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Perceived Discrepancies in Men's Motivations for Gender-Conforming Behaviors and Romantic Relationship Outcomes

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Perceived Discrepancies in Men's Motivations for Gender-Conforming Behaviors
and Romantic Relationship Outcomes

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the love of my life, Brittany. Her love, support, gentle prodding, and sacrifice enabled the hours of research, writing, and computer screen staring necessary to complete this project. Love and like you.

I also dedicate this dissertation to my son, Eldon, whose birth provided me the extra motivation to finish my Ph.D. I love you. Remember, nullius in verba.

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Abstract

Healthy romantic relationships are positively associated with physical and mental health outcomes, and past research has shown that traditional masculinity negatively impacts relationship satisfaction. The current study examined the effects of men's discrepancies between their self-ratings and perceptions of their peers' on autonomous and pressured motivations to act agentially on relationship outcomes for both partners in a heterosexual relationship. In addition, men's investment in gender ideals was measured as a potential moderator and men's self-esteem as a potential mediator. Specifically, it was predicted that men's self-esteem would mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (autonomous and pressured) interactions and relationship satisfaction reported by both partners. Results of polynomial regressions on 183 romantic relationship dyads did not support predictions. Limitations presented include scale validity, the correlational design of the study, and the conceptualization of pressured and autonomous motivations as opposites of each other. Future directions included exploring the various forms of men's agentic extrinsic motivations and how they associate with relationship outcomes; and the utilization of real-time relationship behaviors observed during an interaction between romantic relationship partners.

Introduction

A healthy romantic relationship and good physical and mental health go hand in hand. For example, individuals in supportive marriages show higher levels of well-being, while individuals in strained marriages show decreased psychological functioning (Umberson, Chen, House, Hopkins, & Slaten, 1996; Williams, 2003). In addition, compared to their unmarried or unhappily married counterparts, individuals in satisfactory, committed romantic relationships tend to live longer (Coyne, Rohrbaugh, Shoham, Sonnega, Nicklas, & Cranford, 2001), have superior immune functioning (Robles & Kiecolt-Glaser, 2003), and heal physical wounds faster (Kiecolt-Glaser, Loving, Stowell, Malarkey, Lemeshow, Dickinson, Glaser, 2005). Evidence also indicates that staying unhappily married is more detrimental to overall health than divorcing (Hawkins & Booth, 2005). Results for nonmarital romantic relationships among young adults reveal similar findings (Simon & Barrett, 2010).

Given that quality romantic relationships contribute to positive individual physical and mental health outcomes, it is important to understand the factors that contribute to healthy romantic relationships for men and women. One avenue of research has demonstrated the negative effects of traditional masculinity ideology on relationship satisfaction (Pleck, Somenstein, & Ku, 1993; Sinn, 1997; Trueman, Tokar, & Fischer, 1996). Burn and Ward (2005) found that conformity to traditional masculine norms negatively affected relationship satisfaction for both college-aged men and women within a heterosexual romantic relationship. Specifically, women reported less satisfaction with their relationship the more they believed their male partners conformed to traditional masculinity norms, and men were also less satisfied the more

they conformed. Similarly, both men and women reported lower satisfaction with their marriage and their spouse the more the men endorsed traditional masculinity norms (McGraw, 2001), whereas nontraditional attitudes about masculinity positively predicted relationship satisfaction among heterosexual men (Wade & Donis, 2007). Recently, Good and Sanchez (2011) found that men who had a vested interest in meeting society's masculine ideal reported that their female relationship partners' love seemed contingent on their perceived masculinity, which predicted lower levels of relationship satisfaction.

A handful of studies have focused on how men's gender role conflict – a result of conforming to or deviating from traditional masculinity (O'Neil, Good, Holmes, 1995; O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) – relates to relationship satisfaction. Greater gender role conflict is associated with reduced relationship and marital satisfaction in heterosexual men (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Sharpe, Heppner, & Dixon, 1995), and women report greater relationship satisfaction when they perceive their partners as having less gender role conflict (Rochlen & Mahlik, 2004). Additionally, husbands' gender role conflict relates to maladaptive behaviors in the marital relationship. Specifically, husbands with greater gender role conflict engaged in increased levels of hostility (Breiding, 2004; Hayes & Mahalik, 2000), interspousal criticism (Breiding, Windle, & Smith, 2008), and withdrawal during marital interactions (Windle & Smith, 2009).

The above review includes several paradigms and measures for exploring men's romantic relationship satisfaction, but none have focused on men's motivations for conforming to masculine gender roles. The present study sought to answer the question of whether or not men (and their female partners) will experience lower relationship satisfaction as a result of discrepancies between the male partner's personal motivations to engage in gender stereotypical

behaviors and their beliefs about their peers' motivations. In terms of gender roles, men may be motivated to engage in gender conforming behaviors for a variety of reasons. For instance, men may conform to gender roles because they believe others approve of and expect them to do so (perceived injunctive norms), or because they believe that most other men conform (perceived descriptive norms; Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990; Reno, Cialdini, & Kallgren, 1993).

Conversely, gender role norms may become internalized (Wood, Christensen, Hebl, & Rothgerber, 1997; Wood & Eagly, 2009) and men may freely choose to engage in masculine behaviors.

However, men's beliefs about the motivations of their peers to engage in gender-conforming behaviors remain unclear, as do the potential associations between perceived discrepancies between self and peers. Exploring these discrepancies will shed light on a potential factor that may undermine romantic relationships that sits outside the direct interactions between two romantic partners. Again, quality romantic relationships contribute to psychological well-being (Hawkins & Booth, 2005; Rook & Pietromonaco, 1987) and physical health and longevity (for a review see Robles, Slatcher, Trombello, & McGinn, 2014). Therefore, understanding the factors that either contribute to or hinder romantic relationship satisfaction is important.

The Good and Bad of Gender Conformity

Children quickly learn the pervasiveness of gender roles, and while young children do not hold complex gender stereotypes, they swiftly pick up cues from their parents, peers, and other role models on how to behave in gender-normative ways (Bem, 1983; Bussey & Bandura, 1992; Ruble, Martin, & Berenbaum, 2006). Further, gender roles percolate social expectations and influence behavior through their social consequences. Specifically, we expect men to act assertive and confident, and women to act warm and caring. Gender conformity, in turn,

generally garners social rewards and approval, and nonconformity garners potential penalties and social sanctions starting very early in a child's life. For example, parents promote sex-typical activities and toy play (Lytton & Romney, 1991; Pasterski, Geffner, Brian, Hindmarsh, Brook, & Hines, 2005), and children do not tolerate peers who wear gender violating hairstyles and clothes (Blakemore, 2003; Zucker, Wilson-Smith, Kurita, & Stern, 1995). Adults react similarly in more mature domains. In small group interactions, assertive and dominant women tend to see a decrease in their overall likeability (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Shackelford, Wood, & Worchel, 1996), and may get penalized for expressing angry emotions (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). In contrast, behaving in a modest or unassertive manner may cost men their social status (Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001), and potentially a job opportunity (Rudman, 1998). Thus, gender norms maintain the differences between the sexes by dictating differential behaviors for men and women (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Wood, 1991; Wood & Eagly, 2010), and these norms often become internalized (Wood et al., 1997; Wood & Eagly, 2009).

However, research investigating gender conformity and *investment in gender ideals* – the importance people place on meeting society's manhood or womanhood ideals – appears to produce conflicting findings for self-esteem. As stated above, boys and girls receive a great deal of pressure to adhere to gender norms, which some research suggests negatively affects self-esteem (Egan & Perry, 2001). Into adulthood, men and women frequently conform to gender norms to avoid potential disapproval for not following these scripts (Sanchez, Fetterolf, & Rudman, 2012), which predicts lower self-esteem for both men and women (Sanchez & Crocker, 2005).

In contrast, Wood and colleagues' work suggests that societal gender norms may become freely chosen and internalized as one's own personal standard for conduct (Wood et al., 1997).

For people highly invested in gender norms and gender conformity, gender-conforming behaviors narrow the gap between their actual and ideal selves, producing higher daily explicit self-esteem. However, if highly invested individuals believe they have violated a gender norm, they experience greater self-discrepancy and lower state self-esteem (Guerrero Witt & Wood, 2009).

To summarize, research on gender-conforming behavior and investment in gender ideals has shown links to both positive and negative outcomes for the self. When driven by the motivation for others' approval, or other external sources, investment in gender ideals produces negative evaluations of the self (Egan & Perry, 2001; Sanchez & Crocker, 2005; Sanchez, Crocker, & Boike, 2005). Conversely, when one internalizes gender ideals, conforming to gender standards generates positive feelings about the self (Wood et al., 1997), and violating gender behavioral norms generates negative feelings (Guerrero Witt & Wood, 2009).

Good and Sanchez (2010) went a step further and explicitly examined the role of motivation for gender-conforming behavior. Employing self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1980; Deci & Ryan, 1987; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981), they found that pressured motivation for gender-consistent behavior – engaging in gender-conforming behavior because you believe you should, or have to – negatively predicted self-esteem. Autonomous motivation – freely choosing one's behaviors – for gender-conforming behavior positively predicted self-esteem.

Self-Determination Theory and Gendered Behavior

People possess different amounts and kinds of motivation to perform an action. Specifically, they vary in the level of motivation (i.e., how much motivation), and in the orientation of that motivation (i.e., what type of motivation; Ryan & Deci, 2000). For example, a

highly motivated man may seek out typically masculine activities (i.e., watching a demolition derby) out of curiosity and interest, or because he wants to attain or maintain his manhood status. The amount of motivation may not vary for the man, but the underlying orientation (or goal) of the motivation does.

In SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) people are motivated to act by different goals or reasons that give rise to an intentional behavior. The most basic distinction is between self-determined or autonomous motivation and externally controlled or pressured motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Autonomous behaviors are freely chosen and emanate from one's sense of self. Alternatively, pressured or controlled behaviors pertain to activities performed to achieve a separable outcome and do not represent one's self (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Pressured motivation may result from rewards for appropriate behaviors or from strong external coercions like punishments for inappropriate behaviors. In addition, a person may lack any intention to act, or amotivation (Ryan, 1995).

Extrinsic motivations can vary to the extent to which they represent self-determination (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Ryan, Connell, & Deci, 1985). From the least amount to the most amount of self-determination, they are: external, introjected, identified, and integrated. As people incorporate social regulations (i.e., men must act assertively) to the self, they experience greater autonomy in their behaviors. Thus, the more one internalizes the reasons for a behavior and assimilates them to the self, the more one's behaviors become self-determined.

The current study focuses exclusively on external or pressured motivations versus autonomous motivations. Externally regulated motivations are not self-determined and an individual feels obligated to behave in a specific way due to rewards and constraints imposed by others. The other forms of extrinsic motivation (introjected, identified, and integrated) all involve

a continuing degree of internalization/self-determination for one's actions, but are still done to attain separable outcomes rather than for pure enjoyment (Deci & Ryan, 2000). While interesting in their own right, the other forms of extrinsic motivation may present mixed results, or even positive effects on behaviors and outcomes the more self-determined the motivation becomes (Blais, Sabourin, Boucher, & Vallerand, 1990; Ryan & Connell, 1989). Therefore, the current study concentrates on how men may conform to gender norms because of their personal interests and values, or because of external reasons like their fear of social sanctions resulting from a gender-violating behavior (Rudman, 1998).

In addition, the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997, 2007; Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002) provides a multilevel framework for human motivation. Specifically, the model organizes the underlying mechanisms for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The model posits three levels of analysis that range from global to contextual to situational. The most general is the global level. It refers to a person's usual way of operating, or their personality, and is the trait level of motivation (i.e., one's disposition to engage in activities in a typically intrinsic or extrinsic way; Vallerand & Lalande, 2011). The contextual level accounts for intraindividual motivational orientations that may differ in specific life contexts. For example, a man may partake in typically masculine behaviors during work hours out of extrinsic motivation, but engage in typically masculine leisure activities in a more intrinsic way. It may be the opposite for another man. The situational level references the here and now of motivation during a specific activity and moment in time. For example, a man watches football out of intrinsic motivation at 3pm on a Sunday afternoon. The current study is not interested in the differing types of contexts in which men are pressured or autonomously motivated to act masculine (the contextual level), or their motivations when engaging in a specific masculine

activity at a given moment in time (the situational level). Instead, the current study is framed around men's overall trait beliefs about their pressured versus autonomous motivations for behaving in gender normative ways (the global level).

Outcomes. Freely chosen or autonomously motivated behaviors enhance psychological and physical well-being. For example, autonomy-supporting teachers increase their students' desire to learn (Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981; Flink, Boggiano, & Barrett, 1990), which leads to an elevated quality of learning (Ryan & Grolnick, 1986), better academic performance (Miserandino, 1996), lower dropout rates (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992), and greater psychological well-being among their students (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Conversely, students taught by more controlling teachers demonstrate less initiative, perceived competence, and learning (Amabile, 1996; Benware & Deci, 1984; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Utman, 1997). In addition, students with autonomy-supportive teachers (in contrast to controlling) showed increased self-esteem (Deci et al., 1981). Studies have also shown an association between maternal autonomy support and increased exploratory behaviors in infants (Frodi, Bridges, & Grolnick, 1985); and autonomy-supportive parents, relative to controlling parents, tend to have children who want to investigate and extend themselves in their environments (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997). Autonomously motivated behaviors have also shown an association with positive outcomes in the form of greater experienced sexual pleasure (Sanchez et al., 2005); greater adherence to long-term weight maintenance regimens among obese people (Williams, Grow, Freedman, Ryan, & Deci, 1996); increased attendance and participation in an alcohol treatment program (Ryan, Plant, & O'Malley, 1995); more physical activity among children (Chatzisarantis, Biddle, & Meek, 1997); and happier relationships (Blais, Sabourin, Boucher, & Vallerand, 1990).

As mentioned, pressured and autonomous motivation for gender-conforming behavior negatively and positively predicted self-esteem, respectively (Good & Sanchez, 2010). More specifically, the rewards for conformity and punishments for nonconformity lead to a pressured motivation to achieve and maintain certain gender ideals (i.e., proving your manhood), which negatively related to self-esteem. However, gender norms that become internalized into the self-concept, and reflected freely chosen behaviors, predicted more autonomous motivation, which positively associated with self-esteem.

Social Norms

The extent that men's personal motivations (autonomous and pressured) for gender-conforming behaviors deviate from their beliefs about their peers' motivations should also play an important role in men's and their partners' relationship satisfaction. To understand how beliefs about others' motivations might associate with these outcomes, I turned to the literature on injunctive (prescriptive only) and descriptive social norms. Prescriptive social norms relate to how one believes others think a person ought to behave, while descriptive social norms merely describe how others behave (Cialdini, Kallgren, & Reno, 1991; Smith & McSweeney, 2007; Terry & Hogg, 1996).

For the current purposes both prescriptive and descriptive social norms may combine to create pressured motivations for gender-conforming behaviors. For example, a man may act in accordance with gender normative behaviors because he believes others expect and approve of him doing so (perceived prescriptive norms), or because he wants to act in line with how he perceives his fellow male peers act (perceived descriptive norms; Cialdini et al., 1990; Reno et al., 1993). Although research on the effects of social norms has focused primarily on perceived behavioral norms, I am interested here in perceived motivational norms. Specifically, I propose

that one can assess perceived descriptive social norms for the motivations (both autonomous and pressured) behind gender-conforming behaviors by directly asking men about their beliefs about their peers' motivations for gender-conforming behaviors.

While social norms help guide behaviors in ambiguous situations – rendering more predictable reactions from others to help facilitate interpersonal interactions (Cialdini et al., 1990) – people often hold incorrect views of the collective (Miller & McFarland, 1987; Miller & Prentice, 1994). This incorrect view, or discrepancy, between self and others can lead to pluralistic ignorance – a social phenomenon whereby individuals mistakenly believe that their private opinions are deviant from the opinions of most of their peers (Prentice & Miller, 1996). For example, college students tend to overestimate the prevalence and approval of drinking alcohol among their peers (Baer, Stacy, & Larimer, 1991; Borsari & Carey, 2003; Neighbors, Dillard, Lewis, Bergstrom, & Neil, 2006; Perkins & Berkowitz, 1986; Prentice and Miller, 1993; Suls & Green, 2003); the popularity of smoking and illegal drug use (Hines, Saris, & Throckmorton-Belzer, 2002); and the comfort with which their peers perform various sexual behaviors while “hooking up” (Lambert, Kahn, & Apple, 2003). Additionally, a recent line of research has found that men underestimate their aggressiveness relative to the perceptions they have about their peers (Vandello, Cohen, Ransom, 2008b; Vandello, Ransom, Hettinger, & Askew, 2009).

People also overestimate the severity of punishments they might receive for a minor social slip-up (Savitsky, Epley, & Gilovich, 2001), and they incorrectly believe that others do not have the same concerns about appearing foolish (McFarland & Miller, 1990). Therefore, pluralistic ignorance leads a person to hide his or her true opinions, which leads to perceptions of support for the espoused group norm (Prentice & Miller, 1993, 1996). Hiding one's true opinions

against the group norm can maintain one's social identity with the group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), but at a cost on the collective level of perpetuating unpopular social norms. Specifically, people may privately dislike and oppose a particular social norm, but because they assume everyone else does approve of the social norm, say nothing or actively participate in the social norm (Miller & Prentice, 1994).

Past work has also shown that self-presentational concerns motivated a good deal of men's aggression (Felson, 1978; Tedeschi, Smith, & Brown, 1974). Specifically, men believe that the use of aggression during a conflict will earn them respect, or make them more attractive to others. Men may also act aggressively to assuage the fear of being seen as less masculine for a passive response (Archer, 1994; Cohen & Vandello, 1998). Thus, men may decide to behave in an assertive manner because they believe others expect them to do so (perceived prescriptive norms), or to stay in line with other men (perceived descriptive norms; Cialdini et al., 1990; Reno et al., 1993). In addition, men may internalize societal gender norms as their own personal standard for conduct (Wood et al., 1997) and freely choose to act in an assertive manner.

As noted earlier, internalized gender norms predicted more autonomous motivation for gender-conforming behaviors, which positively associated with self-esteem. Conversely, a pressured motivation to achieve and maintain one's manhood negatively related to self-esteem (Good & Sanchez, 2010). However, no work has examined men's perceived discrepancies between their personal autonomous and pressured motivations for gender-stereotypic behaviors and their beliefs about their peers' motivations. While both prescriptive (e.g., I am a man, therefore other people think I should act assertively) and descriptive (e.g., Other men act assertively) social norms may intermix to form a cocktail of pressured motivations for gender-conforming behaviors, descriptive social norms can reveal perceived discrepancies between

personal motivations (both autonomous and pressured) for gender-conforming behaviors and beliefs about peers' motivations for the same behaviors.

Gender Roles, Social Expectations, and Precarious Manhood

Gender role beliefs arise because men and women in all cultures tend to specialize in different activities and behaviors based on the division of labor (see Wood & Eagly, 2002, 2010 for reviews), which leads people to have different expectations for what each sex can and should do. These expectations, in turn, represent the collective stereotypes within a society. While many gender stereotypes and norms exist in American society, many of the gender role beliefs that people commonly hold about men and women fall into two categories or dimensions – communion and agency.

People assume that women, more than men, have a communally oriented disposition that consists of acting warm and caring and taking others' needs into account. On the other hand, people presume men to have an agenticly oriented disposition that consists of acting assertively, dominating others, and remaining individually focused (Deaux & LaFrance, 1998; Diekmann & Eagly, 2000; Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Spence & Buckner, 2000). Male agency and female communion stereotypes emerge when participants list how men and women differ (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972), during free association tasks (Deaux & Lewis, 1983), and on implicit measures (Rudman, Greenwald, & McGhee, 2001). In addition, gender stereotypes based on agency and communion appear pan-culturally (Williams & Best, 1990). Finally, although studies have documented an upward trend for women to endorse agentic traits when describing themselves (Twenge 2001), and studies demonstrate that under certain situations men will act communally and women agenticly (Abele, 2003), people still regard agency and communality as masculine and feminine, respectively (Diekmann & Eagly,

2000). Specifically, many people still hold traditional expectations that dictate that men should act agentically and women should act communally (Good & Sanchez, 2010).

The current studies focus on the discrepancy between men's personal motivations to engage in gender stereotypical behaviors and their beliefs about their peers' motivations. Why men and not women? The answer lies in the recent work done on precarious manhood (for a review see Bosson & Vandello, 2011; Vandello & Bosson, in press; Vandello, Bosson, Cohen, Burnaford, & Weaver, 2008a), which has three basic tenets: Manhood appears elusive, remains tenuous after achieved, and requires public demonstrations of proof.

The elusiveness of manhood lies in the fact that across many cultures manhood status does not get automatically ascribed, but earned through actions (Gilmore, 1990). Specifically, womanhood happens to girls through a series of physical and biological changes, whereas boys must make manhood happen. Demonstrating this belief, people endorsed statements describing the boyhood-manhood transition as earned by the passage of socially set milestones, whereas they endorsed statements describing the girlhood-womanhood transition as the natural result of physical or biological milestones (Vandello et al., 2008a). In preindustrialized cultures men could (and sometimes still do) perform rituals in order to “prove” and “earn” their manhood by showcasing their courage, physical strength, or endurance. In contrast, industrialized cultures – like the United States – lack formal ceremonies or rituals for passage into manhood. Thus, men may experience pressure to “prove” their manhood status and may experience anxiety about whether or not their actions have demonstrated their status to others.

Once earned, manhood remains a tenuous status that one may lose easily through various social transgressions and deficiencies. To illustrate, Vandello et al. (2008a) presented participants with a short statement supposedly extracted from a longer autobiography that read,

“My life isn’t what I expected it would be. I used to be a man (woman). Now, I’m not a man (woman) anymore.” Participants rated the manhood (compared to womanhood) version as much easier to interpret and understand. In addition, when asked to interpret the ambiguous statements participants generated more social causes (e.g., “He no longer fits society’s definition of a man”) than physical reasons when interpreting the lost manhood statement, whereas they interpreted the lost womanhood statement in more physical terms (e.g., “She had a hysterectomy”).

As hopefully established, men do not have a biological guarantee to obtaining manhood status, but instead must earn and re-earn their manhood status through active and public demonstrations of toughness, aggression, or risk-taking – the third tenet of the precarious manhood thesis. In support of this idea, Campbell and Muncer (1987) found that women tended to perceive their own acts of aggression as stress-induced anti-social eruptions precipitated by a loss of self-control. Conversely, men tended to view their own aggression in a positive light, as an exercise of control over others, and provoked by challenges to their self-esteem or integrity. Other research highlights the use of public displays of physical aggression by men as an attempt to “save face” and defend their personal honor following direct threats (Archer, 1994; Cohen, Nisbett, Bowdle, & Schwarz, 1996; Cohen, Vandello, Puente, & Rantilla, 1999; Felson, 1978, 1982; Vandello & Cohen, 2003). Additionally, men defined a “real man” – relative to a “real woman” – in terms of actions rather than enduring traits, and explained physical aggression following a manhood threat – but not following a womanhood threat – in primarily situational terms (Weaver, Vandello, Bosson, & Burnaford, 2010). Women did not exhibit either of these patterns, suggesting a heightened sensitivity men have to the requirement that one must attain and maintain manhood publicly.

To summarize, gender stereotypes dictate that men should act agentically and women communally; and that the hard won and easily lost nature of manhood requires continual social proof. In regards to the latter point, research suggests that the socially constructed nature of manhood makes it more precarious and, thus, more easily threatened than womanhood (for a review see Bosson & Vandello, 2011; Vandello & Bosson, in press). Based on the precarious manhood thesis the current study will focus exclusively on men's self-reported motivation to engage in gender stereotypic behaviors, but this does not suggest an absence of requirements for womanhood. For example, compared to men in Western societies women experience stronger pressures to marry, have children, and prioritize their family lives over professional lives (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2004; Gorman & Fritzsche, 2002; Hays, 1996; Russo, 1976). In turn, the stresses from these cultural expectations can harm girls' and women's mental and physical well-being (Baumeister & Twenge, 2002; Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn, & Twenge, 1998, Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Rudman & Glick, 2001). However, rarely does a woman's womanhood status get disputed. Specifically, a nonconforming woman – potentially deemed as a “bad” woman or “unladylike” – does not lose her very status as a woman, and her womanhood status does not become easily threatened or called into question by others. Thus, womanhood does not carry the same sense of precariousness that accompanies manhood (for more elaboration on this point, see Vandello et al., 2008a).

The Role of Self-Esteem

Self-esteem can have profound implications for functioning across many domains (i.e., job satisfaction [Judge & Bono, 2001]; physical health [Benyamini, Leventhal, & Leventhal, 2004; Trzesniewski, Donnellan, Moffitt, Robins, Poulton, & Caspi, 2006]). Most important to the current study high self-esteem positively, but not necessarily causally, predicts relationship

satisfaction (Shackelford, 2001; Voss, Markiewicz, & Doyle, 1999), whereas low self-esteem has shown an association with lower levels of satisfaction in close relationships (Murray, Holmes, & Griffin, 2000; Murray, Rose, Bellavia, Holmes, & Kusche, 2002). As previously outlined, gender role conflict increases maladaptive relationship behaviors among men (Breiding et al., 2008; Hayes & Mahalik, 2000), and traditional masculinity negatively affects romantic relationships between men and women (Pleck, et al., 1993; Sinn, 1997; Trueman et al., 1996).

Based on the precarious manhood theory (Vandello et al., 2008a), most men chronically fear that they do not live up to their culture's definition of a "real" man. Additionally, men act assertively out of self-presentational concerns (Felson, 1978; Tedeschi, Smith, & Brown, 1974), and fear that they are less aggressive than their peers (Vandello et al., 2009). Therefore, men should believe that they are less autonomously motivated to adhere to gender-stereotypical behaviors than their peers. Specifically, a man may not personally want, or desire, to act in an assertive manner, but based on gender stereotypes and social norms, he may believe that other men want to act assertively (Prentice & Carranza, 2002). In turn, this should lead to reduced self-esteem as summarized earlier (e.g., Egan & Perry, 2001; Guerrero Witt & Wood, 2009; Sanchez & Crocker, 2005; Sanchez et al., 2005), but primarily among men who are more strongly invested in gender norms (Wood et al., 1997).

Similarly, Vandello et al. (2009) asked participants to imagine themselves as the victims in various confrontation scenarios (e.g., getting bumped at a party by a man who then calls you an "asshole"). After each scenario, participants then indicated the likelihood that they would start a physical fight with the antagonist, and the likelihood that the "average male student" would start a fight. Their findings revealed that greater perceived discrepancies in aggression between self and peers (men overestimated their peers aggression) related to lower self-esteem, weaker

gender identification, and more feelings of social marginalization. Thus, a greater perceived discrepancy in autonomous gender-conforming behavior between self and others (i.e., believing that one possesses less autonomous motivation for assertive behaviors than one's peers) should associate with lower levels of self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals. Highly invested men who perceive large discrepancies between themselves and their peers may believe they have violated the gender behavioral norms they have internalized as their own personal standard for conduct (Wood et al., 1997). In turn they should experience lower self-esteem (Guerrero Witt & Wood, 2009). Conversely, large discrepancies in autonomous gender-conforming behavior between self and others for low invested men should not relate to self-esteem as strongly, or at all.

In addition, based on the work done in SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), men who perceive that they feel less pressure to act assertively than their peers should show higher levels of self-esteem, but especially among men who have a high level of investment in gender ideals. Controlling environments produce lower levels of self-esteem (Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981), therefore men who perceive that they feel more pressure to perform gender-stereotypical behaviors than their peers should show lower levels of self-esteem. This effect should be strongest among highly invested men because their own internalized standard of conduct dictates that they should act assertively because they wish to, not because others believe they should.

In terms of causation, an ongoing debate rages about whether high self-esteem individuals, compared to low self-esteem individuals, have better life forecasts. Some experts argue that self-esteem does not influence life successes (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Boden, Fergusson, & Horwood, 2008; Krueger, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2008); whereas others argue that self-esteem does significantly influence important life outcomes

(Swann, Chang-Schneider, & McClarty, 2007, 2008; Trzesniewski et al., 2006). Recently, a 12-year longitudinal study, consisting of nearly 2,000 individuals, demonstrated that self-esteem prospectively predicted real-world life experiences (e.g., depression, health, and relationship satisfaction), and that high and low self-esteem do not merely follow one's successes and failures (Orth, Robins, & Widaman, 2012). Thus, if a perceived discrepancy between a man's self-reported motivation for autonomous gender-conforming behaviors and his beliefs about his peers' motivations links to lower levels of self-esteem, it appears reasonable to assume that the lowered levels of self-esteem will predict more maladaptive relationship behaviors and lower relationship satisfaction. Therefore, in the present study, I consider how the perceived discrepancy in motivations for gender-conforming behavior link to self-esteem and relationship outcomes.

In addition, a plethora of research demonstrates that, compared to high self-esteem individuals, low self-esteem individuals report lower levels of trust in their partners' love and support (Murray, Holmes, MacDonald, & Ellsworth, 1998), behaviors that may decrease closeness with their partners (Murray, Derrick, Leder, & Holmes, 2008), and lower levels of relationship satisfaction (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Recently, Good and Sanchez (2011) investigated relationship contingences based on male gender-normative behavior. Rooted in the precarious manhood perspective (outlined above), Good and Sanchez tested whether men who were highly invested in meeting society's masculine ideal would perceive their relationship partners' love as contingent on their masculinity. They theorized that men who believed their relationship relied on their masculinity would experience lower levels of relationship satisfaction (Murray, Griffin, Rose, & Bellavia, 2006) because of the continuously precarious state of their manhood. They collected self-report data from heterosexual undergraduate men involved in

romantic relationships and path modeling confirmed their predictions: Men's beliefs about the importance of their own masculinity undermined their relationship satisfaction. Specifically, men who invested a lot in their masculinity believed their female relationship partners' love relied on their masculinity, which predicted lower relationship satisfaction.

To summarize, low self-esteem individuals tend to have lower levels of relationship satisfaction (Karney & Bradbury, 1995), and Good and Sanchez (2011) demonstrated that precarious manhood can extend to precarious romantic relationships. However, none of the previous studies have investigated discrepancies between men's self-ratings and their beliefs about their peers' motivations for gender-conforming behaviors and relationship contingencies. I predict that men who hold larger discrepancies should believe they are not living up to their gender's norm of autonomous motivation for assertive behaviors, which then should associate with lower levels of self-esteem among men who are highly invested in gender ideals. To the degree that self-esteem prospectively predicts maladaptive relationship behaviors (Orth et al., 2012), men with larger discrepancies (and their respective female romantic relationship partner) should also show decreased levels of relationship satisfaction (Cast & Burke, 2002), mediated by their lower self-esteem.

Finally, no specific predictions are made about the relationship between men's perceived discrepancies in motivations for agentic behaviors and their female partners' self-esteem. However, women's self-esteem data were collected. Therefore, I was able to perform and report multiple exploratory analyses in regards to women's self-esteem.

Overview and Hypotheses

Given that healthy and satisfactory romantic relationships contribute to a number of positive physical and mental health outcomes (Coyne et al., 2001; Kietcolt-Glaser et al., 2005; Robles et al., 2014; Rook & Pietromonaco, 1987), it is important to understand the potential factors that facilitate or impede romantic relationship satisfaction. While past work demonstrates that traditional masculinity negatively impacts heterosexual romantic relationships (Burn and Ward, 2005; Donaghue & Fallon, 2003; Pleck et al., 1993), the current study adds to this existing knowledge by focusing on men's motivations for engaging in masculine gender roles and romantic relationship satisfaction.

Based on gender stereotypes, men may believe that other men want to act assertively (Prentice & Carranza, 2002), and may mistakenly believe that their private opinions deviate from the opinions of their peers (Prentice & Miller, 1996). In fact, men continually overestimate the aggressiveness of their peers (Vandello et al., 2008b; Vandello et al., 2009). Therefore, men may act assertively to present themselves as a "real" man in order to earn respect from others (Felson, 1978; Tedeschi et al., 1974), or out of fear of being seen as less masculine if they act passively (Archer, 1994; Cohen & Vandello, 1998). If propelled by external sources to invest in gender ideals men report negative evaluations of the self (Egan & Perry, 2001; Sanchez & Crocker, 2005; Sanchez et al., 2005). However, if men have internalized societal gender norms as their own and freely choose to act in an assertive manner, acting assertively generates positive feelings of the self (Wood et al., 1997), whereas acting passively generates negative feelings (Guerrero Witt & Wood, 2009). In turn, internalized gender norms predicted more autonomous

motivation for gender-conforming behaviors, which positively predicts self-esteem.

Alternatively, pressured motivation for gender-conforming behaviors negatively predicted self-esteem (Good & Sanchez, 2010). The current study extends this previous work by examining men's descriptive social norm discrepancies between personal motivations and beliefs about peers' motivations for gender-conforming behaviors, and how these perceived discrepancies relate to heterosexual romantic relationship outcomes for both partners.

Specifically, I seek to investigate heterosexual men's perceived discrepancies in autonomous and pressured motivations for gender-conforming behaviors between their self-ratings and their ratings for their peers, and the relation of these discrepancies to self-esteem and romantic relationship outcomes for both partners. To the extent that men overestimate the descriptive norms for autonomous motivations to act assertively, they may see themselves as not measuring up to standards of masculinity. If this is the case, one should expect an association between the degree to which men perceive a discrepancy in their own versus their peers' autonomous motivations to act assertively and measures of self-esteem and relationship outcomes.

In terms of relationship satisfaction, greater gender role conflict (deviating from traditional masculinity) reported by male partners about themselves, or female partners about their male partners, resulted in lower levels of relationship satisfaction for both partners (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Rochlen and Mahlik 2004; Sharpe et al., 1995). In addition, husbands' greater gender role conflict predicted the increased use of maladaptive relationship behaviors during marital interactions (Hayes & Mahalik, 2000), which predicted lower marital satisfaction for both partners (Breiding, 2004). Recent work also revealed a negative relationship between an investment in meeting society's masculine ideals and levels of relationship satisfaction among

men (Good & Sanchez, 2011). In terms of self-esteem, Vandello et al. (2009) found that greater perceived discrepancies between self and peers in terms of aggression related to lower self-esteem among men. Therefore, men who perceive a greater discrepancy between themselves and their peers in terms of autonomous gender-conforming behaviors should report lower levels of self-esteem, especially if they are highly invested in gender ideals. In turn, lower levels of self-esteem should predict more maladaptive relationship behaviors (Murray et al., 2008) and lower levels of relationship satisfaction (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Taken together, men who perceive a larger gap between themselves and their male peers in motivations to perform autonomous gender-conforming behaviors should report higher levels of maladaptive relationship behaviors and lower levels of relationship satisfaction (especially among men highly invested in gender ideals), mediated by their lowered levels of self-esteem.

Pressured motivations predict lower self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Deci & Ryan, 1995; Ryan, Chirkov, Little, Sheldon, Timoshina, & Deci, 1999). Therefore, men who perceive larger discrepancies in pressured motivations for gender-conforming behaviors (i.e., believing that one possesses less pressured motivation for assertive behaviors than one's peers) should report lower levels of maladaptive relationship behaviors and experience increased relationship satisfaction (especially among men highly invested in gender ideals), mediated by their increased self-esteem. I will measure men's investment in gender ideals; their own and their peers' assertiveness; their self-ratings and their ratings of their peers in autonomous and pressured gender-conforming behaviors; their self-esteem related to their gender group membership and their global self-esteem; their own maladaptive relationship behaviors; and their ratings of their relationship satisfaction.

Before moving forward, one point is in order. I believe all of my hypotheses below will hold for both men's collective self-esteem within their gender group (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992) and men's global self-esteem. Self-esteem as related to one's gender group membership offers the benefit of a more nuanced measurement approach. The Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale, on the other hand, is a widely used and well-validated measure of global, personal self-esteem that offers greater generalizability.

Therefore, for the current study, I predict two mediated moderation models. Specifically, I predict (a) an interaction of strength of investment in gender ideals and perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation such that the associations between discrepancies, self-esteem (both global and gender group membership), and relationship outcomes are strongest when men are highly committed to being an ideal man, and (b) self-esteem mediates the relationship between the investment-by-discrepancies interaction and relationship outcomes. For pressured motivations, I predict (a) an interaction of investment-by-discrepancies such that the associations between discrepancies, self-esteem (both global and gender group membership), and relationship outcomes are heightened when men have high levels of investment in gender ideals, and (b) self-esteem mediates the relationship between the investment-by-discrepancies interaction and relationship outcomes.

In addition, female partners in the romantic relationship should also report higher incidences of men's maladaptive relationship behaviors and lower levels of relationship satisfaction when their male partners perceive larger discrepancies in autonomous motivations while highly invested in gender ideals. Male partners who perceive larger discrepancies in pressured motivations while highly invested in gender ideals should have female partners who report lower incidences of men's maladaptive relationship behaviors and higher levels of

relationship satisfaction. I will measure women's ratings of their male partner's frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors and their ratings of their relationship satisfaction. In addition, women's self-esteem related to their gender group membership and their global self-esteem will be measured and used for exploratory purposes.

To summarize, I will test the following 20 hypotheses:

Hypotheses for Autonomous Motivations

Hypothesis 1: Overall, men will rate themselves as less autonomously motivated to act agentically than their peers.

Hypothesis 2: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and men's self-esteem. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and men's self-esteem will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 3: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies and men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 4: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and men's feelings of relationship satisfaction. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies and men's feelings of relationship satisfaction will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 5: Self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (autonomous) interaction and men's reported frequency of maladaptive

relationship behaviors. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict lower self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn higher incidences of maladaptive relationship behaviors reported by men.

Hypothesis 6: Self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (autonomous) interaction and men's relationship satisfaction. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict lower self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn lower levels of relationship satisfaction reported by men.

Hypothesis 7: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and men's frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors as reported by their female relationship partners. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies on female's ratings of their male partner's frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 8: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and women's relationship satisfaction. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies and women's feelings of relationship satisfaction will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 9: Men's self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (autonomous) interaction and men's frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors as reported by their female relationship partners. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict lower self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn higher incidences of men's maladaptive relationship behaviors reported by their female partners.

Hypothesis 10: Men's self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (autonomous) interaction and female partner's ratings of relationship satisfaction. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict lower self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn lower levels of female partner's ratings of relationship satisfaction.

Hypotheses for Pressured Motivations

Hypothesis 11: Overall, men will rate themselves as possessing less pressured motivation for assertive behaviors than their peers.

Hypothesis 12: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and men's self-esteem. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and men's self-esteem will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 13: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies and men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 14: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and men's feelings of relationship satisfaction. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies and men's feelings of relationship satisfaction will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 15: Self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (pressured) interaction and men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship

behaviors. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict increased self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn lower incidences of maladaptive relationship behaviors reported by men.

Hypothesis 16: Self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (pressured) interaction and men's relationship satisfaction. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict increased self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn increase relationship satisfaction reported by men.

Hypothesis 17: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancy in pressured motivation and men's frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors as reported by their female relationship partners. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies on female's ratings of relationship satisfaction will be strongest when men report higher levels of investment in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 18: Investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and reported levels of relationship satisfaction by female relationship partners. Specifically, the link between perceived discrepancies and women's feelings of relationship satisfaction will be strongest when men are highly invested in gender ideals.

Hypothesis 19: Men's self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (pressured) interaction and men's frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors as reported by their female relationship partners. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict increased self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn lower incidences of men's maladaptive relationship behaviors reported by their female partners.

Hypothesis 20: Men's self-esteem will mediate the association between the investment-by-discrepancies (pressured) interaction and female partner's ratings of relationship satisfaction. Greater perceived discrepancies should predict increased self-esteem among men highly invested in gender ideals, and in turn increase levels of female partner's ratings of relationship satisfaction.

Current Study

If men's perceived discrepancy in autonomous gender-conforming behaviors predicts lower levels of self-esteem and relationship satisfaction (especially for men highly invested in gender ideals); and low self-esteem individuals perform more maladaptive behaviors in a relationship (Murray et al., 2008); then men's and their romantic partners' relationship happiness should suffer as a result of the men's perceived discrepancies in autonomously motivated agentic behaviors. The opposite results should occur for perceived discrepancies in pressured motivated agentic behaviors. If men's perceived discrepancy in pressured gender-conforming behaviors predicts higher levels of self-esteem and relationship satisfaction (especially for men highly invested in gender ideals); and high self-esteem individuals perform less maladaptive relationship behaviors (Murray et al., 2008); then men's and their romantic partners' relationship happiness should increase.

In the current study I recruited heterosexual romantic couples to complete a series of questionnaires. Separately, both partners rated their own self-esteem and reported the man's maladaptive relationship behaviors and their own feelings of relationship satisfaction. Men also rated their investment in gender ideals, their own and their peers' assertiveness, and their own and their peers' autonomous and pressured motivation for gender-conforming behaviors.

Method

Participants. A total of 183 heterosexual romantic couples were recruited from the Sona system. An eligibility requirement of having to be currently involved in a heterosexual romantic

relationship was set, along with having to be under the age of 35. However, the age for romantic partners was not controlled.

Male participants ranged in age from 18 to 48 years (*Mode* = 19; one participant did not provide his age), and identified themselves as White (59.0%), Hispanic/Latino (19.7%), Black (9.8%), Biracial (6.6%), Asian (2.7%), Arabic/Middle eastern (1.1%), Native American (0.5%), and Other (0.5%). Female participants ranged in age 18 to 42 years (*Mode* = 19), and identified themselves as White (55.7%), Hispanic/Latino (19.7%), Asian (8.2%), Biracial (7.7%), Black (7.1%), Other (1.1%), and Arabic/Middle eastern (0.5%).

In addition, 13 men and 29 women self-reported a sexual orientation that was not “Exclusively Heterosexual” on the 7-point scale (1 = *Exclusively Heterosexual [Straight]*, 7 = *Exclusively Homosexual [Gay/Lesbian]*). Twelve men reported a 2 and one man selected the middle of the scale; whereas 22 women reported a 2, three reported a 3, two selected the middle of the scale, one reported a 6, and two self-reported as a Lesbian. This falls in line with a large body of research demonstrating the fluid nature of women’s sexuality (Baumeister, 2000; Diamond, 2003, 2005, 2008), which documents that sexual identity does not always overlap with sexual behavior or attraction. In addition, excluding the two couples that included the self-reported lesbians did not change any of the reported results. Therefore, all couples are included in the reported analyses.

All participants indicated that they were currently in an exclusive romantic relationship. The majority (153 couples) reported dating exclusively, while ten couples indicated they were engaged and 13 reported being married. However, seven couples did not agree on their current relationship status. For two couples the female partners reported they were engaged while the male partners indicated they were only dating exclusively. The opposite occurred for the other

five couples. Excluding the seven couples who disagreed on their current romantic relationship status did not change any of the reported results. In addition, reported relationship length ranged from 8 days to almost 16 years ($Mdn = 501$ days), and did not differ by the gender of the relationship partner reporting relationship length, $F(1, 364) = .08, p = .78$.

Materials and Procedure. Upon arriving at the lab, each couple learned that they would partake in a series of studies exploring romantic relationships. After an experimenter explained that neither would see the other's answers participants filled out their survey packets in separate rooms. Men rated their investment in gender ideals, their own and their peers' assertiveness, their own and their peers' autonomous and pressured motivations for agentic behaviors, their own self-esteem, their own maladaptive relationship behaviors, and their feelings of relationship satisfaction. Women rated their own self-esteem, their partner's maladaptive relationship behaviors, and their feelings of relationship satisfaction. In addition, at the end of each survey both partners filled out demographic information about themselves, and reported the length and exclusiveness of their relationship.

Male participants completed the materials in the order described below, with one exception. The self and peer gender motivation scales were randomly assigned to be presented first or second, respectively. Female participants started with the self-esteem items and completed all subsequent materials in the order described below. For participating, participants received 2 credits (1 credit for each person's amount of time spent in the lab) towards their research requirement for their psychology class. If both members of the couple were in a psychology class, they could decide who received the 2 research credits. Due to administrative limitations the 2 credits could not be split into 1 credit for each member of the couple.

Investment in gender ideals. Two items taken from Wood et al. (1997) were included to assess the strength with which participants felt invested in being the ideal man. Male participants were told to think about how society defines the “ideal man” and asked, “How important is it for you to be similar to the ideal man?” and “To what extent is being similar to the ideal man an important part of who you are?” Participants used a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*a great deal*) (see Appendix A). Internal scale consistency was excellent, $\alpha = .92$.

Gender motivation scale. Eight items were taken from the Gender Motivation Scale (Good & Sanchez, 2010), which was itself adapted from a validated measure of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992). I used the two subscales designed to measure the motivation for autonomous and pressured agency. Male participants were asked to rate on a 7-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) the extent to which they engaged in agentic behaviors due to autonomous motivation (“I enjoy being assertive”; “It brings me pleasure if I behave in a dominant or assertive way”; “It is important to me to be assertive”; “It is important to me not to act passively with others”), and felt pressure from others (“I act in an assertive way because I want others to like me”; “In general, I act confidently because I want others’ acceptance and approval”; “In general, I am assertive because that is what others expect from me”; “I am assertive and confident with others because that is how others think I should be”; see Appendix B). The Autonomous Agentic Motivation subscale ($\alpha = .73$) and the Pressured Agentic Motivation subscale ($\alpha = .85$) demonstrated acceptable and good scale reliability, respectively.

I also created a modified Gender Motivation Scale so that male participants could rate their male peers’ motivation to engage in gendered behavior. Participants were asked to think about the average man around their own age and then rate the extent to which they believed their

male peers engaged in agentic behaviors due to autonomous motivations (“Most men my age enjoy being assertive”; “It brings most men my age pleasure if they behave in a dominant or assertive way”; “It is important to most men my age to be assertive”; “It is important to most men my age not to act passively with others”), and pressured motivations (“Most men my age act in an assertive way because they want others to like them”; “In general, most men my age act confidently because they want others’ acceptance and approval”; “In general, most men my age are assertive because that is what others expect from them”; “Most men my age are assertive and confident with others because that is how others think they should be”). Each item was rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) (see Appendix C). An average score was computed for each subscale and yielded acceptable internal consistency for autonomous ($\alpha = .63$) and pressured ($\alpha = .77$) motivations. The order in which male participants’ rated themselves or their peers on the gender motivation scales showed no significant order effects, $ps > .11$, therefore this variable will not be discussed further.

Self-esteem. Sixteen items from Luhtanen and Crocker’s (1992) Collective Self-Esteem Scale-Gender Version were included to assess how male and female participants felt about themselves within their gender group membership. These items are: “I am a worthy member of the gender group I belong to”; “I feel I don’t have much to offer to the gender group I belong to” (reversed scored); “I am a cooperative participant in the gender group I belong to”; “I often feel I’m a useless member of my gender group” (reversed scored); “I often regret that I belong to my gender group” (reversed scored); “In general, I’m glad to be a member of the gender group I belong to”; “Overall, I often feel that the gender group of which I am a member is not worthwhile” (reversed scored); “I feel good about the gender group I belong to”; “Overall, my gender group is well thought of by others”; “Most people consider my gender group, on the

average, to be more ineffective than the other gender group” (reversed scored); “In general, others respect the gender group that I am a member of”; “In general, others think that the gender group I am a member of is unworthy” (reversed scored); “Overall, my gender membership has very little to do with how I feel about myself” (reversed scored); “The gender group I belong to is an important reflection of who I am”; “The gender group I belong to is unimportant to my sense of what kind of a person I am” (reversed scored); “In general, belonging to my gender group is an important part of my self-image”. Participants used a scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*) (see Appendix D). The eight negatively worded items were reverse scored and all sixteen items were averaged. Internal scale consistency was good for both male ($\alpha = .83$) and female participants ($\alpha = .82$).

In addition, Rosenberg’s (1965) Self-esteem Scale was used to measure male and female participants’ global self-esteem. These items were: “I feel that I’m a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others”; “I feel that I have a number of good qualities”; “All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure” (reverse scored); “I am able to do things as well as most other people”; “I feel I do not have much to be proud of” (reverse scored); “I take a positive attitude toward myself”; “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself”; “I wish I could have more respect for myself” (reverse scored); “I certainly feel useless at times” (reverse scored); “At times, I think I am no good at all” (reverse scored). Participants used a scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*) (see Appendix E). The five negatively worded items were reverse scored and all ten items were averaged. Internal scale consistency was excellent for both male ($\alpha = .90$) and female participants ($\alpha = .92$).

Maladaptive relationship behaviors. Five items were modified from Murray et al. (2008) to measure maladaptive relationship behaviors. Male participants reported how often they

participated in each maladaptive relationship behavior using a 7-point scale (1 = *Never*, 4 = *A few times a month*, 7 = *Once a day*). These items were: “How often do you snap or yell at your partner?”; “How often do you criticize or insult your partner?”; “How often do you ignore or not pay attention to your partner?”; “How often have you thought about ending the relationship with your partner?”; “How often do you do the things your partner asks of you?” (reverse scored; see Appendix F). The last item was reverse scored and the five items were averaged together ($\alpha = .68$) to produce a measure of male reported maladaptive relationship behaviors.

Female participants reported how often their male romantic partner performed each maladaptive relationship behavior using the same 7-point scale. These items were: “How often does your partner snap or yell at you?”; “How often does your partner criticize or insult you?”; “How often does your partner ignore or not pay attention to you?”; “How often does your partner’s behavior make you question their commitment to you?”; “How often does your partner do the things you ask of them?” (reverse scored; see Appendix G). The last item was reverse scored and the five items were averaged together ($\alpha = .71$) to produce a measure of female’s perceived maladaptive relationship behaviors performed by their male partners.

Relationship satisfaction. Both male and female participants were again reminded to think of their current romantic relationship when answering the following items. Participants completed a seven-item scale designed to measure general relationship satisfaction (Hendrick, 1988). Participants responded to the following items using item-specific 9-point scales (e.g., 1 = *Not very well*, 9 = *Very well*): “How well does your partner meet your needs?”; “In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?”; “How good is your relationship compared to most?”; “How often do you wish you hadn’t gotten into this relationship?” (reverse scored); “To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?”; “How much do you love your

partner?"; and "How many problems are there in your relationship?" (reverse scored; see Appendix H). The two negative worded items were reverse scored and the seven items were averaged together to create an overall index of relationship satisfaction. Internal scale consistency was good for both male ($\alpha = .84$) and female participants ($\alpha = .83$).

Demographics. Finally, both male and female participants were then asked their age, race, and sexual orientation. In addition, two questions were about their current romantic relationship. These two items will assess if participants are currently in an exclusive romantic relationships, and how long they have been exclusive. See Appendix I.

Analysis

Polynomial Regressions. Difference scores produce numerous methodological problems. For example, difference scores often produce less reliable results than either of the component measures would (Johns, 1981). Difference scores also combine measures of conceptually distinct constructs into a single score that is inherently ambiguous (Edwards, 2001). In addition, difference scores reduce the explained variance due to imposed constraints (Edwards, 1996; Edwards & Harrison, 1993), and are likely to produce false positives (Edwards, 2001). Finally, difference scores reduce a three-dimensional relationship between the component measures and the outcome to two dimensions (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999).

Therefore, to avoid the problems that difference scores present I used polynomial regression (Edwards, 1994, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993). Specifically, each dependent variable (e.g., self-esteem) was regressed onto five polynomial terms: self-ratings of motivations for autonomous/pressured agency (S), ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous/pressured agency (P), self-ratings of motivations for autonomous/pressured agency squared (S^2), self-ratings of motivations for autonomous/pressured agency times ratings of peers' motivations for

autonomous/pressured agency ($S \times P$), and ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous/pressured agency squared (P^2). S and P were each zero-centered to aid interpretation and reduce the effects of multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). In addition, the investment in gender ideals moderator variable (zero-centered) and its product with each term were added into each model to test whether the effects of discrepancies were moderated.

When interpreting polynomial regression results little emphasis is placed on the significance of specific regression weights. Instead, the focus is on the variance explained by the set of predictors and the information gleaned from reviewing the surface pattern of the graph that is based on the polynomial regression formula (Edwards & Perry, 1993). Regression equations yielding significant R^2 values were plotted and the polynomial regression results were evaluated with regard to four surface test values (Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggestad, 2010), which give estimates of the slopes and curvatures of the surface along the $S = P$ and $S = -P$ lines (Edwards, 2002). The $S = P$ line runs from the back corner to the front corner of the graph, and represents the line of fit. The $S = -P$ line runs perpendicular to the $S = P$ line (horizontally from the corner on the Y-axis to the corner on the X-axis along the base of the graph) and represents the line of misfit. Along the $S = -P$ line, as the value of one predictor increases and the other decreases, the discrepancy between the two predictors becomes larger.

Figure 1 displays the predicted surface plot results for self-ratings and ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency as it relates to men's self-esteem. I predict that the slope for the line of misfit ($S = -P$) will be significant, but not along the line of fit ($S = P$). As men's autonomous motivations for agency become lower than their ratings of their peers' motivations they should report lower levels of self-esteem. Or, as men perceive themselves as possessing more autonomous motivations for agency than their peers they should report higher levels of

self-esteem. The non-significant slope predicted for the line of fit ($S = P$) indicates that I do not expect self-esteem to differ systematically among men who perceive themselves and their peers as possessing similar levels (whether high or low) of motivations.

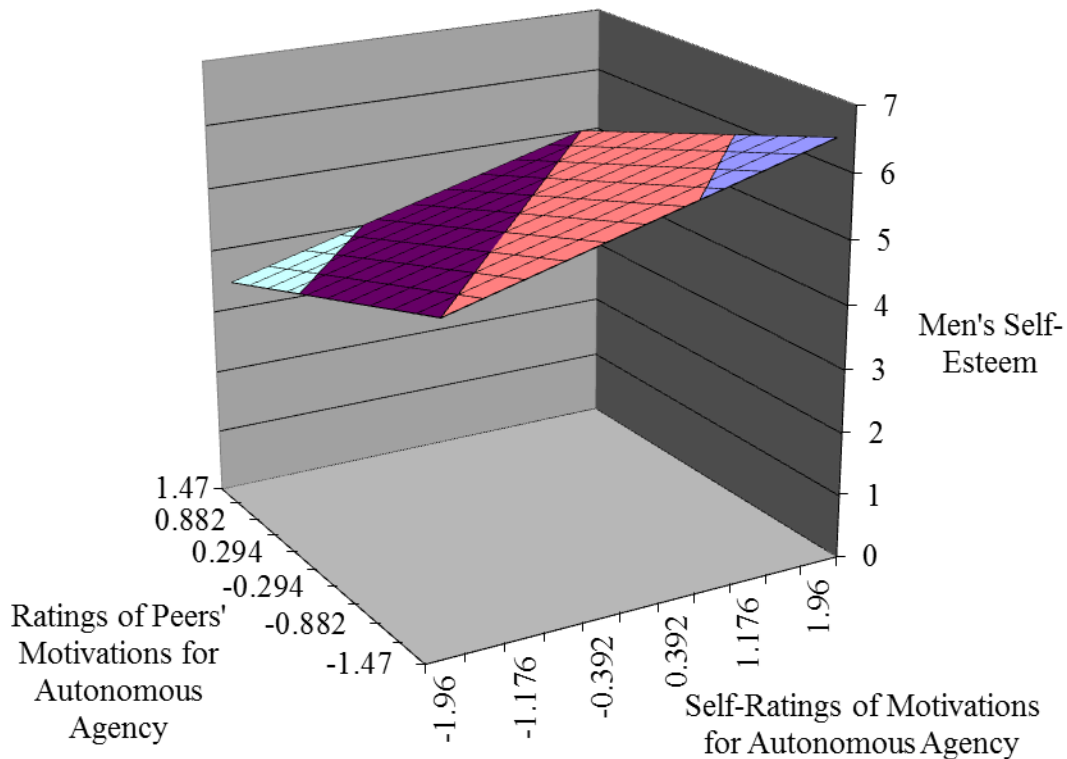


Figure 1. Predicted Results for the Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Men's Self-Esteem. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.47 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.96 corner on the X-axis.

Figure 2 plots the predicted results for men's reported maladaptive relationship behaviors for autonomous agency. Again, I predict a significant result along the slope for the line of misfit ($S = -P$), but no significant results along the line of fit ($S = P$). Men will report more maladaptive relationship behaviors to the extent that they perceive themselves as lower than their peers in terms of autonomous motivations for agentic behaviors. The surface plot for female partner's reported frequency of their partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors should be similar to

Figure 2. Specifically, men's perceived discrepancies of autonomous motivations should predict female partner's reported frequency of their partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors.

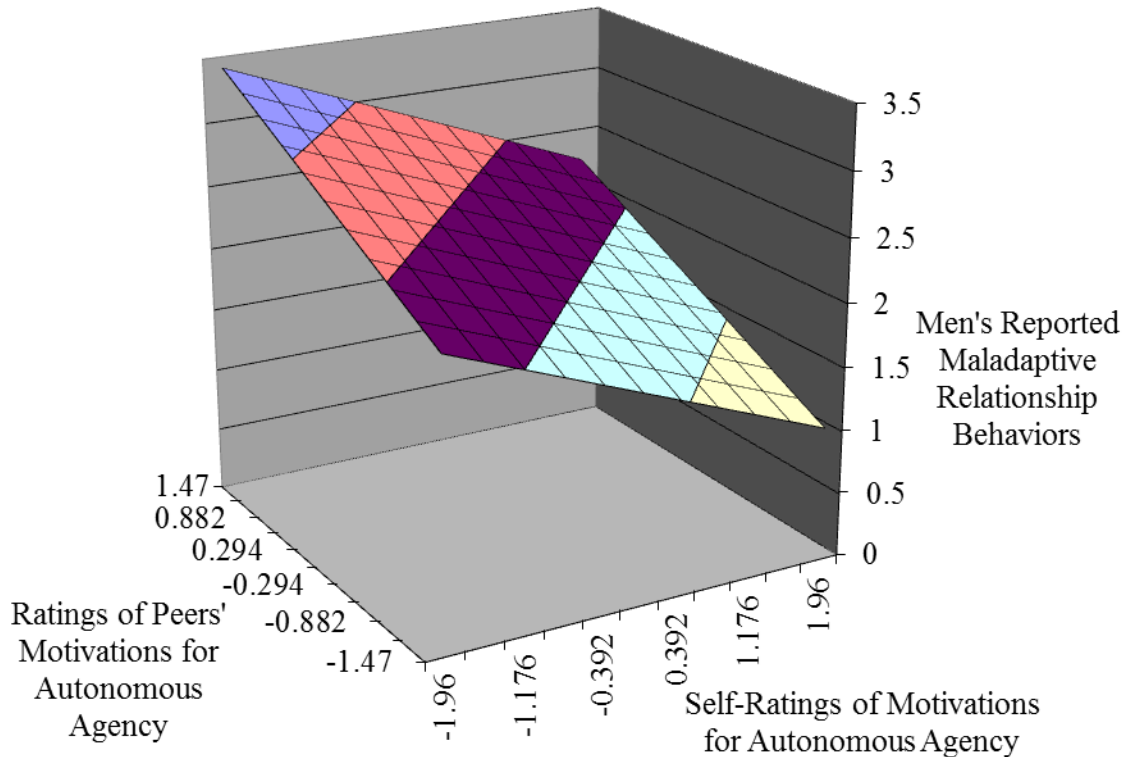


Figure 2. Predicted Results for the Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Men's Reported Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.47 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.96 corner on the X-axis.

In addition, I predict that men will report lower levels of relationship satisfaction to the extent that they perceive themselves as lower than their peers in terms of autonomous motivations for agentic behaviors (significant line of misfit; non-significant line of fit). Figure 3 plots the predicted results for men's relationship satisfaction for autonomous agency. Women's relationship satisfaction should produce similar results.

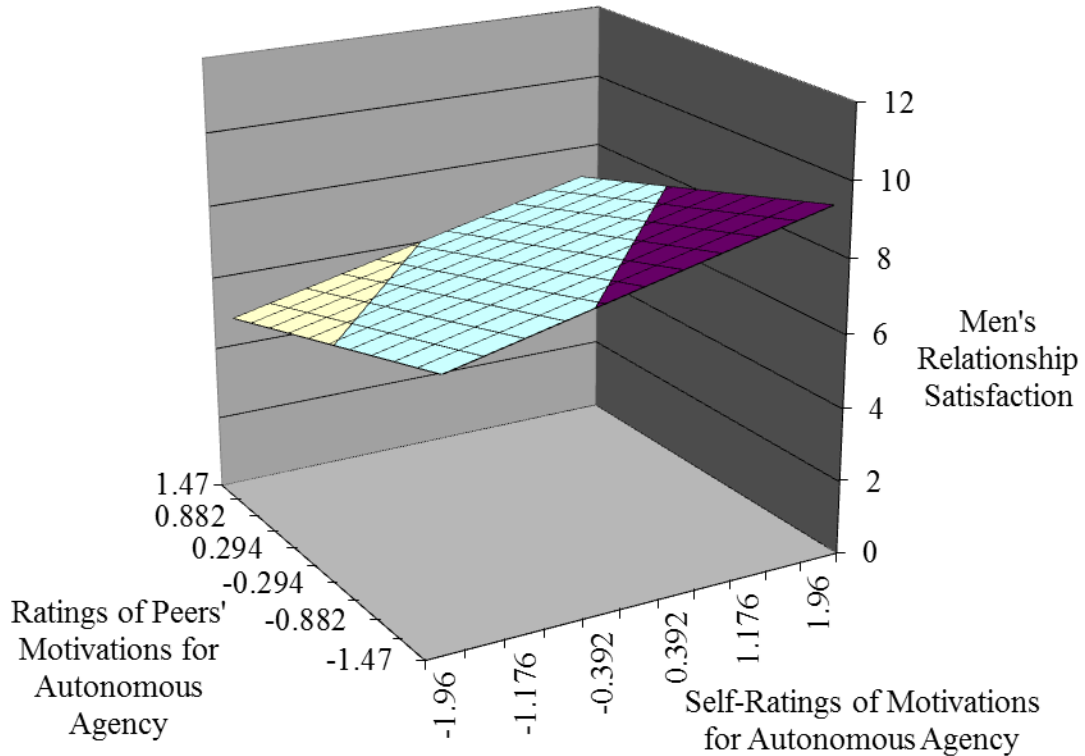


Figure 3. Predicted Results for the Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Men's Relationship Satisfaction. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.47 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.96 corner on the X-axis.

Figure 4 displays the predicted results using the surface plot for self-ratings and ratings of peers' motivations for pressured agency as it relates to men's self-esteem. Again, I predict that the slope for the $S = -P$ line will be significant. As men's pressured motivations for agency become greater than their ratings of their peers' motivations they should report lower levels of self-esteem; and as their ratings become lower it should positively relate to self-esteem.

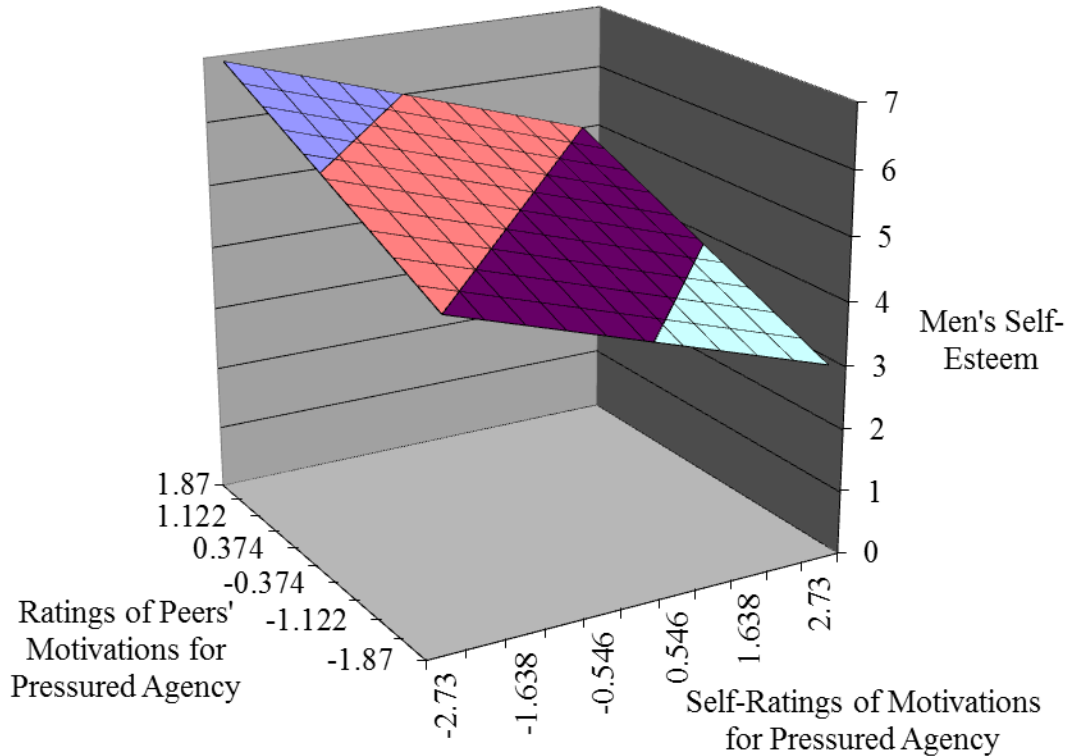


Figure 4. Predicted Results for the Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Pressured Agency with Men's Self-Esteem. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.87 corner on the Y-axis to the 2.73 corner on the X-axis.

Figure 5 displays the predicted results for men's reported maladaptive relationship behaviors for pressured agency. I predict a significant result along the slope for the $S = -P$ line, but not along the $S = P$ line. Men will report more maladaptive relationship behaviors to the extent that they perceive themselves as higher than their peers in terms of pressured motivations for agentic behaviors. Female partner's reported frequency of their partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors should produce similar results.

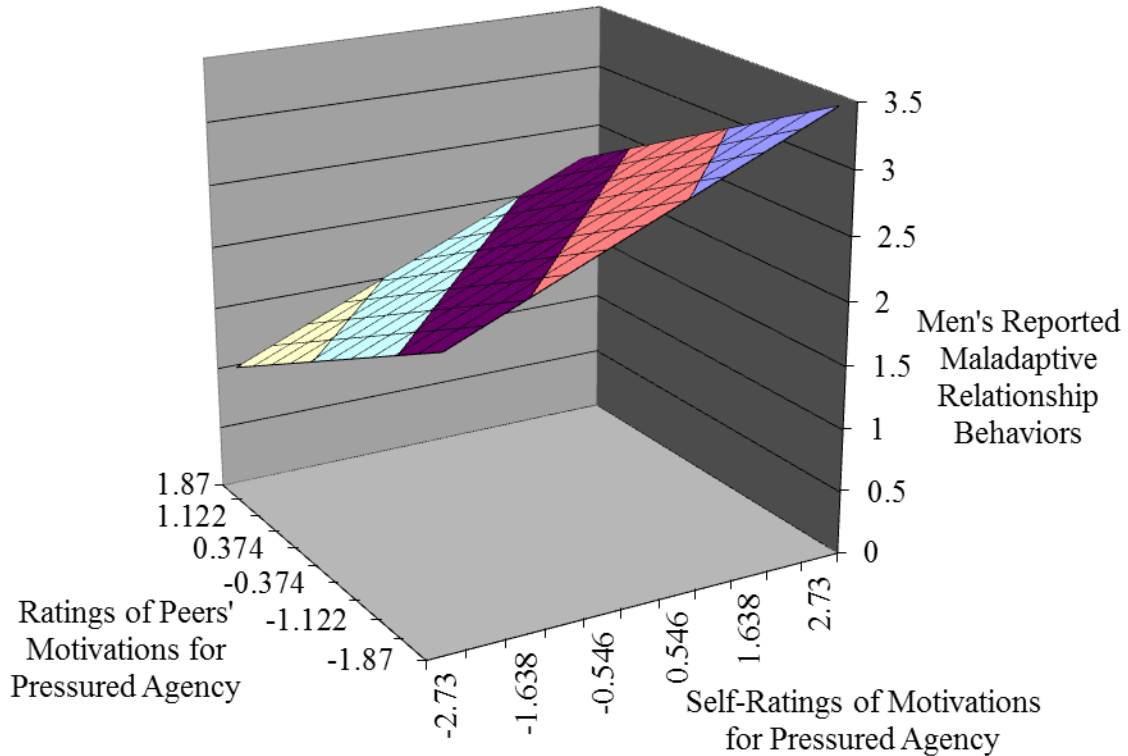


Figure 5. Predicted Results for the Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Pressured Agency with Men's Reported Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.87 corner on the Y-axis to the 2.73 corner on the X-axis.

Finally, I predict that men will report higher levels of relationship satisfaction to the extent that they perceive themselves as lower than their peers in terms of pressured motivations for agentic behaviors (significant $S = -P$; non-significant $S = P$). Figure 6 displays these predicted results. Women's relationship satisfaction should produce similar results.

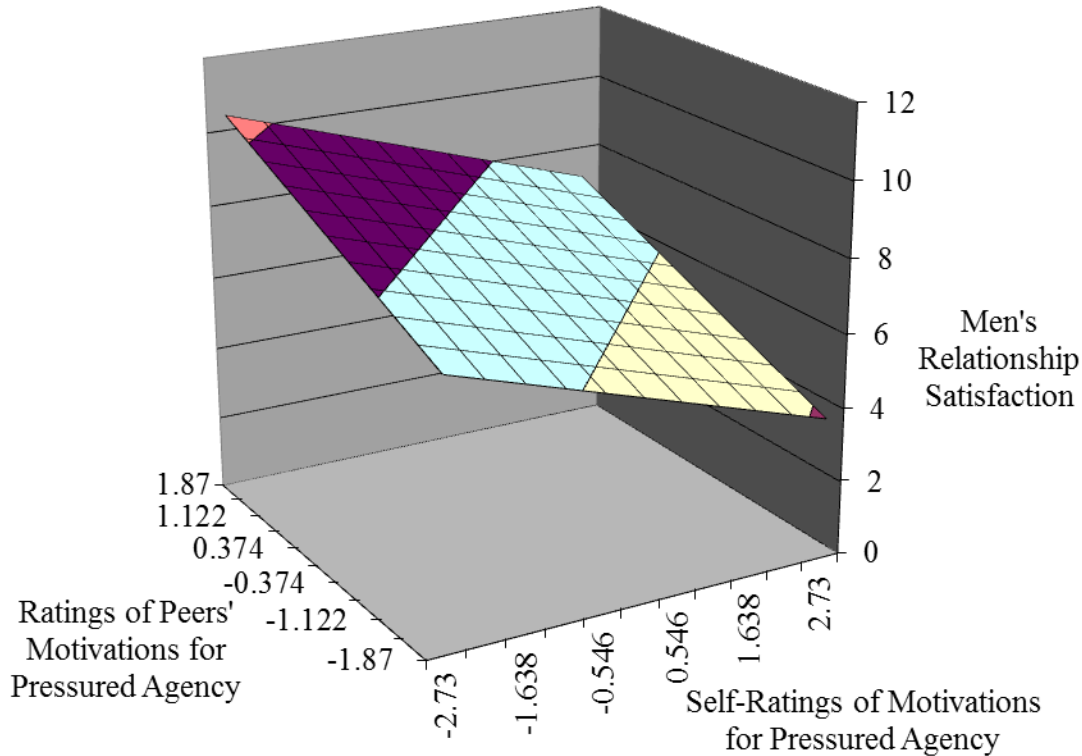


Figure 6. Predicted Results for the Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Pressured Agency with Men's Relationship Satisfaction. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.87 corner on the Y-axis to the 2.73 corner on the X-axis.

Results

Descriptive Statistics. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations among all variables. In support of Hypothesis 1, men rated themselves ($M = 4.40, SD = 0.98$) as less autonomously motivated to adhere to gender-stereotypical behaviors than they rated their peers ($M = 5.12, SD = 0.74; F[1, 182] = 63.96, p < .001, d = 0.83$). In support of Hypothesis 11, men rated themselves ($M = 3.41, SD = 1.36$) lower on pressured motivations to act agentially than they rated their peers ($M = 5.30, SD = 0.94; F[1, 182] = 340.07, p < .001, d = 1.62$). Finally, men and women did not differ in self-ratings of collective gender self-esteem, global self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and perceptions of the male partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors, all $ps > .11$.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among All Variables.

	IGI	AA	PRA	PAA	PPRA	MCS	WCS	MGS	WGS	MRB	WRB	MRS	WRS
IGI	---												
AA	.28**	---											
PRA	.50**	.38**	---										
PAA	.02	.02	.13	---									
PPRA	-.05	-.01	.32**	.35**	---								
MCS	.28**	.22**	.19**	-.09	-.13	---							
WCS	.16*	.12	.13	-.08	.04	.14	---						
MGS	-.08	.10	-.23**	-.11	-.10	.28**	.03	---					
WGS	.13	.04	-.01	-.15	-.14	.19*	.40**	.06	---				
MRB	-.07	.20**	.15*	.02	.03	.02	-.04	-.22**	.03	---			
WRB	.02	.13	.11	.00	.00	.02	-.05	-.21**	-.15*	.47**	---		
MRS	-.04	-.14	-.06	.05	.03	-.13	-.04	.22**	-.07	-.61**	-.47**	---	
WRS	.02	-.03	-.02	.00	-.03	-.04	.17*	.14	.14	-.34**	-.56**	.47**	---
<i>M</i>	4.12	4.40 _a	3.41 _a	5.12 _b	5.30 _b	5.45	5.34	5.82	5.65	2.26	2.23	7.87	7.88
<i>SD</i>	1.55	0.98	1.36	0.74	0.94	0.73	0.69	0.96	1.05	0.97	1.03	1.07	0.99

Note. IGI = Men's Investment in Gender Ideals; AA = Men's Autonomous Agentic Motivations; PRA = Men's Pressured Agentic Motivations; PAA = Men's rating of Peer Autonomous Agentic Motivations; PPRA = Men's rating of Peer Pressured Agentic Motivations; MCS = Men's Collective Gender Self-Esteem; WCS = Women's Collective Gender Self-Esteem; MGS = Men's Global Self-Esteem; WGS = Women's Global Self-Esteem; MRB = Men's reported Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors; WRB = Women's rating of their male partners' Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors; MRS = Men's Relationship Satisfaction; WRS = Women's Relationship Satisfaction

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Means with a, b subscripts significantly differ by self-rating versus rating of peers.

Results for Autonomous Motivations. Table 2 presents the estimated coefficients, adjusted R^2 values, the slopes and curvatures along the fit and misfit lines, and the increment in R^2 for the investment in gender ideals moderator.

Hypothesis 2 states that investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivations and men's self-esteem. As seen in the last column of the first row in Table 2 this prediction was not supported for men's collective gender self-esteem, $F(5, 171) = 1.67, p = 0.15$. However, given the significant variance explained by the predictors ($R^2 = .07, F[5, 177] = 3.81, p = .003$), the equations were plotted. Figure 7 displays the surface plot for self-ratings and ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency as it relates to men's collective gender self-esteem. The $S = P$ line was not significant, $F(2, 177) = 0.71, p = .49$. This indicates that the line is flat and that when men's self-ratings and ratings of peers' autonomous motivations match, men's collective gender self-esteem does not change. However, the surface tests revealed a significant positive slope along the $S = -P$ line, $F(2, 177) = 6.38, p = .002$. The overall significant main effect for the $S = -P$ line appears to be driven by the slope ($slope = 0.31, p = .001$; $curvature = 0.14, p = .19$). Specifically, higher collective gender self-esteem was related to when men's autonomous motivations for agency were higher than their perceptions of their peers' motivations; whereas the converse does not appear to be true.

Table 2

Results from Polynomial Regressions of Outcomes on Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency.

Variable	B					Adj. R ²	Along S = P line		Along S = -P line		R ² Change with MIGI
	S	P	S ²	S x P	P ²		Slope	Curvature	Slope	Curvature	
MCS	.21**	-.10	.11*	-.07	-.04	.07**	0.11	0.01	0.31**	0.14	.04
WCS	.06	-.08	-.06	.03	.07	.01	-0.02	0.04	0.13	-0.02	.04
MGS	.10	-.14	-.01	-.02	-.06	-.00	-0.05	-0.09	0.24 [†]	-0.05	.06 [†]
WGS	.05	-.21*	.01	.03	.07	-.001	-0.17	0.12	0.26 [†]	0.05	.02
MRB	.20*	.03	-.02	-.13	.08	.03 [†]	0.23 [†]	-0.07	0.17	0.19	.03
WRB	.16 [†]	.02	.003	-.21*	-.15	.02 [†]	0.18	-0.36*	0.14	0.07	.04
MRS	-.14	.07	.04	.13	-.09	.01	-0.07	0.09	-0.21	-0.17	.03
WRS	-.01	-.01	.06	.03	.12	-.01	-0.02	0.21	-0.001	0.15	.01

Note. MIGI = Investment in gender ideals moderator; S = Self-ratings of motivations for autonomous agency; P = ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency; S² = Self-ratings of motivations for autonomous agency squared; S x P = Self-ratings of motivations for autonomous agency times ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency; P² = Ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency squared; MCS = Men's Collective Gender Self-Esteem; WCS = Women's Collective Gender Self-Esteem; MGS = Men's Global Self-Esteem; WGS = Women's Global Self-Esteem; MRB = Men's reported Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors; WRB = Women's rating of their male partners' Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors; MRS = Men's Relationship Satisfaction; WRS = Women's Relationship Satisfaction

[†]p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01.

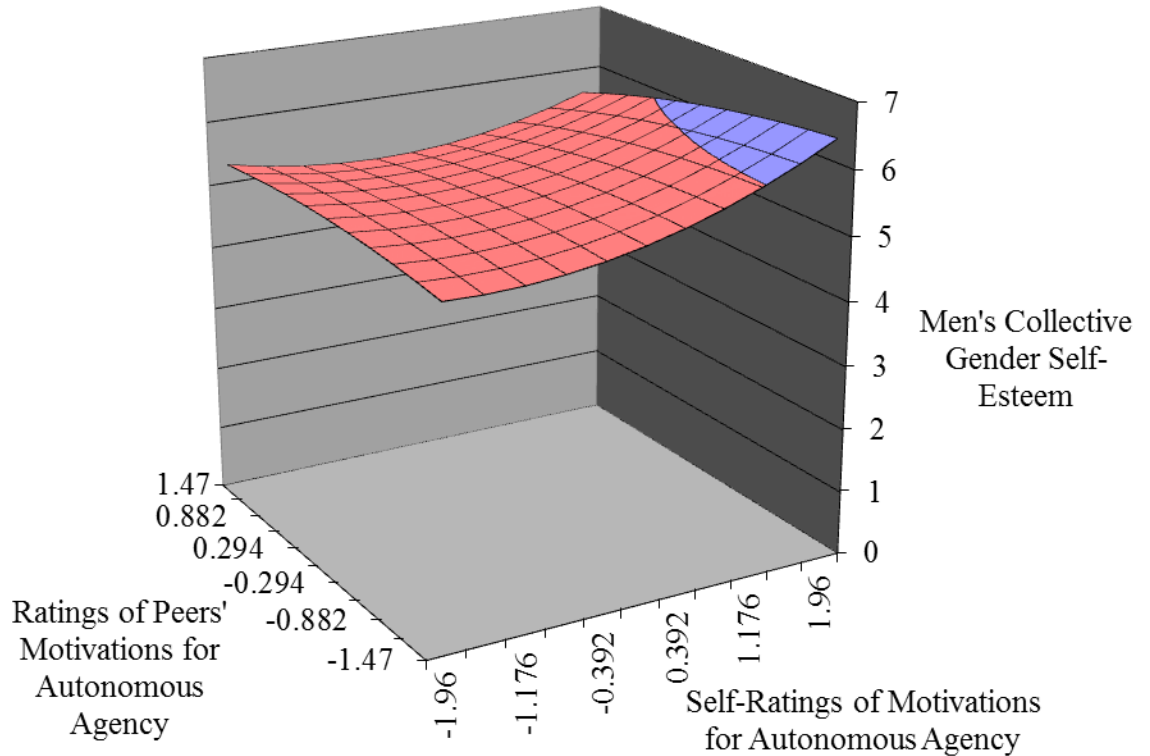


Figure 7. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Men's Collective Gender Self-Esteem. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.47 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.96 corner on the X-axis.

Investment in gender ideals marginally significantly moderated the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivations and men's global self-esteem (last column on the right, third row from the top in Table 2; $F[5, 171] = 2.05, p = .07$). Therefore, I regressed men's global self-esteem scores onto strength of self-ratings for autonomous motivations for agency (zero-centered), strength of ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency (zero-centered), strength of investment in gender ideals (zero-centered), all two-interaction terms, and the three-way interaction term. This produced a marginally significant effect of strength of self-ratings for autonomous motivations for agency, $\beta = .13, t(175) = 1.68, p = .10$, and a nearly significant strength of ratings of peers' motivation for autonomous agency by strength of investment in gender ideals interaction, $\beta = -.10, t(175) = -1.95, p = .053$, both of which were

moderated by a marginally significant three-way interaction, $\beta = .101$, $t(175) = 1.86$, $p = .06$. Next, I deconstructed the three-way interaction by examining the interaction of self-ratings of autonomous motivation for agency by peers' autonomous motivation for agency separately among participants high and low investment in gender ideals. No significant effects emerged for men low in investment for gender ideals, $ts < 1.7$, $ps > .10$ (see bottom Figure 8). However, among men highly invested in gender ideals, those who rated their peers' autonomous motivations lower reported higher levels of global self-esteem to the extent they themselves were lower in autonomous motivations for agency, $\beta = -.28$, $t(175) = -1.93$, $p = .055$ (see top Figure 8).

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were not supported. Specifically, investment in gender ideals did not moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors or relationship satisfaction ($Fs[5, 171] < 1.16$, $ps > .33$; see far right of rows five and seven in Table 2). However, the variance explained by the predictors for men's maladaptive relationship behaviors was marginally significant, $R^2 = .03$, $F(5, 177) = 2.05$, $p = .07$. Therefore, the equations were once again plotted and the polynomial regression results were evaluated with regard to four surface test values (Shanock et al., 2010). The slope of S = P line was marginally significant ($slope = 0.23$, $p = .06$), while the curvature was not significant ($curvature = -0.07$, $p = .65$). As Figure 9 shows as both self-ratings and ratings of their peers' motivations for autonomous agency increase, men's reported maladaptive relationship behaviors increase. The surface test for the S = -P line was not significant, $F(2, 177) = 1.64$, $p = .20$.

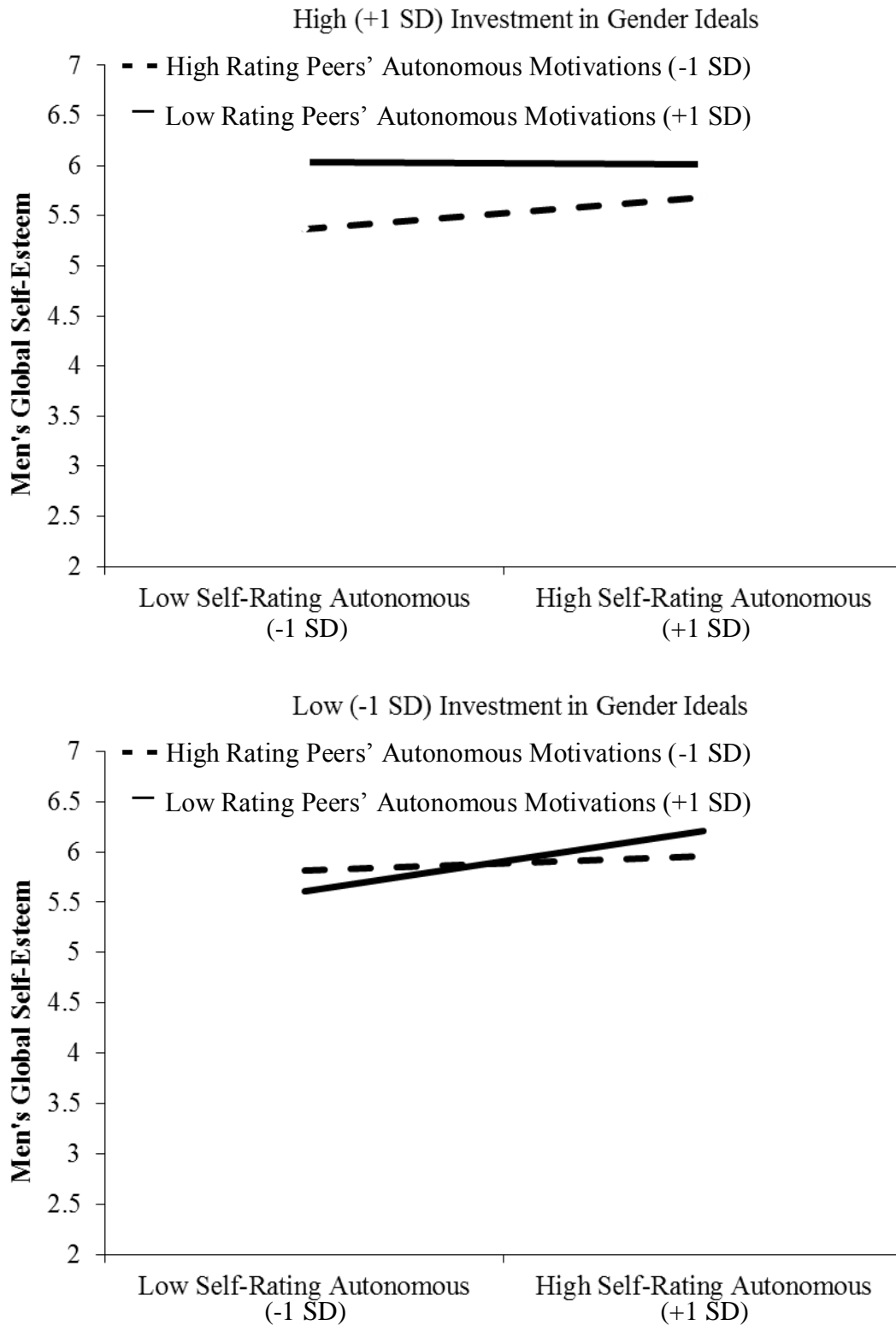


Figure 8. Men's Global Self-Esteem as a function of ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency and self-ratings of motivations for autonomous agency, when investment in gender ideals is high (top figure) and low (bottom figure).

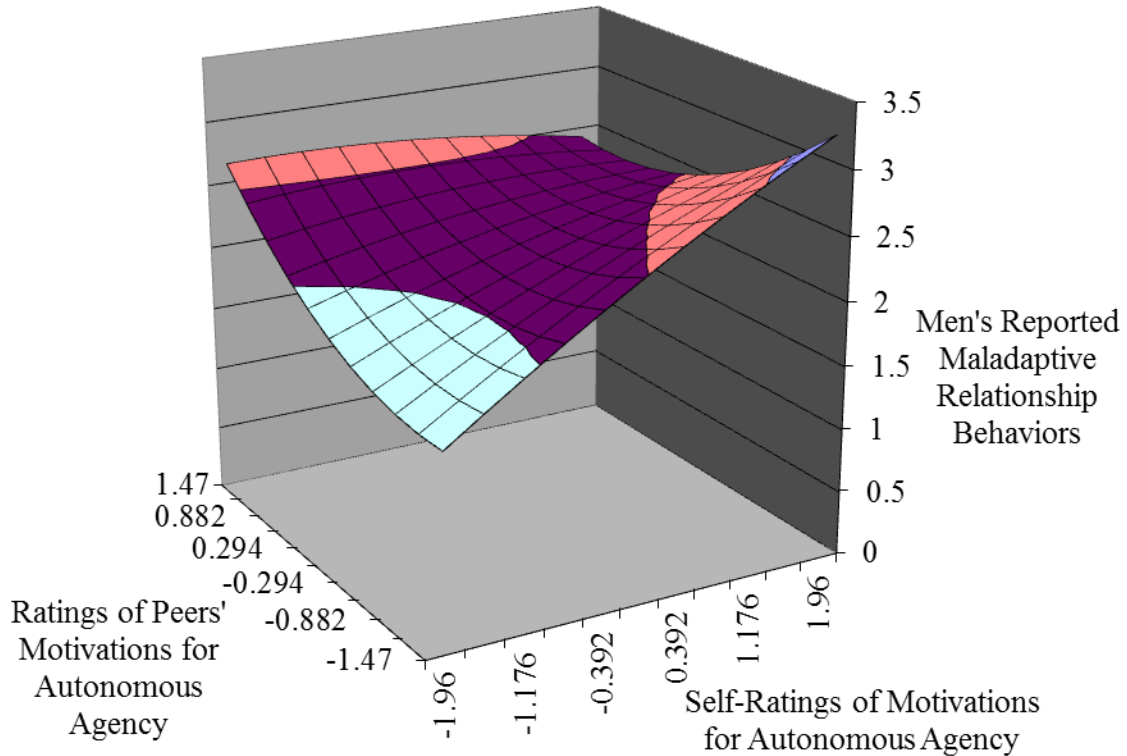


Figure 9. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Men's Reported Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.47 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.96 corner on the X-axis.

To test Hypotheses 5 and 6, I planned to test for mediation using the procedure recommended by Edwards and Cable (2009). However, since both Hypotheses 3 and 4 were not supported, I could not proceed as planned.

While not specifically hypothesized I was able to investigate if men's investment in gender ideals moderated the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and women's self-esteem. However, neither turned out significant, $F_s(5, 171) < 1.46$, $p_s > .21$ (see far right of rows two and four in Table 2).

Hypotheses 7 and 8 were not supported. Specifically, investment in gender ideals did not moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivation and women's reported frequency of their partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors or relationship

satisfaction ($F_s[5, 171] < 1.35, p_s > .25$; see far right of rows six and eight in Table 2). However, the surface tests were performed for the women's ratings of their male partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors because the predictors were marginally significant, $R^2 = .02, F(5, 177) = 1.90, p = .10$. The surface tests revealed a significant slope along the $S = P$ line, $F(2, 177) = 3.30, p = .04$, and appears to be driven by the curvature and not the slope ($slope = 0.18, p = .17$; $curvature = -0.36, p = .03$). Specifically, women's ratings of their male partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors decreased more sharply as both men's self-ratings and ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency become lower or higher than some middle point (see Figure 10). The surface tests for the $S = -P$ line were not significant, $F(2, 177) = 0.60, p = .55$.

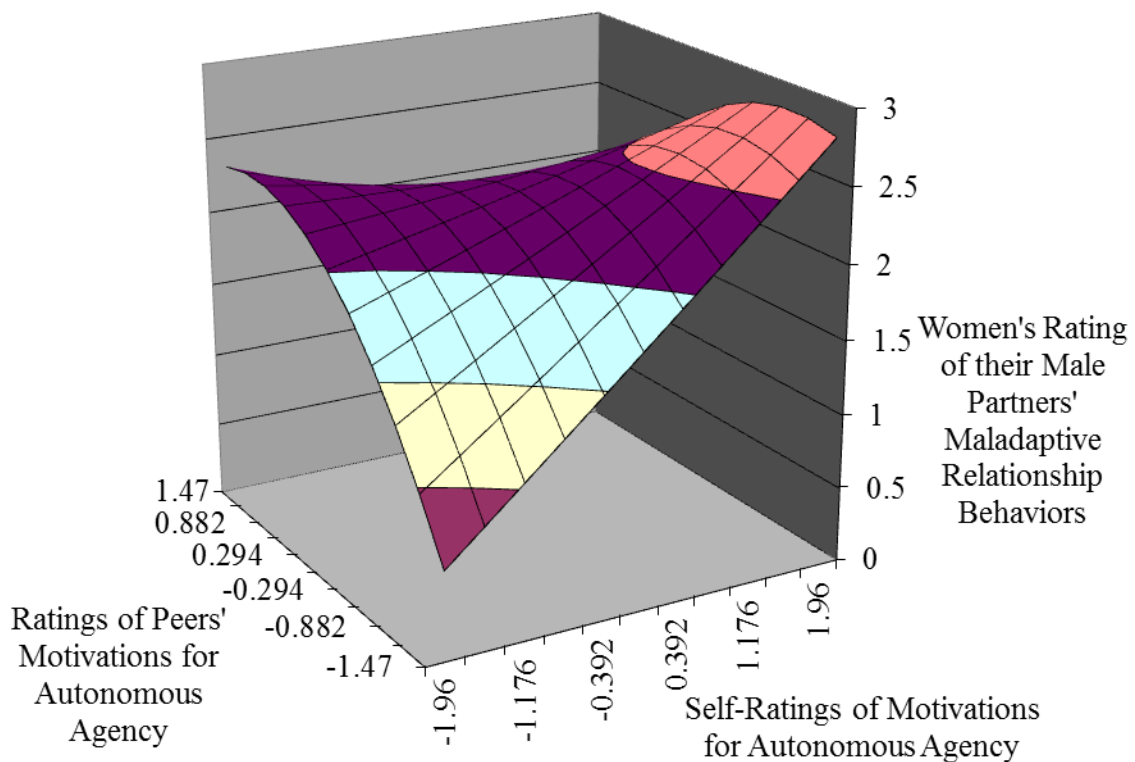


Figure 10. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Women's Rating of their Male Partners' Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.47 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.96 corner on the X-axis.

Once more, I could not proceed as planned to test Hypotheses 9 and 10 because my predictions for moderation were not met.

Results for Pressured Motivations. Hypothesis 12 states that investment in gender ideals will moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivations and men's self-esteem. As seen Table 3 (last column of the first row) this prediction was not supported for men's collective self-esteem ($F[5, 171] = 1.01, p = 0.42$), or men's global self-esteem ($F[5, 171] = 1.76, p = 0.12$; see Table 3 last column of the third row).

However, the variance explained by the predictors was significant for men's collective gender self-esteem, $R^2 = .06, F(5, 177) = 3.51, p = .005$. The $S = P$ line was found to be flat ($F[2, 177] = 0.84, p = .43$), while the $S = -P$ line revealed a significant positive slope, $F(2, 177) = 5.64, p = .004$. This significant main effect for the $S = -P$ line appears to be driven by the slope and not the curvature ($slope = 0.30, p = .001$; $curvature = -0.01, p = .88$). Figure 11 reveals that as men's pressured motivations for agency became higher than their perceptions of their peers' pressured motivations it positively associated with men's collective gender self-esteem. The converse also appears to be true. In addition, the variance explained by the predictors was significant for men's global self-esteem, $R^2 = .04, F(5, 177) = 2.37, p = .04$. However, none of the surface tests for $S = P$ and $S = -P$ were significant, $ps > .23$.

Hypotheses 13 and 14 were not supported. Specifically, investment in gender ideals did not moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors or relationship satisfaction ($F_s[5, 171] < 1.39, ps > .22$; see far right of rows five and seven in Table 3).

Table 3

Results from Polynomial Regressions of Outcomes on Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Pressured Agency.

Variable	B		B				Along S = P line		Along S = -P line		R ² Change with MIGI
	S	P	S ²	S x P	P ²	Adj. R ²	Slope	Curvature	Slope	Curvature	
MCS	.13**	-.17*	.03	.03	-.02	.06**	-0.04	0.04	0.30**	-0.01	.03
WCS	.07 [†]	-.09	.01	-.06	-.04	.02	-0.02	-0.09*	0.16 [†]	0.01	.02
MGS	-.16**	.02	-.03	.02	.03	.04*	-0.13	0.02	-0.18	-0.02	.05
WGS	.05	-.24*	-.05	-.10	.01	.03 [†]	-0.19 [†]	-0.15*	0.28*	0.06	.02
MRB	.10 [†]	-.001	.028	.03	-.01	.001	0.10	0.05	0.10	-0.01	.04
WRB	.06	-.04	.05	.09	-.07	.01	0.03	0.07	0.10	-0.11	.05 [†]
MRS	-.06	.12	-.03	-.003	.05	-.01	0.06	0.02	-0.17	0.02	.02
WRS	.01	-.05	.03	-.10	.05	-.01	-0.04	-0.03	0.06	0.18	.01

Note. MIGI = Investment in gender ideals moderator; S = Self-ratings of motivations for pressured agency; P = ratings of peers' motivations for pressured agency; S² = Self-ratings of motivations for pressured agency squared; S x P = Self-ratings of motivations for pressured agency times ratings of peers' motivations for pressured agency; P² = Ratings of peers' motivations for pressured agency squared; MCS = Men's Collective Gender Self-Esteem; WCS = Women's Collective Gender Self-Esteem; MGS = Men's Global Self-Esteem; WGS = Women's Global Self-Esteem; MRB = Men's reported Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors; WRB = Women's rating of their male partners' Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors; MRS = Men's Relationship Satisfaction; WRS = Women's Relationship Satisfaction

[†]p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01.

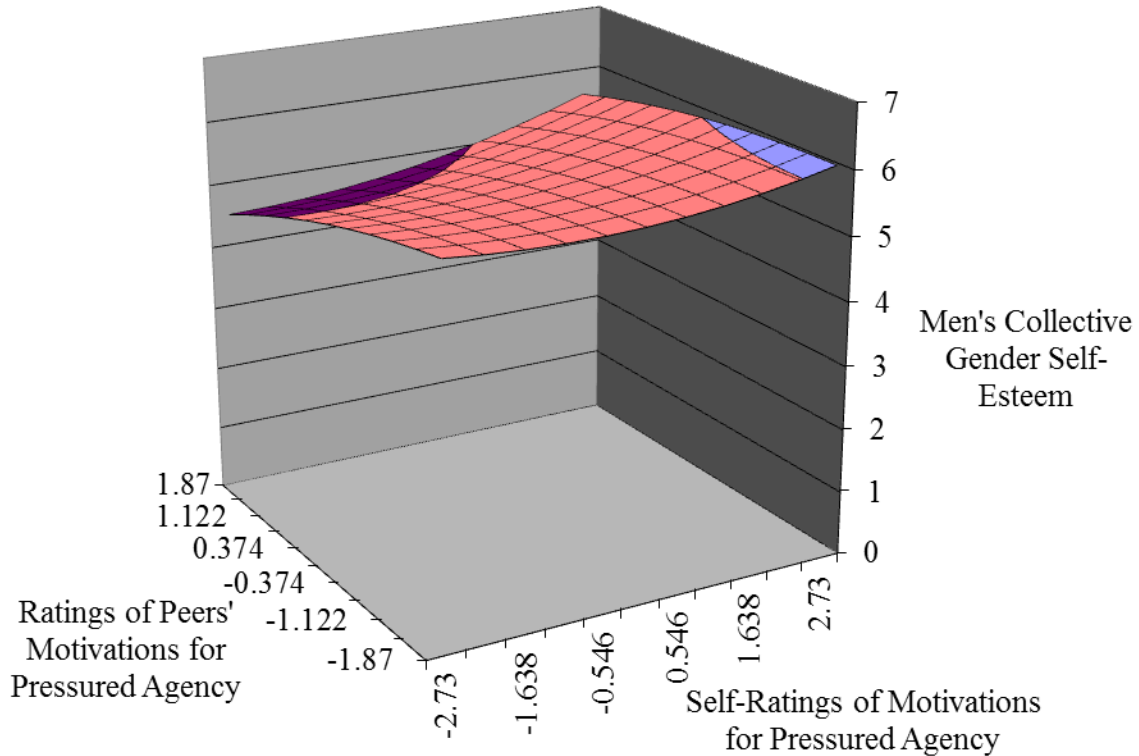


Figure 11. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Pressured Agency with Men's Collective Gender Self-Esteem. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.87 corner on the Y-axis to the 2.73 corner on the X-axis.

Hypotheses 15 and 16 could not be tested since both Hypotheses 12 and 13 were not supported. However, I was able to investigate if men's investment in gender ideals moderated the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and women's self-esteem. Neither turned out significant, $F(5, 171) < 0.86, p > .51$ (see far right of rows two and four in Table 3). In addition, the variance explained by the predictors was marginally significant for women's global self-esteem, $R^2 = .03, F(5, 177) = 2.09, p = .07$. Figure 12 displays the surface plots. The curvature along the $S = P$ line was significant ($curvature = -.15, p = .02$), indicating that when men's self-rating and ratings of peers' motivations for pressured agency are both high or both low, women's global self-esteem decreases. The surface tests also revealed a significant positive slope along the $S = -P$ line ($slope = .288, p = .03$). This finding suggests that the

direction of the discrepancy matters. The positive terms indicate that women’s global self-esteem is greater when their male partners rate their own pressured motivations for agency higher than their peers’ motivations, in comparison to when a discrepancy opposite in nature is present.

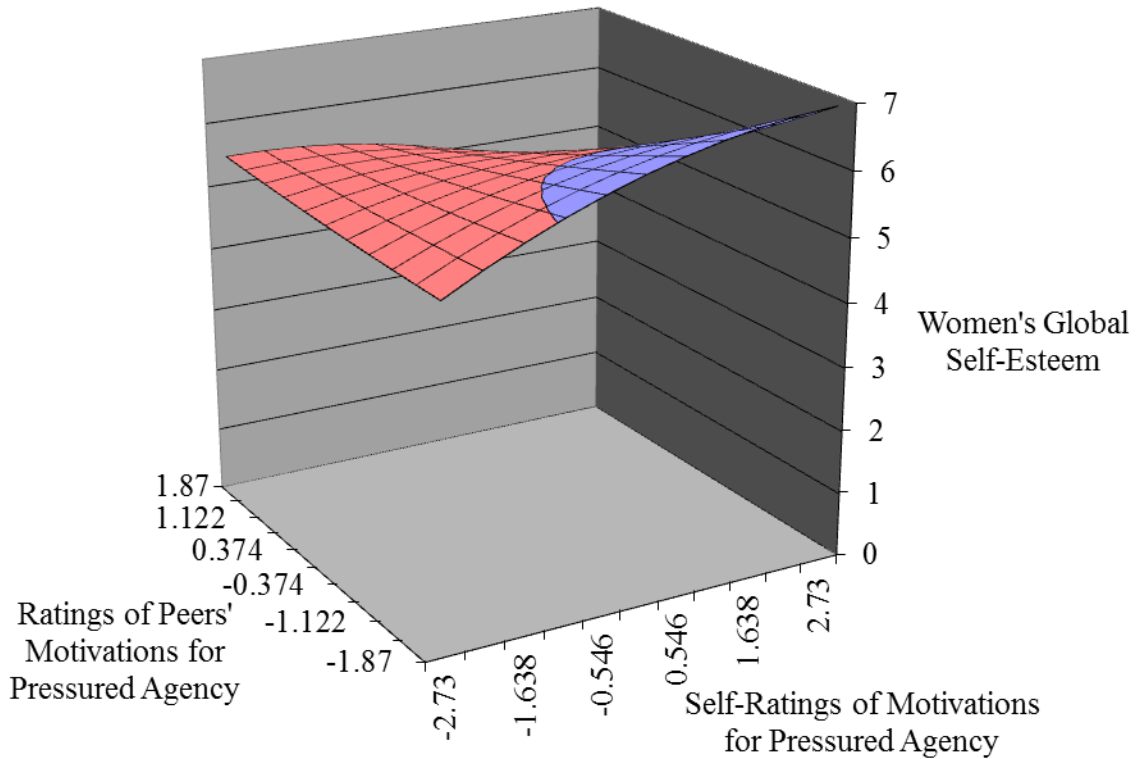


Figure 12. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers’ Motivations for Pressured Agency with Women’s Global Self-Esteem. The S = P line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The S = -P (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.87 corner on the Y-axis to the 2.73 corner on the X-axis.

Hypothesis 17 was weakly supported. Specially, investment in gender ideals marginally significantly moderated the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivations and women’s ratings of their male partners’ maladaptive relationship behaviors (sixth row down in Table 3; $F[5, 171] = 1.96, p = .09$). I regressed women’s rating of their male partners’ maladaptive relationship behaviors onto self-ratings of pressured motivations for agency (zero-centered), ratings of peers’ pressured motivations for agency (zero-centered), strength of investment in gender ideals (zero-centered), all two-interaction terms, and the three-

way interaction term. This produced a significant interaction of peers' pressured motivation by investment in gender ideals, $\beta = .15$, $t(175) = 2.09$, $p = .04$, which was moderated by a marginally significant three-way interaction, $\beta = .073$, $t(175) = 1.79$, $p = .08$. I deconstructed the three-way interaction by examining the interaction of self-rated motivations by peers' motivations separately among men who were high and low investment in gender ideals ratings. No significant effects emerged when men were highly invested in gender ideals, $ts < 1.7$, $ps > .10$. Only one significant result emerged for men low in investment for gender ideals. Men who rated their peers' pressured motivations higher had female partners who reported the men as performing more maladaptive relationship behaviors to the extent that the men themselves were higher in pressured motivation for agency, $\beta = -.20$, $t(175) = -2.22$, $p = .03$ (see bottom Figure 13).

Hypothesis 18 was not supported. Investment in gender ideals did not moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in pressured motivation and women's reported relationship satisfaction ($F [5, 171] < 0.35$, $p = .88$; see far right of row eight in Table 3).

Finally, I could not proceed as planned to test Hypotheses 19 and 20 because my predictions for moderation were not meet.



Figure 13. Women's rating of their male partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors as a function of ratings of peers' motivations for pressured agency and self-ratings of motivations for pressured agency, when investment in gender ideals is high (top figure) and low (bottom figure).

Discussion

An abundance of research shows the positive association between the quality of one's romantic relationship and physical and mental health outcomes (Coyne et al., 2001; Hawkins & Booth, 2005; Robles et al., 2014; Rook & Pietromonaco, 1987; Umberson et al., 1996). Within this literature, research on the psychology of men has demonstrated men's endorsement of or conformity to traditional masculinity norms negatively affects both partners within a heterosexual romantic relationship (Burn & Ward, 2005; Ickes, 1993; McGraw, 2001). Additionally, increased gender role conflict for men is associated with reduced relationship satisfaction (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Rochlen & Mahlik, 2004), and more maladaptive relationship behaviors (Breiding, 2004; Windel & Smith, 2009). The current research sought to extend this line of work by studying the underlying motivations propelling men's gender-conforming behaviors, and specifically how the perceived discrepancies between self and peers' motivations for performing agentic behaviors influences self-esteem and romantic relationship outcomes for both partners.

I predicted that men would overestimate the descriptive norms for autonomous motivations to act assertively (Prentice & Carranza, 2002) and believe that their private motivations deviated from their peers (Prentice & Miller, 1996). This prediction was supported (see the means for AA and PAA in Table 1). I then predicted that men's perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivations would decrease self-esteem, especially among men highly invested in gender ideals. While moderation was not supported, Figure 7 provides evidence that when men's autonomous motivations for agency were greater than their predictions of their peers'

motivations it positively related to collective gender self-esteem. I also predicted that when men's autonomous motivations for agency were lower than their prediction of their peers' motivations they would experience a decrease in collective gender self-esteem. This appears not to be the case.

However, the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivations and men's global self-esteem was partially moderated by investment in gender ideals, which supports my hypothesis 2. Men who were more autonomously motivated to conform to gender stereotypes had higher self-esteem, which is consistent with past research in self-determination theory (Deci et al., 1981). Also, among men highly invested in gender ideals, those who rated themselves lower and rated their peers lower in levels of motivations for autonomous agency, produced higher levels of global self-esteem compared to men who rated their peers' high in autonomous motivations.

Figure 9 indicates that as men's self-ratings and ratings of their peers' motivations for autonomous agency jointly increase, men's reported maladaptive relationship behaviors also escalate. This was not predicted, and runs counter to work looking at gender role conflicts. Men who experience anxiety and distress as a result of not living up to traditional gender role expectations exhibit more behaviors that are harmful to relationships (Rochlen & Mahalik, 2004). The results here show that a mismatch of motivation perceptions is not an issue in terms of maladaptive behaviors, but the degree to which they autonomously endorse traditional gender roles predicts the quantity of men's relationship detrimental behaviors.

In addition, women's self-esteem does not seem to be related by men's perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivations. However, women's ratings of their male partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors decreased sharply if men's self-ratings and their ratings of

peers' motivations for autonomous agency both went lower or higher than the middle point (see Figure 10). Therefore, this finding partially overlaps with men's self-reported maladaptive relationship behaviors. Looking at both Figure 9 and Figure 10, you can see that the $S = P$ lines that run from the back corner to the front corner of the graph are relatively similar. Figure 10's $S = P$ line is more pronounced and also curves down going away. This may explain the medium sized correlation found between men's maladaptive relationship behaviors as reported by men themselves and their female partners' in Table 1, $r = .47, p < .001$.

I predicted that men would perceive themselves as possessing less pressured motivation for assertive behaviors than one's peers, which was supported (see the means for PRA and PPRA in Table 1). I then predicted that men's perceived discrepancies in pressured motivations would positively relate to self-esteem, especially among men highly invested in gender ideals. Moderation was not supported for either measure of men's self-esteem. Figure 11 indicates that men's collective gender self-esteem increased as their pressured motivations for agentic behaviors became greater than their perceptions of their peers' pressured motivations, which is opposite of predictions.

No significant results were found for men's reported frequency of maladaptive relationship behaviors or relationship satisfaction. However, as Figure 12 exhibits women's global self-esteem is highest when their male partners perceive themselves as having higher pressured motivations for agency than their peers. This result is puzzling. Research demonstrates that pressured motivations predict lower levels of self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Ryan et al., 1999). Therefore, to the extent that lower levels of relationship satisfaction relate to lower levels of self-esteem for both relationship partners (Karney & Bradbury, 1995), women should

experience *lower* levels of global self-esteem as their male partners experience more pressured motivations to act agentially.

Investment in gender ideals was shown to partially moderate the association between women's ratings of their male partners' maladaptive relationship behaviors (but, not women's relationship satisfaction) and perceived discrepancies in pressure motivations. One significant effect emerged from the deconstruction of the three-way interaction – men who were lower in investment in gender ideals and rated their peers' pressured motivations higher, had female partners who reported more maladaptive relationship behaviors to the extent that the men themselves were high in levels of motivations for pressured agency (see bottom Figure 13). This result was not predicted as men who were highly invested in gender ideals should have performed more relationship detrimental behaviors to the extent that they felt high pressured motivations for agency along with perceiving their peers as experiencing lower pressured motivations.

Finally, as indicated above, I could not test the predictions about self-esteem mediating any of the results because none of my predictions for moderation were supported. Why?

Limitations

Motivation produces behavior, but people are moved to act by very different types of factors. People can be motivated because of reasons external to the self or because they personally value the activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Autonomously motivated behavior produces positive outcomes for the self (Blais et al., 1990; Deci et al., 1981, Sheldon & Kasser, 1995), whereas pressured behavior is associated with negative outcomes (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Grolnick, 1986; Ryan, Mims, & Koestner, 1983). The current study focused on the pressured motivations versus autonomous motivations of men to act agentially,

and the perceived discrepancies between self and peers motivations to enact gender stereotypical behaviors. However, perceived discrepancies did not produce any of the predicted results for self-esteem and relationship outcomes. One reason for the null results might be men's confusion in rating their peers' motivations. Men believe that other men act more assertive (Prentice & Carranza, 2002) and aggressive (Vandello et al., 2008b; Vandello et al., 2009) than themselves, and the results for the current study indicate that they believe they do because of both internal and external reasons. Therefore, it seems that men view other men as agentic regardless of the underlying motivation and may not think about the comparison to their own motivation as I had expected. This may be especially likely because of the way I measured self and peers' motivations on separate scales. Results may have come out differently had I measured self and peers' motivation on the same scale. However, using a same scale approach may be heavy handed and lead men to ascribe socially desirable responses. Therefore, the goal of men actually comparing their personal motivations to the perceived motivations of their peers will require some creative, and potentially covert, measures.

Similarly, for the results I was predicating the maladaptive relationship behaviors scale may not have been appropriate. A better scale, or construct to explore, might utilize measures of men's intimacy within the relationship. For example, items could ask about how much personal information a male partner discloses, their ability to express emotions, and if they will engage in conflict resolution. Men are socialized to withhold their feelings and expected to be "tough" (Pleck, 1995); and self-disclosure must be avoided because it is associated with feminine qualities (O'Neil, 1981). Indeed, past research demonstrates that conformity to masculine norms is associated with lower intimacy within a relationship (Ludlow & Mahalik, 2001), so this is a potentially valuable direction to take.

Another limitation of the current study was the length of relationship measure. The item asked all participants to indicate how long they had been exclusive (only seeing each other) with their current romantic partner. A large number of participants indicated that the item was confusing. Initially, it was assumed that the budding relationships where the couples had not yet had the “Are we exclusive?” talk would have the most trouble with the item. However, out of the 13 married couples (assumed to be exclusive) only four were within a month of each other on the length of their exclusiveness, and four were over a year apart. As an example of the difficulties participants experienced, take the married couple that was over three years apart on reported exclusiveness. The husband indicated on his survey that he calculated the relationship as exclusive from their first date, whereas the wife wrote that it was not until a ring was put on her finger. However, reported overall relationship length was strongly correlated between relationship partners, $r = .96, p < .001$. Therefore, relationship length was entered into each polynomial regression as a control variable. Doing so did not significantly change results. While longitudinal studies have found no differences in relationship satisfaction as a function of marital relationship length (Karantzas, Goncalves, Feeney, & McCabe, 2011; Kurdek, 2005), including an item that more accurately measures relationship length into the analyses as a control variable where the majority of the participants were not married could have been beneficial.

In addition, while the current study did not produce many significant results, one must be careful to draw conclusions from a predominantly college student sample. It is unclear whether the null effects would generalize to an older, more diverse population; or if the predicted effects would come to fruition with a different sample. Past work reveals that men’s and women’s perceptions of their relationships do not differ as a function of the relationship length (Kurdek, 2005) or relationship status (i.e., married vs. cohabiting; Karantzas et al., 2011). However, future

work would benefit from looking at the demographic, economic, and social factors that may correlate with men's motivations to perform agentic behaviors and relationship outcomes.

The correlational design of the current study is also a limitation. Even if my results came out as predicted, causality cannot be assumed. An experimental paradigm should be utilized where directly manipulating men's engagement in autonomous versus pressured motivations for agentic behaviors occurs. For example, autonomy support or context pressures could be manipulated in the lab to induce male participants to act in some gender stereotypical manner. Following the gender-conforming behavior, an interaction between the male participant and his romantic partner could be observed to gather data about real-time relationship behaviors (similar to the procedures developed by Gottman & Levenson, 1985; Levenson & Gottman, 1983).

Finally, the primary limitation of the current study is the conceptualization of pressured and autonomous motivations as opposites of each other. Specifically, I took the view that pressured motivations for agentic behaviors were invariably non-autonomous. However, extrinsic motivation can vary considerably in its relative autonomy (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Vallerand, 1997). The Organismic Integration Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) could be used to explore the different forms of extrinsic motivations (external, introjected, identified, and integrated) and the contextual factors that may facilitate or deter the internalization of motivations to perform gender-conforming behaviors. For example, a man who endorses masculine norms because he sees it as relevant to his career success, which he values, has identified with the *value* of his endorsement.

Again, I wrongly focused exclusively on external (pressured) extrinsic motivations and not the three other forms of extrinsic motivations, and assumed that ratings of autonomous and pressured motivations would be negatively correlated within both self-ratings and ratings of

peers. However, as Table 1 indicates men's self-ratings of autonomous and pressured motivations are positively correlated ($r = .38, p < .001$); as are men's ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous and pressured agency ($r = .35, p < .001$). Good and Sanchez (2010), the developers of the Gender Motivation Scale, found a similar correlation ($r = .35, p < .01$) for self-ratings of autonomous and pressured motivations for gender-conforming behaviors among men and women. Altogether, this indicates that autonomous and pressured motivations for agentic behaviors are not two separate constructs as expected. Therefore, I entered pressured and autonomous motivations – both self-ratings and ratings of peers – as control variables into each polynomial regression analyzing perceived discrepancies in autonomous and pressured motivations, respectively. No changes to the reported results were found for either autonomous or pressured motivations.

Future Directions

In addition to the suggestions listed above, future work might also explore discrepancies in men's autonomous or pressured motivations to engage in communal behavior (e.g., "It is important to me to act sensitively towards others"; "I am caring to others because that is how others think I should be"). Just as men are socialized to be "tough" and lack intimacy, women are socialized to value romantic relationships and seek out intimacy within those relationships (Ruble & Scheer, 1994). Indeed, research has shown that when wives adopt a less traditional gender role their perceived marriage quality declines, but husbands who adopt a less traditional role report increases in perceived marriage quality (Amato & Booth, 1995). Research also indicates a positive relationship between trait femininity in both men and women and relationship satisfaction (Steiner-Pappalardo & Gurung, 2002), and nontraditional attitudes about masculinity are a positive predictor of relationship satisfaction in heterosexual men (Wade &

Donis, 2007). Therefore, to the extent that some men are reluctant to include feminine characteristics into their gender role self-concept (Di-Dio, Saragovi, Koestner, & Aube, 1996; Feingold, 1994), it would be a fruitful direction to examine men's perceived discrepancies in autonomous or pressured motivations to engage in communality.

Another potential avenue would have women rate their male romantic partner's motivations for autonomous or pressured motivations to act agentially. Past work demonstrates that women accurately perceived their male partners conformity to traditional masculinity norms (Burn & Ward, 2005). Therefore, women should be able to reliably judge their partners pressured motivations to act agentially. It might be predicted that women who perceived their partners as having more pressured motivations than other men would experience lower romantic relationship quality.

In addition, SDT proposes that people will naturally internalize the values and regulations laid out by their social groups (Deci & Ryan, 2000). To the extent that people internalize these regulations and assimilate them to their self-concept they experience higher quality learning (Gronlick & Ryan, 1987), better performance (Miserandino, 1996), and greater psychological well-being (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Therefore, work should be done to examine the various forms of men's agentic extrinsic motivations and the potential benefits men and their relationship partners may experience as men assimilate these motivations to the self.

Future research could also apply the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997, 2007; Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002) to assess men's perceived discrepancies in motivations for agentic behaviors. Men's motivations for performing gender stereotypical behaviors (and perceptions of their peers' motivations) may be in flux depending on various contextual and situational influences (Vallerand & Lalande, 2011), and the amount of

competence they have in performing the behavior (Vallerand, 1997). The utilization of experience sampling to record motivations at multiple time points throughout the day as men engage in various gender-conforming or non-conforming behaviors would provide more ecological validity.

If discrepancies in men's motivations for agentic behaviors do affect relationship outcomes, the current work may have important implications for practitioners. Focusing on identifying men's perceived discrepancies in the motivations that underlie their gender role consistent behaviors would enhance the potential for interventions during couple's therapy sessions. For example, couples may negotiate their own gendered expectations within the relationship, but fail to recognize that the male perceives himself as not correctly motivated to achieve masculine ideals. Relationship quality would still suffer as a result.

Married Couples, Non-Married Couples, and Homosexual Couples. Regardless of whether focusing exclusively on dating couples (Burn & Wade, 2005) or married couples (Breiding et al., 2008), past work has demonstrated how men's masculinity ideology may affect the quality of their romantic relationships. Nevertheless, married men (compared to non-married men) may differ in their perceptions of self and peers' motivations to engage in gender stereotypical behaviors. Within the current study married men (a small sample of 13) rated themselves higher on autonomous motivations to adhere to gender-stereotypical behaviors ($M = 5.02, SD = 0.81$) than non-married men rated themselves ($M = 4.35, SD = 0.98; F[1, 182] = 5.75, p = .02, d = 0.75$). In addition, married men rated their peers' autonomous motivations to act agentically ($M = 4.66, SD = 0.88$) lower than non-married men rated their peers' ($M = 5.15, SD = 0.71; F[1, 182] = 5.73, p = .02, d = 0.61$). However, married men did not rate themselves ($M = 5.02, SD = 0.81$) differently for autonomous motivations to perform agentic behaviors than they

rated their peers ($M = 4.66$, $SD = 0.88$; $F[1, 12] = 1.22$, $p = .29$). Differences did not emerge for married versus non-married men in terms of self-ratings or ratings of peers' pressured motivations, $ps > .15$.

Therefore, in an exploratory analysis, married couples were excluded from the dataset and all polynomial regressions were rerun. No changes to the reported results were found for either autonomous or pressured motivations. However, because it appears that married men are different in their perceptions of motivations for agentic behaviors another exploratory analysis was conducted with only married couples. No moderated effects emerged for autonomous behaviors. However, several regression equations yielded significant R^2 values, and therefore are plotted and discussed below.

For married men the variance explained by the predictors for men's collective self-esteem was nearly significant, $R^2 = .03$, $F(5, 7) = 3.82$, $p = .055$. The $S = P$ line was not significant ($p = .53$), but the marginally significant main effect for the $S = -P$ line ($p = .09$) appears to be driven by the curvature ($slope = 0.11$, $p = .63$; $curvature = 0.90$, $p = .052$). Specially, married men's collective self-esteem increased more sharply as their perceived discrepancies between self-ratings and ratings of peers' motivations for autonomous agency become lower or higher than some middle point (see Figure 14).

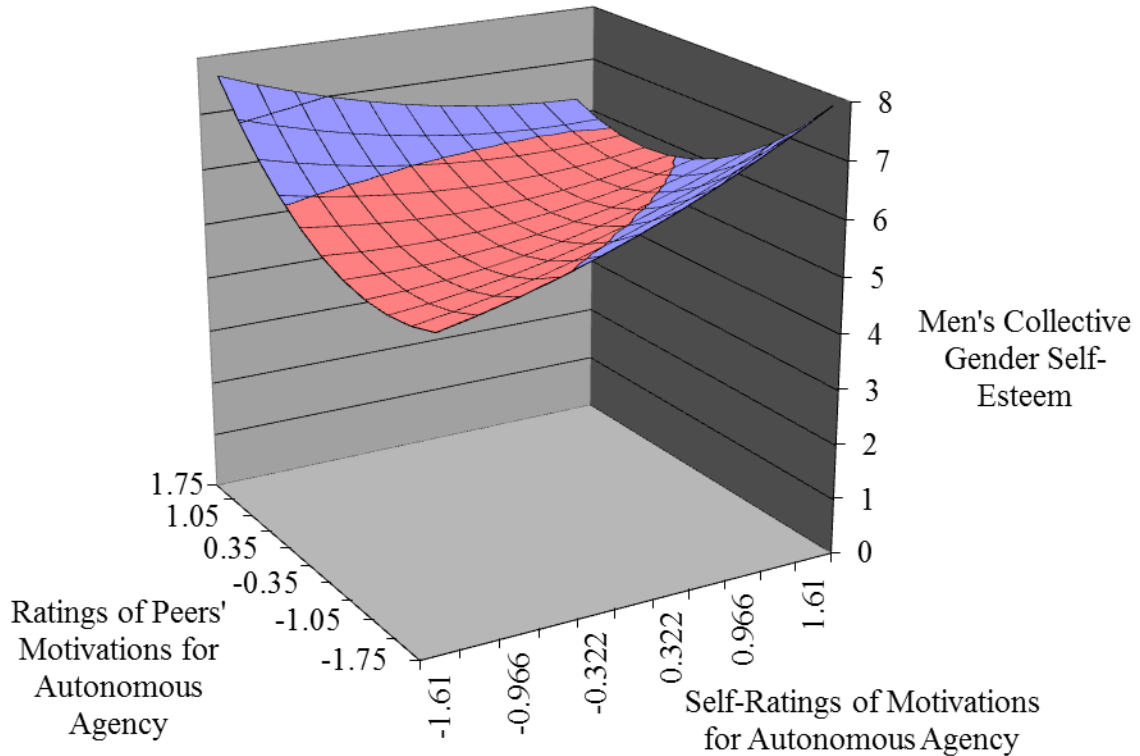


Figure 14. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Men's Collective Gender Self-Esteem among Married Men Only. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.75 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.61 corner on the X-axis.

The variance explained was significant for women's collective self-esteem, $R^2 = .65$, $F(5, 7) = 5.47$, $p = .02$. However, the $S = P$ and $S = -P$ lines were not significant ($ps > .36$). I hesitate to interpret Figure 15, but it appears that married women's collective self-esteem decreased more sharply as their husband's perceived discrepancies of autonomous agency became lower or higher than some middle point. Combined with the results directly above, the further married men perceived themselves from their peers' in terms of motivations for autonomous agency (regardless of direction), the more their own collective self-esteem benefited. Conversely, their wives' collective self-esteem suffered.

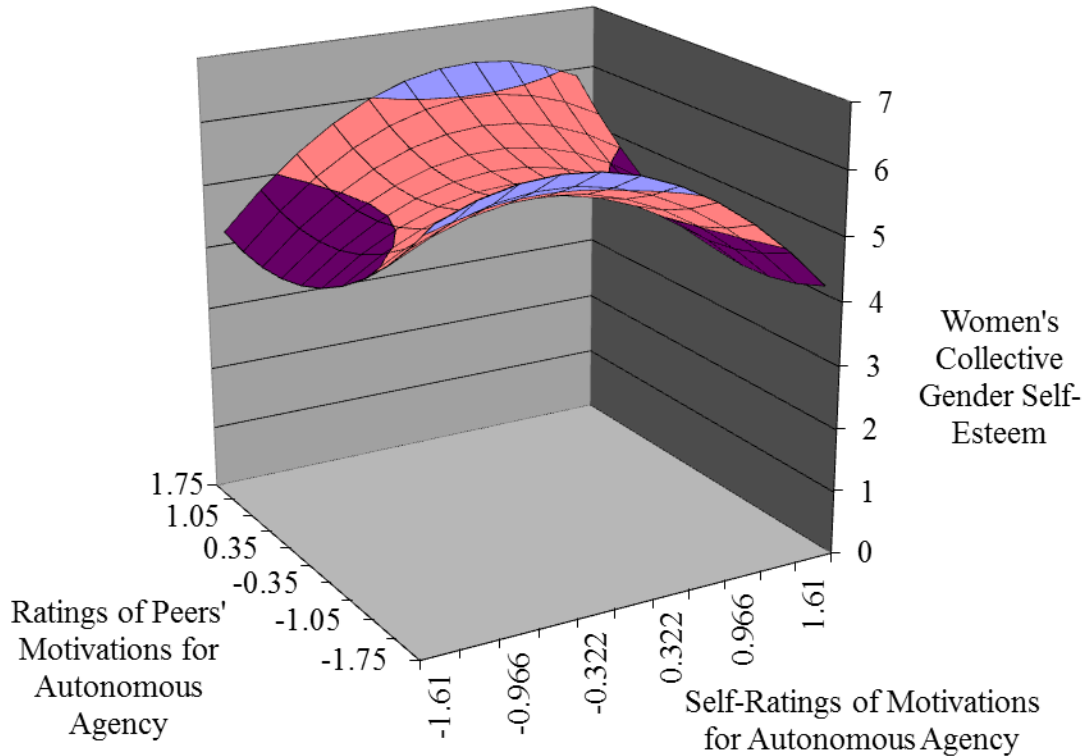


Figure 15. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Women's Collective Gender Self-Esteem among Married Women Only. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.75 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.61 corner on the X-axis.

For married women, the variance explained by the predictors for their relationship satisfaction was significant, $R^2 = .59$, $F(5, 7) = 4.44$, $p = .04$. The $S = P$ line was significant ($p = .02$), but the $S = -P$ line was not ($p = .34$). The main significant main effect for the $S = P$ line appears to be driven by the slope ($slope = 1.47$, $p = .01$; $curvature = 0.64$, $p = .27$). As Figure 16 shows as married men's self-ratings and ratings of their peers' motivations for autonomous agency increase, it positively relates to their wives relationship satisfaction.

None of the regression equations yielded significant R^2 values for pressured motivations, but one moderated effect emerged for married couples. Investment in gender ideals was shown to moderate the association between perceived discrepancies in autonomous motivations and married women's relationship satisfaction, $F(5, 1) = 464.31$, $p = .04$. I regressed married

women's relationship satisfaction onto strength of self-ratings for pressured motivations for agency (zero-centered), strength of ratings of peers' motivations for pressured agency (zero-centered), strength of investment in gender ideals (zero-centered), all two-interaction terms, and the three-way interaction term. This produced no significant main effects or significant two-way interactions, $ts < 1.73, ps > .12$. However, the three-way interaction was significant, $\beta = -1.04$, $t(7) = -4.072, p = .01$. I deconstructed the three-way interaction, but no significant effects emerged.

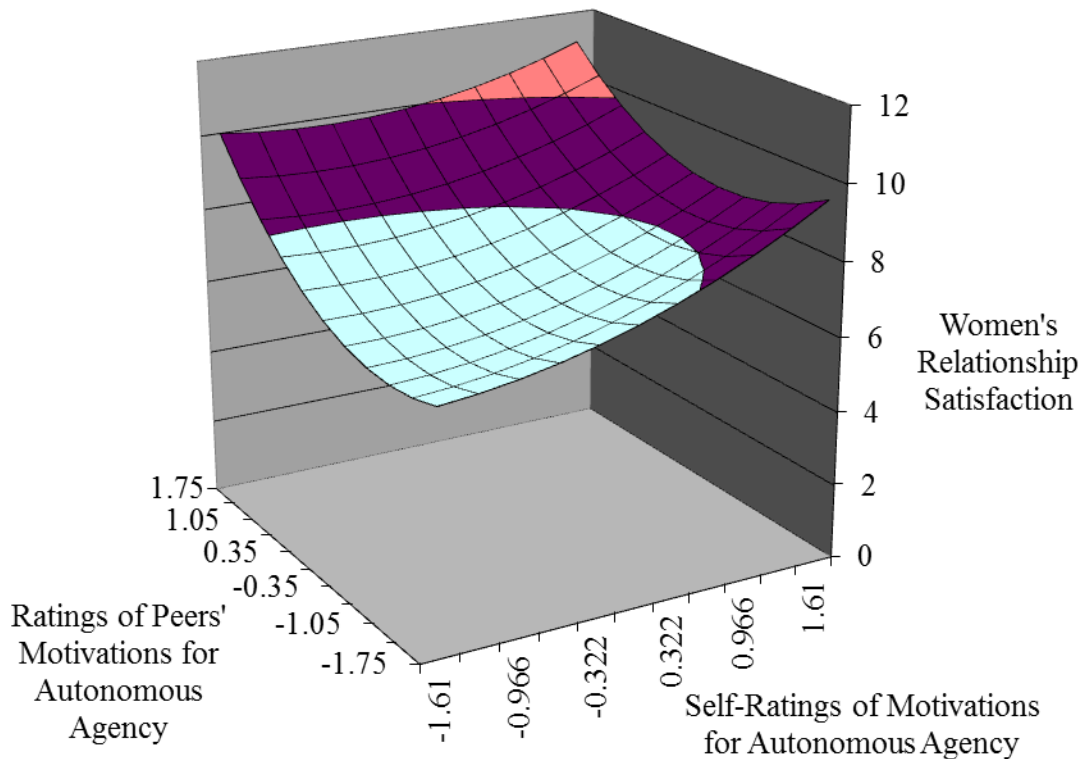


Figure 16. Surface Graph of Self-Ratings and Ratings of Peers' Motivations for Autonomous Agency with Women's Relationship Satisfaction among Married Women Only. The $S = P$ line (line of fit) runs from front corner to the back corner. The $S = -P$ (line of misfit) runs horizontally from the 1.75 corner on the Y-axis to the 1.61 corner on the X-axis.

Due to the very small sample size of married couples one must approach these exploratory results with caution. However, among this particular sample it appears that married men differ from non-married men in motivations for stereotypic gendered behaviors. Both

groups of men were equally motivated by pressure, but married men were more autonomously motivated to act in an agentic manner and believed their peers' were less autonomously motivated to engage in gendered behaviors. Note that this conflicts with the overall results where men rated themselves as *less* autonomously motivated than they rated their peers.

Some research indicates that married and unmarried men do not differ in the endorsement of traditional masculinity (Coughlin & Wade, 2012), but this does not indicate the motivations behind the endorsement. A newly married man may feel pressure to conform to the prescriptive and descriptive social norms for being a “good husband”, but over time may start to internalize the new gender ideals. In turn, that would lead to more autonomous motivations for gender-conforming behaviors. Therefore, exploring if this difference in autonomous motivations for agentic behaviors actually exists between married and unmarried men, and the potential ramifications for heterosexual marital relationships, would be beneficial.

What about same-gender couples? All men will be influenced to some degree by society's prescribed masculine ideology of what men should and should not be (Pleck, 1995), but as Wood et al.'s (1997) work demonstrates not all men internalize these beliefs to the same degree. In fact, some evidence suggests that gay men internalize and conform to gender roles differently than do heterosexual men (Skidmore, Linsenmeier, & Bailey, 2006). However, traditional masculine ideals affect how gay men feel about themselves (Szymanski & Carr, 2008); and regardless of sexual orientation, theorists believe that all men are socialized in such a way that intimacy is adversely impacted in romantic relationships (Gray & Isensee, 1996). Supporting this point, Wade and Donis (2007) found that adherence to a traditional masculine ideology was associated with lower quality romantic relationships for both gay and heterosexual men. Additionally, reported romantic relationship problems positively associated with gay men's

felt pressure to appear masculine (Sánchez, Greenberg, Liu, Vilain, 2009). Therefore, I would hypothesize similar findings for both gay and heterosexual men and their romantic relationship outcomes based on perceived discrepancies in autonomous and pressured motivations for agentic behaviors. Finally, as I did not make predictions about heterosexual women's perceived discrepancies in autonomous and pressured motivations for communal or agentic behaviors and the influences on relationship outcomes, I will refrain from speculating about lesbian couples.

Conclusion

Quality romantic relationships are positively associated with various positive physical and psychological outcomes. Ergo, understanding the various factors that may build up or tear down healthy romantic relationships is important. The current study proposed that men's discrepancies between their self-ratings and perceptions of their peers' on autonomous and pressured motivations to enact gender-conforming behaviors would predict differing relationship outcomes for both partners in a heterosexual relationship. However, results did not support predictions. Limitations, including problems with measurement validity of perceived discrepancies, are discussed. Future work would benefit with the employment of the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation and the Organismic Integration Theory to gain a more nuanced approach to measuring extrinsic motivations. Additionally, manipulating men's motivations for gender-conforming behaviors before an interaction with their romantic partner would shed light on various real-time relationship outcomes. Finally, a diverse sample with more married couples and the inclusion of homosexual couples is needed.

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Appendix A: Investment in Gender Ideals

For the two questions below please think of how people in our society define the “ideal man.” There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions. Please read each statement carefully, and respond by using the provided scale.

Not at all
1 2 3 4 5 6 A great deal
7

_____1. How important is it for you to be similar to the ideal man?

_____2. To what extent is being similar to the ideal man an important part of who you are?

Appendix B: Gender Motivation Scale

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements, using the provided scale. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions to each statement. Please use the provided scales.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- _____ 1. I enjoy being assertive.
- _____ 2. It brings me pleasure if I behave in a dominant or assertive way.
- _____ 3. It is important to me to be assertive.
- _____ 4. It is important to me not to act passively with others.
- _____ 5. I act in an assertive way because I want others to like me.
- _____ 6. In general, I act confidently because I want others' acceptance and approval.
- _____ 7. In general, I am assertive because that is what others expect from me.
- _____ 8. I am assertive and confident with others because that is how others think I should be.

Appendix C: Modified Gender Motivation Scale

Below we are interested in your beliefs about most men your age. Think of the average man around your age. Then, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each statement. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions. Please use the provided scale.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- _____ 1. Most men my age enjoy being assertive.
- _____ 2. It brings most men my age pleasure if they behave in a dominant or assertive way.
- _____ 3. It is important to most men my age to be assertive.
- _____ 4. It is important to most men my age not to act passively with others.
- _____ 5. Most men my age act in an assertive way because they want others to like them.
- _____ 6. In general, most men my age act confidently because they want others' acceptance and approval.
- _____ 7. In general, most men my age are assertive because that is what others expect from them.
- _____ 8. Most men my age are assertive and confident with others because that is how others think they should be.

Appendix D: Collective Self-Esteem Scale – Gender Version

Please consider your gender group, and respond to the following statements on the basis of how you feel about your membership in your gender group. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions. Please read each statement carefully, and respond by using the provided scale.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- _____ 1. I am a worthy member of the gender group I belong to.
- _____ 2. I feel I don't have much to offer to the gender group I belong to. R
- _____ 3. I am a cooperative participant in the gender group I belong to.
- _____ 4. I often feel I'm a useless member of my gender group. R
- _____ 5. I often regret that I belong to my gender group. R
- _____ 6. In general, I'm glad to be a member of the gender group I belong to.
- _____ 7. Overall, I often feel that the gender group of which I am a member is not worthwhile. R
- _____ 8. I feel good about the gender group I belong to.
- _____ 9. Overall, my gender group is well thought of by others.
- _____ 10. Most people consider my gender group, on the average, to be more ineffective than the other gender group. R
- _____ 11. In general, others respect the gender group that I am a member of.
- _____ 12. In general, others think that the gender group I am a member of is unworthy. R

____13. Overall, my gender membership has very little to do with how I feel about myself. R

____14. The gender group I belong to is an important reflection of who I am.

____15. The gender group I belong to is unimportant to my sense of what kind of a person I am. R

____16. In general, belonging to my gender group is an important part of my self-image.

Appendix E: Global Self-Esteem Scale

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements, using the provided scale.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

_____ 1. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.

_____ 2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

_____ 3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. R

_____ 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

_____ 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. R

_____ 6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

_____ 7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

_____ 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself. R

_____ 9. I certainly feel useless at times. R

_____ 10. At times, I think I am no good at all. R

Appendix F: Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors (Male Participants)

Below is a list of questions dealing with general behaviors that may occur between you and your romantic partner. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these questions; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions. Please read each question carefully, and respond by using the provided scales.

How often do you snap or yell at your partner?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often do you criticize or insult your partner?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often do you ignore or not pay attention to your partner?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often have you thought about ending the relationship with your partner?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often do you do the things your partner asks of you? R

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix G: Maladaptive Relationship Behaviors (Female Participants)

Below is a list of questions dealing with general behaviors that may occur between you and your romantic partner. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these questions; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions. Please read each question carefully, and respond by using the provided scales.

How often does your partner snap or yell at you?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often does your partner criticize or insult you?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often does your partner ignore or not pay attention to you?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often does your partner's behavior make you question their commitment to you?

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often does your partner do the things you ask of them? R

Never	Once every few months	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Once a day
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix H: Romantic Relationship Satisfaction

Below is a list of questions dealing with your general feelings about your current committed romantic relationship. Please read each question carefully, and respond by using the provided scales.

How well does your partner meet your needs?

Not very well									Very well
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?

Not at all satisfied									Very satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

How good is your relationship compared to most?

Not at all good									Very good
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship? R

Never									Very often
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?

Not at all									Completely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

How much do you love your partner?

Not very much									Very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

How many problems are there in your relationship? R

None									A lot
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

Appendix I: Demographics

What is your sex? ___Male ___Female

What is your age? _____

What is your racial/ethnic heritage (please circle one of the following)?

- 1) White/Anglo or European American
- 2) Black/African American, Caribbean
- 3) Asian, Asian American, Pacific Islander
- 4) Hispanic/Latino(a)
- 5) Native American
- 6) Arabic/Middle Eastern
- 7) Bi-racial _____
- 8) Other _____

Please select the number from the scale below that best describes your sexual orientation:

Exclusively Heterosexual (Straight)								Exclusively Homosexual (Gay/Lesbian)
1	2	3	4	5	6		7	

What best describes your current romantic relationship?

- 1) Dating, but seeing other people
- 2) Dating exclusively
- 3) Engaged
- 4) Married

Please use the spaces below to indicate how long you and your current romantic partner have been exclusive (only seeing one another). For example, if you have been exclusive for 7-and-a-half months you would put 0, 7, and 15 in the spaces below.

____ years ____ months ____ days

Appendix J: IRB Exemption Letter



DIVISION OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE
Institutional Review Boards, FWA No. 00001669
12901 Bruce B. Downs Blvd., MDC035 • Tampa, FL 33612-4799
(813) 974-5638 • FAX (813) 974-5618

February 12, 2013

Jonathan Weaver, M.A.
Psychology, PCD4118G
4202 East Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620

RE: **Exempt Certification** for IRB#: Pro00011620
Title: Motivations, Attitudes, Behaviors, and Romantic Relationships

Dear Mr. Weaver:

On 2/11/2013 the Institutional Review Board (IRB) determined that your research meets USF requirements and Federal Exemption criteria as outlined in the federal regulations at 45CFR46.101(b):

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
(i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

As the principal investigator for this study, it is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted as outlined in your application and consistent with the ethical principles outlined in the Belmont Report and with USF IRB policies and procedures. Please note that changes to this protocol may disqualify it from exempt status. Please note that you are responsible for notifying the IRB prior to implementing any changes to the currently approved protocol.

The Institutional Review Board will maintain your exemption application for a period of five years from the date of this letter or for three years after a Final Progress Report is received, whichever is longer. If you wish to continue this protocol beyond five years, you will need to submit a new application. When your study is completed, either prior to, or at the end of the five-year period, you must submit a Final Report to close this study.

We appreciate your dedication to the ethical conduct of human subject research at the University of South Florida and your continued commitment to human research protections. If you have any questions regarding this matter, please call 813-974-5638.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "John A. Schinka, Ph.D." in a cursive script.

John A. Schinka, Ph.D., Chairperson
USF Institutional Review Board