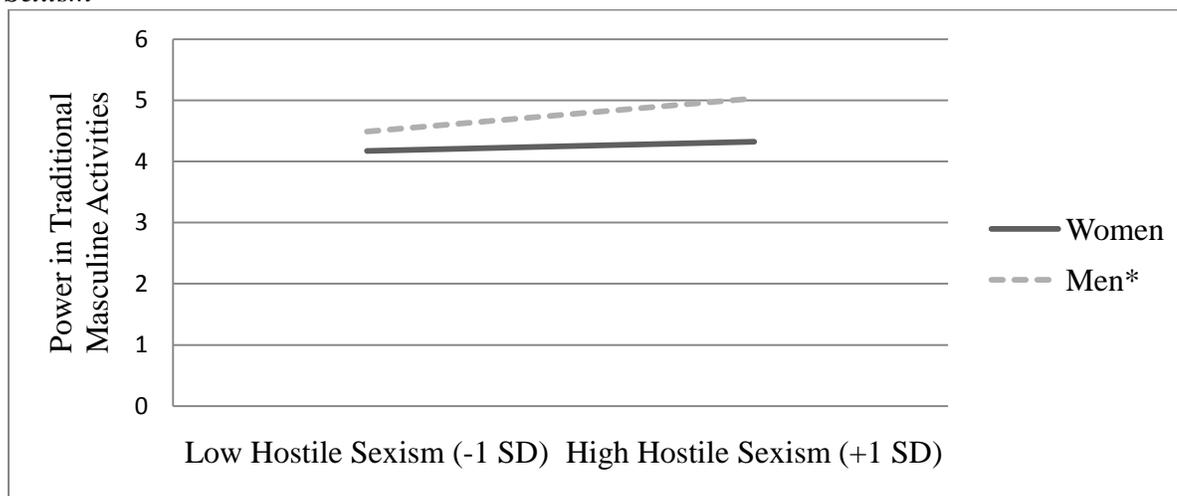
Ambivalent Sexism and Categorical Future Expected Power

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively associated with power in traditional feminine activities for women and negatively associated for men.

The model was significant ($F(5,252) = 22.55, p = <.001, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .30$). Specifically, benevolent sexism ($\beta = .26, p = <.001$) and hostile sexism ($\beta = .16, p = .04$) were positively associated with perceived power in traditional feminine activities. In addition, participant gender predicted power in traditional feminine activities ($\beta = -.53, p = <.001$) such that women were more likely to anticipate having power in traditional feminine activities than men. However, the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = -.11, p = .10$) and the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = -.10, p = .22$) were not significantly associated with power in traditional feminine activities.

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively associated with power in traditional masculine activities for men and negatively associated for women. The model was significant ($F(5,252) = 15.71, p = <.001, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .22$). Participant gender predicted power ($\beta = .33, p = <.001$) such that men anticipated having more power in traditional masculine activities than women. Hostile sexism ($\beta = .09, p = .26$), benevolent sexism ($\beta = .06, p = .45$), and the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = .03, p = .70$) were not significantly associated with sexual submission. However, the interaction between hostile sexism and gender was significant ($\beta = .18, p = .03$). Simple slope analyses (Preacher, 2006) testing for hostile sexism at 1 SD above and below the mean indicated that for men there was a significant positive association between hostile sexism and power in traditional masculine activities ($b = .33, p = <.001$), however the slope was not significant for women ($b = -.09, p = .25$), see Figure 4.

Figure 4
Power in Traditional Masculine Activities by Men and Women High and Low in Hostile Sexism



*Simple slope test significant at $p < .05$

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively correlated with power in activities with extended family for women and negatively correlated for men. The regression was significant ($F(5,252) = 5.16, p < .001, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .08$). Hostile sexism ($\beta = .22, p = .02$) was positively correlated with expectations of having power in activities with extended family. Gender was negatively correlated with this dependent variable ($\beta = -.02, p < .001$) suggesting that women anticipated having more power in activities with extended family. However, benevolent sexism ($\beta = .09, p = .28$), the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = .03, p = .74$), and the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = .00, p = .97$) were not significantly associated with power in activities with extended family.

It was also hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively associated with power in sexual activities for men and negatively associated for women. The model was significant ($F(5,252) = 2.95, p = .01, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .04$). Participant gender was

negatively correlated with power in sexual activities ($\beta = -0.19, p < .01$) indicating that women anticipated having more power than men when making decisions about sex in the future. Hostile sexism ($\beta = .09, p = .31$), benevolent sexism ($\beta = .12, p = .13$), the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = .06, p = .52$), and the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = -.09, p = .27$) were not significantly associated with power in sexual activities.

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively correlated with control over one's partner for men and negatively correlated for women. The regression was significant ($F(5,252) = 2.43, p = .04, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .03$). Specifically, hostile sexism was positively associated with anticipated control over one's partner ($\beta = 0.20, p = .04$). Benevolent sexism ($\beta = .12, p = .11$), gender ($\beta = -.05, p = .44$), the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = -.04, p = .68$), and the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = -.04, p = .63$) did not significantly predict control over one's partner.

It was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would be positively correlated with power in religious activities in men and negatively associated in women. This regression was not significant ($F(5,251) = 1.28, p = .27, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .01$).

Ambivalent Sexism and Categorical Current Relationship Power

For those participants who reported being in a romantic relationship ($n = 99, 62$ women, 37 men), it was hypothesized that ambivalent sexism would positively correlate with men's power and negatively correlate with women's power in current sexual activities, current control over partner, and current dating activities. To test these hypotheses, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, gender and their interactions were entered

into multiple regressions. The regression examining current sexual activities was marginally significant ($F(5, 92) = 2.25, p = .06, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .06$). Specifically, hostile sexism was positively associated with perceived power over current sexual activities ($\beta = 0.38, p = .01$). However, benevolent sexism ($\beta = .02, p = .88$), gender ($\beta = -.08, p = .42$), the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = -.06, p = .67$), and the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = -.04, p = .73$) did not significantly predict power in current sexual activities.

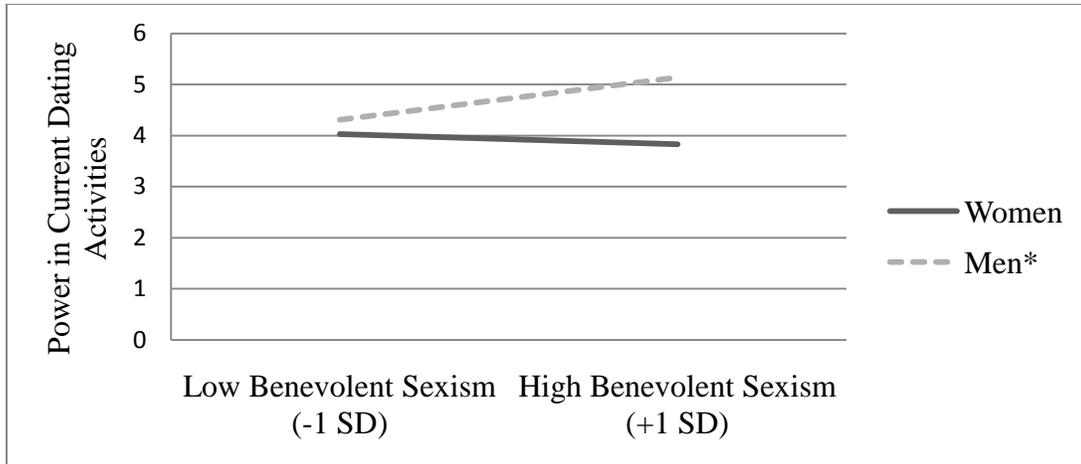
The model testing current control over one's partner was significant ($F(5, 93) = 2.99, p = .02, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .09$). Hostile sexism ($\beta = 0.34, p = .02$) and benevolent sexism ($\beta = 0.27, p = .04$) were positively correlated with perceptions of currently controlling one's partner. Gender ($\beta = .06, p = .53$), the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = -.17, p = .23$), and the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender ($\beta = -.19, p = .13$) failed to significantly predict current control over one's partner.

The model testing current dating activities was significant ($F(5, 93) = 12.22, p < .001, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .04$). Specifically, participant gender predicted perceived power over current dating activities ($\beta = 0.44, p < .001$) such that men reported having more power in this domain. Hostile sexism ($\beta = .17, p = .17$), benevolent sexism ($\beta = -.11, p = .31$), and the interaction between hostile sexism and gender ($\beta = .04, p = .74$) were not significantly associated with power in current dating activities. However, the interaction between benevolent sexism and gender in current dating activities was significant ($\beta = .35, p < .01$). Simple slope analyses (Preacher, 2006) testing for benevolent sexism at 1 SD above and below the mean indicated that for men there was a significant positive

association between benevolent sexism and current dating activities ($b = .60, p = .04$), however the slope was not significant for women ($b = -.14, p = .32$), see Figure 5.

Figure 5

Power in Current Dating Activities by Men and Women High and Low in Benevolent Sexism



*Simple slope test significant at $p < .05$

Ambivalent Sexism and Quality of Relationship

Although there were no *a priori* hypotheses regarding how ambivalent sexism would correlate with relationship satisfaction for those participants currently in a romantic relationship, benevolent sexism, hostile sexism, gender and their interactions were entered into a multiple regression for exploratory analyses. However, these variables did not significantly predict relationship satisfaction ($F(5, 93) = .60, p = .70$, Adjusted $R^2 = -.02$).

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between ambivalent sexism towards women and the amount of power that young men and women expected to possess in their future, long-term romantic relationships. It was hypothesized that ambivalently sexist women would anticipate having more power in traditional feminine activities and activities with their extended families. On the other hand, it was predicted that ambivalently sexist men would expect to have more overall power, decision-making power, as well as power in traditional masculine activities, religious activities, and sexual activities. Participants who were currently in a romantic relationship were also asked to report the amount of perceived power they possessed in various areas of their relationship. It was hypothesized that ambivalently sexist men who were currently in a romantic relationship would perceive having more power when it came to current sexual activities, current dating activities, and current control over their partner.

Types of Power Expected in Future Relationships

While previous studies have utilized one self-report item (Femlee, 1994) or one qualitative question (Harvey, Beckman, Browner, & Sherman, 2002; Harvey & Bird, 2004) to assess overall power in romantic relationships, this study attempted to measure perceived power in multiple domains of intimate relationships. The newly developed Categorical Future Expected Power Scale and the Categorical Current Power Scale were subjected to exploratory factor analyses to determine the domains in which participants would report their perceived power. Results indicated that future power would be assessed in traditional feminine activities, traditional masculine activities, activities with

extended family, religious activities, sexual activities, and control over one's partner. It was also found that participants who were in a romantic relationship at the time of the study were to respond to items assessing their perceived power in their current sexual activities, current dating activities, and current control over their partner. By utilizing measures that assessed power in various domains, the specific areas of romantic relationships where power dynamics may be salient became more lucid.

Expected Power in Future Relationships

The results of this study revealed the importance of both participant gender and reported ambivalent sexism on various aspects of romantic relationships. First, as hypothesized, increases in men's hostile sexism was associated with expectations of having more overall power, decision-making power, and power in traditional masculine activities, such as outdoor housework and finances. Although no known previous studies have examined ambivalent sexism and power in romantic relationships, the current findings are consistent with past research demonstrating that hostile sexist men hold adversarial views of gender relations and feel threatened by women's abilities to gain power (Glick et al., 2000). These insecurities may drive sexist men to anticipate having more overall and decision-making power in their future relationships. In addition, consistent with previous research, hostile sexist men seek masculine and powerful activities that are consistent with their gender roles (Fitzpatrick, et al., 2004), such as handling the family finances.

An interaction between participant gender and benevolent sexism indicated that as benevolent sexism increased in women, so did their expected sexual submissiveness. This finding is consistent with previous results stating that benevolent sexism perpetuates the

idea that women should be the demure and passive recipients of sexual activities (Rudman & Glick, 2008). However, ambivalent sexism in men did not significantly predict sexual dominance, as hypothesized. This lack of significant may have been influenced by the negative social stigmas that surround men who are overly sexually dominant.

Results also indicated that for both men and women, endorsing higher levels of hostile and benevolent sexism were associated with expectations of more power in traditional female activities, such as cooking, cleaning, and childcare. Although it was surprising that gender did not significantly moderate this relationship, for women, this finding is consistent with the theory of ambivalent sexism that states that benevolently sexist individuals view women as wholesome, non-threatening figures who often strive to take care of the needs of others while hostile sexist individuals expect women to uphold traditional gender roles (Lee, Fiske, & Glick, 2010), which can include household duties like cooking and cleaning. However, it is unclear why hostile and benevolent sexism was positively associated with expected power in traditional feminine activities for men as well. It is possible that benevolently sexist men, who tend to view women as fragile and sometimes helpless beings (Glick & Fiske, 2000), expect more power in traditional household as a way to chivalrously aid their female partner. Also, these results may be related to our findings indicating that hostile sexist men expected to have more overall and decision-making power in their future relationships. In other words, there is a possibility that hostile sexism in men may be related to an expectation of possessing power in most domains of romantic relationships, regardless of whether or not they fit into male gender roles. In addition, results indicated that female participants, regardless of their level of ambivalent sexism, were significantly more likely to expect to have

power in this domain versus male participants; this finding could be due to the fact that indoor housework and childcare are traditionally completed mostly by women (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer, & Robinson, 2000; Bird, 1999).

This study also demonstrated that for men and women, higher levels of hostile sexism were positively associated with expected power in activities with extended families, such as how much time their immediate family will spend with their extended family members and how major holidays will be celebrated. Once again, it was surprising that gender did not significantly moderate this relationship. For women, this finding is consistent with past research showing that individuals who hold hostile sexist beliefs towards women prefer women who engage in activities that are congruent with traditional gender roles (Chen et al., 2009), such as decisions regarding the celebration of major holidays. For men, perhaps because these activities may include contact with members of their own extended family, hostile sexism may propel them to have a greater investment in controlling how and when these activities occur. Results also suggested that women, regardless of their reported ambivalent sexism, had higher levels of expected power in this domain, which is consistent with traditional female gender roles.

Analyses also indicated that contrary to the hypotheses, ambivalent sexism was not associated with future sexual activities and that women anticipated having significantly more power in this domain than men. This could be due to the fact that gender role ideology assigns women as the porters who decide when sexual activity is allowed (Rudman & Glick, 2008), which may grant them more power in sexual situations. This finding may have also been influenced by the negative social stigmas that surround men who are overly sexually aggressive. In order to prevent being categorized

as a sexual aggressor, male participants may have reconsidered the amount of sexual power that they reported wanting to possess.

Results also indicated that hostile sexism was positively associated with the amount of control that both men and women expected to have over their future partners, including how their partner would dress and what religion they would practice. Once more, it was surprising that gender did not significantly moderate this relationship. Although it is consistent with ambivalent sexism theory that hostile sexist men sometimes attempt to dominate women (Glick & Fiske, 2001), it is unclear why women who endorsed hostile sexism expected to have more control over their partners. Perhaps having control over how your partner dresses, for example, fits into traditional gender stereotypes of women washing, ironing, and preparing their partner's clothing.

There was no evidence that ambivalent sexism was associated with perceived power in future religious activities. Although there are no known research studies examining ambivalent sexism and power in religious activities, the existing studies examining only ambivalent sexism and religiosity have yielded conflicting findings. While some researchers found positive associations between benevolent sexism and intrinsic as well as extrinsic religiosity (Burn & Brusio, 2005), another study failed to find a relationship between ambivalent sexism and long-term religiosity (Tasdemir & Sakallı-Ugurlu, 2010). One reason why non-significant results were found in the present study could be because some participants anticipate dating men or women who share their religious affiliations. By doing so, the need for one partner to gain power over the other partner when it comes to decisions about religion may be unnecessary since both partners would be practicing the same religion.

Perceived Power in Current Relationships

For those participants who reported currently being in a romantic relationship, an interaction was found between participant gender and ambivalent sexism on current dating activities. Specifically, as hypothesized, increases in men's benevolent sexism was associated with more perceived power in current dating activities, such as the types of activities that the couple engages in and who pays for those activities. This finding is consistent with the idea that benevolently sexist men endorse chivalrous behaviors and "age-old" gender roles (Lee et al., 2010), which may include planning and paying for dates.

Results also suggested a positive association between participants' reported hostile sexism and perceptions of power in their current sexual activities (e.g., when and where sexual activities take place) and control over their partner (e.g., how much time their partner spends with their friends and how he/she dresses). Although it was surprising that gender did not moderate these relationships, for men, these findings are consistent with previous research indicating that hostile sexist men attempt to dominate women and resent women's abilities to control men through their sexuality (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Along the same lines, hostile sexist women may also believe that women use their sexuality to control men, which may explain their higher levels of reported power in this domain. Also, as discussed earlier, having control over how your partner dresses, for example, may fit into women's traditional gender stereotypes of washing, ironing, and preparing their partner's clothing.

Finally, there was no evidence that ambivalent sexism was associated with current relationship satisfaction. One reason this occurred could be because most young,

unmarried couples attending college do not make joint decisions regarding certain activities, such as childcare and the handling of finances (Femlee, 1994), which may be dictated by one's gender role ideology or sexist beliefs. In other words, it is possible that these couples have not yet faced many significant life situations together in which their ambivalent sexist views may be associated with a decrease in relationship satisfaction.

Limitations

The current study had a number of limitations that should be addressed in future research. First, the correlational nature of this study prevents the determination of causal relationships. Also, as discussed earlier, the sample of this study consisted of mainly young, Caucasian college students attending a private, Catholic Midwestern University. Therefore, the findings from this study may not be generalizable to men and women of different ages, education levels, and ethnic/religious backgrounds.

In addition, while this study was the first to attempt to measure power in different domains of romantic relationships, a few of the subscales from the Categorical Future Expected Power Scale (e.g., Traditional Masculine Activities and Control over Partner) and the Categorical Current Relationship Power Scale (e.g., Current Control over Partner and Current Dating Activities), yielded low Cronbach's alpha values suggesting low internal consistency. This could be due to the small number of items in each subscale (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2006). As with any newly developed scale, further evaluation and refinement of the psychometric properties of both scales are needed. However, it is important to note that unlike scales used in previous research that contain one item to assess power in romantic relationships, the Categorical Future Expected Power Scale and

the Categorical Current Relationship Power Scale are the first known measures to assess power in various domains of relationships.

Finally, although studying participants' expectations of their future, long-term romantic relationships is important since those expectations often lay the foundation for what some people desire in their impending relationships, it is impossible to predict how these factors will affect participants in the years to come. Research has shown that sexist attitudes can often intensify or weaken in adolescents and young adults depending on a number of environmental factors (Lemus, Moya, & Glick, 2010). Men and women who are enrolled in college, such as the current sample of participants, often face a journey of maturation that may alter their sexist attitudes and perceptions of power within their romantic relationships. However, it is important to note that the data collected from participants currently involved in a romantic relationship provided important information on how existing ambivalently sexist views affect the power dynamics of young couples.

Future Studies

It is imperative that future studies examining ambivalent sexism and power in romantic relationships study diverse populations. Currently, it is unknown how ambivalent sexism influences the power dynamics between heterosexual or same-sex couples from various backgrounds. For example, hostile and benevolent sexist beliefs may be more commonly held amongst older individuals who are more entrenched in traditional gender roles (Travaglia et al., 2009). Further research in this field may help determine which populations are most vulnerable to and negatively influenced by ambivalently sexist beliefs.

In addition, longitudinal studies may uncover specific variables that either sustain or reduce ambivalent sexism in young adults and how those transitions affect their romantic relationships as they progress through adulthood. Recent research has found that benevolent sexism continues to be embraced and accepted by younger generations. For example, one study found that most women are attracted to benevolently sexist men and find them to be romantic and sexy (Bohner, Ahlborn, & Steiner, 2010). Another study found that although hostile sexism significantly decreased in young adults who were exposed to diversity and women's studies courses in college, benevolent sexism remained consistent in both men and women after student's enrollment in these courses (Case, 2007). By better understanding the factors that perpetuate or diminish ambivalent sexism, researchers can perhaps discover ways to mitigate the consequences that ambivalent sexism may have on romantic relationships.

Finally, it is important to note that although men also face sexism, very little research has been conducted on this topic (Lee et al., 2010). In order to fully understand the implications of sexism within romantic relationships, researchers should explore how each partner, whether male or female, is affected by ambivalent sexism; this knowledge can perhaps aid clinical psychologists better understand distressed couples seeking counseling.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study is unique because it is the first to examine the amount of power that young men and women anticipate having in their future, long-term romantic relationships as a whole and in various areas of that relationship. The results indicated

that ambivalent sexism is associated with expected future and current power dynamics in romantic relationships and that overall, hostile sexism is the most consistent predictor of how power may be shared by men. However, the distribution of power within romantic relationships is often determined by many complex factors. Therefore, future studies should help contribute to the small yet growing field of literature examining not only ambivalent sexism and power separately, but the intersection of these two factors.

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Appendix A: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

Instructions: Below are a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Somewhat	Agree Strongly
0	1	2	3	4	5

1. _____ No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.
2. _____ Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that factor them over men, under the guise of asking for “equality.”
3. _____ In a disaster, women ought not necessarily be rescued before men.
4. _____ Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.
5. _____ Women are too easily offended.
6. _____ People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.
7. _____ Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.
8. _____ Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.
9. _____ Women should be cherished and protected by men.
10. _____ Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.
11. _____ Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.
12. _____ Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.
13. _____ Men are complete without women.
14. _____ Women exaggerate problems they have at work.
15. _____ Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.
16. _____ When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.
17. _____ A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.
18. _____ There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.

19. _____ Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.
20. _____ Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.
21. _____ Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.
22. _____ Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

Appendix B: Overall Power

Instructions: Please read each item and indicate what your expectations are for your future, long-term romantic relationships.

- In your relationship, who do you expect to have more power?

1
My partner
will make most
decisions

4
We both will
make the
decisions

7
I will make
most of the
decisions

Appendix C: Decision-Making Power

Instructions: Please read each item and indicate what your expectations are for your future, long-term romantic relationships.

- In your relationship, who do you expect to make more of the decisions about what the two of you do together?

1
My partner
will make most
decisions

4
We both will
make the
decisions

7
I will make
most of the
decisions

Appendix D: Categorical Future Expected Power Questionnaire

Instructions: Please read each item and mark what your expectations are for your future long-term, romantic relationships. We are interested in how much influence you expect to have in different areas of romantic relationships.

- How much influence do you expect to have about **WHO** will do the indoor housework (e.g. cooking, cleaning, grocery shopping, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **HOW** the indoor housework (e.g. cooking, cleaning, grocery shopping, etc) will be done?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **WHO** will do the outdoor housework (e.g. mowing the lawn, painting, washing the car, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **HOW** the outdoor housework (e.g. mowing the lawn, painting, washing the car, etc) will be done?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **WHO** will handle your joint finances (e.g. managing bank accounts, deciding what money is spent on, paying bills, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **WHO** will take care of the children (e.g. dressing, feeding, driving them to school, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **HOW** the children are raised (e.g. which school they attend, what time their curfew will be, what after school activities they partake in, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **WHERE** your family will spend their holidays?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **HOW** your family will spend their holidays?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about how much time your family spends with extended family members (e.g. grandparents, aunts, uncles, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about your partner's physical appearance (e.g. his/her hair, clothing, weight, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about your own physical appearance (e.g. your hair, clothing, weight, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **HOW** you and partner engage in sexual activities (e.g. foreplay, oral sex, sexual intercourse, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **WHEN** you and partner engage in sexual activities (e.g. foreplay, oral sex, sexual intercourse, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about what religion **YOU** will practice?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about religion **YOUR PARTNER** will practice?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about **HOW OFTEN** you attend religious services?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you expect to have about which religion your **CHILDREN** are raised with?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

Appendix E: Sexual Functions Inventory

Instructions: People have sexual relations (kissing, petting, oral sex, intercourse, etc.) with others for many reasons. The following list includes some of the reasons others have given for their sexual behavior. Some of you will find that nearly all these reasons are important in your own sexual behavior, and some of you will find only a few important. We would like to know all the reasons that are involved in your own sexual behavior, and how important each of these reasons is to you. Consider each of the reasons carefully and indicate how important that reason is in your own sexual behavior.

- Because I like the feeling that I have someone in my grasp.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because like many people I enjoy the conquest.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because I enjoy the feeling of being overwhelmed by my partner.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because it makes me feel masterful.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because after an argument it's a good way to let my partner know that I don't want to fight anymore.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because sex allows me to feel vulnerable.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because I enjoy the feeling of giving in to my partner.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because I like the feeling of having another person submit to me.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because I like teaching less experienced people how to get off.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because it makes my partner want to look after me and take care of me.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because I like the feeling of being out of control and dominated by another.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because in the act of sex more than at any other time I get the feeling that I can really influence how someone feels and behaves.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because when my partner wants to have sex I feel like I should oblige her/him.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because when my partner finally surrenders to me I get this incredibly satisfying feeling.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because I like it when my partner is really open and vulnerable to me.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

- Because of the feelings that go along with being held tight and close in a protective way.

1	2	3	4
Not at all important	Not too important	Pretty important	Very important

Appendix F: Norton Quality of Marriage Index

Instructions: Please read each item and mark what your answer according to the romantic relationship that you are **CURRENTLY** involved in.

1. We have a good relationship.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
Very Strong disagreement						Very strong agreement	

2. My relationship with my partner is very stable.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
Very Strong disagreement						Very strong agreement	

3. Our relationship is strong.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
Very Strong disagreement						Very strong agreement	

4. My relationship with my partner makes me happy.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
Very Strong disagreement						Very strong agreement	

5. I feel like part of team with my partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
Very Strong disagreement						Very strong agreement	

6. On the scale below, indicate the point which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness which most people get from romantic relationships. The scale gradually increases on the right side for those few who experience extreme joy in relationships and decreases on the left side for those who are extremely unhappy.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	N/A
Very unhappy				Happy					Perfectly Happy	

Appendix G: Categorical Current Relationship Power

Please read each item and mark what your answer according to the romantic relationship that you are **CURRENTLY** involved in.

- How much influence do you currently have about the types of activities you and your partner do together?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you currently have about how much time you spend with **YOUR** friends?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you currently have about how much time your partner spends with **HIS/HER** friends?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you currently have on who pays for your dates?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you currently have about how **YOU** dress?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you currently have about how **YOUR PARTNER** dresses?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you currently have about **HOW** you and partner engage in sexual activities (e.g. foreplay, oral sex, sexual intercourse, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

- How much influence do you currently have about **WHEN** you and partner engage in sexual activities (e.g. foreplay, oral sex, sexual intercourse, etc)?

1	4	7	N/A
None of the influence	Some of the influence	All of the the influence	

Appendix H: Demographics

1. Please indicate your age:

2. What is your gender?
 - Female
 - Male

3. What is your current class standing at Marquette?
 - Freshman
 - Sophomore
 - Junior
 - Senior
 - Graduate
 - Other

4. How would you describe your ethnicity/race?
 - Caucasian/White
 - African American
 - Hispanic
 - Native American
 - Asian/Pacific Islander
 - Bi-racial/Mixed
 - Other

5. What is your religious affiliation?
 - Baptist
 - Buddhist
 - Catholic
 - Episcopalian
 - Hindu
 - Jewish
 - Lutheran
 - Methodist
 - Mormon
 - Muslim
 - Other (please specify)_____
 - N/A

6. What is your family's annual household income?

- \$20,000 or less
- \$21,000-40,000
- \$41,00-60,000
- \$61,000-80,000
- \$81,000-100,000
- \$100,000 or more

7. Are you currently in a romantic relationship?

- Yes
- No

8. Are you currently cohabitating with a romantic partner and/or married?

- Yes
- No

9. How would you describe your sexual orientation?

1
Completely
Heterosexual

4

7
Completely
Homosexual