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Construction and Validation of the Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in a Relationship Scale for Heterosexual Women and an Exploration with Gender Ideology.

by

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Abstract

The following research presents a multidimensional measure, the Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in a Relationship Scale (PRRRS). The PRRRS measures how traditional or non-traditional heterosexual women's relationship perceptions and expectations are. These perceptions are measured over three dimensions: Division of Labour, Masculine Ideologies and Male Gender Roles. The following research presents two studies that refines the item pool, establishes the factor structure, reliability and validity of the PRRRS. Part two of the study explores the relationship between the PRRRS and the Ambivalence towards Men Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1999). This not only confirmed the predictive validity of the PRRRS but also suggested the positive relationship between ambivalence towards men and traditional perceptions of roles and responsibilities in relationships. Further analysis compared the subordinate factors of the AMI with the sub factors of the PRRRS. The 20-item PRRRS is provided in the appendix.

Keywords: Scale construction, scale validation, traditional, household labour, masculinity, ambivalence towards men.

Introduction

Western family gender roles were once defined with clarity. A traditional romantic relationship consisted of a married heterosexual couple, living together (Duncan & Phillips, 2008). The roles of this traditional union were clearly established, with men working in the labour force to provide for the family, and women acting as homemaker (Bartley, Blanton & Gilliard, 2005). However, recent statistics suggest that this traditional relationship script is changing. Firstly, the number of marriages, in the UK, are in decline, whilst there has been a dramatic increase in cohabitation and child bearing outside of marriage (Duncan & Phillips, 2008; Kiernan, 2001). Secondly, the Office for National Statistics in the United Kingdom found that the percentage of women in the labour force has risen by 14% from 1971 to 2013. Simultaneously, the incidence of men working has fallen from 92% to 76%, in the same time frame (ONS, 2013). These statistics suggests that the once clearly defined, traditional relationship scripts are changing, therefore creating need for couples to renegotiate roles and responsibilities within the relationship.

The purpose of this research is to create and validate a scale that evaluates heterosexual women's perceptions of gender roles and responsibilities within a relationship, where she lives with her heterosexual partner. The aim is to address and fill the gaps within the literature surrounding relationship expectations, within relationships where both members share a residential address. The final scale will represent various domains of a romantic heterosexual relationship, the domains will be representative of how traditional or non-traditional, a woman expects or perceives her romantic relationship to be. Little research is devoted to how traditional or egalitarian people's relationship expectations are.

Two current scales exist. Firstly, the Marriage Roles Expectations Inventory (MREI; Dunn, 1960), which is outdated and looks exclusively at marriage. Secondly, the

more recent, List of Expectations from Marriage (Slosarz, 2002), which also focuses solely on marriage. In this research, the aim is to create a modern scale that does not exclusively look at relationships in terms of marriage but is inclusive of both marriage and cohabitation. The creation of this scale would allow for a wide scope of research that can help to understand women's relationship perceptions. The following research will provide an insight into how women's opinions of men interact with what they expect and perceive their relationships with men to be like.

Although traditional relationships do not mercenarily equate to inequity or negativity, research has found that traditional gender roles within a relationship are related to women experiencing depression, poor well-being and inequality (Bartley et al., 2005). The following scale has the potential to inform further research or interventions that look at how to prevent women becoming involved with potentially negative and unequal traditional relationships. This would be achieved by evaluating their relationship perceptions using the following scale to understand how their romantic relationship could be improved in terms of equality. The scale could also be used in therapeutic, counselling settings to help evaluate relationships or find the discrepancies between a women's perception of their actual relationship and what they would like their relationship to be like. After the creation and validation of a scale to measure women's perceptions of responsibilities and roles within a relationship, the scale will then be compared with gender ideology.

Women's Gender Ideologies

The following research considers women's gender ideologies, these are attitudes towards gender. Vespa (2009) suggested that gender ideologies can vary depending on a variety of factors, such as employment, life experience and social settings. For example, research has found that women in employment develop less traditional gender ideologies

because equality benefits them more in the workplace (Vespa, 2009). This suggests that gender ideologies are versatile and ever changing.

Glick and Fiske (1996) argue that gender ideologies are the driving force behind the imbalance between men and women. They argue that this imbalance creates an unusual relationship as there are no other social groups that have such a history of intimacy and power imbalance (Glick & Fiske, 1999). The following research looks at various domains of a relationship; division of labour, decision making and masculinity. When investigating these relationship domains, researchers have often found that they are all associated with gender ideology. For example, Aassve, Fuochi and Mencarini (2014) found that gender ideology has a significant impact on how housework is shared between couples in various countries. Similarly, Thomae and Houston (2016) found that women with benevolent gender ideologies preferred a traditional vignette of a man.

Glick and Fiske are the leading researchers in this field and have developed a strong theoretical framework regarding the multidimensional and cross-cultural theory of ambivalent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1999; Glick & Fiske, 2001; Glick et al., 2004; Glick & Fiske, 2011). The following research looks at ambivalence towards men. Ambivalence towards men is composed of two constructs, hostility and benevolence.

In line with the theories regarding prejudice and social identity, Glick and Fiske (1999) argue that hostility towards men is expressed in three ways: resentment of paternalism, heterosexual hostility and compensatory gender differentiation. Hostility towards men embodies Allport's (1954) theory of prejudice, in the sense that victims of prejudice respond with heightened prejudice towards the dominant group. For example, those in subordinate groups may create negative stereotypes about the dominant group, by differentiating themselves more positively in areas where the dominant group are inferior. This is known as compensatory gender differentiation, where women attribute

uncomplimentary characteristics to men's stereotypical weaknesses, such as "men act like babies when they are sick".

Glick and Fiske (1999) argue that women high in hostility towards men can also be seen getting into hostile competition with men, otherwise known as resentment of paternalism. This is in line with Tajfel's (1981) social identity theory that argues subordinate groups use hostile competition with the more powerful group. Bohner and Schwarz (1996) argued that resentment towards men can also be formed when women become aware of male sexual aggression and violence that is used to keep women as the subordinate gender. This leads to women feeling a sense of resentment towards the sexual aggression that can be displayed by men, Glick and Fiske (1999) refer to this as heterosexual hostility.

However, women tend not to be solely hostile in their sexism towards men. Glick et al., (2004) argue that because of the closeness between men and women, women also hold subjectively positive opinions of men. These subjectively positive feelings are benevolently sexist attitudes. Benevolence towards men is characterised by heterosexual attraction, maternalism and complementary gender differentiation (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Glick and Fiske (1999) argue that in heterosexual women, there is often a desire for a romantic relationship with men because of their subjectively positive attributes, such as protectiveness. This is also known as heterosexual attraction.

Women can also hold views about men that reinforce men's weaknesses and suggests women are more suited to certain tasks, such as nurturing. Although this suggests that women are more capable than men in some areas, it reinforces traditional ideas that women should look after the man within the home, whilst he provides for her. This is referred to as maternalism. Similarly, women may also admire the higher status of men, which may lead to women agreeing with the stereotypes that say they are less capable than

men; Glick and Fiske (1999) refer to this as complementary gender differentiation, which can be see when lower-status groups endorse ideologies that justify the system of inequality.

Glick and Fiske (1999) state that there is a positive correlation between hostile and benevolent sexism because they are not independent constructs but rather two sides of a sexist coin. Glick and Fiske's (1999) theoretical framework argues that feelings of hostility and benevolence coincide with one another. This positive correlation can be heightened by women's dependence on a man. For example, Glick and Fiske (1999) argue that the more a woman depends on a man, the more she experiences both feelings of admiration and appreciation for him but also resentment of her dependence. The theory of ambivalence towards men is based on the coexistence of male power and intimate heterosexual relationships (Glick & Fiske, 1999).

Men can also experience ambivalent sexism towards women, and it is defined similarly in terms of hostility and benevolence (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Glick and Fiske (1996) created the ambivalent sexism inventory (ASI) to measure these ideologies towards women. When compared to the Ambivalence towards Men Inventory (AMI), the ASI is frequently used within ambivalent sexism literature. This could be because of how sexism used to be an ideology with a single downwards direction, men's sexism towards women (Glick & Fiske, 1996). However, recently researchers are considering the impact of upwardly directed gender ideologies, from women to men (Thomae & Houston, 2016). Despite an increase in the interest of women's sexism towards men, there is still a relatively limited amount of research.

As previously mentioned, gender ideologies are versatile and can be dependent on a person's experience. This poses a limitation for research involving gender ideology. Gender ideology in terms of a student population or a population with a restricted age

range is frequently researched (Zaikman & Marks, 2014; Yamawaki, Ostenson & Brown, 2009; Chapleau, Oswald & Russel, 2008). However, a student population may have less developed gender ideologies, as they may have less life experiences. For example, Zaikman and Marks (2014) looked at the impact of ambivalent sexism on people's perception of men and women's sexual activity. The aim of the study was to look at whether the prevalence of a sexual double standard was affected by participant's gender ideologies. Zaikman and Marks (2014) found that women with more ingrained sexist attitudes were more likely to harbour negative evaluations of women who were highly sexually active. These negative evaluations were not applicable to highly sexually active men. Consequently, confirming the impact of gender ideology on the internalisation of the sexual double standard. Despite this, Zaikman and Marks (2014) sample consisted of 289 undergraduate students with an age range of 18-29. As the participants were young, it could mean that they have had limited relationship experiences which means that their gender ideologies have not developed much, therefore having negative evaluations of sexual relationships. For example, Glick and Fiske (1996) said that people who have been through a divorce are more likely to have hostile sexist beliefs against the opposite sex. Likewise, with how women develop more egalitarian gender ideologies when they work, as equality benefits them more (Vespa, 2009). These are experiences that an undergraduate population may not necessarily have yet. To fully understand the effects of gender ideology, it is important to take into consideration how they vary with life experience. The current study will use knowledge of gender ideologies and Glick and Fiske's (1999) theoretical framework to define the factors of women's relationship perceptions.

Cohabitation versus Marriage

When looking at relationship perceptions, research tends to focus on marital expectations (Waller & McLanahan, 2005; Riggio & Weiser, 2008; Botkin, O'Neal Weeks

& Morris, 2000, Slosarz, 2002). In empirical research, cohabitation between couples has largely been ignored. Manning, Longmore and Giordano (2007) argue that cohabitation in relationships has only recently become a typical experience for couples, therefore it is unsurprising that there is limited research on the subject. However, this is beginning to change. In the UK, the occurrence of cohabitation rose by 60 percent from 1996 to 2006, which equates to 2.3 million cohabiting families (ONS, 2007). Smock (2000) argues that cohabitation reflects the increasing rates of marriage dissolution, children being born out of wedlock and the growing average age of marriage. Experiences that were once confined to marriage, such as sex and having children, no longer are. This rise in cohabitation demands research into the area. The focus of the following research surrounds the experience of living together within a romantic heterosexual relationship, therefore it can be applied to couples that are both married or cohabiting.

Although the following scale aims to be inclusive of both cohabiting and married relationships, it is important to note some of the key differences between the two relationships. One of the main differences is related to finances. When cohabiters were asked why they moved in together, one of the most frequently mentioned reasons were finances, often participants referred to how the expense of renting or buying a house is too much for one person and therefore easier in a couple (Hardie & Lucas, 2010). Hardie and Lucas (2010) noted that because some couples enter cohabiting relationships for financial reasons, it could lead to more tenuous relationships. As well as this, Vogler, Lyonette and Wiggins (2008) suggested that cohabiters are more likely to have their own independent management systems for their individual income, whereas married couples are more likely to create a joint pool of both of their incomes, allowing them to be more prepared for future economic changes. In the UK, for certain populations, marriage is promoted by tax reductions. This can reduce how much tax certain married couples pay, therefore adding

financial advantages for some people to be married within the UK (UK Government, 2018).

The following research will consider the differences between marriage and cohabitation but represent both union types. Furthermore, the dimensions of the study will look at women's relationship perceptions that are applicable to both married and cohabiting couples.

Women's perception of their partner's adherence to masculine gender roles and ideologies

The first dimension of women's relationship perceptions that will be considered is how women perceive their partners to adhere to masculine gender roles and ideologies.

Defining traditional masculinity can be complex because masculinity is a multi-dimensional construct. It consists of both male role norms as well as responses to cultural ideologies about men (Levant & Richmond, 2016). Pleck (1995) argues that despite the diversity of ideologies about masculinity, in the western world the expectations of traditional male roles remain constant throughout time.

Thompson and Pleck (1995) define masculinity using two perspectives. The trait perspective and the normative perspective. The trait perspective is that masculinity is within all individuals, but the strength of this masculinity varies. This kind of masculinity looks at male gender roles and can be observed in the characteristics and behaviours of the individual. For example, by using the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1981) to observe how masculine or feminine an individual is.

The normative perspective looks at how cultural ideologies shape gender related attitudes and how much an individual endorses masculine ideology. The trait perspective is the theory that a traditionally masculine man shows masculine characteristics. Whereas the normative perspective is that a traditionally masculine man internalises the belief that men

should embody culturally defined concepts of masculinity (Thompson & Pleck, 1995). The normative perspective is more widely accepted when investigating the extent that men adhere to masculinity (Thompson & Bennett, 2015). This is because the normative perspective represents standards for men that are held culturally.

Masculinity has been measured in three generations of inventories (Thompson & Bennet, 2015). The first generation is comprised of traditional masculine ideologies, however they were mainly representative of the masculinity experienced by white men in North America, such as the Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS; Thompson & Pleck, 1986). The second generation of scales were born out of a need to understand masculinity in different age and racial groups, such as the Adolescent Masculinity Ideology in Relationships Scale (AMIRS; Chu, Porche & Tolman, 2005). The third generation of masculinity scales represent masculinity being expressed in a positive way. This can be seen in Ojeda and Piña-Watson's (2014) research into masculinity being defined by positive family values and healthy expressions of masculine characteristics.

When looking at the early theory behind traditional masculinity, male role norms were frequently discussed in the 1970's. Brannon (1976) defined masculine role norms and blamed them for men's oppressive behaviour. Brannon (1976) theorized four main underpinnings of masculinity. These are that traditionally masculine men should not appear weak, this is represented by the construct of toughness. Secondly, men should strive to be adventurous. Thirdly, men should strive to be high achievers and well respected, known as status. And lastly, men should show aversion to things that are considered feminine, otherwise known as anti-femininity. Brannon's (1976) theory of masculinity became the foundations for many first-generation masculinity scales. Brannon's (1976) four constructs were reflected in The Brannon Masculinity Scale (BMS; Brannon & Juni, 1984). This scale has been criticised as it has not been factor validated

(Mahalik et al., 2003). A shorter version of the scale was then formed called the Male Role Norm Scale (MRNS; Thompson & Pleck, 1986). However, when creating the MRNS, Thompson and Pleck (1986) only found support for three of Brannon's (1976) four underpinnings of masculinity: status, toughness and anti-femininity.

Furthermore, it is arguable that the theory of normative masculine ideologies simplify masculinity and reduce it to statements. First and second wave scales do not account for the positive aspects of masculinity ideologies and rather focus on being emotionally stoic and lacking respect for women. This perpetuates a binary idea that traditional masculinity is negative when masculinity is far more nuanced than this. This over simplification of masculinity assumes that the simple statements can be applied to men consistently over all domains of their life. The measurements do not account for how masculinity can be displayed differently in romantic relationships.

A reoccurring theme in the first-generation literature is hegemonic masculinity. Hegemonic masculinity is a term that was created as criticism of masculinity where the central theme is that men are oppressors (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Hegemonic masculinity focused on white heterosexual men being dominant over racial and sexual minorities (Connell, 1995). In terms of interpersonal relationships, hegemonic masculinity focuses on ideologies that are not compatible with romantic relationships, such as insatiable sexual desire, sexual aggression and emotional unavailability (Bell, Rosenberger & Ott, 2014). For example, a statement in the MRNS (Thompson & Pleck, 1986) is "A man should always try to project an air of confidence, even if he doesn't feel confident inside". A traditionally masculine man may agree with this statement and his behaviour may reflect it often. Despite this, in a long-term romantic relationship, he may develop subtle cues that let his partner know when he is not feeling confident, therefore, despite agreeing with the statement, the male may not adhere to it in his romantic relationship.

Thompson and Bennett (2015) argue that simple statements of masculinity do not represent the complex way that masculinity ideologies can be operationalized within interpersonal relationships.

Various research has looked at the relationship between the endorsement of traditional or hegemonic masculinity and harmful behaviour such as; intimate partner violence, unprotected sex, alcohol-related problems and sexual harassment (Santana, Raj, Decker, Marche & Silverman, 2006; Peralta, 2007; Gruber & Fineran, 2008). Santana et al., (2006) conducted a study in Boston, America to look at how traditional masculine ideologies were associated with sexual risk and intimate partner violence. These traditional masculine ideologies included anti-femininity and toughness, themes that were present in early definitions of masculinity (Brannon, 1976). The study consisted of 325 male participants between the ages of 18 and 35. Participants completed the Male Role Attitudes scale (MRAS; Pleck & Sonenstein, 1994), the revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Straus, Hamby & Boney-McCoy, 1996) as well as some questions about their recent sexual activity. Santana et al., (2006) a found a positive correlation between how traditional men's ideologies were with how likely they were to have unprotected sex or be perpetrators of intimate partner violence. These findings reflect the traditional men's adherence to hegemonic masculinity in their violent and sexual behaviour. However, Santana et al., (2006) only looked at one population in one area of Boston. The sample was largely made up of low income participants, mainly American-Mexican men. This means that the findings of this study are only generalizable to this population. However, this research somewhat reflects the concept of machismo in many cultures. Machismo is the culture of masculinity that is defined by being dominant over women, hyper sexuality, drinking heavily and being respected by the family (Falicov, 2010). The concept of machismo is often seen as a violent and aggressive standard for men, this is considered

problematic as it gives a skewed perception of Mexican male culture (Arciniega, Anderson, Tovar-Blank and Tracey, 2010). Arciniega et al., (2010) addressed this negative perception, arguing that masculinity is both positive and negative. Arciniega et al., (2010) developed a scale that looked at both positive and negative traits associated with machismo, referring to the positive traits as caballerismo. Caballerismo is reflective of masculine chivalry and traits such as protection of family, hard work and wisdom. When Ojeda and Piña-Watson (2014) looked at masculinity, they argued that caballerismo had a positive effect on self-esteem and welfare of the family. It is important to note that in Mexican culture, family values are more central than machismo ideologies (Thompson & Bennett, 2015). Thompson and Bennett (2015) suggest this positive representation is part of a third generation of masculinity inventories that consider the positive behaviour associated with masculinity. Thompson and Bennett (2015) expressed the necessity of third generation measures to understand the positive side of masculinity.

In terms of the role of masculinity in relationships, Thomae and Houston (2016) conducted a study to look at the interaction of gender ideology on women's desire for a relationship with a traditional or non-traditional male partner. The study involved 128 heterosexual female participants. Participants were presented with either a traditional or non-traditional vignette of a male. They were given The Relationship Scale (Thomae, 2010; as cited in Thomae & Houston, 2016), which measured participant's desire for a long-term relationship with the vignette. Participants were also given the AMI (Glick & Fiske, 1999). In the vignettes, Thomae and Houston (2016) defined traditional men as having high business aspirations and putting success in their work before spending time with their family. In contrast to this, the non-traditional male aspires to have a traditionally female job, he is deterred from pursuing law because of its competitive nature and the

overtime involved. The vignettes focused on the behaviours of the men rather than their characteristic traits.

Thomae and Houston (2016) found that when women were presented with the traditional men, they were more likely to desire a relationship with him if they scored highly in benevolent sexism towards men. This finding suggests that women with benevolent gender ideologies are likely to expect their partner to adhere to traditional definitions of masculinity. In line with Glick and Fiske's (1999) theory on the co-occurrence of hostility and benevolence, Thomae and Houston (2016) found a significant positive correlation between hostility and benevolence towards men. Despite this correlation, Thomae and Houston (2016) found no significant relationship between hostility towards men and desire for a relationship with either vignette. Thomae and Houston (2016) followed the advice of Eastwick, Luchies, Finkel and Hunt (2014), concerning partner preference. Eastwick et al., (2014) argued that predictive validity is strongest when looking at actual behaviours as opposed to traits. To define traditional and non-traditional men, Thomae and Houston (2016) drew inspiration for their vignettes from previous research, which used vignettes to define a non-traditional and traditional woman (Siebler, Sabelus & Bohner, 2008). In line with Eastwick et al's., (2014) suggestion, these vignettes focused on behaviour, however these behaviours are related to the vignette's work and family life balance. The vignettes are limited as they do not consider behaviour that is relevant to interpersonal relationships. When considering masculinity, the following study will continue to look at behaviours in a variety of contexts, including work and family life balance as well as behaviours within the romantic relationship. This may elicit a deeper understanding of the relationship between hostility towards men and relationship preference.

Further scales have been created to look at the role of masculinity in relationships, Chu et al., (2005) developed the Adolescent Masculinity Ideology in Relationships Scale (AMIRS) to look at the impact of masculinity ideology on interpersonal relationships. This second-generation scale looks at how adolescent men adhere to a masculinity ideology within their relationships, in terms of their beliefs and attitudes. The 12-item scale draws on themes such as toughness, dominance and stoicism. Chu et al., (2005) compared these scores with the Attitudes towards Women Scale for Adolescents (AWSA; Galambos, Richards & Gitelson, 1985). They found that adolescent men who endorsed masculinity ideology more heavily also had traditional attitudes towards gender roles for men and women. Chu et al., (2005) also found a negative correlation between AMIRS scores and self-esteem. Chu et al., (2005) argued that this suggests that the adherence to masculinity could mean there are more restrictions on how authentic and expressive men are within their relationships. This relates to the construct of stoicism, that is a definitive theme of masculinity in the AMIRS. This finding shows the consequences of masculinity, as men endorse the theme of stoicism they become emotionally uninformed, which causes them to have lower self-esteem.

 As Chu et al.,'s (2005) scale is specifically for adolescent men, these findings are not generalizable to all men. This is because the scale is age variant and the effects of adherence to masculinity ideologies could vary for men throughout different stages in their life. Some research suggests that masculinity is perceived and endorsed differently throughout one's lifetime. For example, Iazzo (1983) found a positive covariation between men's age and their perceived importance of work, sexuality and fatherhood on manhood, suggesting that as men get older, they gain a deeper sense of what manhood is to them. This finding provides support for the theory that masculinity varies with age.

A main limitation of first and second-generation masculinity measures is the possibility of age variance. Most measures of masculinity were developed using student populations and have not been validated using samples of older men (Thompson & Bennett, 2015). Therefore, it is important to question how masculinity changes over the course of one's life. For example, Meadows and Davidson (2006) argue that old age means that men must renegotiate how they align themselves with definitions of masculinity. For example, a main theme of masculinity is that it is achieved through working and providing an income, however as men enter old age, they move from the workforce to the traditionally feminine territory of the home.

To conclude, there are various methods of defining and measuring masculinity. Masculinity can be defined using the trait perspective and the normative perspective (Thompson & Pleck, 1995). The normative perspective is accepted as the more effective perspective to use when measuring masculinity (Thompson & Bennett, 2015). The first generation of masculinity measures were based on Brannon's (1976) theory of masculinity. They were composed of statements that reflected hegemonic and traditional masculinity. However most of these scales were ethnocentric, as they were created for men in North America. The second generation of masculinity measures began to explore masculinity ideologies in terms of region as well as interpersonal relationships, for example, Chu et al., (2005). Thompson and Bennett (2015) highlight the need for more third generation scales that look at the positive aspects of masculinity, such as caballerismo (Arciniega et al., 2010). This will be addressed in the following study by also considering positive attributes of masculinity.

Women's perceptions of responsibilities in relationships

Many of the scales to measure masculinity also include items that mention approaches to division of labour. For example, "I don't think a husband should have to do

housework." (Male Role Attitudes Scale, Pleck et al., 1994) and "A man who cooks, cleans or sews is not appealing." (Male Role Norm Scale; Thompson & Pleck, 1986). Previous research has also found a positive correlation between the internalisation of hegemonic masculinity and endorsement of traditional gender roles (Chu et al., 2005). The 'Division of Labour' factor is an underlying construct for understanding how traditional a women's perceptions of a relationship are.

It is important to understand how household labour is divided because of how dual-earner couples are becoming the norm and unequal division of household labour can result in depression, distress and conflict within the relationship (Bartley et al., 2005; Bird, 1999; Polachek & Wallace, 2015). Traditional division of labour is operationalized by men acting as the provider and women acting as homemaker (Bartley et al., 2005). Askari, Liss, Erchull, Staebell and Axelson (2010) argue that this traditional script of division of labour is no longer the norm. Research has suggested that despite there being an increase in men's participation in household labour, women still spend more time on domestic tasks than men (Fisher, Egerton, Gershuny and Robinson, 2007).

Barstad (2014) argues that the traditional division of household labour depends on whether a task is intermittent or routine. Routine tasks consist of traditionally female tasks, they are time consuming and have no start or finish and must be done daily (Lachance-Grzela & Bouchard, 2010). These traditionally female jobs involved a low amount of control and if not done daily, will disrupt other people within the family (Barnett & Shen, 1997). These jobs are things such as maintaining cleanliness of the house, childcare, planning meals, cooking and doing laundry (Lachance-Grzela & Bouchard, 2010). Intermittent jobs, which are traditionally male, are only done occasionally and at the discretion of the worker. This makes them a high control task, as the worker decides when they are going to complete the task (Bartley et al., 2005). These routine, high-control tasks

consist of household repairs, servicing the car and working in the garden (Barstad, 2014). Barnett and Shen (1997) researched high and low control tasks and found that, for both men and women who are employed, time spent on low control tasks was related to psychological stress, whereas high control tasks were not. Barnett and Shen (1997) concluded that the routine female jobs, when in a dual-earner partnership, were carried out under time constraints and regardless of how tired the worker is. Despite this, Barnett and Shen (1997) focus on how time spent on tasks elicits psychological stress and neglect to report how a relationship is dyadic and therefore one partner's stress may cause the other partner's stress.

There are three main theoretical perspectives on the division of labour. Firstly, time availability. This means that labour is divided depending on how much time each member of the union has (Davis, Greenstein and Gerteisen Marks, 2007). Secondly, the gender ideology perspective, which states that gender ideologies dictate roles within a household (Diefenbach, 2002). Finally, relative resource theory. This is the concept that in a union, the one with more resources has more power when bargaining what tasks, they will carry out (Blood & Wolfe, 1961).

Davis et al., (2007) conducted a study that considered the impact of each of the theoretical perspectives on division on labour. Davis et al.,'s (2007) study was cross-national and included 17,636 participants from 28 different nations. They also investigated whether cohabiting men did more housework than married men and if so, whether this finding was cross-national. Participants were asked how many hours they spent weekly on household work (not including childcare) and then how many hours their partners spent on housework. Participants were asked about whether they work full time, if they make more than their partner as well as six items to measure gender ideology.

Davis et al., (2007) found support for the theory of time availability for both cohabiters and married couples. They found that when both men and women worked full time, their hours working in the household decreased. Conversely, when people did not work full time, their time spent on household work would increase. Both married and cohabiting women's time spent on housework was negatively related to the number of hours they worked. When asking participants, the percent that they and their partner contribute to housework, both men and women consistently said that the woman does more housework in all 28 nations. Generally, men did 30% of the housework, and women did the rest. This may be because of how 66% of the male participants reported working full-time, whereas 40% of female participants reported working full-time. This finding could also be because 66%-82% of participants said that the male partner earns more than the female partner. Therefore, women on average, have less resources (Davis, et al., 2007).

Relative resource theory is closely linked to time availability theory. Its theoretical roots are in economical explanations that suggest the partner with more resources, will have the power to convince their partner to do more housework (Blood & Wolfe, 1961). The foundations of relative resource theory state that doing household chores is unpleasant. Therefore, members of a union will use bargaining to evade housework. A way of bargaining is using one's money and resources as leverage when avoiding housework. Using a self-report method, Davis et al., (2007) found that when women earned more than men, men reported doing more housework, than those whose partner contributed equally financially. This was not found in women's self-reports, therefore raising questions whether the relative resource theory itself is gendered. For example, men may think that by having more resources, they can evade housework. Women may see resources as power, but this power is not linked to evading housework. Further research is needed to determine this.

Furthermore, Davis et al., (2007) found then when looking at cohabiting couples, gender ideology is the most influential factor for how household labour is divided. Diefenbach (2002) argues that gender ideology predicts division of labour because one's gender ideologies define how they see themselves in the relationship. For example, women with traditional gender ideologies see men as more ambitious and women nurturer (Glick & Fiske, 1999). This can perpetuate the idea that men should work in the labour force and women should do more housework. Davis et al., (2007) found gender ideology to be more influential for cohabiters than married couples. Davis et al., (2007) suggested that in cohabiting relationships men do more housework because cohabiters behave in more egalitarian ways than married couples. This was found in all 28 nations. Davis et al., (2007) theorized that cohabiting couples had less traditional gender ideologies because their union type does not have a traditional context, unlike marriage which is embedded in tradition. Another explanation for this finding is that people with more traditional beliefs are more likely to get married, as it is a traditional relationship experience.

Askari et al., (2010) considered men and women's expectations for the division of household labour in the future and compared them with their idealistic desires for participation in household labour. Men desired to do less household labour than women, although both desired a somewhat egalitarian arrangement. Despite desiring an equal division of household labour, women expected a more traditional arrangement where they would do more housework than men. Askari et al., (2010) had limited their sample to white, unmarried, young adults who did not have children. This means that they are unable to generalise their findings to a population beyond these parameters. In Askari et al's., (2010) study, some participants estimated they would participate in over 100% of household labour. This shows that some participants had a lack of knowledge about what specific jobs would entail, leading them to overestimate their future responsibilities. This

is a limitation of a study that considers expectations, the prospective nature of the study means that people may not understand what household labour would entail. Askari et al's., (2010) study was not longitudinal and therefore it did not compare how people's expectations were associated with the realities of labour division. Eastwick, Luchies, Finkel and Hunt (2006) suggested that one's intentions about their behaviour may not always accurately represent their actual behaviour.

Despite the limitations, Askari et al's., (2010) findings are congruent with previous research that suggests women still do more housework than men (Bartley et al., 2005; Kroska, 2004). There are various theories that attempt to understand why women do more housework. Major (1987) theorized that this is because women lack a sense of unfairness when they contribute to household labour more than their partner. Major (1987) argued that this is due to the socially constructed importance that is placed on men's participation in work outside of the home. Therefore, women sometimes feel that they must do more work in and outside of the home, to be worth as much as their male companion. It is understandable that women can feel that their labour is less valuable then their partners. As women take on more responsibility of housework and specifically of childcare, it becomes harder for them to take on full-time or challenging work, therefore potentially lessening their chances of career success (Lyonette, 2015).

To conclude, in both cohabiting and married couples, household labour is divided depending on how each member of the couple work, how much they financially contribute to the home and their gender ideologies. Traditionally female tasks are routine and consist of tasks such as cooking, cleaning and childcare. In general, women seem expect to do and perform more housework than men. This can be explained by the previously mentioned theories, but also the idea that women may feel they must do more housework as their work is less valuable then men's work.

Women's perception of decision making in relationships

Similarly, to division of labour, one underlying theory regarding the division of household labour is that the power to make choices in the relationship is relative to the amount of resources each of the partners have, known as relative resource theory (Mannino & Deutsch, 2007). Therefore, with the power to make decisions, partners with the most resources can decide whether to participate in household chores. Resources can be defined as how much income and education the partner has. This theory of relative resources is not only applicable to household chores, but power and decision making in general. Traditionally, men have had the power in a relationship because they are more likely to have more resources (Chen, Fiske & Lee, 2009).

In line with relative resource theory, Steil and Weltman (1991) conducted a study to understand decision making in married couples. They found that income was important in having the ability to make financial decisions. They suggested that when a woman earns more than her husband, she is respected more, has more of a say in financial matters and increases how much the woman expects equal treatment. Steil and Weltman (1991) also found that men and women had different levels of power in different domains of decision making. When decisions were made about small everyday concerns within the family, women had the power. However, big financial or career related decisions had to be made, men had more power. While this study may be dated, it is a good example of the traditional power script where women are given less power in their relationships compared to their partners.

Chen et al., (2009) argue that traditionally, men have more power than women, in relationships. Despite this, power in relationships can be expressed in a variety of ways, such as control over decision making and level of access to emotional resources (Galliher, Rotosky, Welsh & Kawaguchi, 1999). There is not a wealth of literature available about

the power dynamics of romantic relationships. This is because power in a relationship varies over multiple domains, which makes it difficult to measure (Simpson, Farrell, Orina & Rothman, 2015). For example, in terms of decision making, either partner may express different levels of power over different aspects of their relationship, such as sex or finance.

The Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities Scale

In terms of relationship perceptions, research has focused primarily on marriage. Two scales currently exist that consider traditionality of relationships, however these scales both only consider relationship expectations. An early example of a marital expectations scale would be the Marriage Role Expectations Inventory (MREI) developed by Dunn (1960). The MREI looks at how traditional or egalitarian one's marital role expectations are and has a reported split-half reliability of .95. Dunn (1960) looked at seven aspects of a traditional marriage: personal characteristics, social participation, authority, child care, homemaking, employment and education. Dunn (1960) found participants to be more egalitarian in certain aspects, such as social participation, child-rearing and personal characteristics. However, participants expressed traditional ideologies when it came to ascribing gender roles to their future relationships, such as women being homemakers. A limitation of this scale is that it is antiquated, as homemaking is seldom considered the norm for western women. For example, the occurrence of women working in the labour force has risen from 53% in 1971 to 67% in 2013 (ONS, 2013). The MREI also assumes that there will be one main earner in the union, however to be a modern economically viable couple, two sources of income are often required (Bartley et al., 2005).

Furthermore, Dunn's (1960) Marriage Role Expectation Inventory also explores decision making in the relation to authority. This is done by evaluating how women expect the balance of power to be in a relationship. Dunn (1960) achieves this by asking things

such as who would decide where to live, who makes decisions about money and who decides what the children do. Another example of outdated items would be item number 35: "In my marriage I expect that I will let my husband tell me how to vote".

A more recent scale has been created to look at traditional gender roles in relationships, this is the List of Expectations from Marriage (Slosarz, 2002). This consists of a list of 40 items to determine how traditional, marriage gender role expectations were in five dimensions. These dimensions considered sexual, emotional, material, partnership and protection factors of a relationship. The marriage expectations list was created using a sample of 200 married students in Poland. Therefore, it is only generalisable to the married, Polish, student population. Although Slosarz (2002) has provided a more modern list of expectations, it still exclusively considers marriage and expectations rather than evaluations.

In the present study, an item pool was created that measured three dimensions of a relationship. These will evaluate women's perceptions of division of labour, partner's adherence to masculinity and perceptions of her role in decision making.

A scale has not yet been validated to measure how much a woman expects her partner to adhere to masculine gender roles and ideologies. Therefore, the item pool will use existing first, second and third generation masculinity measures as a foundation. Masculinity is defined using the trait perspective and the normative perspective. The item pool will consist of items similar to the 'personal characteristics' factor of Dunn's (1960) Marriage Role Expectations Inventory. Division of labour in the scale will be measured by looking at routine and intermittent household tasks. This aspect of the scale is important in making the scale reflect modern relationships. The instances of dual earning families continue to increase (Bartley et al., 2005), therefore creating a need to renegotiate how household labour is shared when it is no longer a domain of women. Furthermore,

questions relating to decision making will use the MREI (Dunn, 1960) and previous decision-making scales, as foundations. The items will cover various domains of decision making, such as finances and where the couple would live. A traditional relationship will reflect traditional power scripts where the man is more dominant because he has more resources and so has more influence over decision making (Vogler, 2005). Inequality in a relationship can often be measured by looking at decision making (Rosenbluth, Steil and Whitcomb, 1998).

The current theoretical framework around gender roles in relationships suggests that exhibiting traditional behaviour in a relationship is related to gender ideology, time availability and resources (Bartley et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2007; Davis and Wills, 2013). One factor that has proved to consistently influence various domains of a relationship is gender ideology (Davis et al., 2007; Thomae & Houston, 2016). To conclude, this study aims to investigate the multidimensional constructs that represent gender roles within a relationship where both the partners live together. The study will then explore whether women's attitudes towards men can predict the variation of these constructs.

Hypotheses

The first hypothesis of this research is that the traditionality of heterosexual women's relationship perceptions can be measured by considering three main components. These will be expressed as perceptions of partner's adherence to masculinity, perceptions of responsibility in division of household labour and perceptions of roles in decision making. These subgroups will positively correlate with each, other however they will also be distinct constructs.

In study two, an analysis will explore the effect of gender ideology on the proposed PRRRS. When exploring gender ideology, the second hypothesis is that there will be a positive correlation between hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. Thirdly, it is also

hypothesized that a positive correlation will be formed with PPRRS scores and ambivalence toward men.

Study one

In study one, and item pool was created to reflect three domains of a heterosexual relationship. The item pool was then distributed to 328 participants. Additionally, participants were given demographic questions and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982). An exploratory factor analysis was then performed on the data. A reduced scale was extracted, with three factors. Further correlational analyses were performed to understand the relationship between the PRRRS and demographics.

Methods

Participants

Opportunity sampling was used. This involved using the Research Participation Scheme within the university, as well as dissertation survey exchange websites. Social media was also used by distributing the anonymous link on Facebook, Twitter and Instagram.

Study 1 consisted of 328 participants. All participants identified as heterosexual females. The age of participants ranged from 17 to 77, with an average age of 30.02 years old ($SD = 10.93$). Participants were asked their relationship status and whether they have lived with their partner before (Table 1).

Table 1.
Participant Characteristics: Relationship status and history of living with partner.

	N	%
Relationship Status		
Single	71	21.6
In a Relationship	165	50.3
Married	75	22.9
Other	6	4.6
No Answer	2	.6
History of living with partner		
Living with partner currently	166	50.6
Lived with partner previously	67	20.4
Has never lived with partner	93	28.4

Note. N = Number of participants, % = Percentage of Participants

A majority of participants were from the United Kingdom (86%) with 9% of participants from the United States of America and 6.7% of participants from Europe. 70% of participants indicated that they were not religious.

Design and Item pool

An initial item pool was created. This pool reflects the various domains of a traditional relationship. Following scale construction guidance by DeVellis (1990), the item pool is 83 items long (see appendix). The items from the scale were informed by previous research, similar scales and literature reviews. Once an item pool was created, the items were discussed with other researchers. This ensured that the items had good face validity and were worded adequately.

The item pool was created using Qualtrics Survey Software. The survey also included various demographic questions and a short-form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (1972) (See appendix). The item pool questions were randomised. The survey was then distributed online using an anonymous link via Qualtrics and shared on social media and survey websites. The study was exploratory in design.

Measures

The Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in a Relationship Scale (PRRRS)

The item pool consisted of 83 items designed to measure three aspects of a relationship. Participants were asked to show how much they agreed or disagreed with each of the statements. This was measured on a 0 (strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) Likert scale.

The items in the scale represent three subgroups. The first group is masculinity. The purpose of these questions is to determine the extent that participants perceive their partners to adhere to traditional norms of masculinity. The scale also considers division of labour. This consists of statements such as "I would be mostly responsible for doing the laundry". The third section is decision making. The purpose of these questions is to measure the extent that participants expect to follow a traditional script of power in their relationship.

Control Variables

At the start of the survey, participants were asked demographic questions, such as their age, ethnicity and religious affiliation. These questions were asked to determine whether demographic information has a relationship with participant's relationship perceptions. Participants were also asked about their current relationship status, whether they have lived with their partner before and if so, for how long. These questions were asked to examine whether the scale is suitable for evaluating both relationship perceptions and expectations.

To reduce bias from the direction of the items, many reverse items have been included. Reverse items were also added to reduce acquiescence, as participants can display a preference for the positive options of a Likert scale (Weijters, Baumgartner and

Schillewaert, 2013). Also, as the questionnaire was delivered online, the item pool was randomized for each participant. This was to reduce the effects of question order bias.

Due to the nature of the study, it was important to test if the scale was impacted by participants desire to answer in a socially desirable way. A short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale was used (Reynolds, 1982). This short form scale consisted of 13-items, which Reynolds (1982) concluded to be a reliable substitute for the original 33 item Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). Furthermore, this scale was factor analysed by Loo and Thorpe (2000), who considered the 13-item scale to be more valid than the original. When considering reliability, both Loo and Thorpe's (2000) research and the following study report the same internal consistency. (Loo & Thorpe, 2000, $\alpha = .62$; the current study, $\alpha = .62$).

In the short-form scale, participants were asked to read statements about themselves and select whether these items were "True" or "False".
Once participant's scores were summed, they were grouped into three categories. The groups with "Low Scores" were comfortable answering questions in a socially undesirable way. This suggests that these participants are more likely to respond truthfully to the questions. Participants with "Average Scores" show somewhat of a concern for social approval in their responses. These participants show average adherence to social conventions. Those with "High Scores" represent a strong concern of social approval and therefore may respond in a way that more socially desirable rather than truthful.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to understand if social desirability affected PRRRS scores. There was no impact of social desirability on PRRRS, therefore no participants were removed due to social desirability score.

Ethical Issues

When participants took the survey, they were briefed on the type of questions that they would be asked and how long the survey would take. Participants were told how ethical concerns are addressed. For example, participant data will be completely anonymous and will be stored securely in accordance with GDPR 2018. The participants were reminded that all questions are completely optional, and they do not have to answer anything that they do not want to. Participants were made aware that they can withdraw from the study at any point and do not have to provide any reason for doing this. Once participants completed the survey, they were debriefed. The debrief reiterated these ethical considerations. Participants were also given contact details for the research supervisor, in case they had any questions or complaints about the study. There was a low risk that participants could be negatively mentally affected by the study, however as a precautionary measure, the participants were given contact details for the mental health charity, Mind, in case they were affected by anything within the study.

<div align="center">Results</div>

Statistical Analyses

Initially a rotated exploratory factor analysis was used to extract factors from the item pool. Once the item pool was reduced, a preliminary 28-item PRRRS scale was created. The PRRRS score was weighted to reflect the number of items in each factor.

Using the final weighted PRRRS score, Pearson's correlations were conducted to look at the relationship between the PRRRS and demographics. Furthermore, one-way analyses of variance were used to look at the difference in PRRRS score for different relationship types.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

In study 1, the aim was to reduce the initial item pool from 83 items to a smaller number that effectively measure various aspects of a relationship. The 83 items were factor analysed on SPSS (Version 24.0). A rotated exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the subgroups within the scale. The factor analysis will use Promax rotation ($\kappa = 4$). This is because the extracted factors should correlate with each other. Promax rotation and Direct Oblimin rotation are useful for scales where the factors should correlate (Brown, 2009). Promax rotation was chosen over Direct Oblimin because Promax rotation is more useful for larger data sets (Brown, 2009). The factors were extracted using the pattern matrix. The pattern matrix was evaluated using Maximum Likelihood Analysis.

Items that did not load on the main factors or items with low factor loadings were removed from the item pool. There is no set rule for cut-off points for factor loadings, this is determined by the researcher. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) argue that for a factor loading to be meaningful, it should have a rotated factor loading of at least .32. However, the cut-off point is dependent on interpretation of the researcher (Yong & Pearce, 2013). In Yong and Pearce's (2013) introduction to exploratory factor analyses, cut-off points of above .50 was applied. Therefore, cut-off points of loadings above .50 were applied to the exploratory factor analysis. To avoid cross loading, items were deleted that had a loading of .32 on more than one factor (Yong & Pearce, 2013). After each item deletion, the exploratory factor analysis was run again to ensure the factor structure remained consistent.

Factors that had eigenvalues of over 1 were extracted. 20 factors with eigenvalues over 1 were identified, however five strong and clear factors emerged in the pattern matrix (Table 2; See Appendix). Using the Pattern Matrix, the first factor that was identified was 'division of labour', however these items only consisted of items that reflected traditionally 'female' tasks. The second factor was 'decision making', however this factor

formed a negative correlation with remaining factors. The third factor included reversed items that were related to traditionally 'male' tasks. The fourth factor was composed of questions relating to women's expectations for their partner to adhere to masculine ideologies. The fifth factor was related to male gender roles, where women expected their partner to take on the role as protector. It was also not anticipated that male and female jobs would be divided in the factor structure, nor that items relating to masculinity would be split into two groups.

After careful consideration into why decision making was not consistent with the rest of the model and noticing that it did not positively correlate with division of labour or masculinity in the author's previous undergraduate research (Payne & Fernandez, 2017 unpublished manuscript), the choice was made to remove decision making from the model. Once the decision-making items were removed from the item pool, the factor analysis was performed again.

The exploratory factor analysis was run with maximum likelihood and Promax rotation. 16 factors were extracted with eigenvalues over 1, however only the three of the strongest factors were included (Table 3; See Appendix). The first factor extracted was 'division of labour' (Eigenvalue of 11.37 and accounting for 17.28% variance). The next factor represented how much women expected their partners to embody masculine gender roles of being protective and a high achiever (Eigenvalue of 5.722 and accounting for 8.67% of variance). The third factor represented how much women expected their partners to conform to masculine gender ideologies, such as not showing weakness (Eigenvalue of 5.22 and accounting for 7.91% of variance).

Traditionally 'male' division of labour items were then removed as they loaded negatively with the remaining division of labour items. The first factor included many

items that reflected women being responsible for male jobs, however these items loaded negatively against remaining items within the factor.

The scale was reduced to 28 items (Table 4; See Appendix) with high internal consistency ($\alpha = .883$). The factors were named based on the content of the items they contained. Scores for each factor were created on SPSS. A final PRRRS score was then created using the weighted score of each factor. The 28 items measured three constructs. Firstly, how much women expected to be responsible for domestic tasks; this was called 'Division of Labour" and consisted of items such as "I would be mostly responsible for preparing the meals". This construct consisted of 11 items and therefore represented 40% of the final weighted score. The next construct was how much women expected their partner to conform to masculine ideologies, named 'Masculine Ideologies'. This consisted of items such as "My partner would be a real man if he was adventurous". Masculine Ideologies consisted of 9 items and represented 32% of the final score. The final construct measured how much women expected their partner to adhere to traditional male gender roles of being the protector and breadwinner. This construct was named 'Male Gender Roles' and consisted of 8 items, therefore representing 28% of the final score. The final score was weighted to reflect the number of items in each subgroup.

Correlation analyses

The aim of a scale is to have items that correlate with the true score. Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that the first three factors all correlated positively to the final weighted score, "Division of Labour" (r (328) = .86, $p < .001$), "Masculine Ideologies" (r (328) = .66, $p < .001$) and "Male Gender Roles" (r (328) = .72, $p < .001$) (Table 5).

Table 5.

Correlations between Preliminary PRRRS, sub-scales and age.

	M	SD	DoL	MI	MGR	TRS	Age
DoL	3.18	1.12	-	.32**	.36**	.86**	-.05
MI	2.14	.66	-	-	.43**	.66**	.00
MGR	3.92	.93	-	-	-	.72**	-.22**
PRRRS	3.01	.71	-	-	-	-	-.11

Note. DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculine Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships scale. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

The PRRRS and Social Desirability

Participants were asked to complete a short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982). Higher Scores indicate that the participant is more susceptible to the pressures social approval. Participants were categorised into three groups. Group 1 had low scores and were not susceptible to social desirability (N=102). Group 2 has mid-range scores and were slightly susceptible to social desirability (N=165). Group 3 scored high and were likely to be susceptible to social desirability. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to see if the effect of social desirability was significant. There was no significant effect of social desirability on the mean PRRRS score, $F(2,319) = .16$, $p = .853$.

The PRRRS and Demographics

Age did not correlate with the overall score; however, it formed a significant negative correlation with "Male Gender Roles" ($r(326) = -.22$, $p < .001$) (Table 5).

Participants were asked whether they were religious. 74% of participants were not religious, 22% of participants were religious and the remaining 4% did not answer. A t-test was conducted to look at how the PRRRS score is affected by religion (Table 6). It was found that there was a significant difference in overall mean PRRRS Score for participants

that were religious and participants that were not. Religious participants scored higher in the overall score ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .71$, $N = 72$) than those who were not religious ($M = 2.99$, $SD = .697$, $N = 243$), t (313) = -3.68, $p <.001$, two-tailed).

Table 6.
Comparison of PRRRS scores for religious and non-religious participants.

		Religious (n=72)	Non-Religious (n=243)	*Df*	*t*-value
PRRRS	M	3.33	2.99	313	-3.68**
	SD	(.71)	(.69)		
DoL	M	3.51	3.12	313	-2.62**
	SD	(1.07)	(1.13)		
MI	M	2.33	2.08	313	-2.91**
	SD	(.80)	(.59)		
MGR	M	4.23	3.83	313	-3.09**
	SD	(.97)	(.91)		

Note: PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale. DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

The PRRRS and Relationship Status

To ensure that the PRRRS was applicable to all types of relationships, participants were asked for their relationship status (Table 1). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare the difference in PRRRS scores between those who were single, in a relationship and married. The analysis was not significant, F (2,308) = 1.32, $p =.268$. This means that in this study women's relationship status was not a moderating variable for their PRRRS score, therefore suggesting that the PRRRS is stable for different relationship types.

Participants were then asked whether they had ever been in a relationship where they have lived with their partner (Table 1). This was to find out whether there was a discrepancy between what women expected from a relationship and their evaluations for a current relationship. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to see if having lived or currently living with a partner affected the overall PRRRS score. The

analysis of variance was not significant $F(2,323) = 1.79$, $p = .169$. This shows that PRRRS can be used to measure women's expectations for a relationship where she lives with her heterosexual partner, but also to evaluate how traditional a relationship currently is where the couple live together.

If participants stated that they were currently living with their partner, they were then asked how long they have lived with them for. The answers ranged from one week to 45 years ($M = 7.64$ years, $SD = .62$). A Pearson's correlation was then performed to see whether the length of time participants had lived with their partner's for affected how traditional her perceptions of her relationship were. The amount of time a woman had lived with her partner had no significant effect on how traditional her relationship was ($r(170) = -.04$, $p = .638$).

Discussion

An exploratory factor analysis extracted three factors from the item pool, to create a reduced 28 item PRRRS, which represented division of labour, male gender roles and masculine ideologies. A final weighted score was then created, each factor correlated with each other and the final score. Correlational analyses were then performed to consider the relationship between the PRRRS and demographics. Firstly, it was found that age formed a negative correlation with the 'male gender roles' factor. Secondly, participants who were religious scored higher in all subscales and overall PRRRS score, indicating a more traditional perspective. An ANOVA was performed to compare PRRRS scores for people in different types of relationships, however no effect was found. These demographics and participant characteristics will be explored further in Study two.

Study Two

In study two, a preliminary PRRRS was distributed to 502 heterosexual women. Prior to data collection, a target sample size was determined in line with DeVellis' (1991) scale development recommendations. DeVellis (1991) recommended that a 20-item scale should be administered to at least 200 participants. Therefore, this 28 item PRRRS required at least 420 participants. In addition to the PRRRS, participants were asked demographic questions, questions from the AMI (Glick and Fiske, 1999) and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982). They were also asked questions from two validity measures (TAAM, McCreary et al., 2005; Gender Division of Labour within Couples, Batalova & Cohen, 2004). A confirmatory factor analysis was then performed on the data to assess the scale's model fit. The scale showed poor model fit, therefore modifications were made to the model. The sample was split in half, modifications were made to one half of the sample and then a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the second half. The PRRRS showed good model fit. Weighted scores were then created, and further statistical analysis then examined the relationship between the PRRRS and gender ideology.

Methods

Participants

Opportunity sampling was used. This involved using the Research Participation Scheme within the university as well as dissertation survey exchange websites. Social media was also used by distributing the anonymous link on Facebook, Twitter and Instagram.

The sample consisted of 502 participants; two participants were removed because of missing data. The remaining participants all identified as heterosexual females. The age

of participants ranged from 18 to 72, with an average age of 33.46 years old (SD = 11.97).

Overall, 92.2% (N=464) of the sample were white (Table 7). When asked about religion,

63% (N=318) of participants indicated that they were not religious. 31.2% (N=158)

indicated that they were religious, with 29% (N=146) of participants indicating that they

were Christians.

Table 7.
Participant Characteristics: Ethnicity.

	N	%
White – British	398	79.1
White – Irish	12	2.4
White – Other	54	10.7
Mixed	16	3.2
Black	3	.6
Asian	10	2
Other	6	1.2
Prefer not to say	4	.8

Note. N = Number of participants, % = Percentage of Participants

When asked about current employment status, 43.1% (N=217) of participants

indicated that they were in full-time employment of over 30 hours per week. Participants

were then asked to indicate their highest level of education received, 29.6% of participants

had A-levels (N=149) and 29% of participants had a bachelor's degree (N=146) (Table 8).

Table 8.
Participant Characteristics: Employment status and Education

	N	%
Employment status		
Employed Full-time (30+ Hrs)	217	43.1
Employed Part-time (-30 Hrs)	67	13.3
Self Employed	44	8.7
Full-time Education	98	19.5
Unemployed – able to work	12	2.4
Unemployed -unable to work	15	3.0
Retired	7	1.4
Looking after the home	24	4.8
Doing something else	15	3.0
Education		
No formal Qualifications	13	2.6
Skills for Life	4	.8
GCSE or O level	65	12.9
Apprenticeship	2	.4
BTEC or A levels	149	29.6
Bachelor's degree	146	29

Master's degree	59	11.7
PhD or Doctorate	54	10.7

Note. N = Number of participants, % = Percentage of Participants

Participants were then asked their relationship status. Almost half of the participants were in a relationship (47.7%, N=240). Furthermore, participants were asked if they had lived with their partners before and they were currently living with their partner, how long for. Over half of participants (57.5%, N = 289) were currently living with their partner between less than six months and over ten years (Table 9).

Table 9
Participant Characteristics: Relationship status and history of living with partner.

	N	%
Relationship Status		
Single	106	21.1
In a Relationship	240	47.7
Married	137	27.2
Other	19	3.8
No Answer	1	.2
History of living with partner		
Living with partner currently	289	57.5
Lived with partner previously	115	22.9
Has never lived with partner	98	19.5
If living with partner, how long?		
Less than 6 months	15	3
6 months to one year	37	7.4
One year to five years	82	16.3
Five to ten years	77	15.3
Over ten years	95	18.9

Note. N = Number of participants, % = Percentage of Participants

Measures

The Perceptions of Responsibilities and Roles within a Relationship Scale

The PRRRS is a reduced version of the item pool used in the first study. The scale consisted of 28 items, which measured three aspects if a traditional relationship. The first subgroup included questions related to 'Division of Labour'. This consisted of eleven items, such as "I would mostly be responsible for preparing meals". The second subgroup, 'Masculine Ideology' included nine items that asked women their expectations for their

partner to adhere to cultural standards of masculinity, such as "It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried at a movie". The third subgroup, 'Male Role Norms', included eight items and asked women how much they expect their partner to adhere to traditionally masculine traits, for example "I want a man that can look after me". All items were measured on a 5-point likert scale (0 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). There was no midpoint, so that participants had to either slightly agree or disagree.

Gender Division of Labour within Couples

The gender division of labour within couple's measure (Batalova & Cohen, 2004) consists of four items that ask participants who is mostly responsible for household tasks, such as "Out of yourself and your husband, who usually does the laundry?" The tasks include both accomplishment and management tasks. The accomplishment tasks include caring for the sick, doing the laundry, and shopping for groceries. The management task is deciding what to have for dinner. The questions only focus on typically female tasks as they are routine tasks and provide an insight into the egalitarianism in a household's division of labour. The wording of the questions was changed to fit the current study, for example "out of yourself and your partner, who would you expect to usually do the laundry?"

Traditional Attitudes about Men

The traditional attitudes about men scale (TAAM; McCreary et al., 2005) is a unidimensional measure that examines cultural expectations for men, using five items, measured on a four-point likert scale (1 = Not at all important, 4 = Very important). The scale addresses risk-taking behaviour, physical toughness, stoicism, anti-femininity and self-sufficiency. The wording of the items was changed to fit the survey, for example "As a man, how important is it for you to be self-sufficient and always to try to handle

problems on your own?" to "How important is it for your partner to be self-sufficient and always try to handle problems on his own?"

The Ambivalence towards Men Inventory

The AMI (Glick & Fiske, 1999) examines women's ambivalent sexism towards men. The scale includes 20 items that measure both hostility towards men and benevolence towards men. Hostility towards men is constructed of three subcategories; Resentment of Paternalism, Heterosexual Hostility and Compensatory Gender Differentiation. Similarly, benevolence towards men is composed of Maternalism, Complementary Gender Differentiation and Heterosexual Intimacy. The AMI is also measured on a 6-point Likert scale, (1 = Strongly Disagree, 6 = Strongly Agree) therefore providing no midpoint.

Measure Reliability

A reliability analysis was conducted to find the internal reliability of each of the scales. In the current study, the TAAM (McCreary et al., 2005) indicated lower internal consistency (α = .68) than in McCreary et al's., (2005) study (α = .75). Similarly, in the current study, the internal consistency of the Gender Divisions of Labour within Couples scale (α = .61) was smaller than that of the original study (Batalova & Cohen, 2004, α = .68). However, these Cronbach's alpha scores will be considered acceptable within this study.

The AMI showed good internal reliability as an overall scale and as two subscales (Ambivalence towards Men: α = .870. Hostility towards Men: α = .868. Benevolence towards Men: α = .834).

Results

Before a confirmatory factor analysis took place on the PRRRS, the items that were negatively worded were reversed scored. These were items 16 "My partner would not

mind if I made more money than him" and 18 "I would respect my partner if he backed down from a fight".

Statistical Analysis

Once a confirmatory factor analysis took place, the model fit indices were evaluated to determine how well the model fits the sample. There is extensive literature on how to use the fit indices to evaluate the model, however it is important to note how there are no strict, definite rules on how to determine model fit, which indices to use or their cut-off points (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). The confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling was performed using AMOS (Version 23.0).

Furthermore, there exists a wide range of fit indices that have been developed, however reporting on each measure is not necessary (Hooper et al., 2008). The following analysis will use the Chi-square value, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI). Jackson, Gillaspy and Purc-Stephenson's (2009) review of confirmatory factor analysis reporting practices, the most reported on model fit indices were Chi-square, Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI). Jackson et al., (2009) highlight how Chi-square values, RMSEA, CFI and TLI are most frequently recommended as good measures of fit and should be reported on. Hooper et al., (2008) argue that it is also important to tailor the fit indices to similar research in the field. For that reason, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) will also be reported on. This is because these model fit indices were used by Glick and Fiske (1996;1999) to create the ambivalent sexism inventory and the ambivalence towards men inventory. The PRRRS and the AMI (Glick & Fiske, 1999) are both multidimensional measures that look at gender roles.

Traditionally, the Chi-square value would be used to determine the lack of fit of the model. If the Chi-square value is not significant at the 0.05 level, it indicates that the model is a good fit (Flora & Curran, 2011). However, the Chi-square value is extremely sensitive to the size of the sample. A large sample will very often elicit a significant Chi-square value and therefore must often be rejected by researchers (Flora & Curran, 2011). Therefore, the Chi-square value will be reported however it is anticipated that, due to the sample size, it will indicate a poor fitting model. The Chi-square value will also be used to compare various models, a decrease in chi-square signifies improved model fit (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006).

The GFI and AGFI values range between 0 and 1. A value of 1 indicates perfect model fit. In terms of the GFI, estimates of 0.90 or greater would suggest a well-fitting model (Hair, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2010). In terms of the AGFI, Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993) suggest that estimates of .85 and greater are indicators of good model fit. Therefore, the cut-off point for good fit for the GFI value will be .90 and the cut-off point for the AGFI is .85. Shadfar and Malekmohammadi (2013) suggested that a TLI as low as .80 can be accepted however .90 or greater reflects acceptable model fit. The cut-off point for the TLI value will be .90,

CFI is also measured on a scale of 0 to 1. Hair et al., (2010) suggested that a value of .90 indicates acceptable fit, whereas .95 or greater indicates perfect fit. Therefore, the cut-off point for acceptable fit for the CFI value for this study will be .90.

The RMSEA is measured on a 0 to 1 scale, however 0 indicates perfect fit, whereas 1 indicates no fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest a cut-off point of .06 or less indicates good fit and value of less than .05 indicates excellent fit.

It is also important to examine the factor loadings of each of the individual items. Items with weak factor loadings with less than .50 will be examined. A weak factor loading suggests that the item does not accurately represent the latent variable.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analyses were performed on the sample using two structural equation models informed by both theoretical analysis and results of the maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis. Firstly, was the one factor model where all items loaded on an overall 'PRRRS' factor (Figure 1). Secondly was a three-factor model, where the PRRRS was represented by three subgroups; Division of labour,
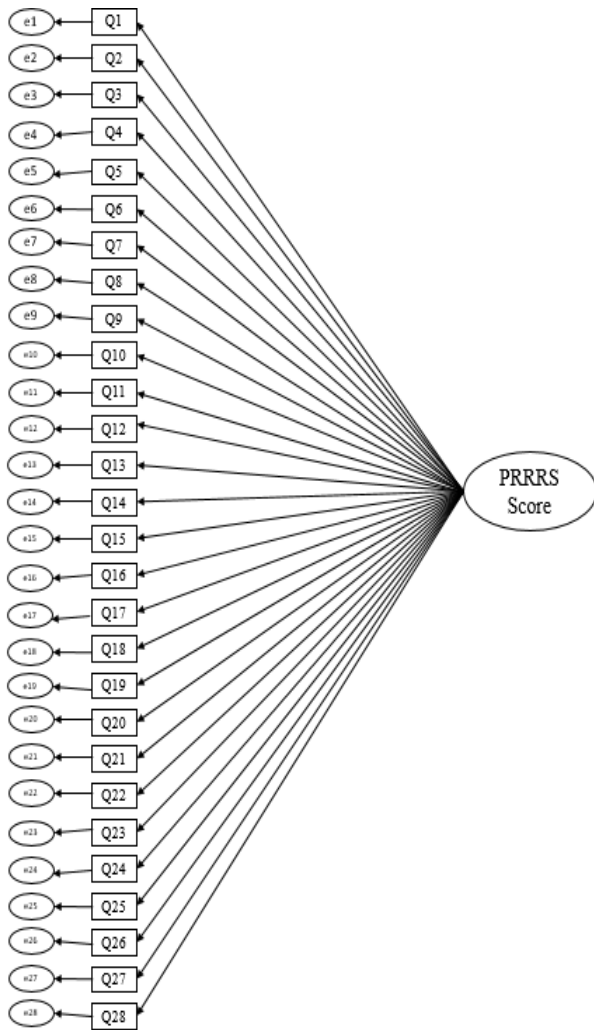
Figure 2 One Factor Model
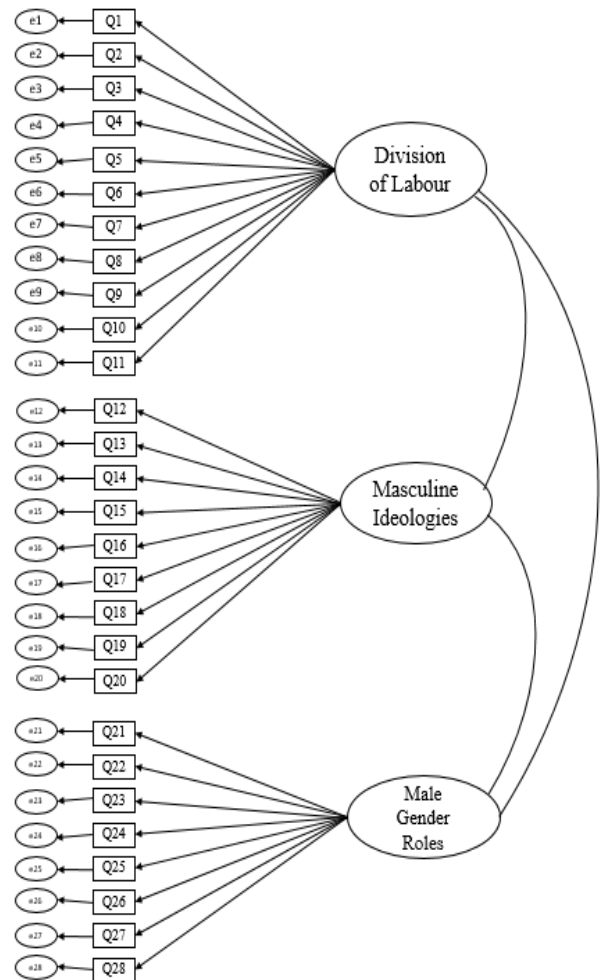
Figure 1 Three Factor Model

masculine ideologies and male role norms (Figure 2). Although the three-factor model performed better than the one factor model, it still did not show acceptable model fit (Table 10). The lack of fit meant that modifications had to be made to the model.

Table 10
Model fit indices of 1 Factor Model and 3 Factor Model.

Fit Index	1 Factor Model	3 Factor Model
$\chi 2$	2313.81**	1199.89**
df	350	347
RMSEA	.106	.070
CFI	.607	.829
TLI	.575	.814
GFI	.658	.842
AGFI	.603	.816

Note: **Indicates correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Two-Tailed).

All modifications made in structural equation modelling cannot be made purely based on the fit indices of the model. The modifications must have good theoretical rationale (Karakaya-Ozyer & Aksu-Dunya, 2018). Also, once modifications to the model have been made, the factor analysis is no longer confirmatory but rather exploratory (Kelloway, 1995). Furthermore, Kelloway (1995) argued that once modifications have been made, a confirmatory factor analysis must be performed with the modified model on a new sample. In this case, the sample was split randomly in half. Modifications were performed on 'Sample Part One' and then a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on 'Sample Part Two' with the new model.

Modifications

The modification process is used when the model does not acceptably fit the sample. There are various techniques that can be used within modification. This involves examining factor loadings, model fit indices and covariances between items. In this

research, modifications were firstly made by looking at the factor loadings of the items. After each item was deleted, the analysis was re-run to examine the model fit after deletion. Another method used in the modification process was to examine at the modification indices between items. This shows items with high covariance, to resolve this, second order factors were added to the model.

When making modifications to a model, one must be cautious. Modifying models is a widely debated topic within structural equation modelling analysis (Karakaya-Ozyer & Aksu-Dunya, 2018). Nevertheless, modification of models is common practice. Karakata-Ozyer and Aksu-Dunyer (2018) suggest that when modifications are made to the model, researchers must report on the improved model fit indices and explain the modifications using theory. If the modified model is justified by theory, then the new model can be used. Furthermore, Schreiber et al., (2002) argued that when modifications are made, the chi-square must be reported for each model. This will demonstrate that the modified model is statistically superior to previous models.

The first modification to be made was the removal of all items that had weak factor-loadings. In study 1, weak factor loadings were defined as all loadings under .50. Therefore, all items with factor loadings less than 0.50 were examined.

The factors with the lowest loadings were two reversed items. These were 'My partner would not mind if I made more money than him' and 'I would respect my partner if he backed down from a fight'. These both had factor loadings of .34. This could possibly suggest a problem with the wording of the reversed questions. However, the items were removed from the scale for loading poorly. After every item removal, the factor analysis was re-run to examine the model fit after item deletion.

The next items to be deleted were a question relating to dominance (with a factor loading of .36) and two items relating to respect (with factor loadings of .37 and .38).

These items were added to the item pool because they encompassed themes that often appeared in first generation masculinity measures. The poor factor loadings may suggest that despite items relating to respect and dominance representing masculinity, they may not represent the construct of masculine ideologies within a romantic relationship.

One item had a factor loading of .45 and was deleted from the model. This was 'If my partner and I had a child, my social life would suffer more than my partner's'. This item did not represent an actual task related to division of labour and was a broad speculation of what life may be like if the participant had a child. The remaining division of labour items focused on tasks, which potentially explains why this item was not consistent with the model.

After the removal of two more items that loaded poorly, 20 items were left in the scale. However, the model still did not present good fit (Table 12). Therefore, the
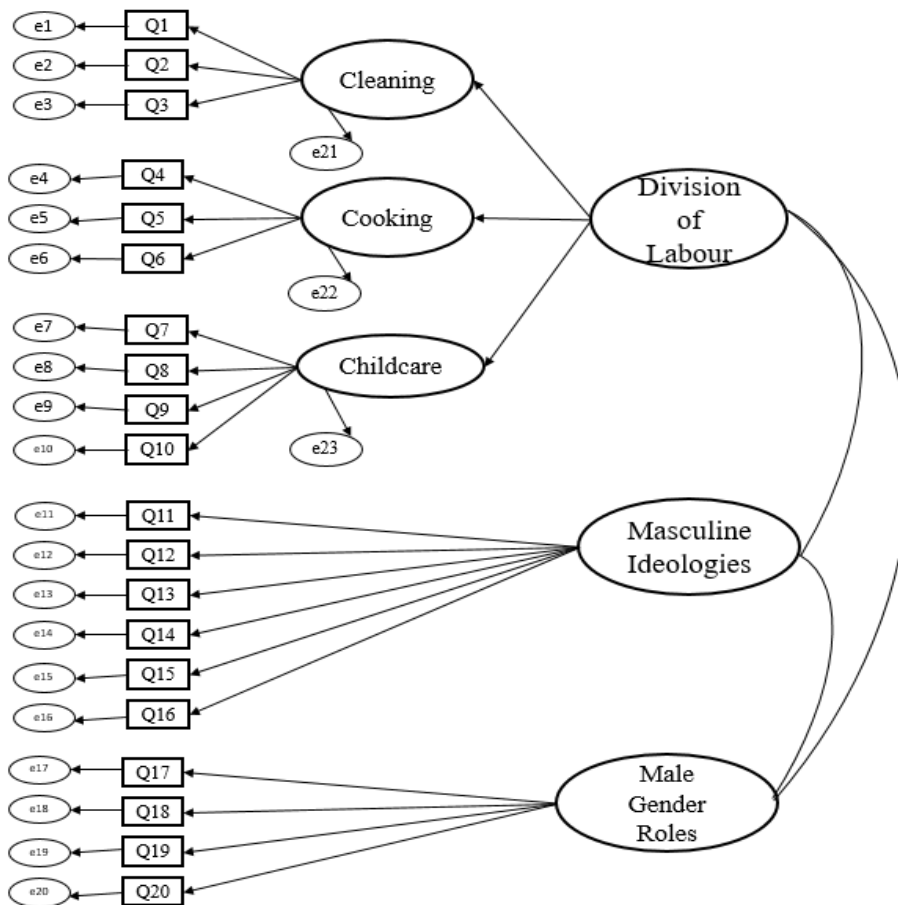
Figure 3 Three Factor Model with Second Order Variables

modification indices were examined. The modification indices showed high co-variances between items in the Division of Labour variable. The co-variances formed between the items represented the different categories of tasks, therefore second-order factors were added to structural model. The latent variable 'Division of labour' consisted of ten items and was split into three sub-categories: Cooking, cleaning and childcare (Figure 3).

Goodness of fit

Sample Part One

After the second order variables were added, an analysis was re-run. The new factor analysis showed good model fit for all indices except for the chi-square, which was significant (Table 11). This indicates a lack of fit, however this was expected due to the sample size. Despite this, the chi-square improved drastically from the original model. A further two confirmatory factor analyses were run with the 20-item scale, using the one factor and three factor models. This was to determine that the three-factor model with second order variables was the best performing model (Table 11).

Sample Part Two

Confirmatory Factor analysis

Using the new structural model, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the second half of the sample. To ensure that the new structure with second order variables was the best fit to the model, the original one factor and three factor models were also tested. The same model fit indices were used to determine model fit. Both the one factor and three factor models will be tested to ensure that the three-factor model with second order variables fits the best.

Goodness of Fit

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis showed that the three-factor model with second order variables had the best fit (Table 11). This can be seen by the decrease in chi-square and the RMSEA compared to the one and three factor models. This can also be seen the increase in the TLI, CFI, GFI and AGFI. The analysis provides support for the theoretical model that the traditionality of women's relationship perceptions is a multi-dimensional construct that can be represented by looking at division of labour, male gender roles and masculine ideologies.

The model fit indices presented acceptable fit to the sample, except for the GFI, which was .895. Researchers have stated that GFI is not the most accurate indicator of model fit, and as it was 0.005 away from the threshold, it will not determine that the model is a poor fit.

As demonstrated in Table 13, all model fit indices improve from the simple one factor model. However, when the three latent variables are defined, the model improves but does not reach the priori specified cut-off points. By adding the sub-categories for Division of Labour, the model fits well in both sample 1 and sample 2.

Table 11

Model fit indices of the 20-item reduced scale in both samples using three different structural equation models.

	Sample 1		
Fit Index	1 Factor Model	3 Factor Model	3 Factor Model with second order factors
$\chi2$	937.023**	443.301**	284.049**
Df	170	167	164
CFI	.640	.870	.944
TLI	.598	.853	.935
RMSEA	.134	.081	.054
GFI	.669	.842	.903
AGFI	.591	.802	.875
	Sample 2		
$\chi2$	846.074**	370.345**	301.979**
Df	170	167	164
CFI	.637	.891	.926
TLI	.595	.876	.914
RMSEA	.127	.070	.058
GFI	.685	.868	.895
AGFI	.611	.834	.865

Note: **Indicates correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Two-Tailed).

Correlational analysis

Each factor within the scale should significantly correlate with each other. A Pearson's correlation showed that all the sub-factors have significant positive correlations with the final weighted score. "Division of Labour" (r (502) = .91, p <.001), "Masculinity Ideologies" (r (502) = .59, p <.001) and "Male Gender Roles" (r (502) = .61, p <.001). All superordinate and subordinate factors showed significant positive correlations with each other and the final weighted score (Table 12).

Table 12.

Correlations between final scale superordinate and subordinate factors and age.

	M	*SD*	TRS	DoL	MI	MGR	Cooking	Cleaning	Childcare
PRRRS	2.99	.84	-	.91**	.59**	.61**	.77**	.81**	.81**
DoL	3.28	1.23	-	-	.31**	.34**	.85**	.89**	.86**
MI	1.68	.76	-	-	-	.33**	.21**	.29**	.32**
MGR	4.26	1.14	-	-	-	-	.30**	.27**	.32**
Cooking	3.31	1.31	-	-	-	-	-	.67**	.59**
Cleaning	3.22	1.54	-	-	-	-	-	-	.67**
Childcare	3.31	1.37	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note: PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale. DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

The PRRRS and Social Desirability

Participants were asked to complete a short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982). Participants were categorised into three groups. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to see if the effect of social desirability was significant. There was no significant effect of social desirability on PRRRS score, $F (2,434) = 1.03$, $p = .219$.

The PRRRS and Demographics

Age A Pearson correlation was used to establish if participant age influenced PRRRS score or any of the sub factors. Age did not correlate with the final weighted score, however there was a slight negative correlation formed between age and scores for the "Male Gender Role" factor, ($r (477) = -.10$, $p < .023$). There was also a positive correlation between age and the subordinate factor "Childcare", ($r (477) = .11$, $p < .015$) (Table 13).

Table 13
Correlations between PRRRS Subscales, Age and Education

	M	*SD*	Age	Education
PRRRS	2.99	.84	.04	-.23**
DoL	3.28	1.23	.08	-.25**
MI	1.68	.76	.05	-.21**
MGR	4.26	1.14	-.10*	-.17**
Cooking	3.31	1.31	-.01	-.23**
Cleaning	3.22	1.54	.09	-.25**
Childcare	3.31	1.37	.11*	-.18**

Note: PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities Scale. DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Education A Pearson's correlation was used to look at the effect of education level on PRRRS. Participants were asked their highest level of formal qualification received, with the lowest being no formal qualification and the highest being a PhD or Doctorate. Education level correlated negatively with overall PRRRS score (r (492) = -.23, p <.000) and all the sub-factors (Table 13).

Religion A t-test was conducted to examine the effect of religion on the PRRRS (Table 14). Those who were religious (*M* = 3.31, *SD* = .82, N = 157) scored significantly higher on the overall score than those who were not religious (*M* = 2.91, *SD* = .83, N = 318), *t* (473) = 2.71, *p* =.007). In terms of the Male Gender Roles factor, a those who were religious (*M*=4.47, *SD*=1.03, N=157) scored significantly higher than those who were not religious (*M*=4,19, *SD*=.83, N=318), *t*(473) = 2.59, *p* =.010) There was a significant difference in means found for those who were religious (*M*=3.42, *SD*=1.25, N=157) and those who were not religious (*M*=3.17,*SD*=1.19, N=318) in terms of the Division of Labour factor, *t*(473) = 2.18, *p* =.030).

Table 14.
Comparison of PRRRS scores for religious and non-religious participants

		Religious (N=158)	Non-Religious (N=318)	*df*	*t-value*
PRRRS	*M*	3.13	2.19	473	2.71**
	SD	.82	.83		
DoL	*M*	3.43	3.17	473	2.18*
	SD	1.25	1.19		
MI	*M*	1.75	1.64	473	1.42
	SD	.79	.72		
MGR	*M*	4.47	4.19	473	2.59**
	SD	1.03	1.16		

Note: DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. TRS – Traditional Relationship Score. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Employment Status A one-way analysis of variance was performed to look at the different in PRRRS scores for those who were employed full-time, employed part-time and in full-time education. The analysis revealed a significant effect of employment status on PRRRS score to the .05 level (F $(2,379) = 3.70$, $p = .026$) (Table 15). A Bonferroni post hoc test revealed that women in full-time employment ($M = 2.87$, $SD = .83$) had a significantly lower PRRRS score than those in part-time employment ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .80$). When looking further into the subfactors of the PRRRS, the analysis showed a significant effect of employment status on the 'division of labour' factor to the .05 level (F $(2,379) = 4.22$, $p = .015$). A post hoc comparison using a Bonferroni test indicated that women who worked full-time ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.21$) had a significantly lower 'Division of Labour' score than women who worked part-time ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.18$), however no significant difference was found for the participants in full-time education ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.21$).

Table 15.

Summary of ANOVA for overall PRRRS score and division of labour.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PRRRS Score	Between Groups	5.18	2	2.59	3.70*
	Within Groups	265.07	379	.69	
	Total	270.25	381		
Division of Labour	Between Groups	12.09	2	6.05	4.22*
	Within Groups	543.23	379	1.43	
	Total	555.32	381		

Note: *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Validation of the Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale

Internal Reliability

A Cronbach's alpha test of internal reliability was performed on the final scale. The final version of the PRRRS and its subgroups had good or acceptable internal consistency (PRRRS Final Weighted Score: $\alpha = .883$. Division of Labour: $\alpha = .898$. Masculine Ideologies: $\alpha = .774$. Male Gender roles $\alpha = .770$).

Construct Validity

To evaluate the construct validity of the PRRRS, the relationship between the PRRRS and two measures relating to the domains of the PRRRS was examined. This was the Gender Division of Labour within Couples Measure (Batalova & Cohen, 2004) and the Traditional Attitudes about Men scale (Mcreary et al., 2005).

A Pearson correlation showed that the Gender Divisions of Labour within Couples Measure formed a positive significant correlation with the division of labour factor, (r (439) = -.59, $p <.001$). The TAAM formed a positive correlation with "masculinity ideologies", (r (440) = .67, $p <.001$) and "male gender roles", (r (440) = -.37, $p <.001$).

Both validity measures formed a positive correlation with each sub-factor of the PRRRS as well as the overall score (Table 16), therefore indicating good construct validity of the PRRRS.

Table 16.
Pearson correlation between validity measures and PRRRS

	M	SD	PRRRS	DoL	MI	MGR
Gender Divisions of Labour within Couples	2.87	.39	.54**	.59**	.13**	.23**
Traditional Attitudes about Men scale	1.52	.49	.45**	.22**	.67**	.37**

Note: DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

The PRRRS and Gender Ideology

To examine the relationship between gender ideology and the PRRRS, a Pearson's correlation was performed. Firstly, as hypothesized, the correlation analysis revealed a significant positive correlation between hostile sexism and benevolent sexism, (r (440) = -.43, p <.001). Secondly, a positive correlation formed between overall ambivalence towards men score and overall PRRRRS Score, (r (440) = -.59, p <.001). A positive correlation was formed between all sub-factors of the PRRRS and AMI (Table 17).

Table 17
Means, standard deviations and correlations between the AMI and PRRRS.

	M	SD	AM	HM	BM	PRRRS	DoL	MI	MGR
AM	2.76	.84	-	.87**	.82**	.59**	.43**	.52**	.48**
HM	3.11	1.06	-	-	.43**	.42**	.32**	.38**	.30**
BM	2.39	.92	-	-	-	.59**	.42**	.50**	.53**

Note: AM – Ambivalence towards men. HM – Hostility towards men. BM – Benevolence towards men. PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale. DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

A multiple regression analysis was then performed on the data to examine whether the ambivalence towards men of participants could predict their PRRRS score (Table 18). The multiple regression analysis revealed that 39.1% of the variance in the PRRRS Score can be explained by hostility and benevolence ($R^2 = .391$). The results of the multiple regression show that benevolent sexism is a significant predictor of PRRRS score ($\beta = .510$, $p < .001$). It was also found that hostile sexism predicted PRRRS score ($\beta = .202$, $p < .001$). Results of the regression analysis revealed that ambivalence towards men was a significant predictor of the traditionality of women's relationship perceptions, $F(2,437) = 140.43$, $p = <.001$.

Table 18.
Results of a multiple regression analysis to show the impact of hostile sexism and benevolent sexism on PRRRS

	B	SE	B	T	P	Sr
PRRRS						
HM	.16	.04	.20	4.88	.000	.18
BM	.46	.03	.51	12.32	.000	.46
DoL						
HM	.19	.06	.17	3.53	.000	.15
BM	.47	.06	.35	7.37	.000	.32
MI						
HM	.14	.03	.19	4.42	.000	.18
BM	.33	.04	.42	9.29	.000	.38
MGR						
HM	.09	.05	.09	1.95	.052	.08
BM	.62	.06	.49	11.04	.000	.45

Note: AM – Ambivalence towards men. HM – Hostility towards men. BM – Benevolence towards men. PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale. DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

A further multiple regression analysis was performed on each sub-factor of the PRRRS. This was to determine the effect of hostility and benevolence on each of the factors. The results showed that hostility and benevolence were significant predictors of each sub factor of the PRRRS, except for 'male role norms', which could not be predicted by hostility.

To further understand the sub factors of the AMI, bivariate correlation analyses were conducted to determine the relationship between the sub factors of the AMI and the

sub factors of the PRRRS (Table 19). The results showed that all sub factors of the AMI

were significantly positively related to all sub factors of the PRRRS.

Table 19.
Correlations between all subordinate factors within the AMI and PRRRS.

	MEAN	SD	PRRRS	DoL	MI	MGR
Benevolence						
Maternalism	1.90	.97	.57**	.33**	.47**	.45**
Complementary Gender Differentiation	2.68	1.17	.47**	.32**	.39**	.45**
Heterosexual Intimacy	2.58	1.17	.46**	.32**	.39**	.43**
Hostility						
Resentment of Paternalism	3.41	1.11	.35**	.29**	.26**	.23**
Compensatory Gender Differentiation	3.33	1.32	.47**	.37**	.33**	.37**
Heterosexual Hostility	2.60	1.39	.22**	.11*	.36**	.13**

Note: DoL – Division of Labour. MI – Masculinity Ideologies. MGR – Male Gender Roles. PRRRS – Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Furthermore, a Pearson's correlation was performed to understand the relationship

between the subscales of the AMI. All subscales formed a positive significant relationship

with each other, excluding the relationship between complementary gender differentiation

and heterosexual hostility (Table 20).

Table 20.
Correlations between subordinate factors of AMI.

	BM	BG	BS	HM	HG	HS
BM	-	.574**	.576**	.366**	.511**	.327**
BG	-	-	.449**	.236**	.364**	.220
BS	-	-	-	.164**	.449**	.098*
HM	-	-	-	-	.593**	.652**
HG	-	-	-	-	-	.460**
HS	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note: BM – Maternalism. BG - Complementary Gender Differentiation. BS – Heterosexual Intimacy. HM – Resentment of Paternalism. HG – Compensatory Gender Differentiation. HS – Heterosexual Hostility. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Gender Ideology and demographics

Religion An independent t-test was performed to look at the effect of religion on

gender ideology (Table 21). The sample was grouped into 'Religious' and 'Non-religious'.

The t-test revealed that religious participants ($M = 2.85$, $SD = .87$, $N = 142$) scored

significantly higher in ambivalence towards men than those who were not religious ($M =$ 2.66, $SD = .81$, $N = 274$). There was no significant difference found in hostility or benevolence towards men for each group.

Table 21
A comparison of gender ideology for religious and non-religious participants.

		Religious (N = 142)	Non-religious (N =274)	df	t-value
AM	M	2.85	2.66	414	2.22**
	SD	.87	.81		
HM	M	3.18	2.98	414	1.85
	SD	1.04	1.04		
BM	M	2.52	2.34	414	1.92
	SD	.87	.81		

Note: AM = Ambivalence towards men. HM = Hostility towards men. BM = Benevolence towards men. *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Age To understand the relationship between gender ideology and age, a Pearson's correlation was performed on the sample (Table 22). No significant relationship was found between age and ambivalence towards men, Hostility towards men or benevolence towards men. Further investigation into the subordinate factors of the AMI revealed that age formed a small but significant positive correlation with the 'Resentment of Paternalism' factor in the Hostility towards Men superordinate factor, (r (418) = -.10, $p < .05$). Furthermore, a negative relationship was found between age and the 'Heterosexual Intimacy' factor from Benevolence towards Men, (r (418) = -.12, $p < .05$).

Education A Pearson's correlation was performed to determine the relationship between gender ideology and education. The results showed a significant negative correlation between education and the overall AMI score, (r (430) = -.24, $p < .01$), benevolence towards men, (r (429) = -.28, $p < .01$) and hostility towards men, (r (430) = -.13, $p < .01$). Further analysis into education and the subordinate factors of the AMI was performed (Table 22).

Table 22.
Pearson correlation between Age, Education level and AMI scores

	Age	Education
Ambivalence towards men	-.01	-.24**
Benevolence towards men	-.09	-.28**
BM	-.05	-.28**
BG	-.04	-.18**
BS	-.12*	-.24**
Hostility towards men	.07	-.13**
HM	.10*	-.09
HG	.05	-25**
HS	.04	-.00

Note: BM – Maternalism. BG - Complementary Gender Differentiation. BS – Heterosexual Intimacy. HM – Resentment of Paternalism. HG – Compensatory Gender Differentiation. HS – Heterosexual Hostility
*Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Employment Status A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to find the effect of employment status on participant's gender ideology. The three employment groups were participants who were working full-time, working part-time or in full-time education. The ANOVA showed a significant effect of employment status, to the 0.01 level, on benevolence towards men (F (2, 333) = 4.682, p = .010). A post hoc comparison using the Bonferroni tests indicated that women in full-time education (M = 2.61, SD = 1.09) scored higher in benevolence towards men than women who were in full-time employment (M = 2.24, SD = .82). This finding was consistent with two of the subgroups of the 'benevolence towards men' factor (Table 23).

Table 23

Summary of ANOVA for employment status and benevolence towards men.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Benevolence towards men	Between Groups	7.69	2	3.85	4.68**
	Within Groups	273.65	333	.82	
	Total	281.35	335		
Maternalism	Between Groups	8.41	2	4.62	4.48*
	Within Groups	312.58	333	1.34	
	Total	320.99	335		
Complimentary Gender Differentiation	Between Groups	9.232	2	4.62	3.44*
	Within Groups	446.58	333	1.34	
	Total	455.81	335		

Note: *Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. **Indicated correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Summary

Study two looked at the interactions between demographics, the PRRRS and ambivalence towards men. The results showed a negative correlation between age the 'male gender roles' factor. There was also a negative correlation between level of education received and overall PRRRS score. This finding was consistent in each subfactor of the PRRRS. When considering religion, religious participants scored higher on overall PRRRS score. Further investigation showed this was due to higher scores in both the 'male gender roles' and 'division of labour' subfactors. Furthermore, women who worked full-time scored lower on the PRRRS than those who worked part-time.

When considering the relationship between gender ideology and relationship perceptions, the results showed that all superordinate and subordinate factors of the AMI (Glick & Fiske, 1999) formed positive correlations with the overall score and subfactors of the PRRRS. Hostility and benevolence towards men also formed a positive correlation

with each other. When considering the relationship between demographics and gender ideology, a positive relationship was found between age and 'resentment of paternalism', yet a negative relationship was found between age and 'heterosexual intimacy'. Education also formed a negative relationship with both benevolence towards mend and hostility towards men. When considering employment status, women who were in full-time education had more benevolent attitudes towards men than those in full-time employment.

Discussion

The present research constructed and validated a multidimensional scale. The scale comprehensively measures how traditional or non-traditional, heterosexual women's perceptions are, of romantic relationships, where they live with their partners. The scale measures both women's expectations of future relationships, as well as evaluates their perceptions of their current relationship. The scale is inclusive of both cohabiting couples and married couples.

The two studies within this research suggest that the traditionality of women's relationship perceptions can be measured by looking at three dimensions of a relationship. Although the factor structure has deviated from the original hypothesis, the modified factor structure has remained stable across the samples. The new model supports the revised theoretical arguments regarding the constructs that represent traditional perceptions of a relationship. These can be understood by looking at a women's perception of division of labour, male gender roles and masculine ideology. Furthermore, division of labour is represented by three subordinate factors: Cooking, cleaning and childcare. These components were added as second order factors to the structural model of the PRRRS. This three-factor model with second order factors was the best fitting model in the study.

The analyses performed on the Perceptions of Responsibilities and Roles in Relationships Scale indicated that it has good psychometric properties. Each dimension of

the PRRRS showed acceptable to good internal consistency, with the overall scale showing good internal consistency (Streiner, 2003). An analysis of the items in the scale showed that all items contribute to the internal consistency index and that item deletion would not improve the consistency. When considering construct validity, the convergence between the PRRRS and two validity measures were examined. All sub-factors of the PRRRS correlated positively with the two validity measures. Therefore, indicating good convergent validity. A positive relationship was also found between PRRRS scale and gender ideology, which suggests the predictive validity of the PRRRS.

Factors of the Perceptions of Responsibilities and Roles Scale

Factor analyses of the scale suggested that the PRRRS is multidimensional and theoretically cohesive. All three factors within the PRRRS showed a positive correlation with each other. This suggests that generally, if women have traditional perceptions in one domain of their relationship, it is likely that they will have traditional perceptions in other domains. The first hypothesis of the research was that women's relationship perceptions could be represented using a multidimensional scale that consisted of division of labour, masculinity and decision making. The results of the research have shown that the traditionality of women's relationship perceptions are best measured using a multidimensional scale, however the three factors differ from the original hypothesis.

Firstly, the decision-making items were removed from the item pool. Although a decision-making factor was extracted in the first exploratory factor analysis, the items loaded negatively against other items in the scale. This negative correlation with the remaining subgroups suggests that decision making was not a representative factor of the construct. There are various possible reasons for this finding. It is possible that the wording of the decision-making items was the cause for the negative loading. Many of the items were reversed to avoid creating bias. Reversed items have the potential to cause

confusion to participants (Sonderen, Sanderman and Coyne, 2013). Despite this, when looking at the author's previous undergraduate research (Payne and Fernandez, unpublished manuscript, 2017) using existing scales, the Relative Decision-Making Scale (Bartley et al., 2005) formed a negative correlation with the scales for division of labour and masculinity. This suggests that the negative correlation in this research was not caused by the wording of the items. Fox and Murray (2000) looked at the perception of equality within relationships and found that couples often perceived their unions as egalitarian even when the male partner had more decision-making power. This finding may suggest that a self-report method is inaccurate when looking at decision making, as people are often rate their union as more egalitarian that it actually is.

Simpson, Farrell, Orina and Rothman (2015) looked at decision making as a manifestation of power and argued that within relationships, each member has different amounts of power in different domains of decision making. For example, financial decisions, decisions about the couple's plans or decisions to have sex. This means that a global conceptualisation of decision making would not be able to predict the extent of power in decision making within specific relationship domains. Previous research has also suggested that not only does power in decision making vary between domains, but also the way that this power is exerted differs. Sassler and Miller (2010) used qualitative data from in-depth interviews and found that women were as likely as men to make decisions about the relationship's progression, however women were more likely to use indirect approaches. Sassler and Miller (2010) said that this finding was consistent with traditional gender roles.

Decision-making has proven to be a complex dimension of a relationship. This means that, considering the time frame of this research, the time could not be devoted to understanding the complexity of decision making. Further research would be needed to

determine the various domains of decision making, who would traditionally have more power in each domain and whether this power is expressed directly or indirectly.

The first subgroup within the final PRRRS is 'division of labour'. Originally, 'division of labour' items were representative of both traditionally female and male tasks. The factor was planned to be unidimensional. After the first exploratory factor analysis, it was apparent that the traditionally male tasks did not perform well with the remaining division of labour items. A factor appeared that consisted of male and female tasks, however the male tasks loaded poorly and negatively within the same factor.

The decision was made to remove items relating to traditionally male tasks from the model. This was justified because previous research has found that understanding whether a relationship's division of labour script is traditional, or egalitarian can be found by exclusively measuring traditionally female tasks (Batalova & Cohen, 2004). This is because examining traditionally female household tasks give an indication of how much the male partner would help with these tasks. The more that the male partner would help with ongoing, traditionally female tasks is indicative of improved gender equality in the relationship (Batalova & Cohen, 2004). Not only does increased male housework contribution indicate the equity of the relationship, but also how egalitarian the male partner is (Arrighi & Maume, 2000).

The final division of labour factor consists of 10 items and is made up of three subordinate factors. The three subordinate factors relate to dimensions of traditionally female, routine housework (Lachance-Grzela & Bouchard, 2010). The final factor showed almost excellent internal consistency and formed a positive correlation with the overall scale, as well as the two additional factors.

The next subgroup in the PRRRS was named 'masculine ideologies'. Originally, it was anticipated that 'masculinity' would form a single factor and consist of items from

both the trait approach and normative approach to masculinity. After performing a factor analysis, two separate factors emerged. The masculine ideologies subgroup consisted of six items and aimed to measure women's perceptions of their partners adherence to traditional masculinity. Many of the questions asked women if they would feel embarrassed if their partner did not behave according to cultural definitions of masculinity. For example, "I would be embarrassed if my partner had a woman's job" and "It would be embarrassing for me if my partner asked for help with money". These items represent the extent that women wish their partner to adhere to traditionally masculine behaviours. Eastwick et al., (2014) argued that when studying partner preferences, considering behaviour as opposed to traits has more predictive validity. The 'masculine ideologies' factor consisted of six items, that considered masculine behaviours, and formed a significant positive correlation with all subgroups, as well as the final overall weighted score.

The third subgroup in the scale was named 'male gender roles'. This factor represents both masculine roles and the trait approach to defining masculinity. The 'male gender roles' factor consists of four items and focuses on how much a woman expects her partner to protect her and look after her. By dividing masculinity into ideologies and gender roles, the scale can differentiate between women's expectations for their partner's behaviour and their characteristics. The male gender role subgroup shows acceptable internal reliability. It also forms a positive correlation to the overall scale and subgroups. Initially, this factor consisted of items relating to the male partner achieving high and earning a high income, however these items loaded poorly in the confirmatory factor analysis and were removed. Despite this, items relating to protectiveness could be considered a resource (Buss, 1989). In evolutionary psychology, Buss (1989) argues that men's inclination to protect their family is considered a non-materialistic resource.

Women's Gender Ideologies and Relationship Perceptions

After creating and validating the PRRRS, the scale was then compared with the AMI (Glick & Fiske, 1999). This would determine the predictive validity of the PRRRS, as well as given an insight into the relationship between gender ideology and women's relationship perceptions.

When looking at ambivalence towards men, there was a significant positive correlation between hostile and benevolent sexism. The findings are consistent with previous research that found the same relationship between hostility and benevolence (Thomae & Houston, 2016; Glick & Fiske, 1999). Glick and Fiske (1999) argued that women often experience both hostile and benevolent feelings towards men. This is due to some women resenting men for their dominance, yet simultaneously being dependent on them. The notion of being dependent on a man does not exclusively refer to resources but can also relate to women's dependence on a male partner for romantic relationships and sexual reproduction (Glick and Fiske, 1999). This finding allows for acceptance of the second hypothesis, which predicted a correlation between hostility towards men and benevolence towards men.

When analysing the relationship between gender ideology and women's relationship perceptions, it was found that ambivalence towards men formed a significant positive relationship with PPRRS scores. This means that the third and final hypothesis, which predicted a positive correlation between PRRRS scores and ambivalence towards men, can be accepted. (Glick and Fiske, 1999).

Furthermore, when considering benevolence towards men, all subordinate factors of benevolence formed a significant positive relationship with each sub-factor of the

PPRRS. This finding suggests that the more benevolently sexist a woman's attitudes are towards men, the more traditional they perceive or expect their romantic relationships to be. Firstly, the finding suggests that the more benevolently sexist a woman is, the more she expects to be responsible for cleaning, cooking and childcare. This could be due to the maternalism aspect of benevolence. Women who hold maternalistic attitudes assume that men are unable to take care of themselves and therefore believe it is the woman's duty to take care of men domestically (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Women who express maternalism may therefore have more responsibility of traditional female tasks.

Women who are benevolently sexist also expect their partner to take on a protective male role within the relationship. This could be due to the complementary gender differentiation aspect of benevolent sexism, where benevolently sexist women believe that men are naturally better at certain things such as protecting others and taking risks (Glick & Fiske, 1999). This finding could also be due to the maternalism aspect of benevolence towards men. Glick et al., (2004) argued that benevolent women take care of men domestically in return for men protecting them. Women who are more likely to expect their partner to protect them may be more likely to feel maternalistic toward their partner to compensate for his protection.

The analysis also found that when women have more benevolently sexist attitudes, they are more likely to expect their partner to conform to cultural ideas of masculinity and are embarrassed when they do not. This could also be because of complementary gender differentiation, as benevolently sexist women expect men to embody certain characteristics and therefore they may look for a partner who conforms to these expectations. It is also possible that benevolently sexist women expect traditionally masculine partners because of heterosexual intimacy. Heterosexual intimacy is a construct of benevolence towards men, where women believe they are incomplete without a man that they adore (Glick & Fiske,

1999). A recent study, on a non-student population, found that women high in benevolence towards men showed a clear preference for a traditional man rather than a non-traditional man (Thomae & Houston, 2016). Despite this, Thomae and Houston (2016) found that generally, women preferred the non-traditional man. Furthermore, Thomae and Houston (2016) found no relationship between hostile gender ideologies and partner preference.

Unlike Thomae and Houston's (2016) study, the current study found that hostility towards men was positively correlated with expectations for a traditionally masculine man. This discrepancy could be because Thomae and Houston (2016) looked at vignettes of men and focused on career and family goals, whereas the current study looked at women's reactions to the behaviours that men would display, such as crying at movies and asking for help with money. In the current study, the masculine ideologies factor correlated strongest with the heterosexual hostility subordinate factor of hostile sexism.

Furthermore, division of labour also correlated with hostility towards men. The strongest correlation was formed between division of labour and resentment of paternalism. This finding may relate to Glick and Fiske's (1999) previous finding that women are high in benevolence and hostility when they depend on a man. This could suggest that women who depend on men more, are more likely to take care of the home and perform domestic tasks however, the dependence they have on their partner may cause them to resent male power.

Hostile women were also likely to expect their partner to follow male gender roles of being protective. This correlation could be related to compensatory gender differentiation. Glick and Fiske (1999) argued that the subordinate group (women) will criticise the dominant group (men) in domains that are safe to criticise. For example, hostile women will say that men cannot handle being sick or that they are immature, however this hostility still serves a purpose of defining men and women's gender roles.

Compensatory gender differentiation allows women to compensate for the negative identity that is given to them by positively differentiating themselves from men. Despite women being critical of some traits displayed by men, compensatory gender differentiation does not criticise traditional masculine traits such as protectiveness. The analysis showed that compensatory gender differentiation formed a significant positive correlation with complimentary gender differentiation. This finding suggests that although women are differentiating themselves positively from men, they are simultaneously attributing positive masculine traits to men.

Women's relationship perceptions, ambivalence towards men and demographics

The first demographic examined was age. Age did not significantly interact with the overall score, however a significant negative correlation with Male Gender Roles was formed. This relationship was found in both study one and two. This finding suggests that as women get older, their expectations for men to adhere to gender roles, regarding protectiveness, decreases. Buss (1989) argue that how willing a man is to protect his family, is considered a resource, despite not being a monetary or materialistic resource. This evolutionary perspective argues that some women may have evolved with a preference for a protective partner to defend herself and her family from aggressors. Despite this, the analysis suggests that as women get older, they do not expect their partner to assume this protective role. Sociobiological theory argues that mate preferences are formed by reproductive needs. (Buss, Shackelford, Kirkpatrick & Larsen, 2001; Hatfield & Sprecher, 1995) This suggests that women are attracted to partners based on the investment of childbearing and child raising, therefore they are attracted to men who can protect them, their children and their resources. A sociobiological perspective would argue that the negative correlation between age and 'male gender roles' is because as women get older their mate selection is no longer based on reproductive needs. However,

sociobiological theory has been widely criticized by feminist psychologists. Tang-Martinez (1997) argued that sociobiological theory implies that male dominance and female oppression are unavoidable outcomes of evolution, therefore perpetuating the oppression of women. The sociobiological approach implies that men reduce women to sexual objects, whereas women reduce men to success objects (Buss and Schmitt, 2011).

Furthermore, when examining the interaction between age and gender ideology, a positive relationship was found between age and resentment of paternalism. A negative relationship was found between age and heterosexual intimacy. These findings suggest that as women get older, they are more likely to feel anger towards male dominance and simultaneously feeling less like they need a male partner for happiness. This finding could also be responsible for the negative correlation between women's age and expectations of having a male partner to look after her. An explanation for this finding could be rooted in the romantic behaviours of older adults. Brown, Lee and Bulanda (2006) considered the cohabiting trends of older people and found that cohabitation was most common in those aged between 51 and 59. Brown et al., (2006) discussed how the rise of cohabitation could be a consequence of the rise in marriage dissolution for this population. Furthermore, there is a lack of interest in marriage, particularly for women (Bulcroft & Bulcroft, 1991; as cited in Brown et al., 2006). Similarly, considering women's desire for heterosexual intimacy, women were less likely to seek a new romantic relationship after bereavement than male widowers (Carr, 2004). These findings may both contribute to the relationships between age, heterosexual intimacy and resentment of paternalism. Despite a large amount of research dedicated to the incidence of cohabitation and marriage in older women, there is limited amount of research that explains the motivations of these behaviours (Brown et al., 2006).

Participants were asked about their religious affiliation. In study one, religious participants scored higher in overall score and all subgroups. In study two, religious participants scored higher in overall score and the division of labour and male gender roles subgroups. This finding suggests that overall, women who were religious had more traditional perceptions of their responsibilities and their partner's roles. Previous research has argued that religion promote traditional views and decreases egalitarianism between genders (Peek, Lowe & Williams, 1991). Furthermore, when comparing gender ideology for religious and non-religious participants, those who were religious scored higher in overall ambivalence towards men. Mikolajczak and Pietrzak (2014) argued that religious beliefs shape one's sexist attitudes, as traditional religious values often coincide with traditional gender ideology. This is particularly observable with benevolent sexism and Catholicism (Mikolajczak & Pietrzak, 2014). However, in the current study, there was no differentiation in the religious and non-religious groups when considering hostile or benevolent sexism.

In study two, participants were asked the highest level of education that they had received. The lowest level being no formal qualifications and the highest level being a PhD or doctorate. The analysis showed a significant negative correlation between the level of education received and PRRRS score. This finding suggests that the higher education a woman receives, the less traditional her perceptions and expectations are for romantic relationships. In terms of division of labour this could be related to relative resource theory. The Office for National Statistics (2017) found that people with an undergraduate degree elicit higher earnings than those educated to GCSE level. Furthermore, Walker and Zhu (2002) analysed education levels and earnings in the UK and found that higher levels of education elicit high financial returns. This suggests that those who have higher qualifications have higher earnings, which translates to more resources within the

relationship. Relative resource theory suggests that the member of the couple with higher resources can negotiate their way out of taking responsibility for housework (Davis et al., 2007).

In terms of masculine ideologies, the analysis showed that the higher level of qualifications a woman has, the less she expects a male partner to adhere to traditional masculine ideologies. It is possible that this link is caused by partner preference. Research, on a British sample, considered the relationship between education and partner preferences (Goodwin & Tinker 2002). They found that women who were moderately educated valued traits such as kindness and understanding in a partner. These traits are not typically masculine and therefore could suggest that there is a relationship between women's education and her preference for a masculine partner. This may lead to women with higher education not being attracted to traditionally masculine men.

Furthermore, these findings relate to the correlations between education and gender ideology. As education level increased, ambivalence towards men decreased. This relationship was strongest for benevolence towards men. These findings draw a comparison with previous research into gender ideology and education. Cunningham (2008) investigated the relationship between women's employment and education on their gender ideologies. Cunningham (2008) found that women with higher education showed less traditional gender ideologies in terms of the male-breadwinner and female-homemaker script. This finding is related to Myers and Booth's (2002) research into forerunners of change in gender ideology. A forerunner is defined as someone who is considerably less traditional than their parents and their own generation. Myers and Booth (2002) found education to be an important aspect in the shift of traditional to non-traditional gender attitudes. Cunningham's (2008) study echoes the finding that those with higher education are typically the first to develop non-traditional views.

When considering employment status, it was found that those who were employed full time had a lower score on the 'Division of Labour' sub factor than women who were employed on a part time basis (less than 30 hours a week). This finding reiterates the research of Davis et al., (2007) who found that time availability to be a major factor in deciding the how household labour was divided within a couple. It is likely that women who work full-time have less time to perform household responsibilities than women who work part-time. This finding could also be attributed to relative resource theory, as women who work full-time may have more money than those who work part-time and therefore can negotiate their way out of household tasks (Blood & Wolfe, 1961).

An analysis of gender ideology and employment status found that participants who were in full-time education were higher in ambivalence towards men, than women in full-time employment. This finding resembles the previously mentioned explanation of gender ideology by Vespa (2009). Vespa (2009) noted how gender ideology is dependent on one's experiences, for example, women who are employed are less likely to have traditional gender ideologies as equality benefits them more. This may explain why women in full-time employment are less likely to endorse benevolence than full-time students. Students scored higher for both maternalism and complementary gender differentiation than women who were employed full-time. This finding suggests that students are more likely to endorse the idea of looking after men domestically as they have more positive characterisations of men as providers. This may be related to Davis and Greenstein's (2009) arguments that labour force participants exposes women to financial independence, which leads to them renegotiating roles within the family. The experience of financial independence may be a typical experience of full-time students. Furthermore, Davis and Greenstein (2009) argued that generally women in employment were more egalitarian than those who were not.

These findings indicate that the PRRRS formed various relationships with demographic information and gender ideology. The current study, combined with existing literature, suggests that demographic factors such as age, education and employment status are moderator variables that affect the relationship between gender ideology and women's relationship perceptions. The current research found that women with higher education and in full-time employment exhibited less traditional relationship perceptions, as well as less traditional gender ideologies. This may be related to their relative resources, giving them more leverage in a relationship (Davis et al., 2002). Additionally, it may be related to the robust nature of gender ideologies that allow them to be shaped with experience (Vespa, 2009). Furthermore, the current study found that as women got older, they expected men to protect them less, showed less heterosexual intimacy and more resentment of paternalism. This finding could be explained by sociobiological theory (Buss 1986), however this theory reduces romantic partnerships to reproductive needs. Research has shown that older women show less interest in marriage and re-marriage, although the motivations of these findings are under researched (Brown et al., 2006). The current study highlights numerous avenues for further research.

Strengths, Limitations and Future Research

A strength of this research is that it begins to fill a gap in the literature. The PRRRS is a modern measure that differentiates itself from previous scales, as it does not concentrate solely on marriage, accounting for modern relationship experiences.

A further methodological strength of the current research is that the samples are mixed between student and non-student populations. The age range and socio-economic status of the samples are diverse. This differentiates the current study from previous research that largely focus on middle-class students. Despite this, a limitation does arise from the sample. In both studies the samples largely consist of white, British participants,

which means that the factor structure of the PRRRS has only been validated for this demographic. A clear majority of psychological research consists of white, middle-class participants, often relying on young, female undergraduates (Graham, 1992). However, this implication can be solved by further research.

In Simmons, Nelson & Simonsohn's (2011) 'research degrees of freedom' article, Simmons et al., (2011) propose six requirements for authors to limit the risk of reporting false positives. The current study has partially adhered to these requirements. For example, all variables collected have been reported, including survey items relating to decision making, which were then shown to not be related to the construct. Simmons et al., (2011) suggest that when an analysis includes covariates, authors should report the statistical analysis results without the covariate. In the current study, this has been adhered to by reporting a table of comparison for each structural equation model, including and excluding covariates.

However, a limitation of this research, relating to Simmons et al., (2011) researcher degrees of freedom, is that there was not a data termination rule set prior to data collection in study one. Rather a secondary rule was set, that data collection would end on a predetermined date. In data collection two, however, the research followed guidance from DeVellis' (1991) book on scale development and a prior sample size was calculated based on the number of items within the scale. Secondly, Simmons et al., (2011) suggest that there must be prior exclusion criteria for eliminating participants. A prior rule for observation elimination was not set, in the current study, participants were excluded who gave their demographic information but did not respond to the PRRRS. Following 'research degrees of freedom' (Simmons et al., 2011), these points will be considered in future research and a percentage of missing data for exclusion will be determined before data collection.

A possible limitation of the current research is that during the confirmatory factor analysis, modifications were made to the structural equation model to allow for acceptable model fit. Some researchers argue that the consequences of scale modification are understudied (Finn & Kayande, 2004). Furthermore, Finn and Kayande (2004) suggest that a possible risk of scale modification is that it only tailors the scale to the particular sample used and may not fit another sample. Despite this, Karakaya-Ozyer and Aksu-Dunya (2018) drew upon previous research to conclude that if a scale must be modified, then the modifications must be theoretically justified, and the chi-square values must be reported on to demonstrate the improvement of the model. In the current study, the modifications made were theoretically justified. Kelloway (1995) also suggested that a new sample is needed to confirm modified model. In the current study, the sample was split in half. Modifications were performed on the first half of the sample and were then confirmed using the second half of the sample. Furthermore, Schreiber et al., (2006) suggests that when modifications are made to a structural equations model, the chi-square value must be reported to show that the modified structure is statistically better fitting than the original model. The chi-square value was reported for each model to show that the final modified structure was superior. Despite the controversy regarding modifications, the current study follows the recommendations of Kelloway (1995), Schreiber et al., (2006) and Karakaya-Ozyer and Aksu-Dunya (2018).

In terms of further research, further validation of the PRRRS is necessary. Although the convergent validity was examined, it would be beneficial to measure the discriminant validity of the scale also. Furthermore, to determine the consistency of the PRRRS over time, the test-retest reliability of the scale should be measured. Once further validation has taken place, it would be advantageous to administer the PRRRS to different populations and cultures. This would allow researchers to test if the PRRRS factor

structure is consistent in non-white, non-British samples. Additionally, the PRRRS was created for heterosexual women. Further research into LGBTQ+ relationships would be necessary to adapt the PRRRS so that it is applicable to non-heterosexual relationships. However, this would be extremely valuable in making the PRRRS more accessible to the population.

In the current study, decision making was excluded from the scale due to its complexity. Further research could be done to understand how decision making is traditionally and non-traditionally shared in romantic, cohabiting or married, relationships. This could be achieved by looking at the different domains that each member of the couple would typically exert power in and whether they would exert this power directly or indirectly. This has the potential to allow decision making to be incorporated into the PRRRS in the future, however at present, decision making is too complex.

Finally, further research could look at the predictive power of the PRRRS. Previous research has suggested that aspects such as division of labour, is associated with well-being (Bartley et al., 2005). Further research into relationship perceptions, well-being and relationship satisfaction could prove to be valuable.

Conclusion

To conclude, the two studies included in this thesis present a new, modern scale that considers three dimensions of a romantic relationship. The scale does not distinguish between marriage and cohabitation, nor does it distinguish between relationship perceptions and evaluations. At this moment in time, the PRRRS is only suitable for heterosexual women, however further research is needed to expand the PRRRS. The presented scale has shown predictive validity, when looking at gender ideology, which has provided a great deal of information regarding the relationship between ambivalence towards men and relationship perceptions. The current study can partially accept the first

hypothesis. This predicted that women's relationship perceptions could be measured using a multidimensional scale, however the dimensions differ from the original predictions. The second hypothesis can be accepted, predicting that there will be a positive correlation between hostility towards men and benevolence towards men. Finally, the third hypothesis can also be accepted, which predicted that there would be a positive correlation with how traditional women's relationship perceptions were and their ambivalence towards men. The current study has laid foundations for further research surrounding relationship perceptions and gender ideology.

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Appendix

The Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale.

Below are a series of statements concerning expectations for a future relationship where you live with your partner. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below. If you are currently living with your partner, please chose the answer that best describes your current relationship.

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

Q1   I would be mostly responsible for cleaning the house

Q2   I would be mostly responsible for doing the laundry, washing and ironing

Q3   I would be mostly responsible for making the beds

Q4   I would be mostly responsible for buying the groceries

Q5   I would be mostly responsible for preparing meals

Q6   In a future relationship, I would prepare meals ready for when my partner gets home

Q7   If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for taking our children to the doctor or dentist

Q8   If my partner and I had children and they were ill, I would be the one who takes off time to look after them

Q9   If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for reading bedtime stories to them

Q10   If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for packing their schoolbags

Q11   I would be embarrassed if my partner had a woman's job

Q12   It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried at a movie

Q13   My partner would be a real man if he was adventurous

Q14   I would expect my partner to put on a brave face, even if something is bothering him

Q15   It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried in front of our children

Q16   It would be embarrassing for me if my partner asked for help with money

Q17   My partner should protect our family

Q18   My partner should always be willing to fight to defend our family

Q19   I would rely on my partner to protect me

Q20   I want a man that can look after me

Note: This scale has been created to be distributed online, where it should be randomized. Division of Labour: Q1 – Q10. Masculine Ideologies: Q11 – Q16. Male Gender Roles: Q17 – Q20.

Scoring instructions: Find mean of subscales. Find weighted score: *Weighted Score = (Division of Labour x .5) + (Masculine Ideologies x .3) + (Male Gender Role x .2)*

Study One - Participant information sheet

<u>Exploring the relationship between attitudes towards gender and expectations for cohabiting relationship</u>

<u>Participant Information Sheet</u>

The current study is being conducted at Canterbury Christ Church University (CCCU) by Mollie Payne, under the supervision of Dr Ana Fernandez. You are invited to participate in a study that explores women's expectations for a future relationship, where they live with their partner. The study will take approximately **10-15 minutes** to complete. The aim of the study is to create a scale that explains women's relationship expectations. Thank you for showing an interest in the study, your participation is extremely important and appreciated.

<u>Background</u>

The purpose of this study is to explore women's attitudes and expectations about future cohabiting relationships. A cohabiting relationship is an intimate relationship were both members share the same residential address. The following study will only be looking at heterosexual relationships.

<u>What will you be required to do?</u>

Firstly, you will be asked questions about your age, relationship status and background for demographic purposes. These questions are optional, and you may withdraw at any point. During the study, you will be required to fill out two questionnaires. The first questionnaire will consist of questions about what you expect a future cohabiting relationship to be like. You will be asked to agree or disagree with various statements. In the second questionnaire, you will be asked a short set of true/false questions about yourself. At the end of the study you will be debriefed about the purpose of the study and be given an opportunity to contact myself or my supervisor with any questions.

<u>To participate in this research, you must:</u>

- Identify as a heterosexual female

<u>Feedback</u>

All data will be analysed in a report. If you wish to see a summary of the key findings of the study, please contact Mollie Payne and this will be provided for you.

<u>Confidentiality</u>

All data and personal information will be stored securely within CCCU premises in accordance with the Data Protection Act 1998 and the University's own data protection requirements. Data can only be accessed by Mollie Payne, Dr Ana Fernandez and Dr Kate Gee. Your data will be kept completely anonymous and you will have the right to withdraw at any point during the study.

<u>Dissemination of results</u>

The findings of the study will be analysed and submitted as a report for a master's thesis. There is also a possibility the findings will be presented at conferences, used for publication or used in educational settings.

<u>Deciding whether to participate</u>

If you have any questions or concerns about the nature, procedures or requirements for participation do not hesitate to contact me. Should you decide to participate, you will be free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason.

<u>Any questions?</u>

Please contact Mollie Payne on m.payne412@canterbury.ac.uk or send any postal correspondence to the School of Psychology, Politics and Psychology, Canterbury Christ Church University, North Holmes Road, Canterbury CT1 1QU

Have you read the information sheet?

Yes/No (Participants must choose Yes to participate in the study)

Do you understand that you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, without having to provide an explanation?

Yes/No (Participants must choose Yes to participate in the stud*y)*

Do you agree to take part in this study?

Yes/No (Participants must choose Yes to participate in the study)

Do you identify as a heterosexual female?

Yes/No (Participants must choose Yes to participate in the study

Study 1 – Demographic Questions

How old are you?

What is your country of residence?

Are you religious, if so, what is your religion?

What is your current relationship status?

Single/In a relationship/Married/Other, please specify

Have you ever been in a relationship where you have lived with your partner?

Yes, I am currently living with my partner/Yes, but not at the moment/No

If you are currently living with your partner, for how long? (If this does not apply top you please move onto the next question)

Study 1 - Item Pool

The Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale.

(Items randomised in data collection. Reversed items in italics)

Below are a series of statements concerning expectations for a future relationship where you live with your partner. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below. If you are currently living with your partner, please chose the answer that best describes your current relationship.

0 – Disagree Strongly   2 – Disagree Slightly   4 – Agree Somewhat

1 – Disagree Somewhat   3 – Agree Slightly   5 – Agree Strongly

1. I would expect my partner to always put on a brave face, even when something is bothering him.
2. I would expect my partner to be respected by others.
3. My partner would always deserve the respect of our children.
4. My Partner would always deserve my respect.
5. My partner would always deserve the respect of myself and our children.
6. I would expect my partner to appear tough.
7. *I would expect my partner to talk about his feelings, even if people laughed at him for it.*
8. It would be embarrassing for me if my partner asked for help with money.
9. I would expect my partner to go after what he wants, even if he hurts people's feelings.
10. *I would still respect my partner if he lost a fight.*
11. Success in work must be the main goal in my partner's life.
12. I expect my partner to earn a high income for the family.
13. *I would like my partner to prioritize spending time with our family.*
14. It is essential that my partner is respected.
15. My partner would be a real man if he enjoyed danger sometimes.
16. My Partner would be a real man if he was adventurous.
17. *I would respect my partner if he backed down from a fight*
18. I would be embarrassed if my partner had a woman's job.
19. My partner should always be willing to fight to defend our family.
20. It would be embarrassing if my partner cried in front of our children.
21. My partner should always prioritize protecting our family
22. I would expect my partner to be a high achiever.
23. I would rely on my partner to protect me.
24. It would rather my partner be strong and a good provider rather than kind and a bad provider.
25. I understand my partner will have to make sacrifices to get what he wants.

26. I expect that my partner will be the sole earner in our family.

27. *I would not mind if I made more money than my partner.*

28. I would be mostly responsible for planning the meals

29. It would be my responsibility to preparing the meals.

30. It would be my responsibility to clean the house.

31. I would be responsible for buying groceries.

32. *My partner would be responsible for buying the groceries and the household products.*

33. I would be most responsible for doing the laundry, washing and ironing.

34. *It would be my responsibility to do repairs around the home.*

35. *If something was broken in the home, it would be my job to fix it.*

36. *I would be mostly responsible for taking out the bins.*

37. *It would be my responsibility to service the car.*

38. *I would be responsible for mowing the grass.*

39. If our children were ill, I would be the one who takes off time to look after them.

40. I would be responsible for reading bedtime stories to our children.

41. I would be responsible for taking our children to the dentist/doctors.

42. My partner would be responsible for packing our children's schoolbags.

43. *I would be responsible for doing repairs in the garden.*

44. I would expect my partner to take paternity leave if I had a child.

45. If we had a son and a daughter, I would be more involved with the daughter and my partner would be more involved with the son.

46. *I would be responsible for doing the insurance.*

47. *I would be responsible for our finances.*

48. I would be the one who decorates the house.

49. If we had a child, I would leave my job for a couple of years to look after them.

50. I would be responsible for cleaning the toilets.

51. I would make the beds in the morning.

52. *I would make sure the car was in good condition.*

53. *I would make the decisions about savings and investments.*

54. *I would be responsible for paying the bills.*

55. *I would make the important decisions in the house.*

56. *I would be the one to initiate sexual intercourse*

57. *I would decide how money is spent in the household.*

58. *I would decide where to live.*

59. *I would decide all money matters.*

60. My partner would make the choices about how to save and invest money.

61. *I would be responsible for the shared bank account.*

62. *My opinion would carry more weight in the relationship.*

63. *I would have the final say on important decisions in the household.*

64. *If my partner and I disagreed on something, I would make the final decision.*

65. *Our children would say that I had more authority that my partner*

66. My partner would have more power in the decision making in the household.

67. I wouldn't let my partner influence my political decisions.

68. Where we chose to live would depend on where my partner works.

69. *I would decide what school our children attend.*

70. *I would make big family decisions without consulting my partner*

71. The important decisions in the family should be made by the man in the house

72. I would let me partner tell me how to vote

73. I would always try to look my best for my partner

74. I would prepare meals ready for when my partner gets home

75. *I would go out and socialise much more than my partner*

76. If we had children, my social life would suffer more than my partner's

77. I would want to make sure the house was tidy for my partner

78. My partner would not mind if I made more money than him

79. I expect that my partner will be dominant

80. *I would like my partner to be in touch with his feminine side*

81. I want a man who can look after me

82. *My priority in the future is my career*

83. *I would like to make more money than my partner*

The short Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982).

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.   True/False

2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my own way.   True/False

3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.   True/False

4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.   True/False

5. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.   True/False

6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.   True/False

7. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.   True/False

8. I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.   True/False

9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.   True/False

10. I have never been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own.   True/False

11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.   True/False

12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me.   True/False

Study 2 – Participant Information Sheet

<u>Exploring the relationship between attitudes towards gender and expectations for cohabiting relationship</u>

You may have participated in my previous study before. This is the second stage of the study. This version is smaller and asks some different questions.
Thank you for your interest in the study, your participation is very much appreciated.
Please read the following information sheet before you continue.

<u>Participant Information Sheet</u>

The current study is being conducted at Canterbury Christ Church University (CCCU) by Mollie Payne, under the supervision of Dr Ana Fernandez. You are invited to participate in a study that explores women's expectations for a future relationship, where they live with their partner. The study will take approximately **20 minutes** to complete. The aim of the study is to create a scale that looks at women's relationship expectations.

<u>Background</u>

The purpose of this study is to explore women's attitudes and expectations about future cohabiting relationships. A cohabiting relationship is an intimate relationship were both members share the same residential address. The following study will only be looking at heterosexual relationships from a woman's perspective.

<u>What will you be required to do?</u>

Firstly, you will be asked questions about your age, relationship status and background for demographic purposes. These questions are optional, and you may withdraw at any point. During the study, you will be required to fill out a questionnaire. The questionnaire will consist of questions about what you expect a future cohabiting relationship to be like. You will then be asked questions about your attitudes towards men. At the end of the study you will be debriefed about the purpose of the study and be given an opportunity to contact myself or my supervisor with any questions.

The questions in the study will ask you about how you expect labour to be shared in a relationship and what traits you expect your partner to have. Please be aware that some questions will ask you to think about hypothetical children. The questions in this study do not reflect the opinions held by the researcher.

<u>To participate in this research, you must:</u>

- <u>Identify as female</u>

- <u>Be attracted to members of the opposite sex</u>
-

Feedback

All data will be analysed in a report. If you wish to see a summary of the key findings of the study, please contact Mollie Payne and this will be provided for you at the end of the study.

Confidentiality

All data and personal information will be stored securely within CCCU premises in accordance with the Data Protection Act 1998 and the University's own data protection requirements. Data will also comply with the new General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR). Data can only be accessed by Mollie Payne, Dr Ana Fernandez and Dr Kate Gee. Your data will be kept completely anonymous and you will have the right to withdraw at any point during the study.

Dissemination of results

The findings of the study will be analysed and submitted as a report for a master's thesis. There is also a possibility the findings will be presented at conferences, used for publication or used in educational settings.

Deciding whether to participate

If you have any questions or concerns about the nature, procedures or requirements for participation do not hesitate to contact me. Should you decide to participate, you will be free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason.

Any questions?
Please contact Mollie Payne on m.payne412@canterbury.ac.uk or send any postal correspondence to the School of Psychology, Politics and Psychology, Canterbury Christ Church University, North Holmes Road, Canterbury CT1 1QU

Study Two - Reduced Item Pool

The Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities in Relationships Scale.

   Below are a series of statements concerning expectations for a future relationship where you live with your partner. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below. If you are currently living with your partner, please chose the answer that best describes your current relationship.

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

1. I would mostly be responsible for cleaning the house
2. I would be mostly responsible for buying the groceries
3. I would be mostly responsible for doing the laundry, washing and ironing
4. If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for packing their schoolbags
5. If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for taking our children to the doctor/dentist
6. I would be mostly responsible for preparing meals
7. I would be mostly responsible for making the beds
8. If me and partner had children and they were ill, I would be the one who takes off time to look after them
9. If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for reading bedtime stories to them
10. If my partner and I had a child, my social life would suffer more than my partner's
11. In a future relationship, I would prepare meals ready for when my partner gets home
12. I would be embarrassed if my partner had a woman's job
13. It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried at a movie
14. It would be embarrassing for me if my partner asked for help with money
15. It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried in front of our children
16. My partner would not mind if I made more money than him
17. I would expect my partner to put on a brave face, even when something is bothering him

18. I would respect my partner is he backed down from a fight

19. In a future relationship, I would expect my partner to be more dominant

20. My partner should protect our family

21. I want a man that can look after me

22. I would expect my partner to be respected by others

23. My partner should always be willing to fight to defend our family

24. It is essential that my partner is respected

25. I would rely on my partner to protect me

26. I expect my partner to earn a high income for the family

27. I would expect my partner to be a high achiever

28. My partner would be a real man if he was adventurous

Gender Divisions in Relationships Scale (Batalova and Cohen, 2004).

1. Who would usually do the laundry?

2. Who would usually care for sick family members?

3. Who would usually do the shopping?

4. Who would usually plan dinner?

Traditional Attitudes about Men scale (TAAM, McCreary et al., 2005).

1. Do you believe that taking risks that are sometimes dangerous is part of what it means to be a man and part of what distinguishes men from women?

2. How important is it for men to be self-sufficient and always to try to handle problems on their own?

3. How important is it for men to be physically strong and tough?

4. How important is it for men to control their emotions and never to reveal sadness or vulnerability?

5. How important is it for men to not engage in activities that others might consider feminine?

Tables

Table 2.

Factor loadings based on a maximum likelihood analysis with promax rotation. Pattern matrix.

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
DL	I would mostly be responsible for cleaning the house	.87				
DL	If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for packing their school bags	.88				
DL	I would be mostly responsible for doing the laundry, washing and ironing	.83				
DL	If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for taking our children to the dentist/doctor	.78				
DL	I would be mostly responsible for making the beds	.76				
DL	I would be mostly responsible for making the beds	.76				
DL	I would be mostly responsible for preparing meals	.74				
DL	I would be mostly responsible for buying the groceries	.71				
DL	I would be mostly responsible for planning meals	.63				
DL	If our children were ill, I would be the one who takes off time to look after them	.63				
DL	I would want to make sure that the house was tidy for my partner	.46				
DL	If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for reading bedtime stories to them	.42				
DL	In a future relationship, I would	.37				

	prepare meals ready for when my partner gets home	
DL	If we had children, my social life would suffer more than my partners	
RDM	In a future relationship, I would decide how money is spent in the household	.87
RDM	In a future relationship, I would have the final say on important decisions in the household	.87
RDM	In a future relationship, I would make the important decisions in the house	.74
RDM	In a future relationship, I would decide where we live	.70
RDM	In a future relationship, I would decide all money matters	.63
RDM	If my partner and I disagreed on something, I would make the final decision	.63
RDM	I would be responsible for making decisions about savings and investments	.59
RDM	If my partner and I had children, they would say that I have more authority than my partner	.52
DL	I would be mostly responsible for decorating the house	-.52
RDM	In a future relationship, I think that my opinion would carry more weight	.49
RDM	In a future relationship, I would have more of a say in what school our children attend	.43

RDM	In a future relationship, I would initiate sexual intercourse			
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for doing repairs around the house	.77		
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for mowing the grass	.76		
RDL	If something was broken, it would be my responsibility to fix it	.64		
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for taking out the bins	.59		
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for making sure that the car was in good condition	.57		
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for servicing the car	.47		
RDL	My partner would be mostly responsible for buying the groceries and household products			
RM	I would still respect my partner if he lost a fight		.69	
RM	I would not mind if I made more money than my partner		.64	
M	It would be embarrassing for me if my partner asked for help with money		.48	
RM	My partner would not mind if I made more money than him		.47	
M	I would be embarrassed if my partner had a woman's job		.42	
RM	I would respect my partner if he backed down from a fight		.40	
M	My partner should protect our family			.85
M	My partner should always be willing to			.71

	fight to defend our family	
M	My partner should always prioritize protecting our family	.68
M	I want a man that can look after me	.54
M	I would rely on my partner to protect me	.45

Table 3

Factor loadings based on a maximum likelihood analysis with promax rotation. Factor matrix.

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
DL	I would mostly be responsible for preparing the meals	.74		
DL	I would be mostly responsible for cleaning the house	.74		
DL	I would be mostly responsible for planning the meals	.73		
DL	I would be mostly responsible for buying the groceries	.69		
DL	If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for packing their schoolbags	.68		
DL	I would be mostly responsible for doing the laundry, washing and ironing	.67		
DL	If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for taking them to the dentist/doctor	.66		
DL	I would be most responsible for making the beds	.66		
DL	If me and my partner had a child, I would be mostly responsible for reading bedtime stories to them	.61		
DL	If our children were ill, I would be the one to take off time to look after them	.60		
M	In a future relationship, I would expect my partner to be more dominant	.52		
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for paying the bills	-.49	.38	
DL	I would want to make sure that the house was tidy for my partner	.47	.39	
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for finances	-.46	.42	.36
M	I expect my partner to earn a high income for the family	.46		
M	I would expect my partner to appear tough	.45		.39
DL	I would be mostly responsible for decorating the house	.45		
DL	If we had children, my social life would suffer more than my partner's	.42		
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for taking out the bins	-.42		
RDL	I would be responsible for making sure the car was in good condition	-.40		
M	I would expect my partner to be a high achiever	.38		
M	I would expect my partner to always put on a brave face, even when something is bothering him	.38		
RDL	In a future relationship, I would go out and socialise much more than my partner	.37		

RDL	If something was broken, it would be my responsibility to fix it	-.36		
DL	If we had a son and a daughter, I would be more involved with the daughter and my partner would be more involved with the son	.36		
M	My partner would always deserve the respect of our children		.67	
M	My partner would always deserve the respect of myself and our children		.61	
M	My partner should always protect our family		.58	
M	My partner would always deserve my respect		.53	
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for doing the insurance	-.42	.47	
M	My partner should always be willing to fight to defend our family		.47	
M	My partner should always prioritize protecting out family		.46	
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for doing the repairs around the house	-.36	.44	
M	It is essential that my partner is respected		.41	
M	I would expect my partner to be respected by others		.41	
RDL	I would be responsible for doing repairs in the garden		.39	
M	It is essential that my partner is respected		.41	
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for servicing the car	-.35	.38	
RDL	I would be mostly responsible for mowing the grass		.37	
M	It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried at a movie			.59
M	My partner would be a real man if he enjoyed danger sometimes	.45		.54
M	I would be embarrassed if my partner had a woman's job			.53
M	My partner would be a real man if he was adventurous	.38		.51
M	It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried in front of our children	.36		.46
RM	My partner would not mind if I made more money than him			.45
M	It would be embarrassing for me if my partner asked for help with money			.43
RM	I would not mind if I made more money than my partner			.39
RM	I would respect my partner if he backed down from a fight			.37
M	Success in work must be the main goal in my partner's life			.36
DL	If we had a child, I would leave my job for a couple of years to look after them	.35		

Factor loadings <.35 are supressed.

Table 4

Factor loadings and communalities of final scale based on a maximum likelihood analysis with promax rotation. Pattern Matrix

Item	Female Gender Roles	Masculinity Ideology	Male Gender Roles	Communalities
I would be mostly responsible for cleaning the house	.85			.67
I would be mostly responsible for buying the groceries	.79			.57
I would be mostly responsible for doing the laundry, washing and ironing	.79			.59
If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for packing their schoolbags	.79			.61
If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for taking them to the dentist/doctor	.78			.56
I would be mostly responsible for preparing the meals	.74			.56
I would be mostly responsible for making the beds	.73			.54
If our children were ill, I would be the one who takes off time for them	.64			.43
If my partner and I had a child, I would be mostly responsible for reading bedtime stories to them	.55			.41
If we had children, my social life would suffer more than my partner's	.43			.19
In a future relationship, I would prepare meals ready for when my partner gets home	.38			.31
I would be embarrassed if my partner had a woman's job		.70		.43
It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried at a movie		.69		.42
It would be embarrassing for me if my partner asked for help with money		.59		.33

My partner would be a real man if he was adventurous	.56	.35
It would be embarrassing for me if my partner cried in front of our children	.56	.32
My partner would not mind if I made more money that him	.55	.30
I would expect my partner to always put on a brave face, even when something is bothering him	.49	.30
I would respect my partner if he backed down from a fight	.42	.16
In a future relationship, I would expect my partner to be more dominant	.37	.39
My partner should protect our family		.73	.48
I want a man that can look after me		.63	.40
I would expect my partner to be respected by others		.59	.30
My partner should always be willing to fight to defend our family		.56	.33
It is essential that my partner is respected		.55	.24
I would rely on my partner to protect me		.54	.33
I expect my partner to earn a high income for the family		.39	.37
I would expect my partner to be a high achiever		.38	.27

Factor loadings <.35 are supressed.