Emerging Adults' Romantic Relationship Outcomes:

The Impact of Masculinity Ideology and Gender Role Conflict

by

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ABSTRACT

Masculinity ideology has been found to negatively impact many educational, health, and psychological consequences for men and can be particularly consequential for their romantic relationships. Knowledge regarding how masculinity ideology impacts women's relationship experiences is scant in the literature and there is limited research suggesting that partner's masculinity ideology can impact women's relationship experiences. Given the negative consequences of masculinity ideology on relationship experiences for men and women, I examined how masculinity impacts romantic relationship outcomes in two studies. Study 1 investigated the role of men's and women's masculinity ideology and men's gender role conflict (GRC) on relationship self-efficacy. Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that masculinity ideology was not associated with relationship self-efficacy and further gender was not a significant moderator. Men's gender role conflict was found to relate to relationship self-efficacy significantly and negatively. In a new sample of emerging adults, Study 2 investigated how masculinity ideology impacts three relationship outcomes: relationship self-efficacy, relationship satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction. I further explored the association between women's masculinity ideology and their perceived partner's gender role conflict on women's relationship outcomes. Masculinity ideology was negatively related to all relationship outcomes, but this association was stronger for women for relationship satisfaction and relationship self-efficacy. Women's perceptions of their partner's GRC negatively predicted all relationship outcomes. Specifically, the interaction of partner's GRC and women's masculinity ideology was significant for relationship self-efficacy, such that the association between women's masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy was

more positively related when women's partners had greater GRC. Findings from the current dissertation study provide intriguing first steps in identifying the negative consequences of masculinity ideology for men and women and provide novel steps toward understanding how partner's masculinity may impact women's relationship outcomes.

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Boys and men experience higher rates of negative outcomes relating to crime, education, and physical health compared to girls and women. For instance, life expectancy for men remains lower than women, living 4.9 years less than women (Murphy et al., 2017). Men are also more likely to engage in risk-taking behavior (Baker & Maner, 2009), be arrested for all crimes (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2016), receive out of school suspension (U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, 2014), and drop out of high school (U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, 2016). Further, men are more likely to engage in violent or aggressive behaviors than women (Burn & Ward, 2005; Parrott & Zeichner, 2003).

Many theories and compelling hypotheses exist to explain the apparent gender differences and to understand the patterns of men's behaviors. One main theory concerns masculinity socialization and its effects (Pleck, 1981, Levant, 1996). Given the many negative educational, health, and psychological consequences for men, researchers propose that masculine gender role socialization may be a contributing factor (see O'Neil, 2015, for a review). From a young age, various socialization agents (e.g., parents, peers, media) encourage boys to focus on being tough, emotionally restrictive, and independent (Kågesten et at., 2016). These messages stem from Western society's embodiment of traditional and stereotypical masculine norms and expectations (i.e., hegemonic masculinity; Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Endorsing cultural masculinity, or masculinity ideology, might be illustrated by heterosexual self-presentation through displays of avoiding feminine behaviors or traits, homophobia, and

embracing casual sex. Further, masculinity ideology includes believing that men should be emotionally restrictive, self-reliant, aggressive, and a risk-taker, as argued by Levant et al. (2013) and Parent and Moradi (2009). Other pillars of masculinity ideology include the importance of work, maintaining status, and power over women (Levant et al., 2013; O'Neil, 2015). Endorsing these aspects of traditional masculinity, or what some has referred to as "toxic masculinity", can lead to negative consequences for men. For instance, traditional masculinity has been linked to depression, anxiety, alexithymia (i.e., the inability to identify or express emotions, Levant, 1998), risky sexual behaviors (Giaccardi et al., 2017), and suicidality (Easton et al., 2013). Further, traditional masculinity can impact men interpersonally such as embracing homophobic attitudes (see Whitley, 2001 for a meta-analysis), engaging in sexual harassment (e.g., Mellon, 2013), perpetrating intimate partner violence (Willie et al., 2018), and experiencing reduced relationship quality (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; O'Neil, 2015; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012).

Moreover, it has been proposed that endorsing these facets of masculinity are related to gender role conflict (GRC), in which men experience a restriction or devaluation of masculine gender norms, especially in certain interpersonal situations (O'Neil, 2008). GRC occurs when the rigid gender norms men are confined to are challenged or broken, subsequently experiencing conflict. Dimensions of restrictive emotionality, being restrictive toward male affection, focusing on success or power, and experiencing work and family conflicts are main aspects of GRC (O'Neil et al., 1995). Consequences of experiencing GRC are vast, including homophobic attitudes, power

over women, aggression, sexual assault, negative attitudes toward women, and negative relationship outcomes (O'Neil, 2015).

The need to understand masculinity in the context of relationships is evident and important for understanding the dysfunctional aspects of masculinity. Masculinity ideology and men's GRC (O'Neil, 2015) are helpful for examining how men's and women's relationship outcomes are impacted. The focus of my dissertation is on the relation of masculine ideology and gender role conflict (subsumed under the label "traditional masculinity") as they relate to relationship outcomes. I will use Pleck's (1981) gender role strain paradigm as the overarching framework when discussing masculinity because when men experience stress or strain regarding their masculinity ideology, dysfunctional behaviors become apparent. These dysfunctional behaviors could potentially contribute to reduced relationship efficacy, satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction in their romantic relationships.

Masculinity and Relationships

Although researchers have examined the many correlates and consequences of masculinity, understanding how traditional masculinity impacts interpersonal relationships, especially their romantic relationships, is understudied. As previously mentioned, the rigid beliefs about constraints placed upon men can not only impact men's well-being, but also the well-being of their relationship or romantic partner through masculine traits including emotional restrictiveness, lack of communication, or a focus on work over family (Burn & Ward, 2005; O'Neil, 2015). These masculine gender norms could have negative consequences on relationship perceptions for men and for their partners; neither perspective of relationships has received much research attention.

Research examining masculinity in the context of relationships found that men's relationship satisfaction and quality is significantly lower when they adhere to more traditionally masculine ideologies (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012). This reduced satisfaction has been attributed to some men being emotionally restrictive or avoidant in relationships, and may feel less efficacious to maintain and nurture their relationship (Burn & Ward, 2005; Siavelis & Lamke 1992; Sprecher & Hendrick 2004). However, the specific ways in which traditional masculinity relates to various relationship outcomes for men requires further study. In addition, very little is known about the role of women's masculinity ideology on their relationship perceptions. Although research in this area is lacking, work done in other areas suggest that women can endorse and conform to aspects of traditional masculinity (McDermott et al., 2016), which could relate to their negative relationship outcomes, such as being less communicative and less emotionally expressive (Neff & Suizzo, 2006; Rubin et al., 1980). Men's traditional masculinity could impact women's relationship perceptions because men who are more traditionally masculine might value work over the relationship or might not express their emotions to their partner (O'Neil, 2015). Women might perceive their partner to be standoffish or cold, resulting in negative perceptions of the relationship. Only one study examining the link between women's relationship satisfaction and their male partner's conformity to masculinity found that relationship satisfaction is significantly reduced for both partners when men conformed to more traditional masculinity ideologies (Burn & Ward, 2005). Although their findings provided new insights connecting masculinity and women, current research

is needed to understand these links and to expand the range of relationship outcomes investigated.

Present Studies

In two studies, I plan to explore whether men's and women's masculinity ideology is associated with relationship outcomes. In addition, I will examine whether men's gender role conflict and women's perceptions of their partner's gender role conflict impact their relationship outcomes. In Study 1, I will explore masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy in emerging adults and whether this association is stronger for men or women. Relationship self-efficacy has not been the focus of studies of traditional masculinity and yet plays an important role in healthy relationships (Baker & McNulty, 2010; Fincham et al., 2000; Riggio et al., 2013; Cui et al., 2008). I will also address men's gender role conflict and relationship self-efficacy given some research suggesting that experiencing conflict or stress can cause men to be emotionally restrictive and thus less able to be efficacious in nurturing relationships (Brooks, 1998; Burn & Ward, 2005; Good & Sherrod, 1997; Levant, 1997; Mahalik et al., 2003; O'Neil, 2015). I will further examine whether gender predicts the subscales of relationship self-efficacy (i.e., mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation beliefs). The relationship outcome studied here is relationship self-efficacy.

In the Study 2, I extend the types of relationship measures used. Specifically, I will examine men's and women's masculinity ideology on their relationship satisfaction, sexual satisfaction, and relationship self-efficacy. The two additional relationship outcomes (i.e., relationship satisfaction and sexual satisfaction) have been somewhat examined in previous literature, but current research examining these links among men

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and women are needed. Similar to Study 1, I will examine men's and women's masculinity ideology and their relationship outcomes, and whether these effects are stronger for men or women. Second, I will examine men's gender role conflict with relationship outcomes, including possible covariates that might be related to the study variables. Finally, I will explore the role of women's masculinity ideology and perceptions of their partner's masculinity (as measured by GRC) in two ways: 1) main effects of masculinity ideology and partner's GRC; and 2) an interaction effect of masculinity ideology by partner's GRC to identify whether women's masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes are moderated by perceptions of their partner's GRC.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1

As research on gender norms have become of interest to a wider range of scholars, focus has been expanded to address questions concerning men and masculinity. A significant but understudied aspect of this focus is examining how masculinity can result in negative outcomes for men and women, and specifically, in their interpersonal relationships (O'Neil, 2015). According to Pleck's (1981, 1995) gender role strain paradigm, boys and men often internalize rigid cultural ideals about manhood, and they tend to feel pressures to conform to traditional gender roles (Levant & Richmond, 2007). For example, according to this theory, traditional masculinity is characterized by men being emotionally restrictive and communicating through anger or aggression, and these behaviors can have negative consequences on men's interpersonal relations (O'Neil et al., 2015). Endorsing these traditionally masculine beliefs is referred to as masculinity ideology and is conceptualized as the belief that men should adhere to rigid male gender norms (e.g., being aggressive, dominant, or emotionally restricted). Furthermore, these pressures to conform to traditional gender norms can lead men to experience gender role strain, or gender role conflict (Levant & Richmond, 2007; O'Neil et al., 1986; Pleck, 1981). Gender role conflict (GRC) occurs when conforming to rigid masculine gender norms results in negative experiences for men and others (O'Neil, 2008). GRC can cause men to feel distressed when gender norms are challenged or broken (e.g., see O'Neil, 2015). This too, may cause problems in interpersonal contexts.

The current paper is guided by the overarching theory of the gender role strain paradigm (Pleck, 1981) and will focus specifically on masculinity ideology and gender

role conflict. For the purposes of the current paper and for brevity, masculinity ideology and gender role conflict will be conceptualized under the broad term *traditional masculinity*. I designed the study with the goal of addressing how both masculinity ideology and gender role conflict relate to relationship outcomes. Because of the importance of furthering understanding how traditional masculinity impacts relationships, the present study will consider a relationship topic that is seldom studied in masculinity literature, namely, relationship self-efficacy, or the belief of one's confidence in maintaining relationships (Bandura, 1998; Lopez et al., 2007). For instance, does holding higher levels of traditional masculinity (i.e., ideology and gender role conflict) relate to men's relationship efficacy, that is, feeling comfortable and having agency in one's relationships (Lopez et al., 2007)?

Because of the potential for traditional masculinity to have negative effects on intimate relationships and may relate to sexism, discrimination, intimate partner violence (Willie et al., 2018), these issues warrant further study and warrant expanding the range of potential influences. Specifically, if traditional masculinity is problematic for men in their relationships, it may also be so for women. For example, do women who endorse traditional masculinity ideology show lower levels of relationship self-efficacy, similarly to men? Because masculine gender role conflict is a construct presumed to be unique to men, the current study does not explore women's gender role conflict. Thus, the first study will examine the relation between traditional masculinity and relationship efficacy, for both men and women. For men, traditional masculinity assessments include gender role conflict and masculine ideology and for women, traditional masculinity assessment includes only masculine ideology.

Gender Roles and Masculinity

For more than four decades, theorists have developed frameworks surrounding gender roles and masculinity (Bem, 1974; O'Neil, 1986; Pleck, 1981). As the field began to advance, specific attention was focused on the realm of masculinity and manhood. In particular, two conceptualizations of masculinity have propelled the studies of men: the trait approach and the normative approach. The trait approach conceptualizes masculinity as dispositions or socially desirable attributes that are believed to differentiate males and females (Thompson & Pleck, 1995). This approach involves assessing self-reported gender-differentiated traits such as those on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI, Bem, 1981). For the BSRI, items were selected that were socially desirable and differentiated the genders; for instance, for women, "tender", and for men, "assertive". The BSRI found that individuals vary in their endorsement of masculinity and femininity self-concepts even within gender and that these differences were predictive of behavior (Leszczynski & Strough 2008; Pickard & Strough 2003).

The normative approach, in contrast, conceptualizes masculinity as culturally and historically bound such that it can vary based on societal ideals about manhood during a specific time (Thompson & Pleck, 1995). Traditional cultural and social practices can feed into what is deemed "hegemonic masculinity", or the current dominant culture's view of masculinity. This view is based on societal ideals within particular periods of time and reflects the dominance of heterosexual White men over women, racial, ethnic, and sexual minorities (Connell, 1995). The present study will focus on the normative trait approach to describe traditional masculinity.

Masculinity Ideology

Pleck (1995) described masculinity ideology as beliefs regarding the importance of men adhering to culturally defined standards for male behavior. Boys and men are reinforced to behave and think in ways that align with traditional masculine norms (e.g., emotional control, physical and emotional toughness, self-reliance) and are taught to actively avoid feminine traits (e.g., emotionality, help-seeking, empathy). Pleck suggests that there tends to be a standard associated with the traditional male role in modern Western society that upholds the patriarchal power structures (Pleck et al., 1994). To do this requires the avoidance of femininity, as femininity is seen as weak, vulnerable, and subordinate to masculinity. Expectations are subsequently thrusted upon boys and men that can cause stress or strain because confining to inflexible gender norms is inherently constricting. Being confined to rigid ideals of masculinity can result in men not being able to express emotions (i.e., alexithymia) and can negatively impact their relationships (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; O'Neil, 2015; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012). Scales such as the Male Role Attitudes Scale (Pleck et al., 1994) and The Male Role Norms Scale (Thompson & Pleck, 1986) are two instruments that have been predominately used to operationalize and measure masculinity ideology in terms of whether men hold beliefs that fulfill standards of traditional masculinity.

Pleck's (1981, 1995) gender role strain paradigm conceptualizes masculinity as an internal push-and-pull in which men use dysfunctional behaviors (e.g., violence) to maintain gender role norms with themselves and others. Further, when men's gender expectations are challenged, they experience internal conflict or stress, resulting in negative psychological consequences for themselves and for others. Three varieties of

gender role strain were pointed out by Pleck (1995): discrepancy strain, dysfunction strain, and trauma strain. First, discrepancy strain results when "one fails to live up to one's internalized manhood ideal, which among contemporary adult men, is often close approximation of the traditional code" (Levant, 1996, p. 261.). For instance, men might experience low self-esteem due to negative feedback from society that they are not meeting the masculine gender norms. Second, dysfunction strain occurs when there are negative side effects of living up to the traditional male code, even when men conform to the script, because conforming to traditional masculinity has inherent negative effects for men and those around them. For instance, men who become physically aggressive or violent in situations can hurt themselves or others. Finally, trauma strain refers to when the socialization process of rigid gender norms is inherently traumatic for the individual (e.g., survivors of childhood abuse or having an emotionally distant father). Men who experience gender role strain subsequently exhibit traditionally masculine behaviors including antipathy toward women, focus on power and control, and violence to maintain their dominance in society (O'Neil, 1996).

Gender Role Conflict

Expanding upon Pleck's gender role strain paradigm, and in particular the discrepancy strain, O'Neil (1986) viewed the strains that men experience as a form of gender role conflict. O'Neil constructed the gender role conflict (GRC) model, in which he argued that adherence to society's expectations of masculine gender norms results in the restriction, devaluation, and/or violation of self or others (O'Neil, 2008). This complex and multidimensional model is one of the most widely used theoretical frameworks of traditional masculinity because it emphasizes the negative repercussions

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of being confined in a narrow ideal of what it means to be a man. GRC occurs across psychological states such as cognitive, affective, behavioral, and unconscious, and among various situational contexts. Conflict is situational in nature and is assessed by inquiring whether men "would experience particular gender discrepancies as conflictual or stressful if they did exist" (Levant, 1996, p. 261). O'Neil condensed various situational contexts into four categories likely to lead to GRC: (a) GRC is caused by gender role transitions (e.g., entering school, becoming a father), (b) GRC is experienced intrapersonally (e.g., personal experience of negative emotions when encountering gender role devaluations, restrictions, and violations), (c) GRC is expressed toward others interpersonally (e.g., when gender role problems result in devaluing, restricting, or violating someone else), and (d) GRC experienced as a result of interactions with others around issues of masculinity (e.g., when someone devalues, restricts, or violates another person who deviates from male norms; O'Neil, 1990).

To capture GRC, O'Neil and colleagues (1995) created the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) and identified four overall dimensions: Restrictive Emotionality; Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations. Restrictive Emotionality involves men's difficulty expressing emotions or denying other's right to express their emotions. Success, Power, and Competition is the degree to which men are socialized to value and focus on personal achievement through competitiveness. Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men states that men are socialized to have difficulties with expressing compassion and concern for other men. Finally, Conflict Between Work and Family Relations is the extent to which men have difficulties balancing the demands of work, school, and family

relations because the demands of work outweigh personal or familial responsibilities. The assumption of the scale is that these are common occurrences hence all four dimensions are highly related.

The consequences of experiencing GRC has been well documented. Researchers have found support that the GRCS is related negatively related to men's mental health and well-being across many domains including "depression, anxiety, self-esteem, homophobia, restricted emotionality, communication problems, intimacy, marital conflict, violence toward women, health problems, and substance abuse" (O'Neil, 2008, p. 363). Further, GRCS has been explored in interpersonal contexts, where GRC was negatively related to men's marital satisfaction, negative attitudes toward women, and increased interpersonal and sexual violence toward women (O'Neil, 2015). In particular, the total GRCS and dimensions of restrictive emotionality, restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and success, power, and competition were related to men having lower relationship intimacy, lower relationship satisfaction, lower levels of social connectedness, lower daily marital happiness, and marital problems or adjustment (Breiding, 2004; Breiding et al., 2008; Celentana, 2000; O'Neil, 2012; Wester & Vogel, 2012). The dimension, conflict between work and family relationships, has not been found to be related to outcomes in romantic relationships in previous literature, but more work is needed to understand the lack of association.

Relationship Self-Efficacy

One relationship experience that has not been extensively examined in relation to traditional masculinity is that of relationship self-efficacy (RSE). Broadly defined, general self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief in their ability to achieve goals or

tasks (Bandura, 1977). In addition to a general sense of self-efficacy, several domain-specific forms of self-efficacy have been developed including relationship self-efficacy. In this study, I will employ relationship self-efficacy, which refers to one's confidence in the ability to nurture and maintain relationships (Bandura, 1998; Lopez et al., 2007). Relationship self-efficacy also involves the extent to which people feel that they can resolve conflict with their partners (Fincham et al., 2000). According to Lopez and colleagues (2007), relationship self-efficacy is comprised of three elements: mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation beliefs. First, mutuality refers to the confidence in an individual's ability to give or receive support from a partner during times of need. Second, emotional control involves being able to monitor and regulate negative feelings like annoyance or anger toward their partner. Third, differentiation beliefs are attitudes toward preserving boundaries in the relationship such as asking for time alone when needed. The components of relationship self-efficacy are helpful in maintaining and developing healthy relationships (Baker & McNulty, 2010; Fincham et al., 2000; Riggio et al., 2013; Cui et al., 2008). For instance, previous research has found a link between adults' relationship self-efficacy and relationship satisfaction (Riggio et al., 2013; Cui et al., 2008). Furthermore, studies of heterosexual married couples found that high relationship self-efficacy is associated with increased marital satisfaction (Baker & McNulty, 2010; Fincham et al., 2000) and proactive (instead of reactive) responses to relationship conflicts (Baker & McNulty, 2010; Cui et al., 2008). Riggio and colleagues (2013) found similar trends among married, engaged, cohabiting, and dating undergraduate students such that relationship efficacy was related to higher levels of relationship investment, commitment, and satisfaction and lower levels of relationship

conflict. Despite the growing research in this area focusing on the outcomes of relationship self-efficacy, few studies have examined the factors that might contribute to relationship self-efficacy (Riggio et al., 2011).

Relationship self-efficacy involves people's perceptions of handling conflict, and it is suggested by Bandura (1977) that people low in efficacy doubt their abilities to prevent or resolve conflict. One's ability to feel confident in maintaining relationships and dissolve conflicts can be important for minimizing negative effects. In particular, Baker and colleagues (2016) examined relationship self-efficacy and intimate partner violence (IPV) and found that those low in relationship self-efficacy reported more situational IPV in their romantic relationships compared to those who feel very efficacious in their relationship. Although IPV is out of the scope of the current paper, it is evident that relationship self-efficacy is important for relationships.

It has been suggested that gender might play a role in relationship self-efficacy; however, the extent of the role is not clear. Several studies have found that women had overall higher relationship self-efficacy scores compared to men (Horne & Johnson, 2018; Riggio et al., 2011), a finding that is consistent with gender development theories (i.e., Gender Schema Theory; Bem, 1974) that emphasize the societal expectations for women to value and maintain relationships. Lopez and colleagues (2007), however, did not find a gender difference in overall relationship self-efficacy but did find that women had higher mutuality beliefs and men had higher emotional control beliefs. The researchers suggest that gender role socialization pressures may contribute to women's confidence in reciprocally managing care and support but not to their ability to regulate their emotional distress. Similarly, gender role socialization might also be attributed to

men's confidence in managing and containing distressing emotions, but these socialization experiences may not contribute to feeling confident in reciprocally managing support and care to their partner. Thus, certain components of relationship self-efficacy might be more prominent for men and women compared to overall gender differences in relationship self-efficacy. More research is needed to clarify the nuances of relationship self-efficacy for men and women (Lopez et al., 2007).

Masculinity and Relationship Self-Efficacy

Relationships involve self-disclosure, intimacy, and respect to be successful (Siavelis & Lamke 1992; Sprecher & Hendrick 2004), and prior research has shown that women tend to be better providers of emotional support (Goldsmith & Dun, 1997; Kunkel & Burleson, 1998) and use "relationship maintenance strategies such as self-disclosure, positivity, openness, assurances, and sharing tasks" (Lopez et al., 2007 p .82). Although findings of gender differences regarding relationship self-efficacy are mixed, researchers suggest men who ascribe more to traditional masculinity (compared to men who do not) might not be proficient in these areas (i.e., self-disclosure, being emotionally astute), which could negatively impact their relationships. Although studies exploring relationship self-efficacy is limited, researchers have found a link between traditional masculinity and relationship satisfaction. Men who conform to and endorse masculinity ideology have lower satisfaction and quality in their romantic relationships (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012). These findings suggest that men's relationships are at risk when they adhere to traditional masculinity, and not feeling efficacious in one's relationship could be another negative consequence of masculinity.

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Gender role conflict can be used as a framework for understanding men's relationship self-efficacy. Using the four dimensions of GRC, it is possible to consider scenarios that highlight ways men high in the various dimensions of GRC might perceive their relationship. First, men who endorse more restrictive emotionality might not have the emotional intelligence or capabilities to openly discuss potential problems in the relationship, thus they may feel less efficacious maintaining this aspect of the relationship. Second, the dimension of success, power, and competition might relate to men's efficacy in the relationship because men might feel their partner is undermining their power, and thus men may not feel confident maintaining their relationship. Third, conflict between work and family relations could negatively impact men's confidence in nurturing the relationship if they are prioritizing work over family. Finally, men who ascribe to the dimension of restrictive affectionate behavior between men might not openly discuss their relationship problems with their male friends and therefore may not receive support or guidance from their friends. This lack of support could lead men to feel less efficacious in maintaining or nurturing their romantic relationship because these skills are not necessarily inherent for men who are more traditionally masculine. Although not the primary focus of the current study, I will also explore whether the individual dimensions of GRC are related to relationship self-efficacy for men.

Masculinity and Women's Experiences

Men are not the only ones who suffer negative consequences of masculinity. Endorsing traditional masculinity can have negative effects for women and their relationship experiences. For instance, women who endorse traditional masculinity might view themselves as also more traditional (i.e., men are not involved in the home/childcare

responsibilities), and thus, might find themselves carrying multiple demanding roles in the family or may view the relationship as one-sided or not supportive. Although this area has yet to be extensively examined, research in other areas suggest that women can internalize masculine ideals similar to men (e.g., Bem, 1974). Researchers suggest that given the connection between men's conformity to traditional masculinity and negative interpersonal problems (Burn & Ward, 2005; Wong et al., 2012), women who endorse traditional masculinity might also experience similar consequences.

Alternatively, women who report higher levels of traditional masculinity might choose partners who are also more traditionally masculine, because individuals tend to seek out those who are similar to them (e.g., homophily; McPherson et al., 2001). Women might seek out male partners who match their masculinity attitudes and thus their male partner might adhere to traditional masculine gender norms that could strain the relationship. For instance, he might be emotionally restrictive and withdraw when issues arise, leading to less satisfaction with the relationship. Although the current study is not directly examining women's perceptions of their partner's masculinity, it is an important area for future exploration.

One area that has not been examined is the link between traditional masculinity and women's relationship self-efficacy. There is potential to gain insights into how masculinity might undermine relationship self-efficacy by examining how these variables relate in women. Although women tend to endorse less traditional masculinity (Larsen & Long, 1988; Brewster & Padavic, 2000) than do men in general, women who do endorse traditional masculinity might experience the negative effects comparable to men who endorse traditional masculinity. In other words, the gender of the person embracing

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traditional masculinity may not determine negative relationship outcomes, but rather if anyone in a relationship embraces it, then traditional masculinity can be problematic. Although there is limited research in this area, McDermott and colleagues (2016) found that women who endorsed more traditional masculinity reported similar attitudes of acceptance toward physical, psychological, and sexual dating violence toward women. These attitudes might carry over to other aspects of relationships and it can be hypothesized that women who endorse traditional masculinity might also feel less efficacious in their relationships. Alternatively, women who embrace more traditional masculinity might not be embracing feminine roles, such as maintaining and nurturing the relationship. This lack of relationship maintenance might cause issues in the relationship, including relationship self-efficacy. Previous research supports that if both partners held traditional gender role attitudes (e.g., male as the breadwinner and female as the caretaker/homemaker), they were less emotionally expressive and less communicative compared to those who did not (Neff & Suizzo, 2006; Rubin et al, 1980). Given that women who are traditional might be expected to be nurturing of relationships, this result is surprising, but these results would suggest that when both partners are conforming, there is lowered partner communication. Because relationship self-efficacy involves feeling competent, expressing emotions, and communicating with one's partner (which are inherently difficult for traditionally masculine individuals; Brooks, 1998; Burn & Ward, 2005; Good & Sherrod, 1997; Levant, 1997; Mahalik et al., 2003), masculinity ideology might play a role in relationship self-efficacy for both women and men. If women show a strong relation between traditional masculinity and lower RSE, then this suggests that endorsing traditional masculinity may need to be explored more fully in

women. The current study is designed to extend the literature by exploring how women's traditional endorsement of masculinity is related to their relationship self-efficacy.

Present Study

The purpose of the present study was to identify whether traditional masculinity is associated with relationship self-efficacy for men and women. For men, traditional masculinity includes both gender role conflict, assessed with the Gender Role Conflict Scale – Short Form (Wester et al., 2012), and masculine ideology, assessed with the Male Role Attitudes Scale (Pleck et al., 1994), - for women, traditional masculinity includes masculine ideology and was assessed with the Male Role Attitudes Scale (Pleck et al., 1994). For men, the dimensions of GRC (Restrictive Emotionality [RE]; Success, Power, and Control [SPC]; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men [RABBM]; and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations [CBWFR]) were explored as they relate to relationship self-efficacy. My goal was to address several research questions (RQs) and hypotheses (Hs). First, what is the link between masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy for men and women (RQ1)? Based on previous literature, it is hypothesized that, after controls are included in analyses, (H1a) individuals with more traditional masculinity ideology will have lower relationship self-efficacy. Further, this relationship would be moderated by gender such that the association between traditional masculinity and relationship self-efficacy will be stronger for men (H1b). Second, I addressed the question of, what is the link between men's GRC and relationship self-efficacy (RQ2)? Based on supporting evidence, men with more gender role conflict (higher total scale score) will have lower scores of relationship self-efficacy (H2). As an exploratory issue, I assessed whether the four subscales of GRC each relate to relationship self-efficacy.

Third, a secondary set of research questions concerns gender differences in the RSE scale (RQ3). I assessed whether there are gender differences in the total score of relationship self-efficacy and in each of the three dimensions (mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation). Based on previous work, I expect that women as compared to men will have higher overall scores of relationship self-efficacy, mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation (H3).

Method

Participants

Data for the present study were drawn from a large-scale study exploring gender attitudes and relationships among college students. The study included several measures relating to masculinity, relationship efficacy, sexualization, and vignettes of attitudes toward gender non-conforming individuals. Participants were 580 undergraduate college students (67.4% women, 29.6% men, 2.7% non-binary) from a large Southwestern university. Most participants (73.7%) identified as heterosexual, although there were 17.1% who identified as bisexual, 2.8% identified as lesbian, 2.3% as gay and 4.1% as "other response". Because the current study addresses traditional masculinity, which is confined by a patriarchal and heteronormative narrative, only cisgender and heterosexual individuals are included, resulting in a sample of 516 individuals (see Table 1.1 for sample demographics). There were 57.5% juniors and seniors, 41.1% freshmen and sophomores, and 1.4% "other response" (e.g., law student). Most participants majored in liberal arts and sciences (33.7%), business (19.6%), and engineering (16.0%). Participant age ranged from 18 to 29, with a mean of 21.10 ($SD = 2.35$). Nearly half participants self-identified as White/Caucasian (51.9%), although 14.5% identified as Asian/Asian

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American, 14.0% as Latinx/Hispanic, 5.0% as Black/African American, 2.1% as Middle

Eastern, 11.4% as multiracial, and 1.0% responded as "other response". Finally,

participants identified as having a somewhat liberal to moderate political ideology ($M =$

2.67) when reported on a 1-to-5-point Likert scale from very liberal to very conservative.

Procedure

      The study received IRB approval through the Institutional Review Board at the

university. Participants were recruited through several outlets: posting the survey link on

the university webpage, handing out and posting flyers on campus, and emailing

professors to share the survey link. The study was described as a study assessing college

students' attitudes toward gender and relationships. Participants completed the online

survey through Qualtrics that took approximately 30-40 minutes to complete. Participants

were entered to win one of five $50 Visa gift cards and consent was confirmed by the

participants by clicking "yes" after reading the consent form before continuing to the

survey.

Measures

Masculinity Ideology

      The Male Role Attitudes Scale (Pleck et al., 1994) was used to assess young

adults' traditional masculinity ideology (e.g., "A guy will lose respect if he talks about

his problems"). The scale consisted of 8 items whereby participants rated their agreement

with each statement on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = disagree a lot to 4 = agree

a lot, with higher scores indicating more traditional masculinity ideology. Cronbach's

alpha suggested low but acceptable reliability of the measure ($\alpha = .71$).

Gender Role Conflict

The 16-tem GRCS-SF (Wester et al., 2012) is a shortened version of the GRCS (O'Neil et al., 1986) designed to assess men's negative outcomes of experiencing restricted gender roles. The scale includes four subscales: Restrictive Emotionality (RE; 4 items, "I do not like to show my emotions to other people"), Success/Power/Competition (SPC; 4 items, "I like to feel superior to other people"), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men (RABBM; 4 items, "Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable"), and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (CBWFR; 4 items, "Finding time to relax is difficult for me"). Responses are on a 6-points Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree, with higher scores indicating greater gender role conflict. There were no reverse-coded items. Coefficient αs for subscales ranged from .74 to .82, with the total scale's alpha being α= .80. Validity evidence for the measure is provided in Wester et al. (2012).

Relationship Self-Efficacy

The Relationship Self-Efficacy Scale (RSE; Lopez et al., 2007) was used to assess young adult's beliefs about one's skills at engaging in behaviors with an intimate partner that reflect mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation. The scale consisted of 25 items whereby respondents answered their level of confidence that they can engage in behavior within the context of their present relationship. The mutuality subscale consists of 16 items (e.g., "Express openly to your partner your hopes for the future of the relationship"), the emotional control subscale consists of 4 items (e.g., "Control your temper when angry or frustrated with your partner"), and the differentiation subscale consists of 5 items (e.g., "Deal with important disagreements openly and directly").

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Responses were on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = not at all to 5 = completely sure, with higher scores indicating more relationship self-efficacy. Cronbach's alpha suggested great reliability of the measure (α = .93). Alphas for the mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation subscales are .92, .78, .75, respectively.

Analytic Strategy

I analyzed the data using SPSS for all descriptive and main analyses. I first assessed skewness and kurtosis, means, gender differences, and correlations of major variables. Correlations will suggest whether traditional masculinity relates to RSE for each gender. For the major regression analyses, control variables (e.g., age, race/ethnicity, year in college, political ideology, religious views, perceived masculinity/femininity etc.) were included as needed.

For both men and women, I conducted a regression analysis including masculinity ideology as the predictor variable and relationship self-efficacy as the outcome variable. To determine if H1a (i.e., that masculine ideology relates to RSE) is viable, I examined whether masculinity ideology significantly predicts RSE. To test gender moderation, I add an interaction term of masculinity ideology and gender as a second predictor. To determine if H1b is viable (i.e., that gender will moderate masculinity ideology and RSE), I assessed whether the relation between masculinity ideology and RSE differs by gender.

For men, I ran a set of regression analyses that include the total GRCS as the predictor variable with RSE as the outcome variable. To determine if H2 is viable (i.e., that men's GRC predicts RSE), I examined whether GRC is significantly related to RSE using the total score. As an exploratory issue, I also evaluated in another regression

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whether each of the four subscales of GRC (RE, RABBM, CBWFR, SPC) are significantly related to RSE for men.

Finally, I ran a MANCOVA (i.e., multiple analysis of covariance) to assess gender differences in the relationship self-efficacy subscales by including participant gender as the predictor and mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation as the outcome variables. To determine if H3 is viable (i.e., that women as compared to men will have higher overall scores of the RSE subscales), I examined whether the means of mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation are significantly different for men and women.

Results

Descriptive Analyses

The means, standard deviations, and correlations for all study variables can be found in Table 1.2 and split by gender in Table 1.3. Men reported greater masculinity ideology (Masculinity) than did women [t (228.52) = 3.21, $p < .01$]. Women reported significantly greater relationship self-efficacy (RSE) than did men [t (220.97) = -2.82, $p < .01$]. All study variables were normally distributed (i.e., skewness less than 2, kurtosis 7; Curran et al., 1996). For the full sample (and by gender), masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy were not significantly correlated. For men, GRC was positively correlated with masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy. Dimensions of RABBM ($r = -.31$, $p < .01$) and RE ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$) were negatively correlated with RSE, but CBSF and SPC were not correlated.

Race/ethnicity (E/R) was related with relationship self-efficacy and was included in the analyses as a control variable (coded 0 = White and 1 = ethnic/racial minority).

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Other variables (i.e., age, year in school, political ideology, and religion) were considered as potential controls, but were not significantly or theoretically related to relationship self-efficacy. Single item measures assessing the extent to which participants perceived themselves to be masculine and feminine were related to relationship self-efficacy, however, were not included in the analyses as control variables because of being single item measures.

Masculinity Ideology on Relationship Self-Efficacy

To explore whether masculinity ideology is associated with RSE, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Table 1.4 presents results of the analysis. At step 1 of the model, ethnicity/race was entered as a control variable and accounted for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .010$, $F(1,412) = 3.96$, $p = .047$, such that it negatively predicted RSE ($\beta = -0.10$, $p = .05$). This means that RSE is lower for ethnic/racial minorities when compared to Whites. Gender and masculinity ideology were entered as predictors in step 2 and together accounted for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .034$, $F(2,410) = 5.13$, $p < .01$. In this step, gender was a significant predictor of RSE ($\beta = .14$, $p < .01$) meaning that compared to men, RSE is higher for women. However, endorsing higher levels of masculinity ideology was not related to emerging adults' relationship self-efficacy ($\beta = -0.05$, $p = .33$) when controlling for E/R. At step 3, an interaction term was included to examine the moderating effect of gender and masculinity ideology on RSE. The addition of the interaction term did not significantly improve the model, $R^2 = .036$, $F(1,409) = .77$, $p = .379$ and was not significantly associated with RSE ($\beta = -.06$, $p = .38$). Taken together, findings did not support my first hypothesis (H1a) that masculinity ideology

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would relate to RSE and did also not support my second hypothesis (H1b) that gender would moderate this relationship.

Men's GRC on Relationship Self-Efficacy

When examining the effect of GRC on RSE for men, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Ethnicity/race was entered as a control variable at step 1 but did not account for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .003$, $F(1,136) = .35$, $p = .555$. At step 2, GRC was entered as a predictor and significantly accounted for the variance in RSE, $R^2 = .067$, $F(1,135) = 9.33$, $p < .01$. Specifically, GRC predicted reduced RSE ($\beta = -0.25$, $p < .01$), suggesting that men's total gender role conflict (combined across subscales) is associated with worse relationship self-efficacy, however, the amount of variance explained was small. See Table 1.5 for hierarchical regression coefficients.

To explore how the subscales of GRC relate to relationship self-efficacy, all four subscales were entered into the analysis at step 2 (following controls entered at step 1). At step 1, ethnicity/race did not account for significant variance in the model $R^2 = .003$, $F(1,136) = .35$, $p = .555$. At step 2, the addition of the four GRC subscales accounted for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .112$, $F(4,132) = 4.07$, $p < .01$, consistent with the previously reported findings for the total scale score. Specifically, even with the other subscales included, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men significantly and negatively predicted relationship self-efficacy ($\beta = -0.26$, $p < .01$). Thus, the more men report feeling discomfort displaying affectionate behavior toward or from men, the less efficacious they feel in their romantic relationship, even when accounting for the variance of the other subscales. Restrictive Emotionality ($\beta = -0.15$, $p = .110$), Conflict Between Work and Family Relations ($\beta = 0.04$, $p = .624$), and Success, Power, and Competition (β

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= -0.001, p = .995) were not significant predictors of RSE. See Table 1.6 for hierarchical regression coefficients.

To determine whether each GRC subscale uniquely predicted RSE when included separately in the analysis, each subscale was entered as the independent variable in four respective regression analyses, controlling for race/ethnicity in each model. In the first analysis, when Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between men was entered as the independent variable, it accounted for significant variance in RSE, R^2 = .10, F (1,135) = 13.73, p < .001, and negatively predicted RSE (β = -0.30, p < .001). In the analysis where Restrictive Emotionality was the predictor, it accounted for significant variance in RSE, R^2 = .05, F (1,135) = 6.92, p =.01, and was significantly and negatively associated with RSE (β = -0.22, p = .01). This stands in contrast to the finding of the analysis with all four subscales included. This suggests shared variance among the RE and RABBM subscales that predict RSE (confirmed by the r = .34 correlation between the two subscales). In the analysis of the subscale Conflict Between Work and Family Relations, this did not account for significant variance in RSE, R^2 = .004, F (1,135) = 0.24, p =.62, and was not significantly associated with RSE (β = -0.04, p = .62). Finally, the analysis of the subscale Success, Power, Competition did not account for significant variance in RSE, R^2 = .01, F (1,135) = 0.58, p =.45, and was not a significant predictor of RSE (β = -0.07, p = .45).

Taken together, only one of the subscales was predictive when all subscales were included in the model (i.e., Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men). When examined separately, however, both Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Restrictive Emotionality predicted lower relationship self-efficacy among men. It could

be that although RE is significantly associated with RSE, the shared variance of RABBM could be dominating the total variance when included in the same model.

Gender Differences among RSE Subscales

Finally, I examined gender differences among the RSE total scale and its three subscales using MANCOVA analyses. Gender (0 = males, 1 = females) was entered as the fixed factor, the total RSE scale and its subscales (mutuality, differentiation beliefs, and emotional control) were entered as the dependent variables, and ethnicity/race was included as a covariate variable. The findings suggest that there were significant gender differences among two of the relationship self-efficacy subscales (see Table 1.7). Women had significantly higher means than men on mutuality (F (412) = 15.95, $p < .001$) and differentiation subscales (F (412) = 10.09, $p < .01$; see Figure 1). Although marginal, men had higher means than women on the emotional control subscale (F (412) = 3.70, $p = .06$), which is counter to previous research. See Table 1.3 for means and standard deviations of subscales by gender (and see Figure 1). In sum, my final hypothesis (H3) that women would have greater scores of RSE total scale and its subscales was partially supported such that women presented greater total RSE, mutuality, and differentiation beliefs than men. However, gender differences in emotional control did not emerge, but trended toward greater scores for men than women.

Discussion

While many studies explore the outcomes of traditional masculinity for men, little work has been done to examine how both men's and women's masculinity can impact how they view their relationships. The purpose of the current study was to identify whether traditional masculinity as measured by masculinity ideology and gender role

conflict is associated with variations in relationship self-efficacy for men and women. Specifically, I examined whether masculinity ideology (i.e., the attitudes one holds regarding men and masculinity) negatively predicted relationship self-efficacy in emerging adults and whether this association differed by gender. I did not find support for the hypothesis that masculinity ideology predicts one's relationship self-efficacy and gender did not further moderate this relationship. Second, I examined whether men's gender role conflict (i.e., men's feelings of conflict or discomfort when masculine gender norms are broken or challenged) predicted relationship self-efficacy. I found support for my hypothesis that men's gender role conflict was negatively associated with their relationship self-efficacy. Finally, I found partial support for the hypothesis that women endorse greater relationship self-efficacy compared to men for all subscales, except for emotional control.

Gender Role Conflict and Relationship Self-Efficacy

As predicted, I found that men's gender role conflict was negatively associated with their relationship self-efficacy. This finding is consistent with previous research in that gender role conflict negatively impacts men's relationships (e.g., reduced relationship satisfaction, lower daily marital happiness, lower relationship intimacy and connectedness; Breiding, 2004; Breiding et al., 2008; Celentana, 2000; O'Neil, 2012; Wester & Vogel, 2012). Although relationship self-efficacy has not been examined in the context of gender role conflict, it can be inferred that other aspects of relationships such as connectedness, intimacy, and adjustment could also be associated with aspects of relationship self-efficacy. As defined by Lopez and colleagues (2007), relationship self-efficacy is one's confidence in the ability to nurture and maintain relationships. Previous

work has found strong connections between relationship self-efficacy and other healthy aspects of relationships including relationship satisfaction (Chui et al., 2008; Riggio et al., 2013), proactive responses to relationship conflicts (Baker & McNulty, 2010; Cui et al., 2008), and lower levels of general relationship conflict (Riggio et al., 2013). Given this study is the first to my knowledge to examine men's gender role conflict and relationship self-efficacy, it provides important first steps in identifying masculinity as a correlate of relationship consequences. As Lopez and colleagues (2007) suggested, gender role socialization and pressures may be associated with men's lower relationship self-efficacy, and gender role conflict may be one aspect of gender role expectations that play a role in men's views of their relationship. Men who experience distress when gender norms do not align with traditional masculinity might feel less efficacious nurturing their romantic relationships given the societal pressures for men to avoid nurturance or other relational (i.e., feminine) traits.

I further explored the question whether dimensions of the gender role conflict scale would be related to relationship self-efficacy. Accounting for shared variance of all subscales in one model, I found that only one subscale was significantly and negatively associated: Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (RABBM). Further, when I examined each subscale separately, analyses revealed that both RABBM and Restrictive Emotionality (RE) were negatively associated with RSE. O'Neil and colleagues (1995) conceptualize RABBM as men being socialized to have difficulties expressing compassion and concern for other men along with feelings of discomfort when physically touching or being touched by other men. I suggested that this subscale might be related to relationship self-efficacy because men may feel uncomfortable opening up to other men

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about their relationship problems and thus might not have the support or guidance during times of relationship conflict. They could subsequently feel less confident in maintaining or nurturing their relationship without outside support from male friends. Surprisingly, in the analysis including all the subscales, the other subscales of gender role conflict were not found to be associated with relationship self-efficacy.

To further explore the role of the individual dimensions of GRC, I also ran analyses with each subscale score entered independently. In those analyses, both RABBM and RE were significantly and negatively related to RSE. The findings of the individual analyses align with other studies concerning emotional restrictiveness. Previous work suggests being emotionally restricted is related to lower relationship intimacy, marital happiness, and lower relationship satisfaction (Breiding, 2004; Breiding et al., 2008; Celentana, 2000; O'Neil, 2012; Wester & Vogel, 2012). Although previous work has not examined RE and relationship self-efficacy explicitly, it can be suggested that men who endorse more restrictive emotionality might not have the emotional capabilities to openly discuss potential problems in the relationship. This may relate to men feeling less efficacious in nurturing the relationship or understanding their partner's needs. The individual and grouped analyses likely differed due to the RE and RABBM subscales moderately correlating, and the variance related to RSE is shared by the subscales.

Previous work suggests that dimensions of Success, Power, and Competition, and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations could be associated with poorer relationship outcomes (Breiding, 2004; Breiding et al., 2008; Celentana, 2000; O'Neil, 2012; Riggio et al., 2013; Wester & Vogel, 2012), however this was not the case for

relationship self-efficacy. Perhaps men who ascribe to these dimensions of traditional masculinity might still feel confident in maintaining their relationship or perhaps the maintenance of the relationship falls on their partner. Women tend to be socialized to nurture relationships and men tend to be socialized to avoid nurturance (see Wood & Eagly, 2002), therefore in a heterosexual relationship, women may be the ones doing the work to nurture and maintain the relationship which could benefit men's outlook on the relationship. If all is apparently going well, men might feel a false confidence in maintaining the relationship.

Gender Differences in Relationship Self-Efficacy

I expected women would report greater relationship self-efficacy overall and across all three subscales (i.e., mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation beliefs), however only partial support was found. Women endorsed greater overall relationship self-efficacy, which is consistent with previous research (Horne & Johnson, 2018; Riggio et al., 2011). These findings are consistent with gender norms such that the expectations for women to nurture and maintain relationships are greater compared to expectations for men (i.e., Gender Schema Theory; Bem, 1974). Further, women reported greater mutuality and differentiation beliefs compared to men, but men reported greater emotional control than women. Although I hypothesized that women would have greater emotional control, the contradicting finding is supported by one previous study which suggested that men have greater emotional control (Lopez et al., 2007). Gender role socialization might also contribute to men's feelings of being able to manage and contain distressing emotions, but this socialization may not contribute to men's overall feelings to support and care for their partner (Lopez et al., 2007). Taken together, certain aspects of

relationship self-efficacy may be more prominent for men and women, emphasizing the importance of conducting more fine-grained analyses of relationships.

Men's and Women's Masculinity Ideology and Relationship Self-Efficacy

I expected that emerging adults' masculinity ideology would be negatively associated with their relationship self-efficacy. This hypothesis, however, was not supported. Although previous research suggests that, at least for men, those who ascribe to more traditional masculinity might feel less efficacious in their relationships (Burn & Ward, 2005; Good & Sherrod, 1997; Levant, 1997; Mahalik et al., 2003), the present results did not suggest this pattern. One discrepancy for the null findings could be due to the large gap between the study done by Burn and Ward (2005) and my current study. The almost twenty-year gap could explain generational differences in masculinity ideology such that modern men may have less traditional masculinity ideology than men from previous decades. Previous studies predominately consisted of White participants, whereas the current study participants were nearly half non-White, and this difference could lead to differing results, given the impact that race and culture has on gender role attitudes (Bahena, 2014; Ghavami & Peplau, 2013; Isom, 2007; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2008; Thomas & King, 2007). Finally, previous work examining masculinity and relationships included different measures (e.g., the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory; Burn & Ward, 2005; Mahalik et al., 2003) and masculinity might have been operationalized or conceptualized differently than the current study. For instance, the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI) consists of 11 dimensions that assesses men's conformity or nonconformity to masculine gender norms (i.e., winning, emotional control, risk-taking, violence, dominance, playboy, self-reliance, primacy of

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work, power over women, disdain for homosexuals, and pursuit of status; Mahalik et al., 2003). Mahalik and colleagues (2003) created the measure in hopes to capture variability among men's masculinity such that other measures do not assess. Given this, previous work using the CMNI may have tapped into a broader range of masculinity that was not captured in the current study using the Male Role Attitudes Scale (Pleck et al., 1994) which assessed masculinities of status, toughness, and anti-femininity.

Other variables could be associated with relationship self-efficacy that were not included in the current study. For instance, relationship length may be associated with relationship self-efficacy, and could be a prominent driving force for individuals' relationship self-efficacy, over-and-above their masculinity ideology. Specifically, couples who are in relationships for longer may feel more efficacious handling conflicts and may understand the needs of their partner, but because I did not assess participant relationship status or length of relationships, this association requires further exploration. Further, certain gender role expectations might contribute to relationship self-efficacy that captures one's expectations of roles or division of labor in the relationship. Because our study only examined the concept of masculinity ideology for men and women, more understanding of other gender role or relationship expectations is warranted to assess how they relate to relationship self-efficacy.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are limitations to the current study that should be noted. First, our study focused on masculinity in relationships among emerging adults, but the sample included only college students. Emerging adulthood is an important developmental period for identity and relationship development (Arnett, 2015), and college makes up only one

aspect that some emerging adults experience. As adolescents transition into adulthood, many begin to form independence, start new jobs or careers, and find romantic partners, and this transition lasts until their late twenties to early thirties. Although college is an important context for development, exploring emerging adults' attitudes and behaviors outside of the unique college space would be beneficial. Emerging adults' gender-related attitudes such as masculinity ideology can appear in friend groups, workspaces, romantic relationships, or in the transition to parenthood, and thus can develop outside the college context. Similarly, relationship self-efficacy might develop as one enters (and exits) relationships (Bandura, 1997), and college students might not experience serious romantic relationships. Future research investigating the association between masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes such as relationship self-efficacy in a broader sample of emerging adults is warranted.

The sample did not consist of couples and so I did not assess relationship self-efficacy of current relationships with current partners. For instance, the study assessed individuals' global perceptions of their relationship self-efficacy, regardless of whether they were currently in a relationship. This could have impacted my findings whereby retrospective accounts of past relationships might not give an accurate representation of their perceptions of efficacy in relationships. Further, future work warrants dyadic couple data (i.e., using the actor-partner-interdependence-model) to thoroughly understand how masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy are synchronous or incongruent between the couples in the study.

Future studies should employ more highly reliable measures of masculinity. The measure of masculinity (i.e., Male Role Attitudes Scale) consisted of only 8 items

assessing general attitudes (e.g., "*Men are always ready for sex*") that may not be ideal in representing nuances in one's attitudes toward men and masculinity (e.g., men may *generally* want sex). The masculinity measure also had low reliability ($\alpha = .65$), which could have impacted the findings of the current study. Further, having a better understanding of both partner's masculinity ideology would present a more complete picture of gender attitudes or expectations in the couples' relationship.

Conclusion

In summary, college men's and women's masculinity ideology were not found to be associated with relationship self-efficacy, but men's gender role conflict was associated with lower relationship self-efficacy. This study was the first step in understanding men's and women's masculinity attitudes and their perceptions of efficacy in relationships. Further research is needed to clarify findings from this study and identify additional aspects of gender or masculinity attitudes and relationship components among emerging adults. The current study provides insights to help scholars understand how relationship experiences may be shaped by ideals of gender role conflict.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2

The extent to which men ascribe to society's rigid ideals of manhood and masculinity can have negative consequences for men and women (O'Neil, 2015). Negative outcomes have been documented among men who adhere to masculine gender norms (see O'Neil, 2008), including norms concerning fear of femininity, competitiveness and aggression, success and power, and restrictive emotionality (e.g., David & Brannon 1976; Franklin 1984; Harris 1995; Levant et al. 1992; O'Neil 1981). Pressures to conform to traditional gender norms can lead men to experience stress or conflict when experiencing gender roles (Levant & Richmond, 2007; O'Neil, 2015) and can cause men to feel distressed when gender norms are broken (e.g., see O'Neil, 2015). Experiencing gender role conflict can negatively impact men's relationships with romantic partners and can consequently result in aggression, intimate partner violence, and sexual assault (APA, 2007; O'Neil, 2015). Consistent with Study 1, the current study will examine masculinity ideology and gender role conflict under the umbrella term of traditional masculinity. Although several studies have examined the interpersonal consequences of traditional masculinity, few have examined how traditional masculinity is associated with relationship outcomes for men, and even fewer have studied women. There is some support that traditional masculinity is related to relationship outcomes (e.g., lower relationship satisfaction) for men (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; O'Neil, 2015; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012) and their female partners (Burn & Ward, 2005). In Study 1, I examined how men's and women's masculinity ideology and men's gender role conflict relate to relationship self-efficacy. However, it is

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evident that more work is needed to expand this line of research to explore the role of traditional masculinity on other potential relationship outcomes. Specifically, this study builds on the first study by adding additional relationship measures of relationship satisfaction and sexual satisfaction as well as also addressing relationship self-efficacy as was done in Study 1.

Both relationship satisfaction and sexual satisfaction have been found to be important components of healthy relationships and well-being (Cohen & Willis 1985; Diener et al. 1999; Murray & Milhausen, 2012), and evidence suggests they may be negatively impacted by traditional masculinity. Relationship satisfaction has been found to be negatively related to men's traditional masculinity (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012), and this association is seen in both partners (McGraw, 2001; Burn & Ward, 2005). Other consequences of traditional masculinity include lack of sexual satisfaction (De Meyer et al., 2014) and possibly low relationship self-efficacy (Brooks, 1998; Burn & Ward, 2005; Good & Sherrod, 1997; Levant, 1997; Mahalik et al., 2003). Limited research has been done to understand women's traditional masculinity and whether relationship outcomes are present for women, therefore examining women's traditional masculinity is an important aspect of this study. In sum, the current study will investigate whether traditional masculinity (i.e., masculinity ideology and gender role conflict) are associated with a broad range of relationship experiences (i.e., relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction) for emerging adult men and women.

Gender Roles and Masculinity

As the field of men and masculinity has expanded, additional research attention has been given to understand the interpersonal and intrapersonal consequences of adhering to traditional masculinity. Prior theorizing conceptualized masculinity into two approaches: trait and normative (Thompson & Pleck, 1995). The trait approach conceptualizes masculinity as dispositions or socially desirable attributes that are believed to differentiate males and females whereas the normative approach centralizes masculinity as culturally and historically bound; varying based on societal ideals about manhood during that specific time (Thompson & Pleck, 1995).

The normative approach uses a blueprint for masculinity such that men are bound by specific places, time periods, and groups which tell men how to behave and think. The concept of "hegemonic masculinity" has been used to describe the dominant culture's views of masculinity that functions to justify and naturalize gender inequality. These views of the dominant male gender norms are socialized to be accepted and are perpetuated by both men and women. The normative perspective will be used in the current study to understand dominant masculinity culture and consequences of encompassing hegemonic and traditional masculinity.

Masculinity Ideology

Stemming from the normative approach, Pleck's (1981) gender role strain paradigm describes masculinity ideology as beliefs regarding the importance of men adhering to culturally defined standards for male behavior. Further, these beliefs generally focus on the avoidance of femininity, as femininity is seen as weak, vulnerable, and subordinate to masculinity. Socialization of what it means to be a man encourages

boys and men to behave and think in ways that align with traditional masculine norms (e.g., emotional control, physical and emotional toughness, self-reliance). Boys and men are also taught to actively avoid feminine traits (i.e., emotionality, help-seeking, empathy) because society perceives femininity as weak, vulnerable, and counter to masculinity. Men who are confined to rigid and harsh gender norms might feel uncomfortable expressing their emotions to such an extent that some men experience alexithymia (i.e., the inability to identify and talk about their emotions). Embracing these ideals about masculinity can result in substantial stress or dissatisfaction in romantic relationships (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; O'Neil, 2015; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012).

Masculinity ideology has been measured and operationalized by instruments including the Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS; Thompson & Pleck, 1986) which was designed to assess individual's endorsement of traditional masculine norms. Dimensions stemming from this operationalization include status (i.e., the extent to which men should acquire skills to achieve status and the respect from others), toughness (i.e., the need for men to be mentally, emotionally, and physically tough and self-reliant), and anti-femininity (i.e., men should avoid anything stereotypically feminine including activities and occupations). Although endorsing these qualities might be beneficial for some men (Mankowski & Maton, 2010), researchers have linked these traditional views of masculinity to negative health outcomes including avoiding help-seeking behaviors and risky sexual behaviors (Levant, 2008; Mankowski & Maton, 2010). Researchers further found a relationship between the MRNS and lack of sexual communication and intimacy

(Fischer, 2000; Hall & Applewhite, 2013). What remains unknown is whether these scripts also impact women and their relationship experiences.

It is unclear whether women who endorse more traditional masculinity have negative outcomes or reduced relationship experiences. Although research in this area is limited, findings from prior studies provides indirect support that women holding traditional masculinity ideology results in negative outcomes on their relationships. Indeed, women can internalize traditional masculine gender norms and roles (Parent & Smiler, 2013; Steinfeldt et al., 2011), and these masculine norms are related to women's acceptance of sexist attitudes (Smiler, 2006). Given the connections between men's traditional masculinity and interpersonal problems (e.g., Burn & Ward, 2005), it seems reasonable to expect that women may experience similar interpersonal issues. That is, the presence of this set of expectations about men in a relationship, regardless of if it is held by men or women, may relate to negative relationship experiences.

Although both men and women can embrace masculinity ideology, men are more likely than women to be in situations in which masculinity is challenged. It is important to examine men's gender role stress or conflict because they have been socialized into masculine gender norms that might not directly impact women. For instance, if both boys and girls are socialized to believe that men should be aggressive and dominant, both might internalize those messages, but boys might feel more guided by these ideologies and thus enact them in their everyday lives, whereas women would expect men in their lives to follow these roles. Research supports that men tend to report higher levels of gender role conflict (i.e., being constricted to gender norms that can impact them or

others) than do women (Zamarripa et al., 2003). Thus, it is important to examine certain aspects of masculinity that are unique to men.

Gender Role Conflict

Emerging from the gender role strain paradigm, one of the most widely used frameworks of masculinity is gender role conflict (GRC; O'Neil, 1986), which is "a psychological state in which socialized gender roles have negative consequences for the person or others" (O'Neil, 2008; p. 362). GRC results when these rigid socialized gender norms result in restriction, devaluation, or violation of the self or others and encompasses various psychological states and situational contexts (O'Neil, 2008). O'Neil described four situational contexts of experiencing GRC (O'Neil, 1990). First, GRC is caused by gender role transitions such as entering school or becoming a father. Second, GRC is experienced intrapersonally; for example, experiencing negative emotions when gender roles are devalued, restricted, or violated. Third, GRC is expressed toward others interpersonally such as when gender role problems result in devaluing, restricting, or violating someone else. Finally, GRC is experienced from others: for instance, when someone else devalues, restricts, or violates another person who deviates from male norms. These domains of GRC relate to problems with men's "depression, anxiety, self-esteem, homophobia, restricted emotionality, communication problems, intimacy, marital conflict, violence toward women, health problems, and substance abuse" (O'Neil, 2008, p. 363).

O'Neil and colleagues (1995) subsequently created the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) to assess four dimensions of traditional masculinity that were seen to be problematic. His four dimensions include Restrictive Emotionality (i.e., difficulty

expressing emotions or denying other's right to express their emotions), Success, Power, and Competition (i.e., the extent to which men are socialized to value and focus on personal achievement through competitiveness), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (i.e., socialized to have difficulties with expressing compassion and concern for other men), Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (i.e., when men have difficulties balancing the demands of work, school, and family relations because the demands of work outweigh personal or familial responsibilities).

Given the many negative interpersonal and intrapersonal consequences of GRC, implications for romantic relationship problems have been found. Research supports that GRC is negatively related to men's marital satisfaction, negative attitudes toward women, and increased interpersonal problems and sexual violence toward women (see O'Neil, 2015). Specific dimensions of GRC are also linked to relationship outcomes: Restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men have been related to lower relationship intimacy, lower levels of social connectedness, and more marital problems (e.g., O'Neil, 2012; Wester & Vogel, 2012).

Masculinity and Relationship Satisfaction

As previously mentioned, traditional masculinity can have negative relational consequences for men (see O'Neil, 2015 for a review). For example, researchers examining masculinity and relationship satisfaction found that men who conform to and endorse traditional masculinity report lower satisfaction and quality in their romantic relationships (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012). Further, Wade and Donis (2007) examined relationship quality in a cross-sectional sample of 100 adult men and found that endorsing traditional masculinity

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was related to men's decreased quality in their relationships. Additionally, in a dissertation study by McGraw (2001), men who endorsed higher levels of traditional masculinity had significantly lower relationship satisfaction compared to men who endorsed less traditional masculinity.

Dimensions of GRC have been linked to relationship satisfaction. Specifically, studies illustrated that dimensions of GRC are negatively related to marital and relationship satisfaction, and negatively related to dyadic adjustment in couples (Alexander, 1997; Breiding, 2004; Brewer, 1998; Campbell & Snow, 1992; Sharpe et al., 1995). Further, decreased marital adjustment, lower daily marital happiness, greater depressive symptomatology, and greater negative affect have been found to be related to dimensions of success, power, and control; restrictive emotionality; restrictive affectionate behavior between men; and the total GRC scale (Breiding, 2004; Breiding et al., 2008; Celentana, 2000).

Although not directly related to GRC, researchers have examined other dimensions of masculinity and their relationship satisfaction. Constructs of emotional control, heterosexual prowess, self-reliance, primacy of work, and risk taking have been found to be related to reduced relationship satisfaction, and it is suggested that holding these beliefs may reduce men's physical and emotional availability in romantic relationships (Burn & Ward, 2005). Studies also found that men who endorsed the idea of being a playboy (i.e., heterosexual prowess) were more likely to prefer inequality in romantic relationships, had low levels of communication with romantic partners, and were more likely to have a fear of intimacy (Brooks, 1998; Good & Sherrod, 1997; Levant, 1997; Mahalik et al., 2003). Further, men might avoid or not feel competent

when dealing with conflict in the relationship, leading to reduced relationship satisfaction, and an orientation to competitiveness (e.g., playboy attitudes, power over women, dominance, winning, violence). These characteristics of traditional masculinity might be determining factors for men's negative relationship outcomes (Burn & Ward, 2005). However, one study by Fitzpatrick et al. (2004) failed to find supportive evidence: men's traditional masculinity had no influence on relationship quality. More research is needed to identify the links between traditional masculinity and relationship satisfaction or quality for men, specifically related to their GRC.

Researchers have suggested that men who ascribe to a more traditional masculine worldview might not be as adept in intimate settings compared to women or even men who are less traditional. Because relationships involve self-disclosure, intimacy, and respect to be successful (Siavelis and Lamke 1992; Sprecher & Hendrick 2004), researchers suggest traditionally masculine men might not be proficient in these areas, which could negatively impact their relationships (Brooks, 1998; Burn & Ward, 2005; Good & Sherrod, 1997; Levant, 1997; Mahalik et al., 2003). Thus, men might feel less efficacious and less satisfied with their relationships based on rigid masculine gender norms embraced in our society.

Masculinity and Relationship Self-Efficacy

One possible outcome of adhering to traditional masculinity is reduced relationship self-efficacy. Broadly defined, relationship self-efficacy refers to one's confidence in the ability to nurture and maintain relationships (Bandura, 1998; Lopez et al., 2007) and the extent to which people feel that they can resolve conflict with their partners (Fincham et al., 2000). Relationship self-efficacy has been found to be related to

increased perceived relationship satisfaction (Riggio et al., 2013; Cui et al., 2008), increased marital satisfaction (Baker & McNulty, 2010; Fincham et al., 2000), and proactive (instead of reactive) responses to relationship conflicts (Baker & McNulty, 2010; Cui et al., 2008). Riggio and colleagues (2013) found similar trends among married, engaged, cohabitating, and dating undergraduate students such that relationship efficacy was related to higher levels of relationship investment, commitment, and satisfaction and lower levels of relationship conflict. Despite the growing research in this area exploring the outcomes of relationship self-efficacy, few studies have examined the factors that might contribute to relationship self-efficacy (Riggio et al., 2011).

According to Lopez and colleagues (2007), relationship self-efficacy is comprised of three elements: mutuality (i.e., the confidence in an individual's ability to give or receive support from a partner during times of need), emotional control (i.e., being able to monitor and regulate negative feelings like annoyance or anger toward their partner), and differentiation beliefs (i.e., attitudes toward preserving boundaries in the relationship such as asking for time alone when needed). Although findings have been mixed, studies suggest that women tend to have increased relationship self-efficacy compared to men (Riggio et al., 2011). In support of gender development theories (i.e., Gender Schema Theory; Bem, 1974), these findings emphasize the societal expectations for women to maintain and value relationships compared to men, resulting in women feeling more efficacious in their relationships. Lopez and colleagues (2007) found that general relationship self-efficacy did not differ by gender, however, they did find women had higher mutuality and men had higher emotional control. Thus, certain components of relationship self-efficacy might be more prominent for men and women compared to

overall gender differences in relationship self-efficacy. More research is needed to clarify the nuances of relationship self-efficacy for men and women and which factors are possible correlates of relationship self-efficacy.

Little is known about whether lower relationship self-efficacy is a correlate or consequence of traditional masculinity, but gender researchers suggest that men might not feel as comfortable communicating their emotions or understanding how to support their partner (Siavelis & Lamke 1992; Sprecher & Hendrick 2004) if they endorse rigid gender norms. Thus, it can be suggested that men who are highly masculine might not feel as efficacious in their romantic relationships compared to women and men who are less masculine. Lack of communication and emotional vulnerability with their partner could permeate into other aspects of men's relationships, including their perceptions or quality of sexual intimacy. In a dissertation study examining self-efficacy (i.e., the belief that an individual is capable of influencing their environment; Bandura, 1977) and men's masculinity stress (i.e., the extent to which they are bothered by traditional gender role expectations), self-efficacy was negatively associated with masculinity stress (Geroulanou, 2007). Although this study was outside of a relationship context, it provided an initial step connecting masculinity and self-efficacy, that could extend to an individual feeling efficacious in one's romantic relationships. Further, the findings from Study 1 will provide information about whether masculinity and relationship self-efficacy are linked.

Masculinity and Sexual Satisfaction

According to Lawrance and Byers (1995), sexual satisfaction can be defined as the degree to which one is satisfied with their sex life. Sexual satisfaction is important for

one's quality of life but is also an important aspect of one's intimate relationship. Having a positive sex life is an important aspect for many couples and previous research supports that relationship satisfaction and length of relationship are associated with sexual satisfaction (Greenblat, 1983; Hatfield & Rapson, 1993; Laumann et al., 1999; Murray & Milhausen, 2012). Further, perceptions of sexual satisfaction differ among men and women. Barrientos and Paez (2006) found that for women, being in love and believing in the longevity of the relationship were related to more sexual satisfaction, however this relationship was not found for men. Intercourse frequency, mutual enjoyment and trust have been defined as important predictors of sexual satisfaction for women, while men defined satisfaction in terms of frequency of intercourse and a match between desire for and intercourse frequency (Daker-White & Donovan, 2002; McNulty and Fisher, 2008; Nicolosi et al., 2004). Thus, men and women have differing views of what constitute sexual satisfaction and these differences could alter based on their views of traditional masculinity.

Although researchers argue that sexual satisfaction is a "universal human experience" (Stulhofer et al., 2010, p. 258), little is known whether gender norm adherence, especially masculinity, is related to both partners' sexual satisfaction. Research examining the role of traditional gender ideology on adolescent's sexual satisfaction found that traditionality was associated with more negative sexual experiences and more difficult communication among partners about sex (De Meyer et al., 2014). In another study of adolescents, Pleck and colleagues (1993) found that males with more traditionally masculine attitudes had a less intimate relationship at last intercourse with their current partner, and they suggested that they had less intimacy in

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their heterosexual relationships overall. Although these findings were obtained with adolescent samples, these relationships could parallel relationships in emerging adulthood. O'Neil's (2015) review of twelve studies of GRC found that both college and adult men conforming to GRC reported reduced intimacy in their relationships, suggesting the generalizability of traditional masculinity on men's sexual satisfaction (e.g., including intimacy).

Men's Traditional Masculinity and their Partner's Relationship Experiences

When men endorse traditional masculinity, this can have negative effects for women and their perceived relationship satisfaction or quality. In McGraw's (2001) dissertation study on couples' masculinity and relationship satisfaction, not only did men report lower relationship satisfaction when they conformed to more traditional masculinity, but their female partners also reported lower satisfaction. Women also reported their traditionally masculine male partners as being lower in areas of warmth, time together, nurturance, and consistency in the relationship and as being higher in anger/aggression, emotional reactivity, and authority/dominance compared to women who had more non-traditional partners (McGraw, 2001). These perceptions are in line with traditional masculinity and GRC such that more traditionally masculine men tend to show behaviors relating to emotional stoicism, competitiveness, aggressiveness, among others (e.g., David & Brannon, 1976; O'Neil, 1981; Pollack, 1998; Smiler, 2013). Relatedly, Burn and Ward (2005) examined men's conformity to traditional masculine norms and outcomes of their own and their female partner's relationship satisfaction. They found that women who perceived their male partners as more traditionally masculine were less satisfied with their relationship (Burn & Ward, 2005). Such findings

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are interesting in that both partners in a relationship seem to be negatively impacted by men conforming to traditional masculinity, suggesting the possibility that general relationship satisfaction might be reliant on the male partners' own traditional masculinity adherence. Another possibility is that women who endorse traditional masculinity might also be contributing to their male partner's masculinity or conformity. For example, women who accept that men are emotionally stoic, dominant, and fiscally responsible might encourage those attributes in their partner by not being vulnerable, being submissive, or relying on him financially. These factors could unknowingly impact her relationship quality and satisfaction; however, because this is understudied, this is speculation and further research is needed to understand the role of women's traditional masculinity.

Sexism might play an important role in undermining men's relationships as men's sexist attitudes are related to more endorsement of traditional masculinity (Chen et al., 2009). Cross and Overall (2019) examined adult men's hostile sexist attitudes and their female partner's relationship experiences and found that men's endorsement of sexism was related to women experiencing more severe problems in multiple domains of the relationship relating to power, dependence, and trust concerns that underly hostile sexism. Couples in these relationships had issues with power dynamics, jealousy, and serious problems involving gender-role conflict, abuse, infidelity and alcohol and drugs. Specifically, Cross and Overall (2019) asserted that "male partners' hostile sexism was specifically associated with women experiencing problems that are theoretically linked to the power and dependence-related concerns underlying men's hostile sexism, including power dynamics and jealousy and managing other relationships" (p. 1034). For instance,

women gaining power over men undermines men's hostile sexism, impacting women's negative relationship experiences. Therefore, the greater the problems related to men's hostile sexism, the more negative the relationship evaluations were for women. The study by Cross and Overall (2019) is one of the first to attempt to understand how men's sexist attitudes has an impact on women's relationship experiences. Although the current paper is focused on traditional masculinity and not hostile sexism explicitly, there are elements of hostile sexism that coincide with GRC and traditional masculinity, therefore Cross and Overall's (2019) findings are particularly informative first steps.

To my knowledge, there is no research investigating the effect of traditional masculinity on women's relationship self-efficacy. The literature suggests that gender could play a role in relationship self-efficacy (Horne & Johnson, 2018; Lopez et al., 2007; Riggio et al., 2011) and gender norms suggest that men's and women's communication and emotion regulation might appear differently (Berke et al., 2019). It is reasonable to consider that women whose partners are more traditionally masculine might feel less efficacious in their relationships if their partners are not communicating their feelings or identifying any potential problems with the relationship. Though, this association might differ depending on women's endorsement of traditional masculinity themselves. In other words, women who endorse traditional masculinity, and whose partner is also more traditionally masculine, might feel more efficacious because they have similar expectations about the relationship and partner roles. These claims are speculative as this has not been examined in the literature.

Partner's sexual satisfaction might also be related to men's traditional masculinity. Given the rigid gender norms of manhood, heterosexual and dominant

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sexual encounters embody one pillar of affirming one's manhood (Kågesten et al., 2016). Based on the idea that traditionally masculine men are more emotionally restrictive and focus on sexual encounters more than women, it has been suggested that men might seek sexual gratification without intimacy (McDermott et al., 2016). Women might perceive these encounters as less intimate and thus less satisfying. Further, because traditional masculinity has been linked to sexual assault (McDermott et al., 2015), women might have a fear of safety or sexual assault during sexual encounters, although research supporting this is sparse. Given these findings, women might feel less satisfaction with their sex life in these relationships.

The Current Study

Given the lack of research examining traditional masculinity in romantic relationships, it is imperative to understand how ascribing to a traditional view of masculinity can impact not only men's experiences with their relationships, but also how their masculinity is associated with their partner's relationship experiences. Men with more traditional masculinity ideology and gender role conflict might be prone to having less-intimate relationships, and thus their partners might feel disconnected or less satisfied in their relationship. Previous research on masculinity and GRC center the experiences of the individual man without considering his partner's perceptions or consequences. Further, exploring women's perspective of their male partner's masculinity and gender role conflict would be valuable in understanding how men endorsing a rigid traditionally masculine ideology can negatively impact those around them.

The current study will draw upon Pleck's (1981) gender role strain paradigm to examine these links between traditional masculinity and men's and women's relationship experiences. Specifically, GRC will be included along with masculinity ideology to examine men's relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction. Further, the current study will examine the association between women's masculinity ideology and partner's GRC and relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction.

The first aim is to examine masculinity ideology on emerging adults' relationship experiences (i.e., relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction) for men, and for women (RQ1a). Based on previous evidence, it is hypothesized that for both men and women, endorsing traditional masculinity (i.e., masculinity ideology) will be related to lower relationship satisfaction, lower relationship self-efficacy, and lower sexual satisfaction (H1a). Further, this relationship will be moderated by gender such that the association between traditional masculinity and relationship experiences will be stronger for men (H1b). The second aim is to explore the link between men's GRC and relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction (RQ2). Men who endorse more GRC are expected to have lower relationship experiences (H2). Finally, for the third aim, I will investigate the link between women's masculinity ideology and their relationship outcomes, and whether perceived partner gender role conflict acts as an additive effect or a moderation effect on women's outcomes (RQ3). I do not have specific hypotheses for this research question as I am exploring the association between the two variables (i.e., women's masculinity ideology and partner gender role conflict) and relationship outcomes.

Method

Participants

The study consisted of 392 heterosexual emerging adults (59.4% female; $M_{age} =$ 25.10, $SD_{age} = 2.63$) recruited nationally from Facebook. I restricted the age to 18-to-29-year-olds to maintain the desired developmental age. Due to my interest in romantic relationships, those currently in a romantic relationship for at least three months were deemed eligible to accurately assess participants' feelings of their current relationships. Those who have been with their partner for less than three months were excluded from the study because being together for this short of time might not accurately represent a serious relationship. In other words, couples might only be dating and/or they may not know each other very well yet. Participants were predominately White (71.9%), followed by Asian/Asian American (9.4%) and Black/African American (6.9%) (see Table 2.1 for sample demographics). The majority (64.0%) of participants were not in college, but for those that were in college reported being in a graduate program (43.3%). The sample was liberal leaning (55.4% very or somewhat liberal) and were not religious (33.2%) followed by Christian (26.0%). Relationship length was around 1-2 years ($M = 3.71$, $SD = 1.49$) and most participants were in a committed relationship, but not married or engaged (71.9%).

Procedure

The Institutional Review Board gave approval for the current study. Participants were recruited through Facebook to attract a broader range of emerging adults. The survey consisted of a 30-45-minute Qualtrics survey and participants could choose to respond or not respond to each question. Participants' identities were kept confidential

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and anonymous. After completing the survey, participants could leave their email to be entered to win one of sixty $25 Amazon gift cards and consent was confirmed by the participants by clicking "yes" after reading the consent form before continuing to the survey.

Measures

Demographic Variables

Multiple demographic and potential control variables were included in the study. First, gender was assessed by asking participants to indicate their gender identity (0 = female, 1 = male, 2 = transgender male, 3 = transgender female, 4 = non-binary, 5 = other). Age was assessed by asking participants to write in how old they are. Racial identity was assessed by asking participants to choose one of the following answers: 0 = Asian/Asian American; 1 = Black/African American; 2 = Caucasian/White; 3 = Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander; 4 = Middle Eastern; 5 = American Indian or Alaska Native; 6 = Multiracial/Biracial; or 7 = other. I further asked whether participants identified as Hispanic, Latino, or of Spanish origin. To assess political ideology participants indicated the extent to which they are liberal or conservative from 1 = very liberal to 5 = very conservative. Participants were asked whether they attend college or university and what their year is (including graduate student).

Masculinity Ideology

The Masculine Role Norms Scale (MRNS; Thompson & Pleck, 1986) is a 26-item measure used to assess participants' endorsement of traditional male gender norms (i.e., their masculine ideology). Statements were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 0 (Strongly Disagree) to 4 (Strongly Agree), with higher values indicating more traditional

masculinity ideology. The MRNS consists of three subscales: status norms (e.g., "It is essential for a man to always have the respect and admiration of everyone who knows him"); toughness norms (e.g., "A man should never back down in the face of trouble"); and anti-femininity norms (e.g., "It is a bit embarrassing for a man to have a job that is usually filled by a woman"). As the individual subscales are highly related to one another, a composite score of the total scale was created, with higher values indicating more traditional masculinity ideology. Two items were reverse-worded. Evidence of construct validity supports that the MRNS is positively related to both men's and women's attitudes toward men (Thompson & Pleck, 1995). Cronbach's alpha test for reliability suggest good reliability of the measure ($\alpha = .93$)

Gender Role Conflict

The 16-tem GRCS-SF (Wester et al., 2012) is a shortened version of the GRCS (O'Neil et al., 1986) designed to assess men's negative outcomes of experiencing restricted gender roles. The scale included four subscales: restrictive emotionality (e.g., "I do not like to show my emotions to other people"), success/power/competition (e.g., "I like to feel superior to other people"), restrictive affectionate behavior between men (e.g., "Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable"), and conflict between work and family relations (e.g., "Finding time to relax is difficult for me"). For the purposes of the current study, I used the composite score of the overall GRCS in all analyses given that the subscales are correlated with one another. Responses were rated on a 5-point- Likert scale from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree), with higher scores indicating greater gender role conflict. There were no reverse-coded items. Validity evidence for the

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measure is provided in Wester et al. (2012). Cronbach's test suggests adequate, although low, reliability for the measure (α = .69).

Perceived Partner's GRC

To examine women's perceptions of their partner's GRC, a modified measure of the GRCS-SF was used. Language in the scale was updated to represent partner GRC. For instance, "I do not like to show my emotions to other people" was changed to, "they do not like to show their emotions to other people". Responses were rated similarly to the GRCS-SF such that participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale from 0 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree, with higher scores indicating greater GRC. A composite score was created for analyses and Cronbach's alpha test of reliability suggest good reliability of the measure (α = .84).

Relationship Satisfaction

The Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI; Funk & Rogge, 2007) is 32-item scale used to assess participants' satisfaction with their current relationship using multiple components and rating scales. One item, "Please indicate the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship" is rated on a 7-point scale from 0 = extremely unhappy to 6 = perfect. Participants rated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed to 21 items ranging from 0 = always agree[completely true] to 5 = always disagree[not at all true]. An example item from this section is, "I still feel a strong connection with my partner". One item asked, "How good is your relationship compared to most?" from 0 = worse than all others to 5 = better than all others. Two items assessed how often individuals enjoy their partner's company or have fun together from 0 = never to 1 = more often. Finally, 7 items asked participants to describe how they feel about the

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relationship on different constructs from 0 to 5 (e.g., 0 = bad, 5 = good). Among the total

scale, 10 items were reverse-coded. Scores were then summed across all items and

ranged from 0 to 161. Higher scores indicated greater levels of satisfaction with their

current partner. Scores falling below 104.5 indicated relationship dissatisfaction.

Cronbach's alpha test for reliability suggested good reliability of the measure ($\alpha = .97$).

Relationship Self-Efficacy

The Relationship Self-Efficacy Scale (Lopez et al., 2017) was used to assess

young adult's beliefs about one's skills at engaging in behaviors with an intimate partner

that reflect mutuality, emotional control, and differentiation. The scale consisted of 25

items in which respondents answered about their level of confidence concerning their

ability to engage in behaviors within the context of their present relationship (e.g.,

"Express openly to your partner your hopes for the future of the relationship"). Responses

were on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = not at all to 4 = completely sure. Scores

were averaged and higher scores indicated more relationship self-efficacy. Cronbach's

alpha suggested good reliability for the measure ($\alpha = .95$).

Sexual Satisfaction

To assess sexual satisfaction, the New Sexual Satisfaction Scale (NSSS; Štulhofer

et al., 2010) was used to assess individual's satisfaction with their sex life over the past

six months. There were two dimensions of the NSSS: the ego-centered subscale which

assesses the individual's sexual satisfaction (e.g., "My focus/concentration during sexual

activity") and the partner and activity-centered subscale which assesses the sexual

satisfaction derived from one's partner's sexual behaviors and diversity or frequency of

sexual activities. (e.g., "My partner's emotional opening up during sex"). The current

study used a composite score of all items in the measure. Participants reported on their level of satisfaction on a 5-point scale ranging from 4 (not at all satisfied) to 4 (extremely satisfied) and scores were averaged with higher scores indicating greater sexual satisfaction. Cronbach's alpha test for reliability suggested good reliability of the measure ($\alpha = .93$).

Analytic Strategy

I used SPSS to analyze the descriptive data by exploring correlations, skewness, kurtosis, means, and gender differences of major study variables. I tested the hypotheses using hierarchical regression analyses in SPSS. To test my first research question (RQ1), whether masculinity ideology predicts relationship outcomes, I regressed relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction on masculinity ideology. To examine gender moderation, I included gender at step 2 of the model (followed by covariates at step 1) and an interaction term of masculinity ideology by gender at step 3 of the regression analysis. To test my second research question (RQ2), whether men's GRC predicts relationship outcomes, I regressed men's relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction on GRC. To test the third research question (RQ3), whether women's perceptions of their partner's GRC moderates the link between masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes or is explained by an additive effect, women's masculinity ideology and their perceived partner GRC were entered at step 2 of the model (following covariates at step 1) with an interaction term of masculinity ideology by partner's GRC at step 3.

Results

Overview of Analytic Plan

All research questions were addressed using hierarchical regression analyses through SPSS software. All control variables (e.g., college status, relationship length, ethnicity/race) were entered in the first step of the models and the predictor variable(s) were entered in step two. When examining interaction effects, the interaction terms will be entered at step three of the models.

Descriptive Analyses

Table 2.2 displays the means, standard deviations, correlations, skewness, and kurtosis of all study variables and Table 2.3 displays correlations and means split by gender. Men reported significantly higher levels of masculinity ideology than women [t (383.94) = -10.47, $p < .001$]. Women reported significantly higher levels of relationship self-efficacy (RSE) compared to men [t (384) = 7.71, $p < .001$]. Women also had significantly higher levels of relationship satisfaction than men [t (360.81) = 6.70, $p < .001$]. Further, women had significantly higher levels of sexual satisfaction than men [t (354.12) = 3.86, $p < .001$]. All study variables were normally distributed (i.e., skewness less than 2, kurtosis 7; Curran et al., 1996). As expected, masculinity ideology was significantly and negatively correlated with RSE ($r = -.44$, $p < .01$), relationship satisfaction ($r = -.51$, $p < .01$), and sexual satisfaction ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$) for the sample as a whole. The same pattern emerged for women. For men, masculinity ideology was significantly correlated with relationship satisfaction ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$), but not with RSE or sexual satisfaction.

Several variables were initially considered as possible control variables, and college status (0 = not in college, 1 = yes, in college), ethnicity/race (E/R; 0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority), and relationship length (1 = 3-6 months; 2 = 6 months to 1 year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = 5 to 9 years; 7 = 10 or more years) were included because they were correlated with study variables. Correlations, means, and standard deviations for major study variables by college status can be seen in Table 2.4. Correlations are somewhat comparable: masculinity was correlated in similar directions for non-college and college students with RSE, GRC, and relationship satisfaction (RS). However, masculinity was not correlated with partner GRC and sexual satisfaction (SS) for college students, but these were correlated for non-college individuals. Preliminary findings suggest that there are slight differences in masculinity ideology for non-college individuals and college students that should be explored in future work.

The Relation of Masculinity Ideology to Relationship Outcomes

To examine the association between masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes (relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction), hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Control variables (i.e., relationship length, ethnicity/race, and college status) were entered at step 1, masculinity ideology and gender were entered as the predictors in step 2, and the interaction term of masculinity ideology by gender was entered at step 3 of the model. Table 2.5 shows the results from all regression analyses.

Masculinity Ideology and Relationship Satisfaction

In the hierarchical regression to assess whether masculinity ideology relates to relationship satisfaction, at step 1, control variables were included and generally predicted relationship satisfaction, $R^2 = .171$, $F(3,388) = 26.61$, $p < .001$. Specifically, ethnicity/race ($\beta = -0.10$, $p = .04$), relationship length ($\beta = 0.36$, $p < .01$), and college status ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < .001$) were related to relationship satisfaction; the results showed that relationship satisfaction was worse for ethnic/racial minorities compared to Whites, greater for those in a longer relationship, and greater for those in college compared to those who are not in college.

Two indicators were entered step 2 of the model: masculinity ideology and gender. The addition of the indicators accounted for significant variance in relationship satisfaction, $R^2 = .321$, $F(2,386) = 42.57$, $p < .001$. Masculinity ideology negatively predicted relationship satisfaction ($\beta = -0.39$, $p < .001$), suggesting that greater masculinity ideology was associated with worse relationship satisfaction. Gender was not associated with relationship satisfaction ($\beta = -0.08$, $p = .092$).

To examine the moderating role of gender on masculinity ideology and relationship satisfaction, an interaction term of gender and masculinity ideology was entered at step 3 of the model. The interaction accounted for significant variance for relationship satisfaction, $R^2 = .330$, $F(1,385) = 42.57$, $p < .001$. When probing for simple slopes using Andrew Hayes' PROCESS Macro v3.4, the findings showed an unexpected pattern: while masculinity ideology was significantly and negatively related to relationship satisfaction for men ($\beta = -8.99$, $t(1, 385) = -2.43$, $p = .02$, 95% CI [-16.28, -1.70]) and for women ($\beta = -19.30$, $t(1, 385) = -7.64$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-24.27, -14.33]),

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contrary to my hypothesis, this effect was stronger for women than for men (See Figure

1).

Masculinity Ideology and RSE

Control variables entered at step 1 of the model predicted RSE, $R^2 = .155$, F

$(3,382) = 36.35$, $p < .001$. Relationship length ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < .001$) and college status ($\beta =$

0.26, $p < .001$) positively predicted RSE, but ethnicity/race was not associated ($\beta = -0.04$,

$p = .399$). Meaning, for RSE, those who reported being in a relationship for longer had

greater RSE and those in college had greater RSE compared to those who are not in

college.

Masculinity ideology and gender were entered at step 2 of the model and

accounted for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .290$, $F(2,380) = 36.35$, $p < .001$.

Specifically, masculinity ideology was significantly and negatively associated with RSE

($\beta = -0.30$, $p < .001$), meaning that greater masculinity ideology endorsement was related

to worse RSE. Gender was significantly associated with RSE ($\beta = -0.16$, $p < .001$),

meaning RSE was lower for men compared to women.

To examine the moderating role of gender on masculinity ideology and RSE, an

interaction term of gender and masculinity ideology was entered at step 3 of the model.

The interaction accounted for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .298$, $F(1,379) = 4.12$, p

$= .04$. After probing for simple slopes, the relation of masculinity ideology to RSE was

negative and significant for women ($\beta = -0.46$, $t(1, 379) = -5.89$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-

0.61, -0.30]) and not significant for men ($\beta = -0.19$, $t(1, 379) = -1.64$, $p = .102$, 95% CI [-

0.41, 0.04]), not supporting my hypothesis (see Figure 2). These findings suggest that the

negative association between masculinity ideology and RSE was stronger for women than men.

Masculinity Ideology and Sexual Satisfaction

At step 1 of the model, control variables generally predicted sexual satisfaction, $R^2 = .053$, $F(3,356) = 6.62$, $p < .001$. Relationship length ($\beta = 0.11$, $p = .03$) and college status ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < .001$) significantly and positively predicted sexual satisfaction, but ethnicity/race ($\beta = 0.002$, $p = .968$) was not a predictor of sexual satisfaction. Sexual satisfaction was greater for those who have been in a relationship for a longer time and for those who are in college compared to those who are not.

Masculinity ideology and gender were entered at step 2 of the model and accounted for significant variance in sexual satisfaction, $R^2 = .088$, $F(2,354) = 6.88$, $p < .01$. Specifically, masculinity ideology significantly predicted sexual satisfaction ($\beta = -0.15$, $p = .02$), above-and-beyond control variables. This means that greater masculinity ideology was related to worse sexual satisfaction. Gender was not associated with sexual satisfaction ($\beta = -0.09$, $p = .12$).

To examine the moderating role of gender on masculinity ideology and sexual satisfaction, an interaction term of gender and masculinity ideology was entered at step 3 of the model. The interaction did not account for significant variance in sexual satisfaction, $R^2 = .093$, $F(1,353) = 2.03$, $p = .156$.

In summary, the hypotheses concerning the negative relation of masculine ideology to relationship experiences was supported for all three outcomes. For the hypothesis of gender moderation with men showing stronger relations, this was not

supported for any of the three relationship variables. Gender moderation occurred but women often showed stronger negative relations of masculine ideology with outcomes.

The Relation of Men's GRC to Relationship Outcomes

Hierarchical regressions were conducted to examine men's GRC and their relationship outcomes. Control variables (i.e., relationship length, college status, ethnicity/race) were entered at step 1 and the GRCS was entered at step 2 of the model. Table 2.6 shows results from all regression analyses.

Men's GRC and Relationship Satisfaction

At step 1, control variables were included and generally predicted relationship satisfaction, $R^2 = .126$, $F (3,152) = 7.30$, $p < .001$. Specifically, men's relationship length ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < .01$) and college status ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < .001$) positively predicted relationship satisfaction, but ethnicity/race was not associated ($\beta = -0.14$, $p = .106$). This means that those men in a longer relationships and those who were in college compared to those who were not in college had greater relationship satisfaction. I hypothesized that men's gender role conflict would be negatively related to their relationship outcomes (H2). This hypothesis was not supported as shown in step 2: Men's gender role conflict did not associate with relationship satisfaction, $R^2 = .127$, $F (1,151) = .20$, $p = .658$.

GRC and Relationship Self-Efficacy

For RSE, the control variables at step 1 generally predicted RSE, $R^2 = .126$, $F (3,150) = 7.18$, $p < .001$, such that relationship length ($\beta = 0.17$, $p = .03$) and college status ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < .001$) positively predicted RSE, but ethnicity/race was not associated ($\beta = 0.03$, $p = .753$). For those men in longer relationships and those who were in college

compared to those who were not, they had greater RSE. Men's GRC did not relate to RSE at step 2, $R^2 = .126$, $F(1,149) = .14$, $p = .716$, not supporting my hypothesis.

GRC and Sexual Satisfaction

Control variables at step 1 also generally accounted for significant variance in sexual satisfaction, $R^2 = .124$, $F(3,148) = 6.99$, $p < .001$. College status significantly and positively predicted sexual satisfaction ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < .001$), whereby ethnicity/race ($\beta = 0.01$, $p = .990$) and relationship satisfaction ($\beta = 0.03$, $p = .659$) were not predictors of sexual satisfaction. These findings suggest that those men who were in college had greater sexual satisfaction compared to those who were not in college. Men's GRC was also not significantly associated with sexual satisfaction at step 2, $R^2 = .126$, $F(1,147) = .35$, $p = .554$.

In summary, men's gender role conflict was not predictive of any relationship outcomes in the current study, when accounting for relationship length, college status, and ethnicity/race. Therefore, my second research question was not supported by my findings.

Women's Masculinity Ideology and Perceived Partner's GRC on Outcomes

The final research question examined the three outcomes using two exploratory models: (1) a main effect model in which I examined women's masculinity ideology and perceived partner GRC on outcomes and (2) a moderation model in which I examined the interaction between masculinity ideology and perceived partner GRC on outcomes. Table 2.7 presents a summary of the regression analyses. Hierarchical regression analyses were employed to examine potentially confounding variables (entered at step 1; e.g., relationship length, college status, and ethnicity/race), main effects of women's

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masculinity ideology and perceived partner GRC (entered at step 2), and the interaction term of women's masculinity ideology by partner GRC (entered at step 3).

Relationship Satisfaction

I expected to find that masculinity ideology and partner GRC would be negatively related to relationship satisfaction for women. The control variables were not significantly related to relationship satisfaction at the first step, $R^2 = .014$, $F(3,119) = .58$, $p = .628$. At the second step, partner GRC and women's masculinity ideology were entered as predictor variables and together the variables added significantly to the model ($R^2 = .130$, $F(2,117) = 7.76$, $p = .001$). In this step, only partner GRC explained significant variance in relationship satisfaction. Specifically, greater partner GRC predicted less relationship satisfaction ($\beta = -0.36$, $p < .001$), when accounting for control variables. This means that women who reported their partner as having greater gender role conflict had worse relationship satisfaction compared to women who reported their partner as having lower gender role conflict. Women's masculinity ideology did not significantly predict relationship satisfaction ($\beta = 0.05$, $p = .629$). In step three, the interaction term was included to test the moderation; There was not a significant interaction of masculinity ideology by partner GRC on relationship satisfaction, $R^2 = .149$, $F(1,116) = 2.59$, $p = .110$.

Relationship Self-Efficacy

Ethnicity/race, relationship length, and college status were entered as control variables at step 1 and generally did not relate to relationship self-efficacy (RSE), $R^2 = .041$, $F(3,118) = 1.67$, $p = .178$. At step 2, partner GRC and women's masculinity ideology were entered as indicators. Partner GRC explained significant variance in RSE,

$R^2 = .154$, $F(2,116) = 7.80$, $p = .001$. Specifically, greater partner GRC was negatively

related to RSE ($\beta = -0.36$, $p < .001$), but women's masculinity did not predict RSE ($\beta =$

0.10, $p = .300$), when accounting for control variables. This means that women who

reported their partner as having greater gender role conflict had worse relationship self-

efficacy compared to women who reported their partner as having lower gender role

conflict. Importantly, these direct effects were moderated by the interaction of the

predictor variables. Specifically, when an interaction term of partner GRC and women's

masculinity ideology was entered at step 3 of the model, the interaction term accounted

for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .203$, $F(1,115) = 7.02$, $p = .009$. After probing the

interaction for simple slopes using Andrew Hayes' PROCESS Macro v4.3, the relation

between masculinity ideology and RSE was more positive when women's partners had

high GRC ($\beta = 0.35$, $t(1, 115) = 2.43$, $p = .04$, 95% CI [0.06, 0.64]). However, there was

no significant association between masculinity ideology and RSE when partners were at

low partner GRC ($\beta = -0.21$, $t(1, 115) = -1.23$, $p = .22$, 95% CI [-0.55, 0.13]) or at

moderate levels of partner GRC ($\beta = 0.07$, $t(1, 115) = 0.59$, $p = .56$, 95% CI [-0.16,

0.30]) (See Figure 3). These findings suggest that women whose partners had high GRC

showed a stronger relation between masculinity ideology and RSE than women whose

partners had other levels of GRC.

Sexual Satisfaction

Finally, control variables were entered at the first step of the model on sexual

satisfaction, but were all non-significant, $R^2 = .022$, $F(3,104) = .78$, $p = .510$. At the

second step, partner GRC and women's masculinity ideology were entered in the model;

Partner GRC accounted for significant variance of sexual satisfaction, $R^2 = .097$, F

(2,102) = 4.25, p = .017. Specifically, greater partner GRC predicted less sexual satisfaction (β = -0.28, p < .01), over-and-above control variables, meaning that women had worse sexual satisfaction when they reported their partner as having greater gender role conflict compared to women who reported their partner as having lower gender role conflict. Women's masculinity ideology did not significantly predict sexual satisfaction (β = 0.19, p = .069). In the final step, an interaction term of partner GRC and women's masculinity ideology was included to test for moderation effects, but the interaction was not significantly associated with sexual satisfaction R^2 = .103, F (1,101) = .61, p = .437.

In summary, women's masculinity ideology was not associated with relationship outcomes, but perceived partner GRC did negatively relate to outcomes (i.e., relationship satisfaction, RSE, and sexual satisfaction). Only for one outcome was a more complex pattern found: There was a significant interaction effect for relationship self-efficacy such that the relationship between women's masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy was stronger when they reported their partners as having greater GRC.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to examine the links between traditional masculinity and emerging adults' relationship experiences. Specifically, I examined whether men's and women's masculinity ideology were associated with relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction, and whether these relations varied by gender. I found results consistent with the hypothesis that masculinity ideology was negatively related to emerging adults' relationship outcomes and this association varied by gender for only relationship satisfaction and relationship self-efficacy. The association between masculinity ideology and relationship satisfaction and relationship

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self-efficacy was stronger for women than men, contrary to my hypothesis. Second, I examined whether men's gender role conflict related to their relationship outcomes, but I did not find this association. Finally, I explored the role of women's masculinity ideology and their perceived partner's gender role conflict on relationship outcomes. I found results consistent with my hypothesis about the role of partner's gender role conflict on relationship outcomes: Partner gender role conflict was related to worse relationship satisfaction, sexual satisfaction, and relationship self-efficacy. Further, women who endorsed more traditional masculinity ideology reported better relationship self-efficacy when they perceived their male partners as having greater gender role conflict. In other words, when women believed men should be more traditionally masculinity *and* who perceive their partners conform more to traditional masculinity, they felt more efficacious in nurturing and maintaining their romantic relationship. These results will be discussed more fully below.

Masculinity Ideology and Relationship Outcomes

In the descriptive analyses, men endorsed greater levels of masculinity ideology compared to women, supporting previous research (McDermott et al., 2019). Women, however, reported greater levels of relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction than men, suggesting that women in general may fare better in their relationships than do men. These findings parallel previous work that women tend to report better relationship experiences than men (Riggio et al., 2011; Lopez et al. 2007; Mark & Murray, 2012). Women may interpret their relationships more favorably compared to men because of societal expectations for women to focus on and nurture relationships to a greater extent than men. Because of this expectation, women may

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attend to relationships more than do men. In doing so, they may notice and may work harder to maintain the relationship more so than someone who does not pay close attention to their relationship.

The correlation patterns showed that masculinity ideology was negatively correlated with relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction, which is consistent with my hypotheses and what I found in the main analyses. These preliminary findings support previous work that more traditional masculinity ideology is negatively associated with worse relationship experiences (Burn & Ward, 2005; O'Neil, 2015).

Relationship Satisfaction

As expected, men's and women's ideology negatively related to their relationship satisfaction when other variables were controlled (i.e., relationship length, college status, and ethnicity/race). This finding supports previous research that supports more traditional masculinity ideology is related to reduced relationship satisfaction for men (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001; Wade & Donis, 2007; Wade & Coughlin, 2012) and women (Burn & Ward, 2005). Ideals about traditional masculinity include emotional stoicism, toughness, and avoidance of feminine traits and these characteristics appear not helpful in nurturing relationships (Siavelis and Lamke 1992; Sprecher & Hendrick 2004). Further, both partners may exhibit reduced satisfaction from consequences of not communicating or showing empathy with their partner, leading to potential conflict or distress. Additionally, endorsing traditional masculinity can instill ideals about how relationships *should* work, which may be internalized by both men and women. For instance, men and women who endorse more traditional masculinity ideology may believe that the

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relationship communication and maintenance falls on the female partner, which could negatively impact her satisfaction within the relationship. Given this, we might expect gender to moderate this association such that women would have a more negative association between masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes, but this was not supported by my findings.

The control variables included in the model suggested areas for further research. The main effect of college status found that greater relationship satisfaction was positive for those in college, which is contrary to some previous work finding relationship satisfaction was greater for non-college adults (Rochlen et al., 2008). Relationship length was a positive predictor of relationship satisfaction, which parallels previous work supporting that relationship length positively predicts relationship quality (Doyle & Molix, 2014). Race was a significant predictor of relationship satisfaction such that ethnic/racial minority individuals had lower relationship satisfaction. These findings support previous work by Ellison and colleagues (2010) who found that non-Hispanic White participants reported greater relationship satisfaction than African American individuals, but they did not find a significant difference between Mexican/Mexican American participants and non-Hispanic White participants.

Relationship Self-Efficacy

This study presents the first steps to connect masculinity ideology with relationship self-efficacy in emerging adult romantic relationships. Given findings for masculine ideology and relationship satisfaction, a similar rationale can be applied to the finding regarding masculinity ideology relating to reduced relationship self-efficacy. Men and women who have more traditional masculinity ideology may feel uncomfortable

maintaining the relationship or may expect their partner to maintain the relationship. More traditional men and women who avoid communication or emotional vulnerability may lack relationship self-efficacy, which is particularly useful during times of conflict or stress. Being emotionally stoic during times of conflict or being avoidant of communication overall could inhibit conflict resolution or healthy relationship development, subsequently adding to reduced feelings of efficacy in one's relationship (Siavelis and Lamke 1992; Sprecher & Hendrick 2004). Further, not feeling efficacious in one's relationship could also consequentially impact other areas of one's relationship, including relationship satisfaction (Riggio et al., 2013; Cui et al., 2008), impacting men's and women's general perceptions of their relationship.

Those in longer relationships and who currently attend college reported greater relationship self-efficacy, and ethnic/racial minority status was not a predictor of relationship self-efficacy. The current findings support previous work that suggests relationship length is positively associated with relationship self-efficacy (Lopez et al., 2007). Additionally, research examining relationship self-efficacy have predominately used college samples (e.g., Lopez et al., 2007; Riggio et al., 2013), and thus studies comparing relationship self-efficacy among college and non-college emerging adults have not been conducted. Future work should explore personal and contextual factors that may impact relationship self-efficacy in emerging adults.

Sexual Satisfaction

The range of challenges to relationships related to traditional masculinity appears broad. I found that emerging adults who endorse more traditional masculinity reported lower sexual satisfaction with their current partner. Traditional masculinity emphasizes

the avoidance of emotionality, communication, and vulnerability, however, being emotional, communicative, and vulnerable are qualities that promote a healthy sex life (Štulhofer et al., 2010), and so it may not be so surprising that men and women who endorse more traditional masculinity may experience worse sexual satisfaction (De Meyer et al., 2014). Additionally, more traditional individuals may not have the tools to be sexually or emotionally intimate with their partner, further reducing their sexual satisfaction. The findings of the current study are consistent with findings from a study done by De Meyer and colleagues (2014) in which they examined aspects of gender and sexual attitudes and behaviors in adolescents. They found that adolescents who endorsed more egalitarian gender attitudes had better sexual experiences and communication around sex with their partner compared to those who endorsed more traditional gender attitudes. However, the current findings contradict a study by Daniel and colleagues (2013) in which the researchers found a positive association between masculinity and sexual satisfaction in college men. The difference in findings may be attributed to the differences in the measures used. In the study by Daniel and colleagues (2013), masculinity was measured using the Personal Attributes Questionnaire, which examines instrumental traits such as masculinity (e.g., independent) and femininity (e.g., emotional), and these traits are not comparable to the measure used in the current study in which I assessed men's and women's ideology relating to men's roles and masculinity attitudes or in De Meyer's study which used the Attitudes Toward Women Scale for Adolescents. Given these differences, it might be interesting in future work to explore how all three measures relate to sexuality in the same study.

Similar to relationship self-efficacy, individuals who are in longer relationships and those currently attending college reported greater sexual satisfaction, but ethnicity/race was not related to sexual satisfaction. Although I found that relationship length was positively associated with sexual satisfaction, this finding is contrary to previous work that found participants who were in longer-term relationships had worse sexual satisfaction and sexual desire (Carvalheira & Costa, 2015; Murray & Milhausen, 2012). To my knowledge, previous work has not examined differences in sexual satisfaction between college and non-college emerging adults. Because previous work suggests that being involved in a longer-term relationship is related to worse sexual satisfaction, it may be inferred that non-college individuals have worse sexual satisfaction, which is contrary to my findings. More work is needed to examine whether sexual satisfaction is predictive of relationship length and college status to further understand emerging adults' sexual satisfaction in their relationships.

Gender Moderation of Masculinity Ideology and Relationship Outcomes

A question addressed in this research was whether masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes would be different and more extreme for men than for women. I expected this association would be stronger and more negative for men but found that this expectation was not supported. Specifically, when examining relationship satisfaction as the outcome, the interaction of gender and masculinity ideology was significantly associated with relationship satisfaction. Further, when probing for simple slopes, the association between masculinity ideology and relationship satisfaction was stronger and more negative for women than for men, contrary to my hypothesis. Similar findings were present when relationship self-efficacy was the outcome variable: The interaction of

gender and masculinity ideology significantly predicted relationship self-efficacy and simple slopes revealed that this association was stronger and more negative for women than for men. Again, these findings are contrary to my hypothesis that the association would be stronger for men than for women. I did not find support for gender moderation when sexual satisfaction was the outcome variable.

Why do women show stronger and more negative relations between masculine ideology and these relationship outcomes? Three explanations may account for these findings. First, women may internalize masculine norms that men should be tough, anti-feminine or emotionally stoic, and because of that, they may choose partners who are more traditionally masculine. These men may then neglect aspects of the relationship, subsequently reducing her satisfaction and efficacy within the relationship. That is, the more women internalize these ideas, the more likely they are to select men as partners who are traditionally masculine, thereby leading to problems in their relationships.

A second possibility is based on benevolent sexism research. Researchers suggest that women tend to perceive benevolent sexism as positive and not harmful to women (Oswald et al., 2018) and women perceive men who express benevolent sexism more attractive male partners compared to men with less benevolent sexist attitudes (Cross & Overall, 2017). Women who have higher masculinity ideology could perceive masculinity in men as a positive quality. These women may then select partners with masculine traits and the combination of both having more masculine attitudes and partners who adhere to traditional masculinity may be more harmful for relationships.

A third possible explanation could be that women may engage in behaviors designed to maintain a higher status in their ingroup by reinforcing appealing aspects of

masculinity ideology (e.g., emotional stoicism, focus on work over family). Given that society values male behaviors and masculinity over feminine behaviors and femininity, women who embrace more traditional masculinity ideology might feel the need to align with societal expectations for men to gain status, respect, and superiority. Aligning with more traditional masculinity values may subsequently harm her relationship satisfaction and experiences. Future research on this topic is needed to understand why these patterns are more extreme for women than for men.

Women's Masculinity Ideology and Perceived Partner's Gender Role Conflict

My final research question explored the role of women's masculinity ideology and their perceptions of their partner's gender role conflict on relationship outcomes. I considered whether the additive effects of each or an interaction of the two constructs better explained variance in these relationship outcomes. Partner gender role conflict was negatively associated with relationship satisfaction and sexual satisfaction in the main effect model, but the interactions were not found for these outcomes. These findings support previous work suggesting male partner's masculinity conformity or ideology negatively impacts women's relationship experiences (Burn & Ward, 2005; McGraw, 2001). Women described their traditionally masculine partners lower in areas of warmth, nurturance, time together, and consistency in the relationship as well as having greater anger/aggression, emotional reactivity, and authority/dominance (McGraw, 2001), and these could negatively impact her satisfaction and self-efficacy in the relationship. The findings in the current study support that men's masculinity can not only result in consequences for men's relationship experiences but can also negatively impact their female partner's relationship experiences.

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For relationship self-efficacy, the interaction of women's masculinity ideology and her perceived partner's gender role conflict was significant. That is, I found a positive relation between women's traditional masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy when they perceived their male partner as having greater gender role conflict. These findings can be interpreted to mean that as women's masculinity ideology increases, their relationship self-efficacy also increases but only for women with partner's high in gender role conflict. Perhaps when women's ideals of men and masculinity "match" with their partner's traditional masculinity, they feel comfortable maintaining the relationship and are successfully able to deal with conflicts that arise compared to women with other combinations of masculinity ideology and partner gender role conflict. Although previous work and the findings of this study suggest that a strong masculine ideology may be deleterious for relationships, it is possible that when considered together, women have similar outcomes to other couples when there is some matching of expectations between their masculinity and their partner's masculinity. As suggested by Rogers and colleagues (2020), women are socialized to adopt feminine traits such as passivity and this may buffer their behavior in relationships, even when they adhere to masculine norms. Because of the societal expectation for women to focus on relationships to a greater extent than men, women who endorse greater traditional masculinity ideology (and may adhere to more traditionally feminine traits) might be buffered from the negative effects of men's masculinity adherence. If they believe that relationship maintenance and conflict resolution falls on the female partner, they may in turn feel more efficacious nurturing the relationship given this is their expectation. In future studies, aspects such as women's conformity to feminine traits should be explored

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that will address whether women's masculinity and femininity traits play a role in their relationship experiences. Further, studies should collect data on other traits of relationships (e.g., conflict resolution, coping strategies) to identify nuances that may exist relating to relationship self-efficacy specifically. Finally, dyadic studies examining couple data would be beneficial in identifying how partners' masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy influence one another.

Null Findings related to Men's Gender Role Conflict

Contrary to my hypothesis, men's gender role conflict was not found to be associated with their relationship experiences, although women's perceptions of their partner's GRC did relate to outcomes. Despite prior work supporting the association between gender role conflict and men's relationship satisfaction or quality (see O'Neil, 2015, for a review), the current study did not find this association. Perhaps men's relationship satisfaction is more directly influenced by other aspects of their relationship such as financial security, satisfaction with one's sex life, or their fulfillment of work or family. Previous work finding an association between GRC or dimensions of the GRC and relationship satisfaction have predominately been among married couples and used measures such as the Dyadic Adjustment Scale which assesses global marital adjustment (Breiding, 2004; Breiding et al., 2008). The lack of association in the current study may have been due to my sample of emerging adult individuals in shorter relationships and using an index assessing relationship satisfaction, not specifically marital satisfaction. Relationships may be more casual and less stressful than marital relationship and thus satisfaction could be higher in these relationships. Gender role conflict was also not associated with sexual satisfaction, but men's satisfaction with their sex life could be due

to other factors such as communication, feelings of intimacy, or attraction to their partner. Although I hypothesized that sexual satisfaction would be negatively associated with men's masculinity, Daniel and colleagues (2013) found a positive association between traditional masculinity and sexual satisfaction among college men, suggesting that although non-significant, my sample could have felt more positive feelings toward their sex life than non-traditional men. Finally, men's gender role conflict was not associated with relationship self-efficacy. Other than my Study 1 in which I found a negative association between gender role conflict and men's relationship self-efficacy, this is the first study to my knowledge that attempted to explore the link between these two constructs. It may be that in my current sample of an (on average) older sample of emerging adults, one's relationship self-efficacy is already established through previous relationship experiences and thus is not impacted by their level of gender role conflict.

Other factors may be contributing to the null findings. It may be that other aspects of masculinity override any effects of GRC. Men's masculinity ideology or conformity to masculinity might be contributing more to their relationship experiences rather than their gender role conflict. For instance, men who are actively conforming to traditionally masculine norms relating to self-reliance, playboy mentality, or aggression (which are not uniquely assessed in gender role conflict), might be significantly less satisfied or happy in their relationship but their conflict about these roles may not contribute to relationship issues or may be overridden by these masculine norms. The gender role conflict scale may not detect nuances or these other dimensions of men's masculinity even when they are present. Future research should investigate men's traditional masculinity and their relationship experiences using other measures of masculinity. For instance, using scales

such as the Conformity to Masculine Norm Inventory (CMNI; Parent & Moradi, 2009), might be a better gauge of men's actual conformity to masculine norms rather than global attitudes of masculinity. The CMNI includes similar dimensions to the GRCS such as emotional control, but it includes other aspects of masculinity such as being a playboy and heterosexual presentation that are absent from the GRCS. Future work should consider gauging men's conformity to masculine norms in conjunction or alternative to their general attitudes toward masculinity.

Limitations and Future Directions

The current study is not without its limitations. Although the participants were required to be in a romantic relationship for at least three months to participate in the study, dyadic couple data would have elevated the study and its findings. It is important to understand how masculinity impacts relationships by investigating both partners in the relationship to determine any discrepancies between the couple. Further research using dyadic data and specifically the Actor-Partner-Interdependence Model (APIM) methodology would allow researchers to understand how both partners perceive their own and their partner's masculinity ideology and relationship experiences. In contrast, in the present study, I was only able to gauge women's perceptions of their partner's gender role conflict, therefore I could not accurately assess their male partners' actual traditional masculinity. Understanding the effect of men's own traditional masculinity on their female partners would be an important subsequent step. Also, understanding how perceptions of masculinity match or do not match their partner's reports would provide additional insights about whether expectations are matched regarding masculinity and gender role attitudes. If partners have similar views that are obtained in the relationship,

even highly traditional partners might present better relationship outcomes and better overall well-being. Thus, similarity in ideologies and attitudes may be important over-and-above just holding masculinity ideology. Dyadic data would accurately capture all combinations of partner attitudes regarding masculinity, gender expectations, and relationship happiness or consequences.

The scope of the current study was to understand how traditional masculinity (rooted in heteronormative ideology) relates to heterosexual men and women's relationship experiences. Because of this scope, we were not able to include gender or sexually diverse individuals. Future work should investigate how masculinity ideology and conformity to traditional masculinity might appear different in diverse couples and how their relationships may be influenced differently or similarly to heterosexual couples. Additionally, our sample was not ethnically/racially diverse (72% White). Given that gender and race are intersectional and influenced by one other, more work investigating the association between masculinity and relationships among diverse couples is necessary. Other cultures tend to endorse more traditional gender ideology, such as in Hispanic or Latino communities, and Latinx men tend to endorse/adhere to more traditional gender roles and masculinities (Bahena, 2014; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2008). It may be important to examine masculinity ideologies among various cultures and subcultures to understand how culture impacts one's masculinity attitudes and the extent to which they conform to culturally defined standards of masculinity to provide a holistic perspective of how masculinity impacts relationships.

Finally, although the current study examined three important relationship outcomes, future work should focus on other relationship experiences such as daily

satisfaction with the relationship, intimate partner violence, sexual communication and agency, or conflict resolution strategies. Future work would be strengthened by holistically exploring various aspects of the relationship that may be correlates of men's and women's masculinity ideology. Moreover, measures of sexism (i.e., hostile and benevolent sexism), conformity to masculinity, and gender role attitudes would add dimension to the study of emerging adults' relationship outcomes as masculinity only provides one dimension of attitudes. Future work should also consider the transition to marriage and parenthood as potentially important developmental areas that could influence ideologies surrounding gender and masculinity that may subsequently impact relationship experiences.

Conclusion

These findings provide novel first steps toward understanding how masculinity ideology may impact romantic relationship experiences, and specifically how women's endorsement of masculinity impacts her relationship satisfaction and self-efficacy. It is evident that masculinity may be a contributor to worse relationship experiences for both men and women, but that, for women especially, endorsing masculinity ideology is related to more negative outcomes than for men. Moreover, this study suggests some interesting complexities in patterns that is worth pursuing. Specifically, a positive relation between masculinity ideology and RSE was found for women who perceived their partner has having higher GRC compared to other women in which no relation was found between masculinity ideology and RSE. Why this pattern occurred is puzzling and worth future research attention.

Generally, the current study supports previous work that endorsing greater masculinity ideology is damaging to relationship outcomes. Furthermore, having a partner with greater gender role conflict negatively predicted women's relationship outcomes. A novel finding emerged that for women whose partner has greater gender role conflict, the association between masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy was more negative compared to women whose partners had average or low gender role conflict.

Taken together, emerging adults' masculinity ideology is associated with worse relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction. However, the unexpected finding that this relationship is more negatively related for women is novel and should be explored in future research. It is not surprising that women's perceptions of their partner's gender role conflict were associated with worse relationship outcomes, but it was surprising that a positive effect was found between women's masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy when women reported their partners as having greater gender role conflict. With these foundational findings, future research is needed to determine the effects of men's and women's masculinity ideology in their romantic relationships and how the nuances among women's ideology intersects with their male partner's masculinity or gender role conflict. Findings from the current study provide important implications for clinical work on men and masculinity and for romantic heterosexual relationships. Clinicians need to be aware that both members of a couple may hold beliefs related to masculinity that may negatively impact their relationships and thus could more effectively work with both partners to break down their preconceived ideas regarding masculinity (and possibly femininity) that may be impacting their well-

being and closeness with their partner. Given the importance of emerging adulthood in developing identities and forming attitudes (Arnett, 2005), masculinity ideology may be particularly important for emerging adults' identities that could impact their romantic relationship well-being.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In two studies, I explored the association between emerging adults' traditional masculinity and their relationship experiences. In both studies, I found support for masculinity impacting relationship outcomes, however the specific constructs and patterns varied by study. In Study 1, I found that men's gender role conflict was negatively associated with their relationship self-efficacy, but masculinity ideology (for the total sample) did not matter in this context. In Study 2, however, I found that men's gender role conflict was not associated with reduced relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction. Further, although emerging adult's masculinity ideology did generally associate with lower relationship outcomes (for the total sample), the interaction of gender supported that this association was stronger for women than for men. Finally, in Study 2, I found compelling support for women's perceptions of their partner's masculinity (as measured by gender role conflict) relating to reduced relationship outcomes. An interesting finding emerged for the interaction of women's masculinity and their partner's gender role conflict such that women who endorsed greater masculinity ideology had better relationship self-efficacy when they perceived their partner to have greater gender role conflict. Given the evidence, traditional masculinity is an important part of emerging adults' relationships and can impact their partner's perceptions of the relationship as well.

Empirical Differences Between the Studies and Post-hoc Analyses

It was surprising that there was conflicting evidence among the two studies of my dissertation: Men's gender role conflict was associated with relationship outcomes in

Study 1 but not in Study 2, however women's perceptions of their partners GRC was related to outcomes in Study 2. In Study 2, the main findings were that masculinity ideology was associated with relationship outcomes, but no such support was found for the link between masculinity ideology and RSE in Study 1.

There could be several reasons for such discrepancies. First, although both samples consisted of emerging adults from the ages of 18 to 29, the first study consisted of exclusively college students whereas Study 2 consisted of a mixture of college and non-college individuals. This may contribute to the null findings of masculinity ideology and relationship self-efficacy in Study 1; College students may still be forming their masculinity ideology and their relationship self-efficacy given many college students may not experience serious romantic relationships until post-college. Given this, college students' masculinity might not be contributing to their perceptions of relationship self-efficacy. In Study 2, I did find an association between masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes, including relationship self-efficacy. Because this sample consisted of slightly older emerging adults (both college and non-college individuals), it could be that this sample understands their own masculinity ideology and that these attitudes directly relate to their feelings of the relationship. In particular, because this sample might have more experience with relationships, they are able to gauge how to nurture and maintain the relationship compared to college students with limited relationship experience.

Masculine Ideology and RSE: College versus Non-College Subsamples in Study 2

To examine whether college status played a role in Study 2's findings, I ran post-hoc analyses using subsamples of college students and non-college participants

separately. If the discrepancy in results is due to college vs non-college age samples, then in Study 2, I would expect to find no relation of masculinity ideology to RSE for college students and a significant relation of masculinity ideology to RSE for non-college students. First, t-test analyses revealed that college students ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .81$) had significant greater RSE than non-college individuals ($M = 3.06$, $SD = .94$), $t(384) = -4.73$, $p < .001$, which was surprising. Masculinity ideology did not significantly differ between college and non-college individuals and since individual variations in this are expected, no difference between sub-samples was expected. When examining masculinity ideology on RSE for the non-college subsample in a regression analysis, masculinity ideology accounted for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .29$, $F(1, 246) = 101.97$, $p < .001$, and masculinity ideology predicted worse RSE ($\beta = -.54$, $p < .001$). For the college sample, masculinity ideology accounted for significant variance in RSE, $R^2 = .10$, $F(1,136) = 14.91$, $p < .001$, and masculinity ideology predicted worse RSE ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .001$). Although for both sub-samples, the associations of masculinity ideology are significantly related to RSE, when examining the regression coefficients of each subsample, non-college individuals presented a stronger association among masculinity ideology and RSE than the college subsample.

Masculinity and RSE: Study 1 versus Study 2 College Samples

Next, I compared the associations between masculinity ideology and RSE in Study 1's college-only sample with Study 2's college subsample to examine whether recruitment method/location may have contributed to discrepancies between studies. If the discrepancy in findings was due to the sample differences between the studies (Study 1 being exclusively college students), I expect to find that the association between

masculinity ideology and RSE would be comparable between the studies. Means of RSE did differ between the studies such that Study 2's college subsample reported greater RSE ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .81$) than Study 1 ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .59$). In other words, the older Facebook-recruited U.S. college sample had greater relationship self-efficacy than the younger university-recruited local college sample. Although the measure of masculinity ideology and ranges are different in Study 1 (MRAS: range: $0 - 3$) than Study 2 (MRNS: range, $0 - 4$), the means of masculinity were lower for Study 1 ($M = 1.15$, $SD = .48$) than Study 2 ($M = 1.45$, $SD = .85$). As I found in Study 1's college-only sample, masculinity ideology did not significantly predict RSE, $R^2 = .01$, $F(1, 412) = 2.40$, $p = .122$; $\beta = -.08$, $p = .122$). Using Study 2's college subsample, masculinity ideology significantly accounted for the variance in RSE, $R^2 = .10$, $F(1, 136) = 14.91$, $p < .001$, and masculinity ideology negatively predicted RSE ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .001$). Thus, the association between masculinity ideology and RSE was significant and more negative for my Study 2 college subsample than the Study 1 sample.

GRC and RSE: College versus Non-College Subsamples

In addition, there were differences in GRC such that men's GRC predicted RSE in Study 1 but did not predict in Study 2. I ran several post hoc analyses to examine these discrepancies. I first examined differences between Study 2's college and non-college subsamples. For the Study 2 college subsample, GRC did not predict significant variance in relationship self-efficacy, relationship satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction. Further, in the non-college subsample, I found similar results: GRC did not predict significant variance in relationship outcomes. T-test analyses revealed that college students reported significantly greater GRC ($M = 2.05$, $SD = .54$) than non-college participants ($M = 1.83$,

$SD = .44$; $t(154) = -2.65$, $p = .01$). Male college students ($M = 3.25$, $SD = .83$) also

reported having greater RSE than non-college participants ($M = 2.66$, $SD = .79$; $t(154) = -$

4.09, $p < .001$). It appears that, for this sample, although college students reported greater

GRC and RSE than non-college individuals, the linear relationship between GRC and

relationship outcomes does not necessarily vary by college status.

Next, I examined Study 1 and 2's means for GRC and found that Study 1's

sample reported greater GRC ($M = 2.49$, $SD = .75$) than Study 2's college subsample (M

$= 2.05$, $SD = .54$), suggesting that the university-recruited younger sample of college

students in Study 1 had greater gender role conflict than the slightly older sample of

Facebook-recruited U.S. college students. Finally, I ran regression analyses comparing

the association of men's GRC on RSE in Study 1 and Study 2's college subsample. In

Study 1, I found that GRC did significantly predict the variance in RSE $R^2 = .07$,

$F(1,136) = 9.54$, $p = .002$, and men's GRC negatively predicted RSE ($\beta = -.26$, $p = .002$).

In Study 2's college subsample, GRC did not significantly predict the variance in RSE

and men's GRC did not predict RSE. To conclude, college status was not an important

factor on the impact of findings: GRC was more negatively associated with RSE for

college-recruited men compared to U.S. Facebook-recruited college men.

Men's GRC and Women's GRC: Comparison Within and Between Studies

In Study 2, I found that men's GRC did not predict relationship outcomes,

however, women's perceptions of their partner's GRC did predict outcomes. Further,

men's GRC was associated with RSE in Study 1, suggesting additional exploration of

these differences is needed. First, I examined the differences among partner GRC and

men's GRC in Study 2 and found that men reported greater GRC ($M = 1.89$, $SD = .48$)

compared to women who reported their partner's GRC ($M = 1.50$, $SD = .72$), although t-tests analyses could not be conducted to identify whether they were significantly different. It could be that men perceive themselves as more traditionally masculine or masculine conforming and women perceive their male partners as less traditionally masculine. Next, I compared regression coefficients between men's GRC and women's partner GRC in Study 2 on their RSE. As found in the primary analyses, men's GRC was not associated with RSE, $R^2 = .000$, $F(1,152) = .01$, $p = .934$; $\beta = .007$, $p = .934$; However, partner GRC did negatively predict women's RSE, $R^2 = .12$, $F(1,120) = 15.81$, $p < .001$; $\beta = -.34$, $p < .001$. These findings point to the conclusion that women's perceptions of their partner's GRC might be a better signifier of relationship self-efficacy than men's own perceptions of their GRC, but this is an area that needs further study.

To compare Study 1 and Study 2 samples based on similar demographics, I compared men's GRC in Study 1's all college sample with women's partner GRC in Study 2's college subsample. Primary analyses revealed that men's GRC was negatively associated with RSE in Study 1, $R^2 = .067$, $F(1,135) = 9.33$, $p < .01$; $\beta = -0.25$, $p < .01$. In the college subsample of Study 2, women's partner GRC was also negatively associated with RSE $R^2 = .25$, $F(1,52) = 16.92$, $p < .001$; $\beta = -.495$, $p < .001$. In both college samples, GRC is significantly and negatively associated with RSE, but the pattern is stronger for women's perceptions of their partner's GRC than for men's GRC. These findings seem to suggest that the experience of college relates to similar patterns of GRC to outcomes versus not having college experience. Why this is so requires further study.

Relationship Status and Length: Comparing Within and Between Studies

I also explored whether the differences in findings between the two studies could be due to the current relationship status of the participants. Study 1 did not gather current relationship status; thus, it would be impossible to know whether the students were answering about RSE in their current relationship, a past relationship, RSE in general, or they may have never been in a relationship. College students may not have much, if any, experience in relationships compared to older emerging adults. This lack of experience may mean that college students cannot accurately identify how efficacious they feel maintaining or nurturing their romantic relationship(s). This could have impacted the null findings of masculinity ideology, especially in college students who are also still developing gender ideology. Further, because masculinity ideologies could be fostered in heterosexual relationships, the lack of relationship experience could mean more egalitarian gender attitudes, which may have impacted my findings. For Study 2, however, individuals were required to be in a relationship for at least three months and all relationship questions assessed participants' current relationship. Even at three months into a relationship, emerging adults begin to understand how to maintain the relationship and can identify their partners' needs, which could have impacted their responses on relationship self-efficacy. As this was an older sample of emerging adults, their masculinity ideology may be formed, especially if they have been in a heterosexual relationship for longer time. Thus, Study 2's sample of older emerging adults in current relationships could have a stronger association between their masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes.

To examine whether participants in relationships for similar time (3-6 months), I examined all participants who have been in a relationship for 3-6 months and compared

them based on whether they attended college or were not in college. T-test analyses revealed no significant difference in masculinity ideology and RSE for college and non-college individuals. When running regression analyses, I found that the association between masculinity ideology and RSE was not significant for college students, $R^2 = .09$, $F(1,10) = 1.02$, $p = .337$; $\beta = -.30$, $p = .34$, and for non-college participants, $R^2 = .19$, $F(1,8) = 1.93$, $p = .202$; $\beta = -.44$, $p = .202$. The relationship was stronger (more negative) for non-college individuals, suggesting that masculinity ideology seems to more negatively impact RSE for those who are not in college and in a relationship for 3-6 months than for those who are in college and in a relationship for 3-6 months. Because the associations were not significant for either subsample, it is important to be cautious of generalizations. I further explored the association between relationship length and masculinity ideology and RSE in the total sample of Study 2 and found that as relationship length increases, RSE increases ($r = .30$, $p < .001$). These findings support previous work that suggest relationship length is positively related to RSE (Lopez et al., 2007). Moreover, as relationship length increases, masculinity ideology decreases ($r = -.39$, $p < .001$), suggesting that masculinity ideology may not be fostered in heterosexual relationships and even become more egalitarian in their masculinity or gender-related attitudes.

Comparison of Measures

To further explore the discrepancy between studies, I considered that the measures used to operationalize masculinity ideology conceptually and empirically differs by study. Study 1 consisted of the Male Role Attitudes Scale (MRAS) which included 8 items assessing global attitudes of masculinity ideology (e.g., "A guy will lose

respect if he talks about his problems") but had low reliability of the measure (α = .71). I

included a different measure for Study 2, the Masculine Role Norms Scale (MRNS) (e.g.,

"It is essential for a man to always have the respect and admiration of everyone who

knows him") which consisted of 26 items and produced better reliability of the measure

(α = .93). The MRNS may be a more reliable and valid measure to assess masculinity

ideology than the MRAS. The different samples, however, may have one reason for the

reliability discrepancies between the two measures; Perhaps college students have not

fully formed their own masculinity ideology, as college is an informative time to develop

gender-related attitudes (Arnett, 2015) and their specific masculinity ideology may still

be developing. Further, I compared the reliabilities of the GRC and RSE scales as these

measures were used in both studies. For GRC, Study 1's alpha was .80, compared to .69

in Study 2, which could have contributed to the null findings of GRC and relationship

outcomes in Study 2. The RSE reliabilities for both studies were comparable (Study 1:

.93; Study 2: .95). Given the differences in measures used for masculinity ideology and

the reliabilities for masculinity ideology and gender role conflict, the two samples appear

to conceptualize these constructs differently, potentially impacting the results.

Comparison of Recruitment Types

I also explored recruitment methods to understand their contributions to the

discrepancy in results. The second sample was recruited through Facebook whereas the

first sample was recruited on one university campus. There could be potential differences

in the sample based on the recruitment types. For instance, as social media platforms

shift, today's emerging adults are not using Facebook as often and could be using other

platforms such as Instagram, TikTok, or Twitter. Given this, the sample of emerging

adults may be unique in that they do use Facebook (which seems to be increasingly uncommon among 18- to 29-year-olds), which may have impacted my findings because this sample might be different with differentiating beliefs. Further, as my first sample were recruited through the same university, this could have created a homogenous sample of college students in one local area, further impacting my findings from study one. Future work should not only examine the differences in subpopulations of emerging adults but consider where recruitment takes place and how these could impact future research findings.

Inconsistent Findings of Men's GRC and Masculinity Ideology

Men's gender role conflict was not associated with relationship outcomes in Study 2 but was associated with relationship self-efficacy in Study 1. It could be that the broad emerging adult sample of Study 2 understands GRC differently than the college-only sample of Study 1 and their internal conflict might not be associated with perceptions of their relationship. That is, there may be developmental and experiential differences between how younger versus older men interpret and think about masculinity and conflicting roles. Maybe for younger college men, with less relationship experience, they feel that their conflict or distress when gender roles are broken or challenged is related to how efficacious they feel maintaining their relationships. In contrast, older emerging adults might not feel that their relationship experiences are so directly related to feeling conflict or distress concerning masculine gender roles. Further, these developmental and experiential differences may relate to other dissimilarities. For instance, men who conform more to masculinity (i.e., being emotionally restricted) might have negative experiences in other aspects of their lives more so than their relationships

(e.g., aggression, friendships, well-being), or other aspects of the relationship. For instance, O'Neil (2015) found that college men's GRC was associated with reduced relationship intimacy, which was not gauged in the current study; other aspects of the relationship could be more related to gender role conflict than RSE or satisfaction. I also found that masculinity ideology did not relate to outcomes for Study 2, however, but it could be that for this sample, conformity to norms (i.e., gender role conflict) more strongly associate with relationship outcomes than global attitudes (i.e., masculinity ideology). Given the reasons stated in the previous section regarding the differences in the studies, it could be that the college sample were more sensitive to GRC than Study 2 and Study 2's older emerging adult sample were more sensitive to global attitudes than participants involved in Study 1. Further, because gender moderated such that the association between masculinity and relationship outcomes was stronger for women than men, men's masculinity might not be associated with relationships in this way. For women, however, if she has more masculinity ideology, she may be more traditional herself or choses a partner that is more traditionally masculine, and previous research supports that these can negatively impact her relationship experiences (Burn & Ward, 2005). Similar to men, there may be developmental and empirical differences between how younger women interpret masculinity ideology and relationships compared to older emerging adult women; Younger women may not have sufficient relationship experiences, which may have impacted the findings. Given the similar trends between men and women, future work is needed to understand the association between masculinity and relationship outcomes.

Theoretical Contribution

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The findings from both studies support previous theoretical perspectives including the gender role strain paradigm (GRSP) and gender role conflict (GRC). According to GRSP, boys and men are often confined to rigid cultural ideals of manhood, and they feel pressures to conform to these norms (Pleck, 1981). Researchers used the GRSP to understand negative consequences for men, including aggression, dominance, negative attitudes toward women, disdain for minority groups, and a disconnect in relationships. Oftentimes, when men feel threatened in their masculinity, they affirm their manhood through violence and devaluating others, which can cause harmful consequences to women, children, and men who they deem break gender norms (e.g., gay men). In the context of the current dissertation, men who embraced more masculinity ideology (i.e., the belief that men *should* adhere to culturally defined male behavior) exhibited a negative association with their relationship outcomes. Aligning with the GRSP, men who believe that men should be confined to rigid gender norms will exhibit negative interpersonal consequences that can further harm others, as supported by my finding that male partner's masculinity (i.e., GRC) negatively impacted women's relationship experiences. Further, as Levant and Richmond (2007) state, women in the U.S. tend to reject traditional masculinity to a greater extent than men and Levant (2011) encourages researchers to study women's masculinity ideology in various contexts. As supported in my second study, women's masculinity ideology and relationship outcomes are more negative compared to men, suggesting women's masculinity ideology may be more salient or sensitive toward their perceptions of the relationship than is men's masculinity ideology. Future work should extensively examine women's masculinity ideology under

the GRSP framework and whether women have unique or nuanced ideologies relating to masculinity.

The GRC framework stems from the GRSP and focuses specifically on men's distress or conflict when masculine gender norms are challenged or broken and can result in negative consequences for men and others (O'Neil, 2008). Specifically, when men's masculinity is being threatened, they feel an internal conflict resembling uncomfortableness or distress in the moment. This conflict can subsequently lead men to counteract with violence, aggression, or a disdain for women. Thus, my findings that men's GRC was negatively associated with relationship self-efficacy in Study 1 supports the GRC framework such that feeling conflict when male gender norms are broken impacts how efficacious they feel in their relationship. As previous work suggests, relationship self-efficacy is associated with reduced relationship quality (Riggio et al., 2013; Cui et al., 2008) and intimate partner violence (Baker et al., 2016). The novel first steps presented in this dissertation can inform future work connecting masculinity and relationship experiences under the GRC framework, along with other potential negative consequences for men and their partners (e.g., intimate partner violence).

Developmental Implications

The results from the dissertation studies suggest that conceptualizing traditional masculinity needs a more developmental framework. Specifically, there needs to be more consideration in the GRSP and GRC frameworks of developmental socialization processes. Socialization from parents, peers, and the media can promote masculine gender norms that are embodied by Western society's ideals for male behavior (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005; Kågesten et at., 2016). Some have suggested that boys'

emotional restrictiveness is innate or biological: boys are just hard-wired to be less expressive and emotional than girls (see Wester et al., 2002, for a review). These thoughts have been unsupported by research findings that show boys tend to be emotionally expressive when very young but their emotionality and expressiveness declines by 6 years old, suggesting socialization processes shape boys' emotional behavior that are deemed gender "appropriate" (Levant, 1998). As boys learn about the world around them, they are intensely learning what is acceptable behavior for their own gender and other genders, and these ideals become ingrained in young boys. They are taught (explicitly and implicitly), that boys should be emotionally restrictive (except for anger), physically aggressive, and avoid all things feminine. Developmental theories, such as gender schema theory (Bem, 1981; Martin & Halverson, 1981) support this assertation that children form schemas about gender from those around them and subsequently carry throughout their development. Boys are learning that they should be "like a man" and because our society deems femininity as less valued than masculinity, anything that does not fall under this male schema is considered "girly" or feminine. Thus, boys learn that feminine traits are undesirable and avoid them. The socialization of these restrictive attitudes and behaviors provides initial steps toward power differences between the sexes and boys begin to form GRC (O'Neil, 2015).

Further, O'Neil (2015) suggests that gender role transitions (i.e., events in gender role development that produce changes in one's gender role identity) are formative for boys and men to demonstrate, resolve, reevaluate, and integrate masculinity ideology. Thus, it can be argued that important developmental periods, including the transitions into adulthood or college, could stimulate GRC or possibly create more flexible gender or

masculinity attitudes. Gender role attitudes grow and shift throughout the lifespan, and these conceptions of gender role growth can either positively influence development or limit the person through restrictive gender role stereotypes (Newman & Newman, 2015). When young boys are socialized into rigid gender norms and are raised in homes that do not allow for positive growth (i.e., working through emotions, bonding with a trusting parent, etc.), boys may begin to develop gender norms that are dysfunctional. As boys grow into puberty, they need support and positive gender ideologies to manage their changing bodies, emotionality, and teen dating relationships. Without healthy gender ideologies, these developmental trajectories are not successfully completed, resulting in boys feeling restricted in their masculinity. In emerging adulthood, men must begin to manage independence, grow into an adult, balance school/work, and negotiate relationships. During this developmental transition, boys may stimulate GRC if these transitions are not successfully completed, resulting in feelings of restricted emotionality or success, power, and competition. When transitions in the lifespan are met with support, emotional maintenance, trust, and healthy masculinity conceptions, boys and men develop into healthy, successful adults without GRC. However, as stated by O'Neil (2015), developmental perspectives have not been applied to the GRC framework and calls for more work connecting GRC in developmental theories. Given that GRC and masculinity ideology similarly reside under the GRSP, it may be beneficial to examine GRC and masculinity ideology frameworks in tandem more often to understand how these constructs together may impact relationships. Integrating these two perspectives could provide researchers with a holistic view of how traditional masculinity works, as previous research almost exclusively focuses on either GRC or masculinity ideology.

Future Directions

Taken together, the findings from both studies can inform future relationship and masculinity work. It is evident that masculinity (whether masculinity is conceptualized as ideology or gender role conflict), is important and harmful for relationship well-being, but future work is needed to further substantiate these associations. Using other methodologies (i.e., dyadic, longitudinal, qualitative data) would help researchers to parse apart the nuances that may be present in emerging adults' conceptualization of masculinity and their perceptions of their intimate relationships. Specifically, gaining dyadic couple data is a crucial next step to identify actual couples' masculinity ideology, GRC, and their relationship outcomes by using the Actor-Partner-Interdependence-Model. Qualitative accounts would be beneficial to gain reports of men's and women's experiences of masculinity, men's GRC, and how they perceive their relationship well-being that can inform future work. Further, future research should investigate how mental health is attributed to men's and women's masculinity and relationships. Masculinity may relate to mental health problems that could in turn predict worse relationship experiences, but this is yet to be tested. Longitudinal work can help us investigate the long-term effects of masculinity ideology for emerging adults as they enter new stages in life (i.e., marriage, parenthood). Parents who adhere to traditional masculinity may perpetuate rigid gender norms to their children through socialization processes.

Clinical Implications

The current findings also provide implications for clinical and therapeutic settings. Clinicians working with couples could address men's and women's masculinity ideology and conformity to understand conflict or distress in the relationship.

Additionally, given the findings that male partner's masculinity is negatively associated with female's relationship well-being, clinicians can focus on how conforming to or endorsing masculine gender norms impacts both partners in the relationship.

Final Conclusions

In summary, research examining the association or impact of traditional masculinity on relationship experiences is stagnant. The current study provides important strides to understand how men's and women's masculinity ideology negatively can impact their relationship satisfaction, relationship self-efficacy, and sexual satisfaction. It also provides a crucial step toward understanding women's perspectives of their partner's masculinity and their relationship self-efficacy. The findings in the current dissertation adds to the literature that traditional masculinity ideology affects many arenas in life, specifically their intimate relationships.

TABLES

Table 1.1

Sample Demographics

	Percent	Mean	SD
Gender			
Male	33.5		
Female	66.5		
Age		21.10	2.35
(18 - 29)			
Race/Ethnicity			
White/Caucasian	51.9		
Black/African American	5.0		
Hispanic/Latino	14.0		
Asian/Asian American	14.5		
Middle Eastern	2.1		
Biracial or Multiracial	11.4		
Other race	1.0		
College Year			
Freshman	21.5		
Sophomore	19.6		
Junior	30.5		
Senior	27.0		
Graduate	1.4		
Other	1.4		
Political Ideology		2.67	1.04
Very Liberal	14.0		
Somewhat Liberal	30.0		
Moderate/Neutral	35.0		
Somewhat Conservative	16.9		
Very Conservative	4.1		
Religious Affiliation			
Catholic	19.0		
Christian	33.2		
Jewish	2.7		
Hindu	2.1		
Buddhist	4.3		
Muslim	1.2		
LDS/Mormon	2.9		
Atheist	21.0		
Other not specified	13.6		

Table 1.2

Correlations and Descriptive Information for all Major Study Variables and Subscales

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Masc. Ideology	-											
2. GRC (Men only)	.30**	-										
3. RABBM	.32**	.67**	-									
4. RE	.09	.70**	.34**	-								
5. CBWF	-.02	.62**	.07	.32**	-							
6. SPC	.34**	.58**	.32**	.14	.15	-						
7. RSE	-.08	-.26**	-.31**	-.22**	-.04	-.07	-					
8. Mutuality	-.08	-.45**	-.26**	-.23**	-.04	-.08	.96**	-				
9. Emot. Control	-.07	-.18*	-.23**	-.15	-.06	.01	.69**	.53**	-			
10. Diff. Beliefs	-.05	-.21*	-.31**	-.18*	.01	-.03	.82**	.70**	.51**	-		
11. Gender[a]	-.17**	c	c	c	c	c	.15**	.19**	-.11*	.16**	-	
12. E/R[b]	.06	.07	.08	.06	.01	.01	-.10*	-.10*	-.01	-.09	-.02	-
Mean	2.15	3.49	2.97	3.38	3.73	3.89	4.19	4.31	3.96	3.98	.66	.48
SD	0.48	0.75	1.27	1.12	1.22	1.10	0.59	0.63	0.79	0.71	0.47	0.50

Note. Masc. Ideology = Masculinity Ideology; GRC = Gender Role Conflict; RABBM = Restricted Affectionate Behavior Between Men; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations; SPC = Success, Power, Competition; RSE = Relationship Self-Efficacy; Emot. Control = Emotional Control; Diff. Beliefs = Differentiation Beliefs.
[a]E/R = Ethnicity/Race (coded 0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority).
[b] Gender coded 0 = males and 1= females.
[c]The gender role conflict scale and its subscales (RE, RABBM, CBWF, SPC) were assessed by men only.
**p < .01, *p < .05

Table 1.3

Correlations and Descriptive Information for all Major Study Variables and Subscales by Gender

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	*M*	SD
1. Masc. Ideology	-	b	b	b	b	b	-.09	-.07	-.10	-.04	.01	2.09	.43
2. GRC (Men only)	.30**	-	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b		
3. RABBM	.32**	.67**	-	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b		
4. RE	.09	.70**	.34**	-	b	b	b	b	b	b	b		
5. CBWF	-.02	.62**	.07	.32**	-	b	b	b	b	b	b		
6. SPC	.34**	.58**	.32**	.14	.15	-	b	b	b	b	b		
7. RSE	-.01	-.26**	-.31**	-.22**	-.04	-.07	-	.96**	.70**	.80**	-.13*	4.25	.52
8. Mutuality	-.02	-.25**	-.26**	-.23**	-.04	-.08	.97**	-	.52**	.64**	-.12	4.39	.56
9. Emot. Control	-.06	-.18*	-.23**	-.15	-.06	.01	.77**	.63**	-	.47**	-.03	3.90	.79
10. Diff. Beliefs	-.01	-.21*	-.31**	-.18*	.01	-.03	.85**	.73**	.66**	-	-.12*	4.06	.67
11. E/R[a]	.13	.07	.08	.06	.01	.01	-.05	-.08	.04	-.03	-	.47	.50
Mean	2.26	3.49	2.67	3.38	3.73	3.89	4.07	4.14	4.08	3.82	0.50		
SD	0.55	0.75	1.27	1.12	1.22	1.10	0.68	0.74	0.79	0.76	0.50		

Note. Correlations for men are below the diagonal and correlations for women are above the diagonal. Masc. Ideology = Masculinity Ideology; GRC = Gender Role Conflict; RABBM = Restricted Affectionate Behavior Between Men; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations; SPC = Success, Power, Competition; RSE = Relationship Self-Efficacy; Emot. Control = Emotional Control; Diff. Beliefs = Differentiation Beliefs.
[a]E/R = Ethnicity/Race (coded 0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority).
[b]The gender role conflict scale and its subscales (RE, RABBM, CBWF, SPC) were assessed by men only.
**p < .01, *p < .05

Table 1.4

Regression Coefficients for Gender Moderation of Masculinity Ideology and Relationship Self-Efficacy

Variable	B	SE	β	P-Value	R^2	F
Step 1					.01	3.96*
E/R[a]	-.11	.06	-.10	.047		
Step 2					.03	5.13**
E/R[a]	-.11	.06	-.09	.057		
Gender	.17	.06	.14	<.01		
Masculinity[b]	-.03	.03	-.05	.329		
Step 3	-.11	.06	-.09		.04	0.77
E/R[a]				.053		
Gender	.18	.06	.14	<.01		
Masculinity	.00	.04	-.001	.991		
Gender x Masculinity	-.05	.06	-.06	.379		

Note. White is the reference group.

[a] E/R = Ethnicity/Race. Coded 0 = White and 1 = ethnic/racial minority.

[b] Centered at the mean.

**$p < .01$, *$p < .05$.

Table 1.5

Regression Estimates of Gender Role Conflict Predicting Relationship Self-Efficacy

Variable	B	SE	β	*P*-Value	R^2	*F*
Step 1					.003	0.35
E/R[a]	-.07	.12	-.05	.555		
Step 2					.07	9.33**
E/R[a]	-.05	.11	-.04	.639		
GRC[b]	-.17	.06	-.25	<.01		

Note. [a] E/R = ethnicity/race. Coded 0 = White and 1 = ethnic/racial minority.
[b] GRC = gender role conflict (centered at the mean).
**p < .01, *p < .05.

Table 1.6

Regression Coefficients for the Gender Role Conflict Subscales on Relationship Self-Efficacy

Variable	B	SE	β	P-Value	R^2	F
Step 1					.003	0.35
E/R[a]	-.07	.12	-.05	.555		
Step 2					.11	4.07**
E/R[a]	-.03	.11	-.02	.798		
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men[b]	-.18	.06	-.26**	<.01		
Restrictive Emotionality[b]	-.10	.06	-.15	.110		
Conflict Between Work and Family Relations[b]	.03	.06	.04	.624		
Success, Power, Control[b]	.00	.06	-.001	.995		

Note. [a] E/R = ethnicity/race. Coded 0 = White and 1 = ethnic/racial minority.
[b] Centered at the mean.
**$p < .01$, *$p < .05$.

Table 1.7

ANCOVA Tests of Between Subjects for Gender Differences in Relationship Self-Efficacy Scale and Subscales

Measure	M (SD)	F	P-Value
RSE total		9.30	.002
Men	4.07 (.05)		
Women	4.25 (.35)		
Mutuality		15.95	<.001
Men	4.15 (.52)		
Women	4.40 (.04)		
Emotional Control		3.70	.06
Men	4.07 (.07)		
Women	3.91 (.05)		
Differentiation		10.09	.002
Men	3.83 (.06)		
Women	4.06 (.04)		

Note. Controlling for ethnicity/race (0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority). RSE total = relationship self-efficacy total scale.

Table 2.1

Sample Demographics

	Percent	Mean	SD
Gender			
Male	40.6		
Female	59.4		
Age		25.10	2.63
(18 - 29)			
Race/Ethnicity			
White/Caucasian	71.9		
Black/African American	6.9		
Hispanic/Latino	1.3		
Asian/Asian American	9.4		
Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander	2.8		
Middle Eastern	1.5		
American Indian or Alaska Native	1.8		
Biracial or Multiracial	4.1		
Other	0.3		
College Status			
Yes	36.0		
Freshman	7.8		
Sophomore	12.8		
Junior	13.5		
Senior	18.4		
Graduate	43.3		
Other	4.3		
No	64.0		
Pell Grant Status			
Yes	32.6		
No	46.1		
Not Sure	21.3		
Annual Household Income			
Less than $10,000	0.4		
$10,000 - $19,999	0.8		
$20,000 - $29,999	4.8		
$30,000 - $39,999	12.4		
$40,000 - $49,999	26.7		
$50,000 - $59,999	22.3		
$60,000 - $69,999	7.2		
$70,000 - $79,999	7.6		
$80,000 - $89,999	2.8		
$90,000 - $99,999	2.0		
$100,000 - $149,999	9.6		
$150,000 or more	3.6		
Political Ideology			
Very Liberal	23.0		
Somewhat Liberal	32.4		
Moderate/Neutral	22.4		
Somewhat Conservative	14.8		
Very Conservative	7.4		

Religious Affiliation

Catholic	10.2
Christian	26.0
Jewish	7.4
Hindu	4.1
Buddhist	1.3
Muslim	1.5
LDS/Mormon	3.6
Atheist/Agnostic	11.2
Not Religious	33.2
Other	1.5

Relationship Duration

3 - 6 months	5.6
6 months – 1 year	13.8
1 year – 2 years	32.4
2 - 3 years	19.1
3 - 4 years	12.5
5 - 9 years	14.0
10+ years	2.6

Relationship Status

Married	18.1
Engaged	9.9
In a committed relationship	71.9

Table 2.2

Descriptive Information and Correlations for Study Variables for Total Sample

Measure	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. Masculinity	-								
2. GRC (Men only)	.55**	-							
3. Partner GRC (Women only)	.30**	b	-						
4. Gender	.45**	b	b	-					
5. RS	-.51**	-.03	-.33**	-.32**	-				
6. RSE	-.44**	.01	-.34**	-.37**	.87**	-			
7. SS	-.19**	.13	-.22*	-.20**	.67**	.72**	-		
8. Rel. Length	-.39**	-.14	.01	-.18**	.36**	.30**	.10	-	
9. College Status	.000	.21**	.14	.14**	.17**	.24**	.20**	.05	-
10. E/R	.26**	.23**	.15	-.03	-.09	-.004	.05	-.12*	-.28**
Mean	1.45	1.89	1.50		109.70	3.23	2.34		
SD	0.74	0.48	0.72		31.00	0.92	0.75		
Min/Max	0/3.38	0/3	0/3.63		34/161	0.72/4.96	0.50/4		
Skew	-0.01	-0.13	0.25		0.13	0.16	0.51		
Kurtosis	-0.73	1.00	0.10		-1.42	-1.16	-0.57		

Note. Gender coded as 0 = female, 1 = male. GRC = gender role conflict. RSE = relationship self-efficacy. Partner GRC = women's perceived partner's gender role conflict. SS= Sexual satisfaction. RS = Relationship satisfaction. E/R = ethnicity/race (coded 0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority). College status coded 0 = not in college, 1 = yes in college. Rel. Length = relationship length (1 = 3-6 months; 2 = 6 months to 1 year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = 5 to 9 years; 7 = 10 or more years).
[b] not available because those variables are answered by men only or women only.
**p < .01, *p < .05

Table 2.3

Descriptive Information and Correlations for Study Variables Split by Gender

Measure	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	M	SD
1. Masculinity	-	-.43**	b	.30**	-.18**	-.53**	.06	.39**	.33**	1.17	.73
2. RSE	-.12	-	b	-.34**	.66**	.82**	.12	.31**	-.11	3.50	.87
3. GRC (Men only)	.55**	.01	-	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
4. Partner GRC (Women only)	b	b	b	-	-.22*	-.33**	.14	.01	.15	1.50	.72
5. SS	.01	.78**	.12		-	.60**	.06	.11	-.01	2.47	.80
6. RS	-.21**	.93**	-.03	b	.75**	-	.05	-.38**	-.13*	117.71	30.59
7. College Status	.11	.31**	.21**	b	.38**	.26**	-	.07	.20**	.58	.49
8. Rel. Length	-.27**	.14	-.14	b	-.02	.19*	.10	-	-.14*	3.94	1.61
9. E/R	.25**	.12	.23**	b	.13	-.05	.39**	-.11	-	.29	.46
Mean	1.85	2.82	1.89	b	2.17	97.81	.72	3.38	.26		
SD	.56	.84	.48	b	.66	27.64	.45	1.22	.44		

Note. Correlations and means for women are above the diagonal (*n* = 233); correlations and means for men (*n* =159) are below the diagonal.
[b] not available because those variables are answered by men only or women only. Gender coded as 0 = female, 1 = male. GRC = gender role conflict. RSE = relationship self-efficacy. Partner GRC = women's perceived partner's gender role conflict. SS = sexual satisfaction. RS = relationship satisfaction. E/R = ethnicity/race (coded 0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority). College status coded 0 = not in college, 1 = yes in college. Rel. Length = relationship length (1 = 3-6 months; 2 = 6 months to 1 year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = 5 to 9 years; 7 = 10 or more years).
**p* < .01, *p* < .05

Table 2.4

Descriptive Information and Correlations for Study Variables Split by College Status

Measure	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	M	SD
1. Masculinity	-	-.31**	.53**	.27	-.07	-.43*	.40**	-.32**	.47**	1.45	.85
2. RSE	-.54**	-	-.26	-.50**	.67**	.85**	-.21*	.13	-.29**	3.52	.81
3. GRC (Men only)	.55**	.04	-	b	-.11	-.27	b	.06	.46**	2.05	.54
4. Partner GRC (Women only)	.33**	-.34	b	-	-.19	-.34*	b	-.03	.29*	1.61	.69
5. SS	-.29**	.72**	.11	-.25	-	.62**	.04	-.08	-.16	2.54	.69
6. RS	-.57**	.88**	.02	-.33**	.68**	-	-.16	-.24**	-.40**	116.48	30.00
7. Gender	.50**	-.40**	b	b	-.27**	-.37**	-	-.19*	.13	.31	.47
8. Rel. Length	-.45**	.42**	-.23*	.08	.22**	-.45**	-.20**	-	-.18*	3.61	1.54
9. E/R	.09	.06	-.03	.03	.09	.04	-.07	-.06	-	.45	.50
Mean	1.45	3.06	1.83	1.41	2.23	105.80	.46	3.77	.19		
SD	.68	.94	.44	.74	.77	.50	1.46	.39			

Note. Correlations and means for non-college individuals are below the diagonal (n = 251); correlations and means for college students (n =141) are above the diagonal.
[b] not available because those variables are answered by men only or women only. Gender coded as 0 = female, 1 = male. GRC = gender role conflict. RSE = relationship self-efficacy. Partner GRC = women's perceived partner's gender role conflict. SS = sexual satisfaction scale. RS = relationship satisfaction. E/R = ethnicity/race (coded 0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority). Gender coded 0 = female, 1 = male. Rel. Length = relationship length (1 = 3-6 months; 2 = 6 months to 1 year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = 5 to 9 years; 7 = 10 or more years).
**p < .01, *p < .05

Table 2.5

Regression Coefficients Illustrating the Relations of Masculinity Ideology to Relationship Outcomes for Men and Women

	Relationship Satisfaction				Relationship Self-Efficacy				Sexual Satisfaction			
	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F
Step 1			.17	26.61**			.16	23.27**			.05	6.462**
E/R	-.10 (3.33)	.04			-.04 (.10)	.399			.002 (.09)	.968		
Rel. Length	.36 (0.97)	< .001			.31 (.03)	< .001			.11 (.03)	.03		
College	.21 (3.10)	< .001			.26 (.09)	< .001			.21 (.09)	<.001		
Step 2			.32	42.57**			.29	36.35**			.09	6.88*
E/R	-.01 (3.15)	.803			.03 (.10)	.538			.03 (.09)	.564		
Rel. Length	.20 (0.95)	< .001			.17 (.03)	< .01			.04 (.03)	.510		
College	.17 (2.85)	< .001			.21 (.09)	< .001			.18 (.09)	< .01		
Gender	-.08 (3.03)	.092			-.16 (.09)	< .01			-.09 (.09)	.12		
Masculinity[a]	-.39 (1.62)	< .001			-.30 (.05)	< .001			-.15 (.05)	.02		
Step 3			.33	5.73*			.30	4.12*			.09	2.03
E/R	-.01 (3.13)	.839			.03 (.10)	.509			.03 (.09)	.548		
Rel. Length	.19 (0.95)	< .001			.16 (.03)	< .01			.03 (.03)	.557		
College	.16 (2.83)	< .001			.20 (.09)	< .001			.18 (.09)	< .01		
Gender	-.12 (3.14)	.02			-.19 (.10)	< .001			-.12 (.09)	.05		
Masculinity	-.46 (1.88)	< .001			-.37 (.06)	< .001			-.20 (.06)	.01		
Gender x Masculinity	.14 (3.20)	.02			.12 (.10)	.04			.10 (.10)	.16		

Note. [a] Masculinity ideology is mean centered. Rel. Length = relationship length (rated from 1 = 3-6 months to 7 = 10 plus years0 = not in college, 1 = yes in college. E/R = ethnicity/race (0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority). Gender coded 0 = female, 1 = male. **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$.

Table 2.6

Regression Coefficients Illustrating the Relation of Gender Role Conflict on Relationship Outcomes for Men

	Relationship Satisfaction				Relationship Self-Efficacy				Sexual Satisfaction			
	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F
Step 1			.13	7.30**			.13	7.18**			.12	6.99**
E/R	-.14 (5.06)	.106			.03 (.16)	.753			.001 (.12)	.990		
Rel. Length	.22 (1.71)	.01			.17 (.05)	.028			.03 (.04)	.659		
College	.31 (5.04)	< .001			.32 (.16)	< .001			.35 (.12)	< .001		
Step 2			.13	0.20			.13	0.14			.13	0.35
E/R	-.13 (5.13)	.189			.03 (.16)	.714			-.01 (.12)	.942		
Rel. Length	.22 (1.73)	.01			.17 (.05)	.033			.04 (.04)	.589		
College	.32 (5.10)	< .001			.32 (.16)	< .001			.34 (.13)	< .001		
GRC[a]	-.04 (2.13)	.658			-.03 (.07)	.713			.05 (.05)	.554		

Note. E/R = ethnicity/race (0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority). GRC = Gender Role Conflict. Rel. Length = relationship length (rated from 1 = 3-6 months to 7 = 10 plus years). College coded as 0 = not in college, 1 = yes in college.
[a]GRC is mean centered.
**$p < .01$, *$p < .05$.

Table 2.7

Regression Coefficients Illustrating the Moderating Role of Perceived Partner GRC on the Relation Between Women's Masculinity Ideology and Relationship Outcomes

	Relationship Satisfaction				Relationship Self-Efficacy				Sexual Satisfaction			
	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F	β (SE)	P-Value	R^2	F
Step 1			.02	0.58			.04	1.67			.02	0.78
E/R	-.05 (4.77)	.622			-.19 (.16)	.04			-.08 (.20)	.394		
Rel. Length	.11 (1.09)	.236			.05 (.04)	.565			-.13 (.05)	.197		
College	.02 (3.78)	.895			.03 (.13)	.753			-.02 (.17)	.869		
Step 2			.13	7.76**			.15	7.80**			.10	4.25*
E/R	.002 (4.58)	.985			-.15 (.15)	.088			-.07 (.20)	.450		
Rel. Length	.13 (1.06)	.136			.09 (.04)	.336			-.08 (.05)	.417		
College	.07 (3.63)	.437			.08 (.12)	.338			.04 (.16)	.696		
Partner GRC	-.36 (1.90)	<.001			-.36 (.06)	<.001			-.28 (.09)	<.01		
Masculinity[a]	.05 (2.64)	.629			.10 (.09)	.300			.19 (.12)	.069		
Step 3			.15	2.59			.20	7.02**			.10	0.61
E/R	-.003 (4.55)	.973			-.16 (.15)	.068			-.07 (.20)	.442		
Rel. Length	.14 (1.05)	.111			.10 (.04)	.252			-.08 (.05)	.439		
College	.08 (3.62)	.362			.10 (.12)	.230			.05 (.17)	.639		
Partner GRC	-.21 (2.65)	.104			-.13 (.09)	.312			-.20 (.13)	.174		
Masculinity[a]	.02 (2.66)	.843			.05 (.09)	.558			.16 (.12)	.128		
Partner GRC x Masculinity	.20 (2.37)	.110			.32 (.08)	< .01			.11 (.11)	.437		

Note. ER = ethnicity/race (0 = White, 1 = ethnic/racial minority). Rel. Length = relationship length (rated from 1 = 3-6 months to 7 = 10 plus years). College coded as 0 = not in college, 1 = yes in college.
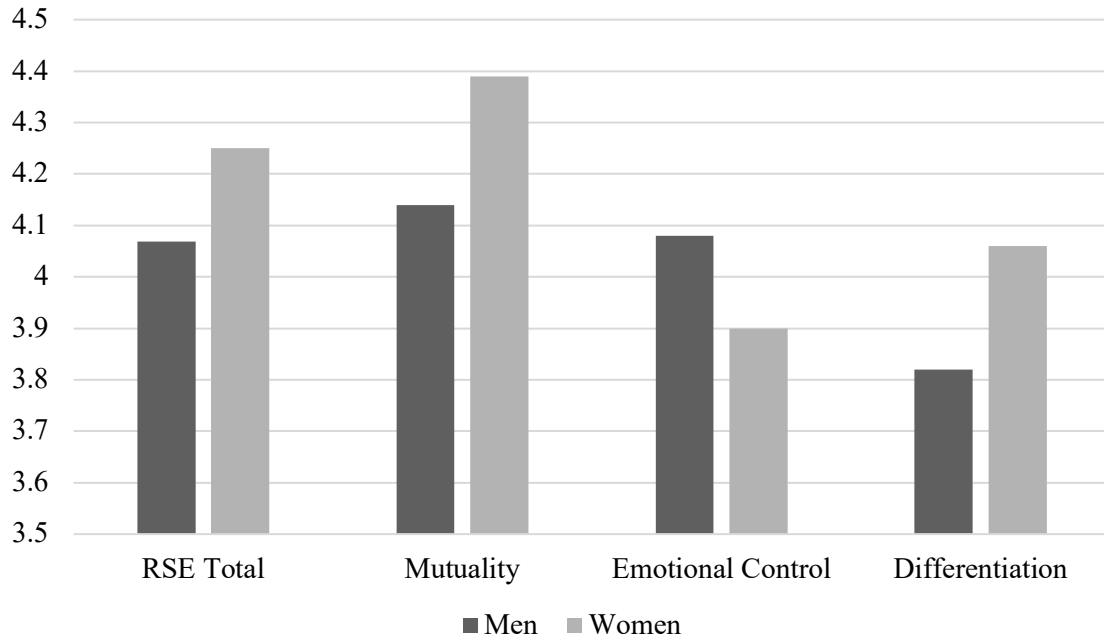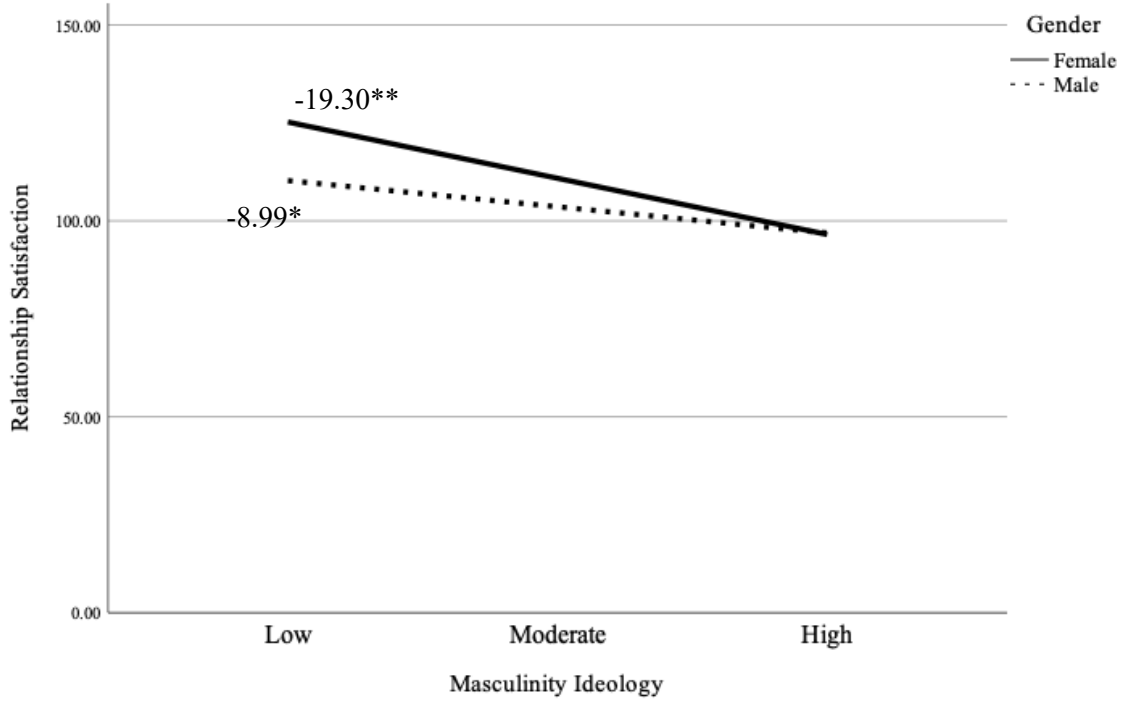[a] Masculinity is mean centered.
**p < .01, *p < .05.

Figures

Figure 1.1

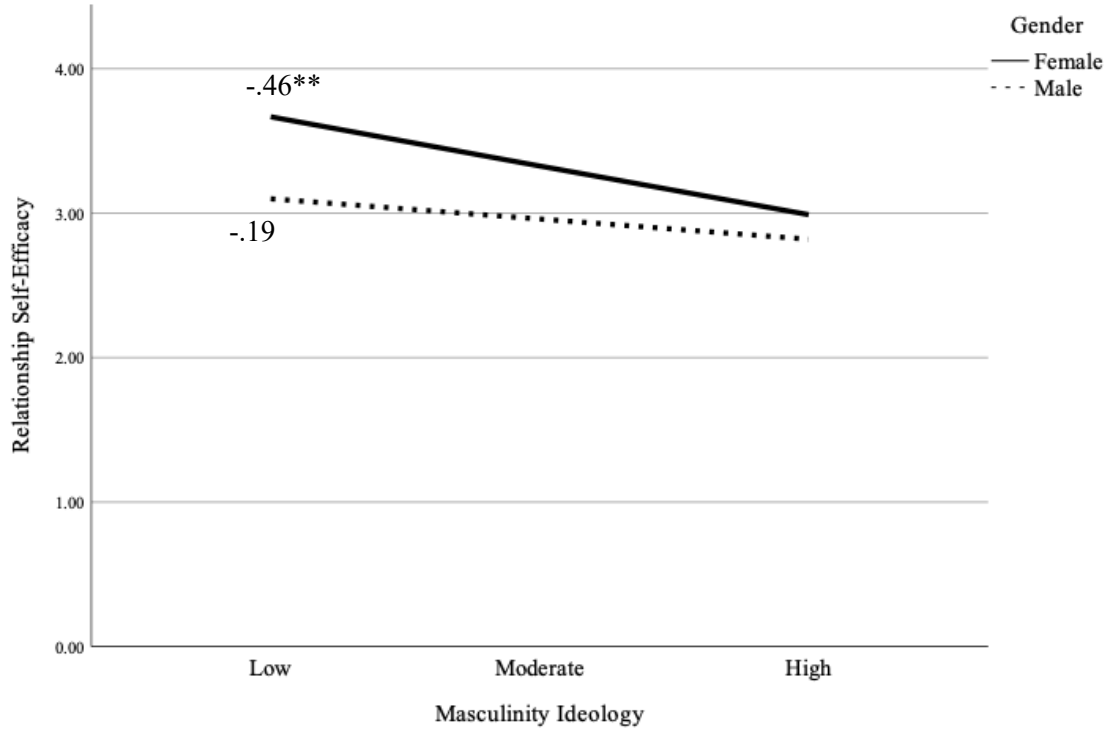*Gender Differences in the Relationship Self-Efficacy Scale and Subscales*

Figure 2.1

Simple Slopes by Gender For Relationship Satisfaction
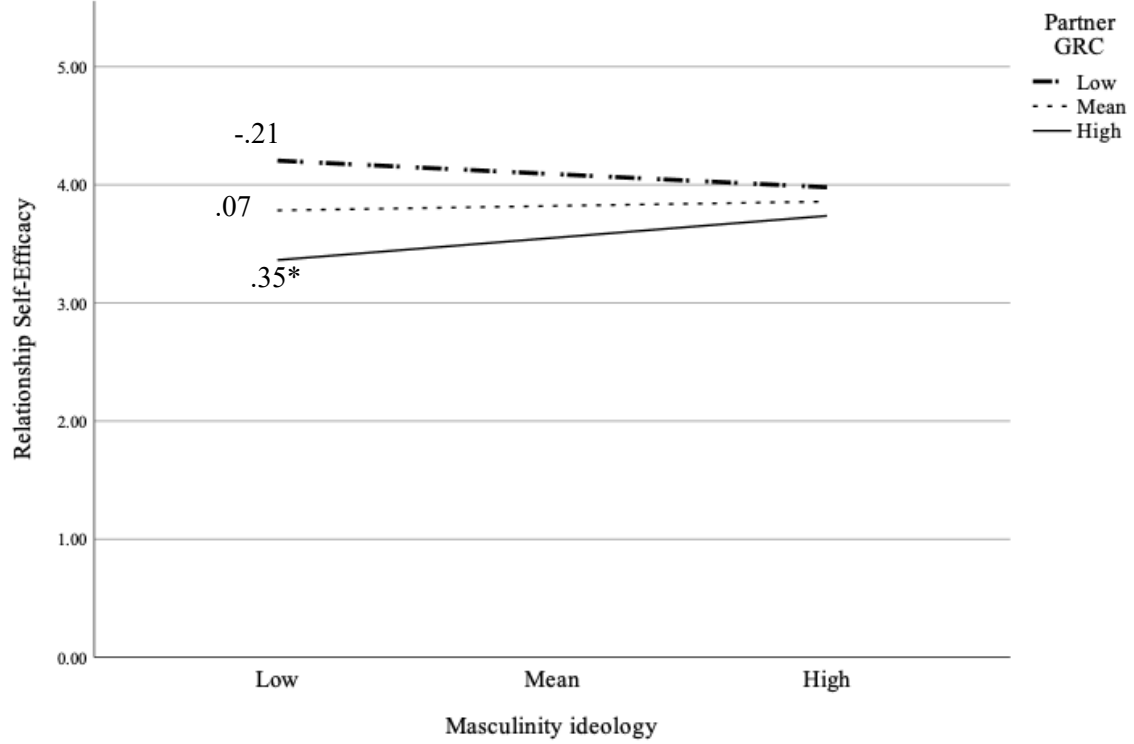

Note. **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$.

Figure 2.2

Simple Slopes of Gender for Relationship Self-Efficacy

Note. **p < .01, *p < .05.

Figure 2.3

Simple Slopes of Partner GRC for Women's Relationship Self-Efficacy

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APPENDIX A

STUDY 1 LIST OF MEASURES

Male Role Attitudes Scale (MRAS)

4-point Likert scale (1 = agree a lot, 2 = agree a little, 3 = disagree a little, 4 = disagree a lot)

1. It is essential for a guy to get respect from others.
2. I admire a guy who is totally sure of himself.
3. A young man should be physically tough, even if he's not big.
4. It bothers me when a guy acts like a girl.
5. I don't think a husband should have to do housework.
6. A man always deserves the respect of his wife and children.
7. A guy will lose respect if he talks about his problems.
8. Men are always ready for sex.

Gender Role Conflict Scale Short Form (GRCS-SF)

Rate agreement with each item on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree)

1. Affection with other men makes me tense. RAB
2. Talking (about my feelings) during sexual relations is difficult for me. RE
3. I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner. RE
4. Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable. RAB
5. Finding time to relax is difficult for me. CWF
6. I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings. RE
7. Hugging other men is difficult for me. RAB
8. Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth SPC
9. My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like. CWF
10. I strive to be successful than others. SPC
11. I do not like to show my emotions to other people. RE
12. My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life (home, health, leisure, etc.). CWF
13. Being very personal with other men makes me feel uncomfortable. RAB
14. Being smarter or physically stronger than other men is important to me. SPC
15. Overwork and stress, caused by a need to achieve on the job or in school, affects/hurts my life. CWF
16. I like to feel superior to other people. SPC

Relationship Self-Efficacy Scale (RSES)

5-point Likert scale assessing respondents' "level of confidence that you are able to engage in ach behavior within the context of your present romantic relationship" (1 = not at all to 5 = completely sure)

1. Deal with important disagreements openly and directly
2. Share equally with your partner in planning activities together
3. Express openly to your partner your hopes for the future of the relationship
4. Let your partner take care of you when you are ill

5. Deal with your partner when he or she is angry or upset with you
6. Comfort your partner when he or she is angry or upset with someone else
7. Tell your partner when you would prefer to be alone
8. Express affection to your partner freely and comfortably
9. Accept your partner's affection freely and comfortably
10. Express your views and preferences regarding sex to your partner
11. Offer criticism to your partner without hurting his or her feelings
12. Accept criticism from our partner without attacking/challenging him or her
13. Tell your partner when you would prefer to spend time with other friends
14. Comfort your partner when he or she is "down" or depressed
15. Put time into developing shared interests with your partner
16. Be available to your partner when he or she needs you
17. Control your temper when angry or frustrated with your partner
18. Find ways to work out "everyday" problems with your partner
19. Anticipate when your partner needs your support
20. Accept your partner's support when you are "down" or depressed
21. Allow your partner to "take charge" of things when you are feeling upset or confused
22. Tell your partner when you feel you are unable to solve a personal problem
23. Stay calm when you and your partner are having a serious argument
24. Show respect to your partner when you disagree with his or her opinions
25. Allow your partner to calm you down when you feel stressed

APPENDIX B

STUDY 2 SURVEY ITEMS AND MEASURES

What is your marital status?
    1. Married
    2. Not married but engaged
    3. Not married, but in a committed relationship
    4. Dating, not in a committed relationship
    5. Single

How long have you been with your current partner (if married, combine time dating plus time married)?
    1. 0-3 months
    2. 3-6 months
    3. 6 months – 1 year
    4. 1 year- 2 years
    5. 2 – 3 years
    6. 3 – 4 years
    7. 5 – 9 years
    8. 10+ years

Are you currently in a monogamous relationship (one partner)?
    1. Yes, I am in a monogamous relationship
    2. No, I am not in a monogamous relationship (I have multiple partners)

What is your age? ___

What is your racial identity?
    1. Asian/Asian American
    2. Black/African American
    3. Caucasian/White
    4. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
    5. Middle Eastern
    6. American Indian or Alaska Native
    7. Multiracial/Biracial
    8. Other ___

Are you of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin?
    1. No, not of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin
    2. Yes, Mexican, Mexican American, Chicano
    3. Yes, Puerto Rican
    4. Yes, Cuban
    5. Yes, another origin___

Sexual Orientation
    1. Straight/heterosexual
    2. Gay
    3. Lesbian
    4. Bisexual
    5. Other ___

Gender identity
    1. Female
    2. Male
    3. Transgender male

4. Transgender female

5. Non-Binary

6. Other___

What is your partner's gender identity?

    1. Female

    2. Male

    3. Transgender male

    4. Transgender female

    5. Non-Binary

    6. Other___

What is your partner's sexual orientation?

    1. Straight/heterosexual

    2. Gay

    3. Lesbian

    4. Bisexual

    5. Other ___

Are you attend college or university?

    1. Yes

    2. No

    Year in college

        1. Freshman

        2. Sophomore

        3. Junior

        4. Senior

        5. Graduate Student

        6. Other____

    Major___

Which of these is closest to your political ideology?

    1. Very liberal

    2. Somewhat liberal

    3. Moderate/neutral

    4. Somewhat conservative

    5. Very conservative

Religion

    1. Catholic

    2. Christian (non-Catholic)

    3. Jewish

    4. Hindu

    5. Buddhist

    6. Muslim

    7. LDS/Mormon

    8. Atheist/Agnostic

    9. Other___

If you are a college student, do you qualify for a Pell grant?

    1. Yes

2. No
3. Not sure

If you are not a college student, what is your annual household income?

> Less than $10,000
> $10,000 to $19,999
> $20,000 to $29,999
> $30,000 to $39,999
> $40,000 to $49,999
> $50,000 to $59,999
> $60,000 to $69,999
> $70,000 to $79,999
> $80,000 to $89,999
> $90,000 to $99,999
> $100,000 to $149,999
> $150,000 or more

How masculine do you consider yourself?

> 1. Not at all masculine
> 2. Not very masculine
> 3. A little masculine
> 4. Somewhat masculine
> 5. Very masculine

How feminine do you consider yourself?

> 1. Not at all feminine
> 2. Not very feminine
> 3. A little feminine
> 4. Somewhat feminine
> 5. Very feminine

What is the extent to which you believe contraception or preventing pregnancy is your responsibility compared to your partner?

> (1) Not at all my responsibility (all my partner's responsibility)
> (2) somewhat my responsibility (mostly my partner's responsibility)
> (3) Equally both my and my partners' responsibility
> (4) More my responsibility (less my partner's responsibility)
> (5) All my responsibility (not at all my partner's responsibility)

How similar do you feel to women[men]?
5-point overlapping circles scale (0=farthest apart, 4=overlapping)
How much do you act like women[men]?
5-point overlapping circles scale (0=farthest apart, 4=overlapping)
How much do you like to do the same things as women[men]?
5-point overlapping circles scale (0=farthest apart, 4=overlapping)

Masculine Role Norms Scale
Thompson & Pleck, 1986
1=Disagree, 2=Slightly Disagree, 3= Neither Agree nor disagree, 4=Slightly Agree, 5=Agree

1. Success in his work has to be man's central goal in this life.
2. The best way for a young man to get the respect of other people is to get a job, take it seriously, and do it well.
3. A man owes it to his family to work at the best-paying job he can get.
4. A man should generally work overtime to make more money whenever he has the chance.
5. A man always deserves the respect of his wife and children.
6. It is essential for a man to always have the respect and admiration of everyone who knows him.
7. A man should never back down in the face of trouble.
8. I always like a man who's totally sure of himself.
9. A man should always think everything out coolly and logically, and have rational reasons for everything he does.
10. A man should always try to project an air of confidence even if he really doesn't feel confident inside.
11. A man must stand on his own two feet and never depend on other people to help him do things.
12. When a man is feeling pain he should not let it show.
13. Nobody respects a man very much who frequently talks about his worries, fears, and problems.
14. A good motto for a man would be "When the going gets tough, the tough get going."
15. I think a young man should try to become physically tough, even if he's not big.
16. Fists are sometimes the only way to get out of a bad situation.
17. A real man enjoys a bit of danger now and then
18. In some kinds of situations a man should be ready to use his fists, even if his wife or his girlfriend would object.
19. A man should always refuse to get into a fight, even if there seems to be no way to avoid it.
20. It bothers me when a man does something that I consider "feminine"
21. A man whose hobbies are cooking, sewing, and going to the ballet probably wouldn't appeal to me
22. It is a bit embarrassing for a man to have a job that is usually filled by a woman.
23. Unless he was really desperate, I would probably advise a man to keep looking rather than accept a job as a secretary
24. If I heard about a man who was a hairdresser or a gourmet cook, I might wonder how masculine he was.
25. I think it's extremely good for a boy to be taught to cook, sew, clean the house, and take care of younger children.
26. I might find it a little silly or embarrassing if a male friend of mine cried over a sad love scene in a movie.

Relationship Self-Efficacy Scale
    5-point Likert scale assessing respondents' "level of confidence that you are able to engage in each behavior within the context of your present romantic relationship" (1 = not at all to 5 = completely sure)

26. Deal with important disagreements openly and directly
27. Share equally with your partner in planning activities together
28. Express openly to your partner your hopes for the future of the relationship
29. Let your partner take care of you when you are ill
30. Deal with your partner when he or she is angry or upset with you
31. Comfort your partner when he or she is angry or upset with someone else
32. Tell your partner when you would prefer to be alone
33. Express affection to your partner freely and comfortably
34. Accept your partner's affection freely and comfortably
35. Express your views and preferences regarding sex to your partner
36. Offer criticism to your partner without hurting his or her feelings
37. Accept criticism from our partner without attacking/challenging him or her
38. Tell your partner when you would prefer to spend time with other friends
39. Comfort your partner when he or she is "down" or depressed
40. Put time into developing shared interests with your partner
41. Be available to your partner when he or she needs you
42. Control your temper when angry or frustrated with your partner
43. Find ways to work out "everyday" problems with your partner
44. Anticipate when your partner needs your support
45. Accept your partner's support when you are "down" or depressed
46. Allow your partner to "take charge" of things when you are feeling upset or confused
47. Tell your partner when you feel you are unable to solve a personal problem
48. Stay calm when you and your partner are having a serious argument
49. Show respect to your partner when you disagree with his or her opinions
50. Allow your partner to calm you down when you feel stressed

Internalized Sexualization Scale
    Women only. Rate agree from 0 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree
1. I would sleep with a guy who is good looking and popular even if I didn't like him that much.
2. I want to look attractive so that I can be popular.
3. I exercise to look more attractive to guys.
4. I can get guys to do what I want by flirting with them.
5. I have dieted (or considered dieting) so that guys will think that I look attractive.
6. The best way to get a guy to like you is to flirt with him.
7. I would hang out with a guy I didn't like if he were really popular.
8. The best way to get a guy to like you is to look attractive.
9. I wake up early to put on makeup, even though I would rather sleep in.
10. If a guy I liked told me that he would like my hair a certain way, I would change it for him.
11. It's easier for women who look attractive to get people to like them than women who don't look attractive.
12. It can be good to have large breasts to get guys to do what you want.

13. I would wear a shirt my friends say looks good on me, even if I didn't like how much skin was showing.
14. I have spent money on makeup or clothing instead of other things that I want.
15. I have used my looks to get people's attention.

Couples Satisfaction Index

Please indicate the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

Extremely Unhappy	Fairly Unhappy	A Little Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy	Perfect
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Most people have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasion- ally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
2. Amount of time spent together	5	4	3	2	1	0
3. Making major decisions	5	4	3	2	1	0
4. Demonstrations of affection	5	4	3	2	1	0

	All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occa- sionally	Rarely	Never
5. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	5	4	3	2	1	0
6. How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?	0	1	2	3	4	5

	Not at all TRUE	A little TRUE	Some- what TRUE	Mostly TRUE	Almost Comple tely TRUE	Compl- etely TRUE
7. I still feel a strong connection with my partner	0	1	2	3	4	5
8. If I had my life to live over, I would marry (or live with / date) the same person	0	1	2	3	4	5
9. Our relationship is strong	0	1	2	3	4	5
10. I sometimes wonder if there is someone else out there for me	5	4	3	2	1	0
11. My relationship with my partner makes me happy	0	1	2	3	4	5

12. I have a warm and comfortable relationship with my partner	0	1	2	3	4	5
13. I can't imagine ending my relationship with my partner	0	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel that I can confide in my partner about virtually anything	0	1	2	3	4	5
15. I have had second thoughts about this relationship recently	5	4	3	2	1	0
16. For me, my partner is the perfect romantic partner	0	1	2	3	4	5
17. I really feel like **part of a team** with my partner	0	1	2	3	4	5
18. I cannot imagine another person making me as happy as my partner does	0	1	2	3	4	5

	Not at all	A little	Some- what	Mostly	Almost Compl- etely	Compl- etely
19. How rewarding is your relationship with your partner?	0	1	2	3	4	5
20. How well does your partner meet your needs?	0	1	2	3	4	5
21. To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?	0	1	2	3	4	5
22. In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?	0	1	2	3	4	5

	Worse than all others (Extremely bad)			Better than all others (Extremely good)	
23. How good is your relationship compared to most?	0 1 2	3	4 5		

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
24. Do you enjoy your partner's company?	0	1	2	3	4	5
25. How often do you and your partner have fun together?	0	1	2	3	4	5

For each of the following items, select the answer that best describes *how you feel about your relationship*. Base your responses on your first impressions and immediate feelings about the item.

INTERESTING	5	4	3	2	1	0	BORING
BAD	0	1	2	3	4	5	GOOD

FULL	5	4	3	2	1	0	EMPTY
LONELY	0	1	2	3	4	5	FRIENDLY
STURDY	5	4	3	2	1	0	FRAGILE
DISCOURAGING	0	1	2	3	4	5	HOPEFUL
ENJOYABLE	5	4	3	2	1	0	MISERABLE

Gender Role Conflict Scale Short Form

Men only. Rate agreement with each item on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree)

1. Affection with other men makes me tense.
2. Talking (about my feelings) during sexual relations is difficult for me.
3. I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner.
4. Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable.
5. Finding time to relax is difficult for me.
6. I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings.
7. Hugging other men is difficult for me.
8. Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth
9. My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like.
10. I strive to be successful than others.
11. I do not like to show my emotions to other people.
12. My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life (home, health, leisure, etc.).
13. Being very personal with other men makes me feel uncomfortable.
14. Being smarter or physically stronger than other men is important to me.
15. Overwork and stress, caused by a need to achieve on the job or in school, affects/hurts my life.
16. I like to feel superior to other people.

Revised Gender Role Conflict Scale Short Form

Women only. When thinking about your current partner, rate agreement with each item on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree)

1. Affection with other men makes them tense.
2. Talking (about their feelings) during sexual relations is difficult for them.
3. They have difficulty expressing their emotional needs to their partner.
4. Men who touch other men make them uncomfortable.
5. Finding time to relax is difficult for them.
6. They have difficulty expressing their tender feelings.
7. Hugging other men is difficult for them.
8. Winning is a measure of their value and personal worth
9. Their needs to work or study keep them from their family or leisure more than they would probably like.
10. They strive to be successful than others.

11. They do not like to show their emotions to other people.
12. Their work or school often disrupts other parts of their life (home, health, leisure, etc.).
13. Being very personal with other men makes them feel uncomfortable.
14. Being smarter or physically stronger than other men is important to them.
15. Overwork and stress, caused by a need to achieve on the job or in school, affects/hurts their life.
16. They like to feel superior to other people.

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

Are you engaging in sexual activity with your current partner?
1. Yes, I am engaging in sexual activity with my current partner
2. No, I am not engaging in sexual activity with my current partner

New Sexual Satisfaction Scale (NSSS)

Thinking about your sex life during the last six months please rather your satisfaction with the follow aspects. (0=not at all satisfied to 5=extremely satisfied).

1. The intensity of my sexual arousal.
2. The quality of my orgasms.
3. My "letting go" and surrender to sexual pleasure during sex.
4. My focus/concentration during sexual activity.
5. The way I sexually react to my partner.
6. My body's sexual functioning.
7. My emotional opening up in sex.
8. My mood after sexual activity.
9. The frequency of my orgasms.
10. The pleasure I provide to my partner.
11. The balance between what I give and receive in sex.
12. My partner's emotional opening up during sex.
13. My partner's initiation of sexual activity.
14. My partner's ability to orgasm.
15. My partner's surrender to sexual pleasure ("letting go").
16. The way my partner takes care of my sexual needs.
17. My partner's sexual creativity.
18. My partner's sexual availability.
19. The variety of my sexual activities.
20. The frequency of my sexual activity.

Thank you for your participation in the study! If you would to be entered into win a $25 Amazon gift card, please enter your email address below. Note that your email address will only be used to send your gift card and will not be connected to your responses of the survey.

What is your email address? _____

****END OF SURVEY****

APPENDIX C

STUDY 1 SENSITIVITY ANALYSES

Sensitivity analyses were conducted to compare analyses based on the total sample with those only containing White participants. Regression analyses for RQ1a (i.e., whether masculinity ideology predicts RSE) were similar across both sets of analyses (Total sample: β = -.05, p = .278; White sample: β = .01, p = .941). For RQ2 (i.e., whether gender moderates this association), the interaction between gender and masculinity ideology was not significant for either sample (Total sample: β = -.13, p = .421; White sample: β = -.10, p = .332). The second RQ (i.e., whether GRC predicts RSE), was also comparable across groups (Total sample: β = -.26, p < .01; White sample: β = -.25, p =.04). RQ2b (i.e., whether the four GRC subscales relate to RSE) was not comparable across groups, however. Notably, the RABBM dimension (restrictive affectionate behavior between men) was significantly and negatively related to RSE for the total sample (β = -.26, p < .01), but was not significantly related to RSE for the White-only sample (β = -.21, p = .09) although the trend was in the same direction. The other subscales were all comparable across groups. Finally, the third RQ (i.e., gender differences in RSE and its subscales) was comparable across groups such that gender significantly differed for the total RSE scale (F = 9.40, p < .01), mutuality (F = 16.07, p < .001), and differentiation beliefs (F = 10.19, p < .01). Women reported greater total RSE, mutuality, and differentiation compared to men.

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APPENDIX D

STUDY 2 SENSITIVITY ANALYSES

Sensitivity analyses were conducted to determine similarities or discrepancies in analyses among the total sample and a White-only sample. For RSE, findings were comparable between groups for RQ1a (i.e., main effect of masculinity ideology) (Total: β = -0.24, p < .01; White: β = -0.35, p <. 001) and for RQ1b (i.e., interaction of gender by masculinity ideology) (Total: β = .13, p = .04; White: β = .17, p = .01). For sexual satisfaction, RQ1a did differ between group such that the main effect of masculinity ideology significantly predicted sexual satisfaction for the White-only sample and was not significant for the total sample (Total: β = -0.17, p = .07; White: β = -0.29, p = .01). The interaction of gender by masculinity ideology (RQ1a) was comparable between groups for sexual satisfaction (Total: β = .11, p = .12; White: β = .14, p = .09). For relationship satisfaction, RQ1a was comparable across groups (Total: β = -0.37, p <. 001; White: β = -0.41, p < .001) and the interaction remained significant across groups (RQ1b) (Total: β = .14, p = .02; White: β = .15, p = .04).

For the second research question (RQ2; i.e., GRC predicting outcomes for men), findings were similar across groups for RSE (Total: β = -.004, p = .959; White: β = .02, p = .803), sexual satisfaction (Total: β = .07, p = .38; White: β = .01, p = .955), and relationship satisfaction (Total: β = -.03, p = .687; White: β = .11, p =.904). Finally, for RQ3 (i.e., whether women's masculinity and partner GRC relate to outcomes), results were comparable across groups for the main effect of masculinity ideology on RSE (Total: β = -.09, p =.495; White: β = -.14, p = .35) and for the main effect of partner GRC on RSE (Total: β = -.42, p < .001; White: β = -0.42, p <. 001). The interaction was also significant and comparable across groups (Total: β = .32, p = .01; White: β = .28, p = .03). For sexual satisfaction, findings were similar across groups for

the main effect of masculinity ideology (Total: β = -.06, p =.685; White: β = -.07, p = 667) and the main effect of partner GRC (Total: β = -.32, p < .01; White: β = -.29, p = .01). The interaction was also comparable (Total: β = .11, p = .437; White: β = .11, p =.457). Finally, for relationship satisfaction, the main effect of masculinity ideology (Total: β = -.15, p = .279; White: β = -.15, p =.329) and the main effect of partner GRC were comparable across groups (Total: β = -.39, p < .001; White: β = -.34, p <. 01). The interaction term was also comparable (Total: β = .20, p = .10; White: β = .16, p = .22).

APPENDIX E

STUDY 1 IRB APPROVAL

EXEMPTION GRANTED

Carol Martin
Social and Family Dynamics, T. Denny Sanford School of (SSFD)
480/965-5861
cmartin@asu.edu

Dear Carol Martin:

On 3/12/2019 the **Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.** reviewed the following
protocol:

Type of Review:	**Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.**
Title:	Gender and Relationships for Emerging Adults
Investigator:	Carol Martin
IRB ID:	STUDY00009810
Funding:	None
Grant Title:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	• Consent 3-10-19.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Recruitment Materials.pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Combined measures 3-4-19.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Recruitment Flyer.pub, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Protocol 3-10-19.docx, Category: IRB Protocol;

The IRB determined that the protocol is considered exempt pursuant to Federal
Regulations 45CFR46 (2) Tests, surveys, interviews, or observation on 3/12/2019.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the
INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator

APPENDIX F

STUDY 2 IRB APPROVAL

EXEMPTION GRANTED

Carol Martin
CLAS-SS: Social and Family Dynamics, T. Denny Sanford School of (SSFD)
480/965-5861
cmartin@asu.edu

Dear Carol Martin:

On 9/15/2021 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title:	Masculinity, Gender, and Relationships
Investigator:	Carol Martin
IRB ID:	STUDY00014400
Funding:	Name: Arizona State University (ASU)
Grant Title:	
Grant ID:	
Documents Reviewed:	• ASU banner.pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Consent form, Category: Consent Form; • Email Recruitment, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Facebook recruitment .pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Full list of items and measures, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Jenkins_Protocol.docx, Category: IRB Protocol;

The IRB determined that the protocol is considered exempt pursuant to Federal Regulations 45CFR46 (2) Tests, surveys, interviews, or observation on 9/15/2021.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator