COMPARISON OF COHABITING, MARRIED, AND DATING COUPLES ON SEX TYPING, ADJUSTMENT, AND DYADIC SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

Research in the area of unmarried heterosexual cohabitation has been hampered by definitional and methodological concerns. The present study compared currently cohabiting couples (using a restricted definition) with couples in other type relationships. Comparisons involved the use of standardized psychological instruments to measure sex typing, individual adjustment, and relationship satisfaction. Eighty-five couples currently involved in a relationship completed a self-administered questionnaire containing demographic data, an attitudinal section, and the standardized instruments.

Results of the present study suggest that cohabitors differ minimally from others when standardized instruments are employed. Cohabitors were found to be less femininely sex typed than steady daters ($p < .05$), with no group differences apparent on the masculinity measure. Cohabitors scored significantly higher on a measure of social nonconformity ($p < .01$) than steady dating and married individuals. Additionally, cohabitors reported significantly more drug use and less church attendance than comparison groups, consistent with previous findings. On a measure of defensiveness, cohabitors were found to be significantly less defensive than married individuals. No differences were apparent in terms of relationship satisfaction between the cohabitors and either the steady dating or married individuals.

Additional sex-type comparisons using the PSI revealed several significant differences. In sum, there were more sex and sex-type differences found on the measures employed than occurred among the cohabiting and the other type relationships.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Historical Background

The concept of trial marriage is not a new one. Variations of trial marriage dating back four centuries were discussed in a survey of anthropological and historical literature (Berger, 1971). Historically, Judge Ben Lindsey is credited with first presenting a conceptual model of trial marriage in America (Lindsey, 1926). Because of the many marital problems he encountered as a judge viewing divorce proceedings, Lindsey proposed a "companionate marriage" that would function as a test of couple compatibility prior to legal marriage. Bertrand Russell, who was then teaching at City College in New York, felt that companionate marriage was particularly suitable to university students (Russell, 1929). Lindsey and Russell were both criticized for their views and the concept of trial marriage did not surface again in the United States for over thirty years (Berger, 1971).

Others expressed concern or disillusionment with the traditional marital institution and proposed various alternatives (Mead, 1966; Cadwallader, 1966; and Satir, Note1). Margaret Mead introduced ideas related to a two-step marriage in an article appearing in Redbook, 1966 (Danziger, 1978). Mead was primarily concerned that increased sexual involvement led many couples into marriages that didn't work out -- often at the expense

of their children. Therefore, she proposed that "individual marriage", or step one, should involve a simple ceremony, limited economic responsibilities, easy divorce when desired, and no children. Step two, or "parental marriage", would follow individual marriage, be more difficult to enter and terminate, and thus involve a life-long commitment of both parents to the responsibilities of parenthood. The mutual obligation of parents to the continuing care of children was emphasized in step two.

Speaking in support of a renewable contract approach and from obvious disillusionment with traditional marriage, Mervyn Cadwallader stated that "marriage was not designed as a mechanism for providing friendship, erotic experience, romantic love, personal fulfillment, continuous lay psychotherapy, or recreation" (1966:174). Cadwallader clearly felt that the traditional form of marriage was no longer viable in meeting the various needs experienced by individuals in contemporary American society. Such academic or philosophical views were generally isolated from the general public.

During the late 1960's the news media and popular press brought to the attention of the American public the growing phenomenon of heterosexual cohabitation among college students. One such instance involving a Barnard coed, Linda LeClair, living off campus with a Columbia student, received front page coverage in The New York Times (Macklin, 1974). Reference to the event as the "LeClair Affair" reflected the subjective and sensationalistic approach generally taken by the media with regard to early accounts of cohabitation. However, the publicity surrounding

journalistic reports of university student cohabitation served to heighten awareness of the phenomenon, and eventually stimulate social science research in the area. Macklin (1974) pointed out that the phenomenon of heterosexual cohabitation occurring on the college campuses across the country was something other than trial marriage.

In a discussion of factors generating increased experimentation with unmarried heterosexual cohabitation, Danziger (1978) mentions the increased opportunity and the decreased social controls which are seen to have converged with significant political events of the 1960's. "It is clear that although some of these conditions have existed over a period of time, the convergence of social factors and events which occurred during the 1960's gave significant impetus to a trend which probably would have appeared at a later date in any case" (Danziger, 1978: 25). In summarizing the general trend, Danziger discusses several broad reasons which are seen to have combined to create a climate in which the emergence of unmarried heterosexual cohabitation among college students was not surprising. He suggests that following the intense mobilization of anti-war effort focused on Vietnam, the alienation which was centered politically spread to other areas such as marriage, the family, and sexual behavior. Such feelings took place on the college campus, a somewhat isolated, age-segregated population of young people where peer group identification and support were high. While experimentation with new ideas is not unusual in an academic atmosphere, Danziger describes the 1960's as a time when a distinct differentiation

etween campus values and the rest of society occurred in a manner ot previously seen. There was a general decline of in loco arentis at some universities and at least a trend in that direction n many others. What has been termed the sexual revolution was artly the result of increased availability of effective contra- eptive devices which allowed persons to have increased sexual reedom without as much fear of pregnancy (Bell, 1971). The omen's Liberation movement which seemed to be gathering momentum uring this time period attacked the traditional family roles. he rising divorce rate across the nation possibly made some ndividuals more cautious regarding the institution of marriage. t is not the intent here to make causal statements about the arious changes that were taking place prior to and during the ime that cohabitation emerged among college students; it is o give a background of the general climate out of which the ohabitation phenomenon began on a fairly large scale.

ontemporary Studies

An investigation of the cohabitation phenomenon was under- aken in view of the increased willingness of college students o engage in premarital sexual relations, and an interest in he possible changes in living patterns that might also be occurring Macklin, 1972). Macklin's pioneer study was based on interview ata from 15 junior and senior women and questionnaire data from) junior and senior women at Cornell University. Cohabitation as defined as "sharing a bedroom for at least four nights per eek for at least three consecutive months with someone of the

opposite sex" (p. 463). Various types of cohabitation experiences were reported, with the most common pattern being for one of the partners to move in with the other after a period of gradual involvement thus, cohabitation was seldom the result of an initial decision. Most of the women maintained an additional residence in their dorm, sorority, or apartment as well. Macklin found almost no total pooling of finances. A majority of the respondents described their relationships as having a strong, affectionate component at the time that living together was initiated. The majority of cohabitors were not dating persons outside the cohabiting relationship. Various degrees of commitment appeared to exist in the cohabiting relationships, with many entering with a "let's see" attitude and no definite plans for the relationship. Respondents were in general agreement that the benfits from their participation outweighed the costs. Self-growth and learning were cited as among the major benefits of cohabitation. Further, most respondents felt that the cohabitation experience provided first hand knowledge of what was expected in a close interpersonal relationship and that such knowledge was vital prior to any consideration of permanent commitment.

While various forms of nonmarital living arrangements have existed for years, Macklin suggested that the cohabitation experience as described for unmarried, middle-class college students was unique and new to the American social scene. Changes in dormitory policy, personal motivations of the individual students, and broader social changes were cited as reasons why students live together. Cohabiting students were described as being mainly concerned with "total" relationships and only

incidentally with the sexual aspects. Cohabitation was described by Macklin as an outgrowth of the going steady phase of the traditional courtship pattern but without the degree of commitment existing in engagement. Most cohabiting students did not consider their relationships to be trial marriage. Discontent with the superficialities of dating and fears of falling into the traditional roles of marriage were frequently expressed. In view of the many growth-oriented motives mentioned, one might ultimately expect either high levels of relationship satisfaction or eventual discouragement if such arrangements failed to live up to the expectations of the participants.

Another early study, using questionnaire data, took place at City College, of the City University of New York (Arafat and Yorburg, 1973). Arafat and Yorburg used a vague definition of cohabitation, "living-together relationship with a member of the opposite sex," with no time specified. About one-fifth of the 762 respondents were involved in a cohabiting relationship by the researchers' definition. A sex difference concerning motives was apparent; sexual gratification was the most frequently cited reason given by males for participating in the cohabiting relationship, while marriage was mentioned most by females. Only about 14% of either sex expressed any expectations of marrying the cohabiting partner. Like Macklin, Arafat and Yorburg considered living-together to be a farily common aspect of college life, at least for a portion of the student population. No significant differences in terms of background characteristics were found between cohabitors and noncohabitors. Students expressing strong religious beliefs had significantly more unfavorable

attitudes toward living together than others in the study. It was found, contrary to the researchers' hypothesis, that living-together individuals described themselves in terms such as independent, aggressive and outgoing. There had been some speculation previously that those not willing to commit themselves to marriage might be attempting to clarify their identity by means of dependency in a dating or love relationship that did not require future commitment. Danziger (1978) described a hypothesized stage of development, "transadulthood", that was seen as a period during which the responsibilities and commitments of adulthood were delayed while the individual experimented with various roles and lifestyles. One might expect such individuals to be less mature, more alienated, and to have less concrete future plans than those more readily assuming adult roles. While suggesting significantly different personality variables, Arafat and Yorburg's finding that the cohabitors described themselves in terms of independence or aggressiveness would be more significant had they used a restricted definition of cohabitation. The question of personality characteristics of cohabitors versus noncohabitors still requires further exploration.

Approaching the cohabitation issue from a slightly different perspective, some investigators chose to focus on living-together and going-together couples (Lyness, Lipetz, and Davis, 1972). Using questionnaire data involving social background and interpersonal feelings variables, qualitative differences were investigated in the areas of trust, commitment, involvement, satisfaction with sex, need, and happiness with the relationship.

The authors assumed that the reciprocation of these key variables had to occur in the relationships of both groups if they were to maintain long term relationships. Using correlational analyses, the groups were compared by sex on each of the relationship, feelings, and background variables. All groups indicated that they were happy with the relationship as well as being highly involved. Living-together males reported being significantly more satisfied with sex than the going-together males and either group of females. Reported sexual satisfaction for the females was approximately equal for both groups. The living-together males had significantly lower scores on the need and respect variables than all other groups. When the variables were correlated within each couple and compared, the going-together couples were found to have higher correlations on 5 of the 6 measures. Interestingly, the correlation on the trust variable was -.02 for the going-together couples and .42 for the living-together couples. The authors concluded that "going-together couples evidenced greater reciprocity of other important feelings than that found for the living-together couples" (p. 305). However, a methodological problem with the Lyness et. al. study occurred in the recruitment of subjects. As part of a larger, ongoing project, the volunteers were offered various forms of counseling for their participation. Thus, the couples were not necessarily representative of their respective groups. Because of the selection problem, the study only raises additional questions as to any possible differences between the couples in terms of relationship quality.

Researchers compared cohabitors with noncohabitors using questionnaire data from a large sample of students (Peterman, Ridley, and Anderson, 1974). The study took place at Pennsylvania State University where over half of the 22,500 undergraduates lived in residence halls with no visitation restrictions for men or women. The definition of cohabitation used, "are you now or have you ever lived with someone of the opposite sex" is vague and leads to problems in interpreting the data. Information derived from the questionnaire focused on description of important heterosexual relationships, background information, and attitudes and behaviors related to heterosexual functioning. From a random sample of 2495 undergraduates, 1100 useable questionnaires were returned. The statistical comparisons used suggested that the respondents were representative of the total undergraduate student body at Penn State. The incidence of "cohabitation" was found to be approximately equal for males and females -- one-third of the entire sample. About half of the cohabitors reported other cohabiting experiences, with the males more likely than the females to have cohabited more than once. However, when the length of cohabitation categories were collapsed in the study, 82 percent of the males and 75 percent of the females reported their longest period of cohabitation was less than 6 months. A similar percentage (83% and 86% respectively) of males and females described their longest cohabiting experience in terms of "love" or "intimacy", as opposed to friendship or other less intimate terms. The likelihood of cohabitation among both sexes was greatly increased if the student lived off campus. The

authors combined 5 of the relationship rating scales to form a "relationship quality index", (closeness to ideal partner, openness to communication, need satisfaction, sexual attractiveness, and sexual satisfaction). It was pointed out that the respondents were rating their most significant heterosexual relationship, not necessarily their current one. When cohabiting relationships were compared to noncohabiting ones, higher ratings were found in all categories for the cohabiting group. Additionally, self-reported indices of personal adjustment yielded significantly higher levels of adjustment for the cohabitors. These findings are somewhat in contrast to those previously discussed (Lyness et. al., 1972) although methodological problems and definitional confounding preclude any firm conclusions with regard to who is actually better adjusted. The present group may merely be showing their short term enjoyment of a quite transitory pattern of behavior. It is interesting that even with the growing interest and high rating of cohabitation reported, as a total group, the respondents ranked marriage as the most attractive postcollege living arrangement. Sex differences were again apparent with the cohabiting males ranking cohabitation ahead of marriage and cohabiting females ranking marriage over cohabitation. If males and females are coming into the cohabiting relationships for different reasons and with varying expectations, it would not be surprising to find some difficulties in interpersonal adjustment as time progressed. It is unclear whether the cohabiting students are seeking higher quality relationships or are gratifying sexual, emotional, and companionate needs in ways conveniently available

to them. There are indications that the cohabitors may be more interpersonally active in their tendency to seek out and find the kinds of relationships that enable them to meet whatever needs are operating. In view of the more frequent cohabiting experiences of shorter duration for the males in the Penn. State study, the double standard appears to exist even in this supposedly nontraditional lifestyle.

A later study at Cornell found some differences related to academic field of study and tendency to cohabit (Macklin, 1974). Those enrolled in the Human Ecology and Arts and Sciences programs were most likely to live with someone, with those in Engineering, least likely to do so. It was pointed out that very few females were enrolled in the Engineering classes, thus making the difference one of opportunity or personal choice hard to determine. Macklin also found that the group indicating no religious preference was most likely to have cohabited. Various other background characteristics again failed to differentiate the groups. Similar to the findings of Peterman et. al. at Penn. State, Macklin found that cohabitors furnished higher, self-report ratings of personal adjustment. Cohabitors also rated their heterosexual relationships higher than such ratings by noncohabitors. It is not clear whether cohabiting experiences somehow enhance such things as self-esteem, interpersonal skills, self-knowledge and interpersonal growth or whether individuals already possessing these qualities are better able to enter into any kind of relationship, including cohabitation.

There are some other studies, which in contrast to some of the ones described so far, suggest that cohabitors may not be well adjusted. One finding that cohabitors were 8 times as likely as noncohabitors to have used hard drugs raises additional questions (Henze and Hudson, 1974). Interviews with a random sample of Arizona State University students revealed differences in the areas of reported drug use, self-description of lifestyle, and religion. Cohabitors were more likely to characterize themselves as liberals, use a variety of drugs, and to attend church less frequently than noncohabitors. There were no significant differences in the area of family background for the cohabitors versus noncohabitors.

Another study related to drug use suggested that cohabitors were more frequent users of LSD, speed, and marijuana than were noncohabitors (Markowski, Note 2). Markowski matched cohabiting and married couples on relative length of time in the relationship and compared them on MMPI scale scores. The cohabiting group had significantly more elevated scale scores than the married group. It was concluded that the cohabitors were less adjusted than the married group. Others, who also used the MMPI with cohabitors, interpreted similar findings more cautiously (Catlin, Croake, and Keller, 1976). Catlin et. al. suggested that the high Psychopathic Deviate (4) and Hypomania (9) scale scores for cohabitors indicated that "as a group they only tend in the deviant direction, particularly in respect to antisocial or nonconformist behavior" (p. 409). Since college students have been found to score higher in general than the MMPI normative group, the issue of the adjustment of cohabitors versus noncohabitors is unsettled.

The Markowski (1973) study may be outdated in the sense that the cohabiting individuals identified with the counterculture movement of the time and thus the scores reflected general political alienation rather than problems in personal adjustment. A study using a current sample of college students would help clarify whether such differences remain valid.

One of the few recent comparison studies examined married and cohabiting couples on variables related to relationship satisfaction (Polansky, McDonald, and Martin, 1978). It was hypothesized that cohabiting couples would exhibit greater amounts of affective support, mutual knowledge, and relationship satisfaction than married couples. The hypothesis was based on the idealistic reasons often given by cohabitors for participating in the cohabiting experience. Additionally, it was felt that perhaps cohabitors emphasize certain "quality" variables in their relationships, since the concrete variables of commitment and definite relationship expectations, appear to be unemphasized. Contrary to the researchers' predictions, no significant differences were found. Olday (Note 3) previously reported that little difference exists between married and cohabiting individuals in terms of emotional closeness and relationship stability. It may be that if cohabitation has become more accepted by the mainstream of college youth and younger married couples more nontraditional in their behavior, previously reported differences have blended as some of the broader social changes have reached more individuals-not merely a "deviant" group.

Whether cohabition is viewed as an alternative to marriage, a variation of the courtship process, or trial marriage, it appears to be growing in popularity. Glick (Note 4) found a "spectacular eight-fold increase during the 1960's in the number of household heads who were reported as living apart from relatives while sharing their living quarters with an unrelated person of the opposite sex." Newcomb (1979) feels that cohabitation "is becoming an acceptable part of the dating process and thus has become a more or less permanent social phenomenon in America" (p. 599). Yet, more research is clearly required before adequate understanding of the cohabitation phenomenon and its part in the evolution of family forms occurs.

Sex Roles

Another relevant area pertaining to evolving patterns of heterosexual behavior is that of sex roles. Strong (1978) found that the two highest correlates of willingness to participate in a variety of nontraditional marital and family forms, were a nontraditional sex-role ideology and infrequent religious observance. The total group of respondents in Strong's sample of college students stated a preference for egalitarian marriage as a first choice, with long term cohabitation ranked second. The forms of relationships which involved nonexclusive sexual arrangements were highly disapproved of by the majority. Little interest in forms such as serial monogamy, open marriage, and communes with sharing of sexual partners was reported. The evidence thus suggests that even with the various forms of heterosexual interaction discussed, most individuals do not want

to change the nature of the heterosexual couple drastically -- at least sexually. When preferences were compared by sex, 3 of the 4 largest differences were found in the rating of items concerned with differing sex-role ideologies. It was felt that conflicts of sex-role attitudes held the greatest potential source of difficulty for heterosexual couples.

For those who think that participation in a nontraditional family form will preclude falling into traditional sex roles, a study on division of labor has other implications (Stafford, Backman, and Dibona, 1977). Using a matched sample of married and cohabiting individuals, it was found that the females in both groups were assuming the responsibility and performing most of the household tasks. This finding contrasts with the idea that cohabitation will lead to relationships of equal authority in sex-role patterning. While household division of labor is only one measure of sex-role differentiation, much of the ideology of the Women's Liberation movement has been aimed at eradicating the structure which keeps women performing the tasks in the home while males are free to pursue economic and social roles in the society at large. It might be expected that a conflict between a nontraditional sex-role philosophy and the actual performance of tasks in a traditional manner would produce problems for the individual. Likewise, conflicts in interpersonal areas of sex-typed behavior may have similar implications for the adjustment or satisfaction of heterosexual couples. Parelius (1975) found in an examination of attitudes toward feminism, that most males appear to be remaining traditional and conventional

in sex-role attitudes, and women, while rapidly becoming nontraditional in their views, still perceive the males as desiring traditional and nurturant females for marriage partners. While most of the recent sex-role research has focused on individuals, it seems reasonable to examine the sex-typing of those in both traditional and nontraditional relationships, to document where changes (if any) are occurring.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A review of the literature reveals several problem areas with regard to the investigation of unmarried heterosexual cohabitation. Foremost appears to be the lack of a consistent operational definition of cohabitation. Macklin (1974) addressed the definitional problem in a previous literature review, citing 8 studies with 6 varying definitions of cohabitation. Much of the earlier literature which described rates of cohabitation or characteristics of cohabitors is difficult to put into a cohesive structure upon which additional research can be based. Therefore, the need to further investigate cohabitation using a restricted definition is the most immediate concern.

It might be reasonable to assume that the cohabitors of the early 1970's were more alienated across the board, engaged in more frequent drug use, and as a group were more nonconforming to the institutions that represented the traditional values of the society at large. Macklin (1972) suggested that cohabitors were searching for ideals in interpersonal relationships, apart from the traditional dating/engagement/marriage structure. Early attention was thus focused on ways in which cohabitors might be distinguished from those considered traditional in behavior. The literature has generally shown that comparisons of family and demographic background characteristics produced no significant differences. However, some questions have arisen regarding both

the personal adjustment of cohabitors, and the quality of the cohabiting relationship. Mixed evidence has been presented ranging from those who felt that cohabitors did not demonstrate qualities crucial to the maintenance of long term relationships, to those suggesting that cohabitors were better adjusted with higher quality relationships, to recent findings that cohabitors were quite similar to married individuals. In sum, very few studies have examined the personal adjustment of cohabitors. Findings have generally been based on partial marital scales, not necessarily appropriate for cohabitors, or very brief, self-report estimates of personal adjustment. Some conclusions were based on individual's ratings, descriptions, etc. of relationships other than their current one. Overall, there are too few studies comparing cohabitors with those currently in other types of relationships to hypothesize any differences or similarities.

The climate which exists today on the college campus is much different than it was only several years ago. It is assumed that students remain in an environment where new ideas and behavior may be experimented with in the context of a large amount of peer support. Cohabitation is no longer the novel behavior sensationalized as a radical lifestyle. However, it is apparent that while the majority of students plan on getting married eventually, in the interim, some engage in the cohabiting experience, while others do not. It is important to examine cohabitation as it is presently occurring, using adequate comparison groups. Additionally, it seems necessary to do so with a sex-role measure, given the accumulating research in the

area. Some have suggested that changes in sex-role attitudes must precede changes in interpersonal behavior (Stafford, et. al. 1977). While it is not unreasonable to assume that those participating in nontraditional patterns of interpersonal behavior might differ in sex-role typing, the relationship has been unexamined. The present study attempted to clarify some of the inconsistent conclusions and speculation regarding those participating in the cohabiting experience.

METHOD

Design

The design used was a 2 x 4 factorial analysis of variance. One factor involved type of relationship. Subjects were classified as either dating, steady dating, married or cohabiting couples. The second factor involved the subjects' sex. All subjects completed a 30-45 minute questionnaire. The dependent variables included demographic data, attitudinal items, sex typing, personal adjustment and relationship satisfaction.

Subjects

The experimenter obtained permission from Appalachian State University faculty members to recruit volunteers from their respective classes. An attempt was made to sample from classes representing all university colleges on campus. The faculty members who were approached were assured of confidentiality of subjects' responses. The experimenter requested about 5 minutes of class time to allow solicitation of volunteers and the distribution of questionnaires. No such requests were denied.

The experimenter appeared before each class and made a standard presentation basically covering the information contained on the first page of the questionnaire. Following the presentation, volunteers were given 2 questionnaires. Thus one-half of the participants volunteered directly through ASU classes, while

the other half received questionnaires via their spouse or current relationship partner. Questionnaires were completed outside of class. The experimenter returned once to the classes to pick up the questionnaire. Questionnaires were also returned to a designated room on campus. The 85 sets of couples data returned in this manner comprised the total sample of subjects.

Apparatus

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of demographic and attitudinal items (See Appendix A). Subjects were required to select or indicate answers which were either self-descriptive, or self-characteristic with regard to the statements or questions presented. Included were basic demographic variables of sex, age, class standing, race, hometown size, family income, religion, and political view. Several items pertaining to the relationship were included (one of which was used to assign couples to groups). Finally, subjects were asked to respond to a variety of attitudinal items, most of which were of an agree/disagree format.

Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)

The BSRI was used as a dependent measure of masculine and feminine sex typing in this study (see Appendix B). Bem (1974) developed the instrument to assess a person's identification with masculine and feminine traits. The BSRI contains both a masculinity and femininity scale, each consisting of 20 characteristics which were previously judged to be more desirable in American society for one sex than the other. It also includes a third

scale of 20 neutral items judged to be no more desirable for one sex than the other. Although subjects responded to all 60 personality characteristics, only the masculinity and femininity scales were scored in the present study.

When taking the BSRI, subjects are asked to indicate on a 7 point scale how well each of 60 masculine, feminine, and neutral characteristics describes himself or herself. The scale ranges from 1 ("Never or almost never true") to 7 ("Always or almost always true"). The dependent measure of masculine sex typing was the subject's average endorsement of "masculine" items. Likewise, the dependent measure of feminine sex typing was the subject's average endorsement of "feminine" items.

Psychological Screening Inventory (PSI)

The PSI was used as a measure of personal adjustment (See Appendix C). This instrument was developed by Lanyon (1970) to be used as a brief mental health screening device. It was intended to assist in detecting those persons who might profitably benefit from more intensive psychological attention. The five PSI scales and the dimensions they purportedly assess include: Alienation (Al; serious pathology), Social Nonconformity (Sn; antisocial behavior), Discomfort (Di; anxiety or general neuroticism), Expression (Ex; extraversion), and Defensiveness (De; defensive test taking response).

The Al scale was derived by contrasting responses of psychiatric patients (mostly schizophrenic) with those of "normals". The Sn scale was likewise formed by contrasting the scores of the same

group of normals with those of inmates in a prison population. The De scale was constructed by contrasting the response of test-taking undergraduates under "fake good" and "fake bad" instructions. Thus the Al, Sn, and De scales were all empirically derived. The Di and Ex scales were constructed by internal consistency methods, using items from published scales as a guide.

When taking the PSI, subjects are asked to respond true or false to 130 items or personal statements according to whether the item is true or false for them. A subject's total raw scores for each of the PSI scales were used as dependent measures of personal adjustment.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) was used as a measure of satisfaction with the relationship (See Appendix D). The DAS is a nonweighted instrument which contains many items found on other measures of marital adjustment. Spanier suggests that the 32 item scale was designed for use with either married or unmarried cohabiting couples.

When taking the DAS, the subject is asked to check the amount of agreement/disagreement between him/herself and his or her partner for items 1-15. Items 16-28 require the respondent to indicate how often (or seldom) a variety of events occur between partners or with regard to the relationship. The subject is also asked to rate the relationship on a scale ranging from "extremely unhappy' to "perfect". The final item requires the subject to indicate to what extent he or she would like the

relationship to succeed in the future. This brief, self-report instrument yields scores with a theoretical range of 0-151, with higher scores used as a measure of relationship satisfaction in the present study.

Procedure

Volunteers willing to participate in a study "about couples in various kinds of heterosexual relationships" were recruited from a variety of graduate and undergraduate classes at Appalachian State University. The experimenter distributed 2 questionnaires to each volunteer, to be filled out separately by relationship partners. A total of 220 sets of questionnaires were distributed in this manner. Questionnaires were self-administered and completed by respondents outside of class.

Eighty-five completed sets of questionnaires were returned to either the classes where they were initially obtained, or to a designated room in the psychology department. No "singles" data was obtained.

Each participant completed a questionnaire containing an introductory page, a brief demographic and attitudinal section, the BSRI, the PSI, and the DAS. Subjects were informed that participation was voluntary and that all responses were completely confidential. The directions requested that respondents complete the items as individuals in a sincere manner.

RESULTS

Demographic

Eighty-five Appalachian State University students volunteered to participate in a study "about couples in various kinds of heterosexual relationships." Questionnaire data was obtained from these volunteers as well as from their spouse or current partner. This resulted in a total sample of 170 individuals evenly divided by sex. Couples were placed in either a dating, steady dating, married or cohabiting group according to one item on the questionnaire. The steady dating, married, and cohabiting couples all shared a consensus regarding their marital status classification. The dating group was mixed in the sense that for several of the couples, one partner checked the steady dating category and the other partner indicated that they were "dating different people." Thus a couple in the dating group might consist of either two daters, or a dater and a steady dater. On the basis of this classification system, the sample consisted of 10 dating couples (11.8%), 48 steady dating couples (56.5%), 15 married couples (17.6%) and 12 cohabiting couples (14.1%).

Males tended to be older than the females in this sample, with average ages of 24.2 years and 22.2 years respectively. There were also age differences for the four groups. The married group ($\bar{x}$ = 27.8 years) had the highest average age, followed by the cohabitors ($\bar{x}$ = 24 years), the daters ($\bar{x}$ = 22 years) and the

steady daters ($\bar{x}$ = 21.9 years). In terms of college class level, all grades from freshman to graduate were represented as follows: freshman (8.2%), sophomores (11.8%), juniors (15.3%), seniors (21.2%) and graduate students (24.1%). In addition, 19.1% of the sample consisted of individuals not currently in school.

The sample was close to being racially homogenous. Over 98% of the respondents were caucasian. The majority of individuals (71%) participating in the study indicated that they had grown up in cities of under 80,000 population. The largest single group, which represented almost one-third of all respondents (30.6%) were from cities of under 10,000 population. Those coming from large urban areas (over 200,000 population) represented only 7% of the entire sample.

Some group differences were apparent with regard to reported annual income in the family of origin. Daters and steady daters both indicated family incomes of over $25,000 annually. The married and cohabiting groups both indicated annual incomes averaging below $25,000. For the entire sample, the modal response (30%) was in the $15,000 to $25,000 range. An approximately equal size group (29.4%) reported incomes in the $25,000 to $50,000 range. Only 10% of the sample reported family incomes of $10,000 or below.

Politically, the majority of individuals placed themselves near the middle of a scale ranging from "radical" to "very conservative;" the modal response being "moderate" (35.9%). More individuals considered themselves "somewhat liberal" (27.6%) than those who

considered themselves "somewhat conservative" (20%). Only 9% of the respondents were "very liberal." Less than 2% of the sample described themselves as "radical" and "very conservative" respectively.

Information was also obtained about each subject's religious background as well as his current religious preference. In terms of religious background, a clear majority (83.5%) indicated a protestant orientation. Little variation was seen by group for the daters (80%), steady daters (81.3%), and the cohabitors (79.2%). The married group showed the highest percentage (97%) by group of those citing a protestant background. About 12% of the total sample indicated a Roman Catholic background. Thus, the entire sample consisted of individuals with traditional religious backgrounds. Somewhat more variation occurred when the subject's current religious preferences were examined. While those indicating a protestant preference (68%) were still the majority, the next largest group (14%) consisted of those stating "none" as their current religious preference. Those with a Roman Catholic preference (10.6%) showed only a slight decline compared to those with Roman Catholic backgrounds (12%). The "other" category showed an increase from 2.4% to 5.9%. Cohabitors showed the highest relative percentages (16.7% and 25%) for the "other" category as well as for those indicating "none" as their religious preference.

The issue of religion was also examined by looking at church attendance. The modal response (62.4%) indicated church attendance of less than twice a month. Steady daters showed the

highest relative percentage (16.7%) of those attending church more than four times a month. Cohabitors had the highest relative percentage (83.3%) of those citing church attendance of less than twice a month.

The couples in this study reported an average length of involvement in their current relationship of 30.2 months. Group differences were apparent for the length of involvement variable. The married group ($\bar{x}$ = 70.2 months) indicated the longest length of involvement, followed by the cohabiting group ($\bar{x}$ = 30.1 months). The dating and steady dating groups reported averages of 11.2 months and 18.8 months respectively. It was evident that all couples participating in this study were reporting lengthy periods of involvement.

The majority of participants (92%) reported no previous marriage. The cohabiting group deviated from the other groups by showing a somewhat higher percentage of previous marriage (25%). About 18.2% of all respondents had participated in previous cohabiting relationships of at least 3 months duration. Males tended to report more cohabiting relationships than did females. The married and cohabiting groups were similar in previous cohabiting experience, 17% and 20% respectively. Likewise, the dating and steady dating groups were about equal (5%) in terms of individuals indicating previous cohabiting experience.

Subjects were asked to indicate which of several different kinds of drugs they used. The drug use analysis as well as means and standard deviations for the respective groups is presented in Appendix E, Table I. Examination of analysis of variance

results indicated that the main effect of sex was not significant ($F(1,162) = 1.62$, $p = .204$). The main effect of type of relationship was found to be significant ($F(3,162) = 11.61$, $p = .001$). An analysis of group differences was done using a t-test comparison of means (Brunning and Kintz, 1968). Results from this analysis indicated that the cohabitors reported using more drugs than the daters, steady daters, and married group (Critical difference for significance at .05 level = .77 , .86, and .64 respectively). Other group differences were not significant. The two-way interaction between sex of subject and type of relationship was not significant ($F(3,162) = .361$, $p = .78$).

Sex Typing

The next dependent measures examined were subjects' masculinity and femininity scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). An individual's masculine score reflects his/her average endorsement of 20 "masculine" adjectives. Likewise, an individual's feminine score reflects his/her average endorsement of 20 "feminine" adjectives. These adjectives were designated as either masculine or feminine according to responses in Bem's normative sample. Masculine items were those personality characteristics which were judged to be significantly more desirable for males in our society than for females. The feminine items were those judged to be significantly more desirable for females. The BSRI departs from the traditional bipolar models of masculinity/femininity by assessing masculinity and femininity as separate constructs which theoretically may vary independently within a given individual.

A 2 x 4 analysis of variance was performed on both the masculinity and femininity measures of sex typing. Each analysis

compared the sex of the subject (male versus female) and type of relationship (dating, steady dating, married or cohabiting). These analyses as well as means and standard deviations are presented in Appendix E, Tables II and III. For the Bem masculinity measure, the main effect of sex was significant ($F(1,158) = 42.07$, $p.= .001$). This indicated that males scored significantly higher than females on the masculinity measure. The means for males and females were 5.41 and 4.72 respectively. An examiniation of analysis of variance results for masculine typing and type of relationship revealed no significant differences ($F(3,158) = .238$, $p = .869$). Additionally, the two-way interaction between sex of subject and type of relationship was not significant ($F(3,158) = 1.165$, $p = .325$).

Examination of analysis of variance results for the Bem femininity measure also revealed a significant main effect of sex ($F(1,158) = 33.97$, $p = .001$). Females scored significantly higher than males on the femininity measure. The means for females and males were 5.28 and 4.80 respectively. A significant main effect of type of relationship was found for the femininity measure ($F(3,158) = 4.59$, $p = .004$). An analysis of group differences was done using a t-test comparison of means. The means for the dating, steady dating, married and cohabiting groups were 5.02, 5.15, 4.88 and 4.77 respectively. Results from this analysis indicated that the married and cohabiting groups were significantly less sex typed on feminine characteristics than the steady dating group (Critical differences for significance at .05 level = .21 and .24 respectively). Other group differences

were not significant. The two-way interaction between sex of subject and type of relationship was not significant ($F(3.158) = .905$, $p = .44$).

In sum, the BSRI clearly divided the sexes by gender on both the masculinity and femininity measures. Males endorsed Bem's "masculine" items as significantly more characteristic of themselves than did females. Females endorsed "feminine" items as significantly more characteristic of themselves than did males. Overall, group differences were not as pronounced. No differences in masculine sex typing occurred as a function of the type of relationship. The cohabiting and married groups were both found to be less sex typed on feminine characteristics than were the steady daters. Otherwise, no significant group differences were found.

Personal Adjustment

The next set of dependent measures related to the assessment of personal adjustment. The Psychological Screening Inventory (PSI) is a brief mental health screening device which purportedly is useful in differentiating individuals who are mentally healthy from those who might warrant more extensive psychological examination. The PSI consists of 5 separate scales; Alienation (Al), Social Nonconformity (Sn), Discomfort (Di), Expression (Ex), and Defensiveness (De).

A 2 x 4 analysis of variance was performed with raw scores from each of the 5 PSI scales as dependent measures. Each analysis compared sex of subject and type of relationship. (See Appendix E, Tables IV - VIII for ANOVA summary data as well as means and

standard deviations for the respective groups.) The PSI scales are discussed successively in this section.

The Alienation scale was designed to assess the similarity of the respondent to hospitalized psychiatric patients. Examination of analysis of variance results indicated that the main effect of sex was not significant ($F(1,158) = 4.09$, $p = .82$). The main effect of type of relationship was significant ($F(3,158) = 31.15$, $p = .009$). The means for the dating, steady dating, married, and cohabiting groups were 7.9, 5.8, 5.3, and 6.6 respectively. A t-test comparison of group means indicated that the daters had significantly higher Al scores than both the married and steady dating groups (Critical differences for significance at .05 level = 1.59 and 1.35 respectively). The daters thus showed significantly greater similarity to psychiatric patients on the Al measure than either the married or the steady dating group. Other group comparisons were not significant. Additionally, the interaction of sex of subject and type of relationship on the Al scale was not significant ($F(3,158) = 7.005$, $p = .448$).

The Social Nonconformity scale was designed to assess the similarity of the respondent to incarcerated prisoners (See Appendix E, Table V). A significant main effect of sex was found with the Sn scale ($F(1,158) = 36.75$, $p = .001$). This indicated that males scored higher on the nonconformity measure than females. The means for males and females were 10.9 and 7.5 respectively. Additional examination of the data revealed a significant main effect of type of relationship ($F(3,158) =$

4.46, p = .005). An analysis of group differences was done using a t-test comparison of means. The means for the dating, steady dating, married, and cohabiting groups were 9.8, 9.12, 7.82 and 11.26 respectively. Results from the t-test analysis indicated that cohabitors had significantly higher Sn scores than both the married and steady dating groups (Critical differences for significance at .05 level = 1.93 and 1.61 respectively). Other group comparisons were not significant. The two-way interaction between sex of subject and type of relationship was not significant (F (3,158) = .682, p = .56). Males as a group were thus found to score significantly higher on an antisocial measure (similarity to prisoners) than females. The cohabiting group also had the highest overall Sn scores and differed significantly in this respect from both the married and steady dating groups.

The Discomfort scale (Di) was designed to assess the personality dimension of anxiety or perceived maladjustment. Persons scoring high on the Di scale are purportedly admitting many somatic and psychological discomforts or difficulties. (See Appendix E, Table VI.) An examination of analysis of variance results revealed a significant main effect of sex (F (1,158) = 6.41, p = .012). This indicated that females had significantly higher Di scores than did males. The mean scores for females and males were 10.24 and 8.30 respectively. Further examination of the analysis of variance results indicated that the main effect of type of relationship was not significant (F (3,158) = 1.72, p = .163). The two-way interaction between sex of subject and type of relationship was also not significant

(F (3,158) = .43, p = .732). Overall, females showed significantly more "discomfort" than did males. No significant differences according to type of relationship were apparent on the Di scale (F (3,158) = 1.72, p = .163).

The Expression scale (Ex) was designed to assess the personality dimension of extraversion. Those scoring high on this measure are purported to be impulsive or extroverted, with those scoring low on this scale being quiet or introverted. (See Appendix E, Table VII.) Examination of analysis of variance results indicated that the main effect of sex was not significant (F (1,158) = 1.66, p = .198). The main effect of type of relationship was also not significant (F (3,153) = 1.527, p = .21). Additionally, the two-way interaction between sex of subject and type of relationship was not significant (F (3,153) = .229, p = .876).

The Defensiveness scale (De) of the PSI was designed to assess the degree of defensiveness in the test-taker's responses. High De scores purportedly indicate that the respondents were attempting to present themselves in a favorable light. Low scores, on the other hand, suggest openness or willingness to admit undesirable characteristics. (See Appendix E, Table VIII.) A significant main effect of sex was found for the defensiveness measure (F (1,153) = 0.443, p = .003). This indicated that females scored significantly higher on the De scale than did males. The mean De scores for females and males were 11.01 and 9.95 respsectively. Additional examination of analysis of variance data revealed a significant main effect of type of

relationship ($F(3,153) = 3.56$, $p = .016$). The means for the daters, steady daters, married and cohabiting groups were 10.2, 10.34, 11.62, and 9.82 respectively. An analysis of group differences was done using a t-test comparison of means. Results from this analysis indicated that the married group had significantly higher defensiveness scores than the dating, steady dating, and cohabiting groups (Critical differences for significance at .05 level = 1.25, .91, and 1.20 respectively). Other group comparisons were not significant. To sum, it appears that females were more defensive than males. Additionally, the married group differed significantly from each of the other groups on the De measure.

Overall, the sexes differed on 3 of the PSI scales. Males showed a greater similarity of response to incarcerated prisoners than did females on the measure used. Females admitted to more psychological and somatic discomforts than did males. Females also were significantly more defensive in test-taking attitude than were males.

Several group differences are noteworthy. Daters were found to be significantly more similar to psychiatric patients than either the married or steady dating group. Finally, the married group was found to be more defensive than each of the other groups.

Relationship Satisfaction

The next dependent measure concerned satisfaction, or adjustment to the relationship. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1974) was used. This is a brief, 32 item scale which purportedly is applicable to married or living together dyads.

Analysis of variance data including means and standard deviations for the satisfaction measure is presented in Appendix E, Table IX. Examination of the data indicated that the main effect of sex was not significant ($F(1,153) = 1.131$, $p = .289$). A significant main effect of type of relationship was found ($F(3,153) = 6.638$, $p = .001$). An analysis of group differences was done using a t-test comparison of means. The mean satisfaction scores for the daters, steady daters, marrieds and cohabitors were 100.62, 114.24, 116.66, and 113.59 respectively. Results from the t-test analysis indicated that the daters had significantly lower satisfaction scores than the steady dating, married and cohabiting groups (Critical differences for significance at .05 level = 6.46, 5.00, and 7.84 respectively). Other group comparisons revealed no significant differences. The two-way interaction of subject's sex and type of relationship was also not significant ($F(3,153) = .207$, $p = .891$). No differences in relationship satisfaction were thus found for the groups which involved some level of commitment to the partner. Not surprisingly, those "dating different people" deviated significantly from the steady dating, married, and cohabiting groups.

A multiple regression analysis was done using the Dyadic Adjustment Scale as the dependent measure, and the Bem scales, PSI scales, age and sex as independent variables. Results from the regression analysis indicated than an individual's defensiveness score from the PSI accounted for the most variance in relationship satisfaction scores. Thus it appears that the manner in which individuals attempt to portray themselves in a favorable light,

relates significantly to the evalution of relationship satisfaction (See Appendix E, Table X for a summary of the regression analysis).

Sex Typing and Personal Adjustment, Relationship Satisfaction

Another series of dependent measures pertained to sex-type categories as related to personal adjustment and relationship satisfaction. Evidence presented recently (Orlofsky, Aslin and Ginsburg, 1977) suggests that the difference/median split scoring method of the BSRI is more sensitive to sex-role orientation and less susceptible to social desirability than other methods. The difference/median split method was used in the present study for the following analyses as it appeared to provide a sharper index of sex typing than the simple median split scoring method.

A one way analysis of variance was performed on each of the 5 PSI scales and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, using the "masculine," "feminine," "androgynous" and "undifferentiated" BSRI sex-type categories.

Analysis of variance data for sex type and alienation scores is presented in Appendix F, Table XI. Examination of analysis of variance data revealed no significant differences for sex type and Al scores ($F(3,162) = 1.378$, $p = .252$).

The analysis comparing sex type and social nonconformity scores was significant ($F(3,162) = 13.544$, $p = .001$). (See Appendix F, Table XII). The means for the masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated categories were 11.54, 7.32, 8.84, and 11.40 respectively. An analysis of group differences was done using a t-test comparison of means. Results from

this analysis indicated that the masculine-typed individuals scored significantly higher on the nonconformity measure than both the feminine and androgynous groups (Critical difference for significance at .05 level = 1.33 and 1.38 respectively). The t-test analysis also revealed that the feminine group had significantly lower Sn scores than both the androgynous and undifferentiated groups (Critical difference for significance at .05 level = 1.37 and 3.29 respectively). Overall, the "feminine" individuals were signficantly lower on the nonconformity measure than each of the other sex-type categories.

The analysis of "Discomfort" scores revealed a significant effect of sex type ($F(3,162) = 11.416$, $p = .001$). (See Appendix F, Table XIII). The mean Di scores for the masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated groups were 7.63, 11.41, 8.08 and 16.00 respectively. A t-test analysis of group means indicated that the undifferentiated group scored higher on the Di scale than the masculine, feminine and androgynous groups (Critical difference for significance at .05 level = 4.13, 4.13, and 4.15 respectively). The t-test analysis also indicated that the feminine group had significantly higher Di scores than both the masculine and the androgynous groups (Critical difference for significance at.05 level = 1.68 and 1.72 respectively). Thus, while the feminine and undifferentiated groups differed significantly from each other on the "Discomfort" measure, both groups were alike in scoring significantly higher than the masculine and androgynous groups.

A significant effect of sex type was also found for the Expression scale ($F(3,162) = 19.02$, $p = .001$). (See Appendix F, Table XIV). The means for the masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated groups were 16.67, 10.85, 14.84 and 10.60 respectively. A t-test analysis of group means indicated that the masculine group scored significantly higher on the Ex scale than the feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated groups (Critical difference for significance at .05 level = 1.58, 1.63, and 3.90 respectively). The t-test analysis also indicated that the androgynous group scored significantly higher on the Ex scale than both the feminine and the undifferentiated groups (Critical difference for significance at .05 level = 1.62 and 3.92 respectively). Again, while the masculine and androgynous groups differed significantly from each other, they were similar in both scoring higher on an extraversion measure than the feminine and undifferentiated groups.

Finally, the effect of sex type was not significant when the Defensiveness scores were analyzed ($F(3,162) = 1.832$, $p = .143$). See Appendix F, Table XV for a presentation of analysis data for the defensiveness measure.

When the analysis comparing sex type and relationship satisfaction was examined, a trend toward significance was observed ($F(3,156) = 2.394$, $p = .07$). This suggests that the feminine-type individuals may be more satisfied than the undifferentiated individuals (means were 115.72 and 101.80 respectively). See Appendix F, Table XVI for the presentation of sex type and relationship satisfaction scores.

DISCUSSION

The results of the present study suggest that cohabitors are quite similar to those in other types of relationships on the most widely used measure of sex typing. Previous cohabitation research, while not examining the sex role issue directly, has produced some speculation that the cohabiting experience provided a situation conducive to the formation of egalitarian roles. One of the reasons for cohabiting mentioned by Macklin's (1972) subjects was to avoid the traditional roles of marriage. Likewise, some of Arafat and Yorburg's (1973) respondents felt that living together did not involve as many rules or norms as marriage. It is not unreasonable to assume that those participating in nontraditional patterns of heterosexual activity, might also exhibit deviations from those in traditional activities in terms of sex-role orientation. Yet, there is no available data to support or refute hypotheses regarding the sex typing of cohabitors. The findings of the present study appear to offer some basis for rejecting the hypothesis that those in non-traditional living arrangements differ significantly in sex typing from those in traditional arrangements. No group differences were obtained on the measure of masculine-typing. Somewhat surprisingly, both cohabiting and married subjects scored significantly lower on the femininity measure than the steady daters. Therefore, the extent to which one is feminine-typed appears

to be related to something other than the type of relationship (traditional versus nontraditional). Perhaps a lowering of feminine-typing occurs as a function of living with a heterosexual partner, legal or otherwise.

The age differences between the steady daters and both the married and cohabiting groups may also have bearing on the sex-type finding. The steady daters were younger and hence much closer to the sex role orientations adopted in their family of origin. Perhaps as one leaves the nuclear family to become a part of a separate relationship, the sex role characteristics change according to complementarity in the dyad. Clearly, additional sex role research focused on currently involved heterosexual couples would be helpful in clarifying the sex role issue.

The results of the present study indicated that on a measure of personal adjustment, there were more differences between the sexes than there were among the cohabitors and those in other type relationships. Previous cohabitation literature has reflected an inconsistent pattern of differences for cohabitors across the measures used. Macklin (1974) and Peterman et. al. (1974) both found higher ratings of personal adjustment by cohabitors using brief, unstandardized self-report indices. Those who used the MMPI (Markowski, 1973; and Catlin et. al., 1976) differed in the interpretation of their results. Markowski (1973) described cohabitors as "less adjusted", while Catlin et. al. (1976) felt that cohabitors only tended to be more nonconforming.

The results of the present study suggest strongly that cohabitors differ significantly from others in terms of their disregard for social conventions. They attend church less often and admit to using more drugs. This is not a surprising finding as cohabitation is still quite a ways from unequivocal societal acceptance, although support of cohabitation may run high on the college campus. Cohabiting students must still deal with (or deceive) parents, occasionally landlords, and those of the community at large who may not be in favor of cohabitation. Therefore, the finding that cohabitors scored higher on social nonconformity than either married or steady dating individuals is in line with other reserach to date.

The comparisons in the present study also revealed that males had significantly higher social nonconformity scores than females. Additionally, the masculine-typed individuals scored higher than each of the other sex-type groups. Therefore, the cohabitors appear to be acknowledging traditionally masculine characteristics of independence, instrumentality, or a willingness to do what one desires regardless of the surroundings. In contrast, the feminine-typed individuals (such as the steady dating group) scored significantly lower on the social nonconformity measure than each of the other sex-type groups. It may be more productive to examine the relationship of sex type and adjustment than to continue to investigate differences according to type of relationship.

On a note suggestive of better adjustment, cohabitors were found to be significantly less defensive than the married

group. Perhaps cohabitors are able to be more frank about themselves personally, in the same way that they have been able to openly participate in heterosexual living arrangements that are not legally sanctioned. The finding that cohabitors were less defensive than married individuals may have bearing on some of the conclusions drawn from previous work. Possibly, previously reported differences should be examined in terms of the honesty of the self-disclosure, rather than adjustment. Instead of being less adjusted, cohabitors possibly have been more willing to admit what they really do, instead of trying to present themselves in a favorable light. Married individuals, on the other hand,have made a formal, legal commitment (with financial, legal, social penalties for "failure") that could necessitate a denial of negative characteristics.

On the measures indicating similarity to psychiatric patients, and anxiety or perceived maladjustment, the cohabitors were not significantly different from any of the other groups. It therefore appears that cohabitors are neither more nor less adjusted than those in other types of relationships, but are possibly more open about their personal and interpersonal behavior.

The results suggest that the sex type of an individual may be productively examined using standardized mental health instruments. In the present study, the PSI was found to significantly differentiate the respective sex-type categories on 3 of the 5 scales. Consistent with traditional sex-role expectations, the findings are in support of some of the recent sex-role research of sex-typed behavior. The differences regarding

social nonconformity have already been discussed. On the Di scale (somatic or psychological complaints) the feminine-typed individuals scored significantly higher than the masculine-types. Apparently, the traditionally masculine individuals are reluctant or unwilling to express feelings or admit "weakness." In contrast, the feminine-typed individuals freely describe a variety of somatic or psychological feeling states. Another traditionally divided difference occurred on the Ex scale. The masculine-typed individuals scored significantly higher than the feminine-typed on a measure of extraversion (social dominance). The "feminine" characteristic of passivity was apparent on the Ex scale. Overall, while the cell frequencies were small, the undifferentiated individuals consistently had higher scores on the indices of maladjustment. The evidence that undifferentiated persons warrant consideration as a psychologically distinct group (Spence, Helmreich, Stapp, 1975) is further substantiated. Likewise, evidence that the androgynous individual may be better adjusted, in terms of a standardized instrument, than either the masculine or feminine sex-typed individuals, was also supported. Those attempting to correlate androgyny with mental health might benefit from pursuing the issue from a couples perspective. The present findings offer evidence that the PSI is a valid psychological instrument for significantly differentiating sex-typed individuals along several dimensions.

The literature has consistently reported that cohabitors are generally satisfied with the cohabiting relationship. Macklin's (1972) subjects who had broken up at the time of the interview,

reported that they had benefitted in many ways from their cohabiting experience. Lyness et. al. (1974) found that all couples were happy with their relationships. Although some (Peterson et. al., 1974) have suggested that cohabitors are more satisfied, the findings in the present study are generally in support of what Polansky et. al. (1978) reported. Polansky found no differences of relationship satisfaction for cohabiting and married couples. It appears that cohabitors are reporting about the same level of relationship satisfaction as both married and steady dating individuals.

Despite the initial reaction to the cohabitation phenomenon and the occasional concerns for the future of the American family, it appears that cohabitors differ minimally from those in other relationships when systematic psychological instruments are employed. In sum, there are still very few studies which have used restricted definitions of cohabitation. It is suggested that those desiring to conduct future studies use operational definitions that facilitate comparisons with previous studies. Additional investigation of sex-role patterning in heterosexual couples from a longitudinal perspective might prove a productive course to follow.

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APPENDIX A

Introduction, demographic and attitudinal section

You are invited to participate in some new research about couples in various kinds of heterosexual relationships. Participation is entirely voluntary and requires only that you and you current partner, (whether you are dating, married, or living together), fill out separate questionnaires. This will take about 45 minutes and may be done at your convenience at home, in the dorm, at the library or wherever. When you have completed and returned the questionnaires, (preferably at the next meeting of this class), your obligation to the study is finished. All information furnished is completely confidential with names, student ID, etc., not required.

I ask only that participants fill out the questionnaires as individuals, in as sincere and straightforward a manner as possible. The results of the research will be shared with all interested persons at the conclusion of this study (prior to the end of this semester). Questions or comments should be directed to Bruce Nelson, Psychology Department, ASU, or at 264-4721. Any questionnaires that are not returned to the class where they are initially obtained, may also be returned to Hank Schneider's office, number 108B on the first floor of Smith-Wright Hall.

Please answer the following as honestly and accurately as you can. All information is strictly confidential. Indicate your responses by circling one of the numbers following each question or statement. Write in other answers where appropriate.

What is your sex? 1. Male 2. Female

Age (as of last birthday) _____

Current class standing: 1. Fresh. 2. Soph. 3. Junior 4. Senior 5. Grad. 6. Not in school

College major _____

Race 1. Caucasian 2. Negro 3. Oriental 4. Other_____

In what size city did you spend your childhood:
1. Under 10,000 pop. 2. (10,000 - 25,000) 3. (25,000-80,000)
4. (80,000 - 100,000) 5. (100,000 - 200,000) 6. Over 200,000
7. Lived in various size cities

What is the approximate annual income in your family of origin?
1. Less than $5,000 2. $5,000 - $10,000 3. $10,000 - $15,000
4. $15,000 - $25,000 5. $25,000 - $50,000 6. Over $50,000

What is the religious preference in your family of origin?
1. Protestant (Baptist, Presbyterian, etc.). 2. Roman Catholic
3. Jewish 4. Atheist 5. None 6. Other _____

What is your current religious preference? 1. Protestant
2. Roman Catholic 3. Jewish 4. Atheist 5. None 6. Other _____

Would you describe your political views as: 1. Radical
2. Very liberal 3. Somewhat liberal 4. Moderate 5. Somewhat conservative 6. Very conservative 7. Other _____

Do you attend church: 1. More than 4 times a month
2. 4 times a month 3. Twice a month 4. Less than twice a month

Which of the following best describes your present situation?
1. I am single and dating different people (no one exclusively)
2. I am single and dating one person steady.
3. I am legally married.
4. I live with a member of the opposite sex, i.e., not legally married but share same residence (at least 5 days a week in a sexually intimate relationship).

How long have you been involved with the person you are now in a relationship with? _____ weeks _____ months ____ years
_____ not applicable

Have you ever been married before? 1. Yes 2. No

Have you ever lived with anyone in an unmarried couple relationship previously? (of at least 3 months duration, do not count current relationship). 1. Yes 2. No If yes, how many such relationship. 1. One 2. Two 3. Three or more

If dating or cohabiting, do you think you will eventually marry the person you are now in a relationship with? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Not apply

Do you have any children? 1. Yes 2. No If yes, how many?_____

Is your relationship sexually exclusive? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Not apply

How important is sex in your relationship? 1. Very important 2. Important 3. Unimportant 4. Not applicable

All things considered, who do you feel holds the most power in your relationship? 1. I do 2. Partner does 3. It's about equal

Who has the primary financial responsibility in your relationship? 1. I do 2. Partner does 3. Share about equally 4. Not apply

Which one of the following is most important to you in your relationship? 1. Companionship 2. Sex 3. Love 4. Security 5. Learning about another 6. Having fun

Which of the following drugs do you use? (circle for each) 1. Alcohol 2. Marijuana 3. Hallucinogens 4. Amphetamines 5. Tranquilizers 6. Cocaine 7. I don't use any drugs

What do you consider to be the ideal number of children for one family? 1. None 2. One 3. Two 4. Three 5. Four 6. More than four

Who has the primary responsibility for the use of contraceptives when employed? 1. Female 2. Male 3. Should be shared

Bisexuality is a natural phenomenon. 1. Agree 2. Disagree

In the event of an unplanned pregnancy, abortion is a reasonable means of dealing with the situation. 1. Agree 2. Agree with qualifications 3. Disagree

It is more important for a woman to be sexually faithful than it is for a man. 1. Agree 2. Disagree

When there are young or preschool children in the home, the woman should assume primary responsibility for their care. 1. Agree 2. Disagree

Women should be drafted into the military the same as men. 1. Agree 2. Disagree

Couples living together unmarried is a viable alternative to the traditional marital arrangement. 1. Agree 2. Disagree

(For cohabitors only)
Do you consider your relationship to be: 1. Trial marriage 2. Alternate to marriage 3. Nothing to do with marriage, convenient for the time being 4. Other, please describe _____

_____

APPENDIX B

Bem Sex Role Inventory

BEM INVENTORY

Developed by Sandra L. Bem, Ph.D.

DIRECTIONS

he opposite side of this sheet, you will find listed a number of personality characteristics. We would like you t
those characteristics to describe yourself, that is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, hov
of you each of these characteristics is. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

mple: sly

Write a 1 if it is never or almost never true that you are sly.
Write a 2 if it is usually not true that you are sly.
Write a 3 if it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are sly.
Write a 4 if it is occasionally true that you are sly.
Write a 5 if it is often true that you are sly.
Write a 6 if it is usually true that you are sly.
Write a 7 if it is always or almost always true that you are sly.

if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "sly," never or almost never true that you ar
cious," always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible," and often true that you are "carefree,
you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3	Irresponsible	7
Malicious	1	Carefree	5

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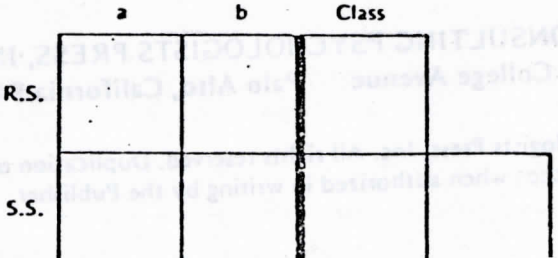
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always almost always tr

Defend my own beliefs		Adaptable		Flatterable	
Affectionate		Dominant		Theatrical	
Conscientious		Tender		Self-sufficient	
Independent		Conceited		Loyal	
Sympathetic		Willing to take a stand		Happy	
Moody		Love children		Individualistic	
Assertive		Tactful		Soft-spoken	
Sensitive to needs of others		Aggressive		Unpredictable	
Reliable		Gentle		Masculine	
Strong personality		Conventional		Gullible	
Understanding		Self-reliant		Solemn	
Jealous		Yielding		Competitive	
Forceful		Helpful		Childlike	
Compassionate		Athletic		Likable	
Truthful		Cheerful		Ambitious	
Have leadership abilities		Unsystematic		Do not use harsh language	
Eager to soothe hurt feelings		Analytical		Sincere	
Secretive		Shy		Act as a leader	
Willing to take risks		Inefficient		Feminine	
Warm		Make decisions easily		Friendly	



APPENDIX C

Psychological Screening Inventory

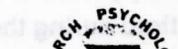
PSI

by Richard I. Lanyon, Ph.D.

If a statement tends to be TRUE for you, blacken the circle in the column headed T: that is, ● ○
If a statement tends to be FALSE for you, blacken the circle in the column headed F: that is, ○ ●
Please try to answer all questions.

T	F		
○	○	1.	I enjoy classical music.
○	○	2.	I am usually happy.
○	○	3.	Being a TV announcer would be fun.
○	○	4.	I am happy just being alone.
○	○	5.	Shooting is a good sport.
○	○	6.	At times I lose all my drive.
○	○	7.	I guess I am not very efficient.
○	○	8.	I have never broken a major law.
○	○	9.	I do not worry about going insane.
○	○	10.	Things are always frightening me.
○	○	11.	Sometimes I don't quite know what to say.
○	○	12.	I forget things more quickly nowadays.
○	○	13.	People usually understand me.
○	○	14.	I think carefully about all my actions.
○	○	15.	I think there is something wrong with my memory.
○	○	16.	I am active in clubs.
○	○	17.	I don't get sick very often.
○	○	18.	It is fun to bet.
○	○	19.	I am rarely at a loss for words.
○	○	20.	When I sleep I toss and turn.
○	○	21.	I guess I know some pretty undesirable types.
○	○	22.	I do not like to gamble.
○	○	23.	I often find it hard to concentrate.
○	○	24.	I have sometimes drunk too much.
○	○	25.	I am sensitive to the needs of others.
○	○	26.	I would like to be more outgoing.
○	○	27.	I break more laws than many people.
○	○	28.	My friends were always welcome at home.
○	○	29.	Adults should not shout and yell so much.
○	○	30.	As a child I occasionally stole things.
○	○	31.	All people tell "white lies."
○	○	32.	I am pretty healthy for my age.
○	○	33.	My thoughts are sometimes unusual.
○	○	34.	I enjoy the theater.
○	○	35.	I take all my responsibilities seriously.
○	○	36.	High speeds thrill me.
○	○	37.	I am tempted to sleep too much.
○	○	38.	I do not curse.
○	○	39.	Most people are honest with themselves.
○	○	40.	I do not like to perform for others.
○	○	41.	My health is no problem for me.
○	○	42.	Sometimes I am no good for anything at all.
○	○	43.	Strange voices have spoken to me.
○	○	44.	I would not like to be an actor.
○	○	45.	I have sometimes sat about when I should have been working.
○	○	46.	I'm afraid I broke a few rules at school.
○	○	47.	Warm relationships are difficult for me.
○	○	48.	At times I am a little shy.
○	○	49.	I frequently feel nauseated.
○	○	50.	My childhood home was happy.
○	○	51.	I have sometimes been tempted to hit people.
○	○	52.	I was always well behaved in school.
○	○	53.	I sometimes get all steamed up.
○	○	54.	My appetite is very healthy.
○	○	55.	I am extremely persistent.
○	○	56.	I am often tired during the day.

O O 57. My school teachers had some problems with me.
O O 58. Odd things have happened to me in my lifetime.
O O 59. I do not like to sit and daydream.
O O 60. Few people win arguments with me.
O O 61. I am easily distracted from a task.
O O 62. I rarely wake up tired.
O O 63. People should look after themselves first.
O O 64. Sometimes I am tempted to break something.
O O 65. I have been tempted to leave home.
O O 66. I have no trouble controlling my urges.
O O 67. I am rather a loud-mouth at times.
O O 68. Most people are looking for sympathy.
O O 69. I am a fairly conservative person.
O O 70. Much of my life is uninteresting.
O O 71. Some people really wish me harm.
O O 72. My parents like (or liked) my friends.
O O 73. I have little confidence in myself.
O O 74. I seldom feel frightened.
O O 75. People think I am pretty calm.
O O 76. Drug addiction is very undesirable.
O O 77. I feel isolated from other people.
O O 78. It is very hard to embarrass me.
O O 79. I have a lot of energy.
O O 80. I never act without thinking.
O O 81. The world has always seemed pretty real.
O O 82. I have avoided people I did not wish to speak to.
O O 83. People tend to watch me.
O O 84. The world is full of odd things.
O O 85. I like to obey the law.
O O 86. I have never had a strange mental attack.
O O 87. I always do my work thoroughly.
O O 88. People generally like to help others.
O O 89. I would make a good leader.
O O 90. I sometimes feel I am in a world alone.
O O 91. My troubles are not all my fault.
O O 92. I enjoy talking in front of groups.
O O 93. I find it hard to start a conversation.
O O 94. I don't like to rush about.
O O 95. When I get nervous my hands tremble.
O O 96. People stop talking when I approach.
O O 97. Being a racing driver would be fun.
O O 98. Life treats me badly.
O O 99. I have rarely been punished.
O O 100. My failures are largely due to myself.
O O 101. I would like to be really important.
O O 102. I stay away from trouble.
O O 103. Sometimes I hear noises inside my head.
O O 104. I rarely stumble or trip when I walk.
O O 105. Many people do not know how sensitive I am.
O O 106. If I don't like somebody, I say so.
O O 107. My life is definitely worthwhile.
O O 108. I think carefully about most things I do.
O O 109. I rarely feel anxious in my stomach.
O O 110. People think I am more immature than I am.
O O 111. At times I feel worn out for no special reason.
O O 112. We should obey every law.
O O 113. Some of my relatives have done strange things.
O O 114. I am painstaking and thorough.
O O 115. I rarely or never get headaches.
O O 116. My parents are (or were) too conservative.
O O 117. I am usually the one to open a conversation.
O O 118. People often embarrass me.
O O 119. It is very easy for me to make friends.
O O 120. Sometimes the police use unfair tricks.
O O 121. Occasionally I feel dizzy or light-headed.
O O 122. At school I was never easy to manage.
O O 123. I am extremely talkative.
O O 124. Some people simply have too much energy.
O O 125. I feel that people keep secrets from me.
O O 126. I like to let others start a conversation.
O O 127. I can usually judge what effect I will have on others.
O O 128. My strength often seems to drain away from me.
O O 129. Sometimes I wish I could control myself better.
O O 130. I have a soft voice.



APPENDIX D

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
1. Handling family finances						
2. Matters of recreation						
3. Religious matters						
4. Demonstrations of affection						
5. Friends						
6. Sex relations						
7. Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)						
8. Philosophy of life						
9. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws						
10. Aims, goals, and things believed important						
11. Amount of time spent together						
12. Making major decisions						
13. Household tasks						
14. Leisure time interests and activities						
15. Career decisions						

	All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?						
17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?						
18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?						
19. Do you confide in your mate?						
20. Do you ever regret that you married? (*or lived together*)						
21. How often do you and your partner quarrel?						
22. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"						

	Every Day	Almost Every Day	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
23. Do you kiss your mate?					
	All of them	**Most of them**	**Some of them**	**Very few of them**	**None of them**
24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?					

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
25. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas						
26. Laugh together						
27. Calmly discuss something						
28. Work together on a project						

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometime disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks. (Check yes or no)

	Yes	No	
29.			Being too tired for sex.
30.			Not showing love.

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

Extremely Unhappy	Fairly Unhappy	A Little Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy	Perfect

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

_____ I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and *would go to almost any length* to see that it does.
_____ I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will do all I can* to see that it does.
_____ I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will do my fair share* to see that it does.
_____ It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but *I can't do much more than I am doing* now to help it succeed.

APPENDIX E

Group Analyses
(Tables I through X)

TABLE I
ANOVA Summary Tables and Means
and Standard Deviations for Drug Use

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	3.388	1.624
Type Relationship	3	24.218	11.611***
Sex x Type Relationship	3	.754	.361
Within Subjects	162	2.086	
Total	169	2.463	

***p < .001

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Daters	Steady Daters	Married	Cohabiting
Males	1.68(1.67)	2.00(1.76)	1.35(1.49)	1.26(1.33)	3.25(1.91)
Females	1.40(1.44)	1.20(.91)	1.06(1.26)	1.33(1.34)	3.00(1.70)
Total	1.54(1.56)	1.60(1.42)	1.20(1.38)	1.30(1.31)	3.12(1.77)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE II
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Means and Standard Deviations for Masculine Sex Typing

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	19.469	42.07***
Type Relationship	3	.110	.238
Sex x Type Relationship	3	.539	1.165
Within Subjects	158	.463	
Total	165	.573	

*** p < .001

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

	Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married	Cohabiting
Males	5.41(.68)	5.28(.86)	5.48(.64)	5.38(.58)	5.31(.89)
Females	4.72(.66)	5.04(.66)	4.68(.67)	4.54(.69)	4.84(.57)
Total	5.07(.76)	5.16(.76)	5.08(.76)	4.96(.76)	5.08(.77)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE III
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Standard Deviations for Feminine Sex Typing

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	9.283	33.972***
Type Relationship	3	1.256	4.596**
Sex x Type Relationship	3	.247	.905
Within Subjects	158	.273	
Total	165	.345	

*** p < .001 ** p < .01

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

	Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married	Cohabiting
Males	4.80(.54)	4.63(.55)	4.93(.49)	4.64(.65)	4.63(.51)
Females	5.28(.52)	5.42(.37)	5.38(.51)	5.12(.55)	4.90(.50)
Total	5.04(.58)	5.02(.61)	5.15(.55)	4.88(.64)	4.77(.51)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE IV
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Alienation"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	.409	.052
Type Relationship	3	31.153	3.956**
Sex x Type Relationship	3	7.005	.890
Within Subjects	158	7.875	
Total	165	8.238	

**p < .01

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

	Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married	Cohabiting
Males	6.08(2.63)	6.90(2.55)	5.97(2.46)	5.33(2.43)	6.75(3.49)
Females	6.16(3.09)	8.90(3.38)	5.75(2.37)	5.35(2.49)	6.54(4.94)
Total	6.12(2.86)	7.90(3.09)	5.85(2.40)	5.34(2.42)	6.65(4.15)

(Standard Deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE V
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Social Nonconformity"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	462.361	36.754***
Type Relationship	3	56.203	4.468**
Sex x Type Relationship	3	8.578	.682
Within Subjects	158	12.580	
Total	165	15.993	

***P < .001 ** p < .01

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

	Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married	Cohabiting
Males	10.91(3.88)	10.70(3.77	11.10(3.30)	9.00(4.88)	12.75(4.24)
Females	7.59)3.35)	8.90(2.68)	7.14(3.30)	6.57(2.65)	9.63(4.08)
Total	9.27(3.98)	9.80(3.31)	9.12(3.83)	7.82(4.08)	11.26(4.37)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE VI
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Discomfort"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	150.608	6.416*
Type Relationship	3	40.590	1.729
Sex x Type Relationship	3	10.087	.430
Within Subjects	158	23.475	
Total	165	24.330	

*p < .05

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married	Cohabitin
Males	8.30(4.86)	9.00(5.55)	8.62(4.47)	6.00(5.35)	9.33(4.94
Females	10.24(4.79)	10.20(2.82)	10.02(4.67)	9.64(5.75)	12.00(5.60
Total	9.26(4.91)	9.60(4.33)	9.32(4.60)	7.75(5.76)	10.60(5.32

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE VII
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Expression"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	39.229	1.668
Type Relationship	3	35.906	1.527
Sex x Type Relationship	3	5.395	.229
Within Subjects	153	23.518	
Total	160	23.511	

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married	Cohabiting
Male	14.42(4.36)	15.80(5.80)	14.10(4.54)	14.13(3.29)	14.91(3.67)
Female	13.59(5.38)	16.40(5.77)	12.72(5.36)	14.21(4.47)	14.00(5.89)
Total	14.01(4.90)	16.10(5.64)	13.41(4.99)	14.17(3.83)	14.47(4.77)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE VIII
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Defensiveness"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	45.665	9.443**
Type Relationship	3	17.215	3.560*
Sex x Type Relationship	3	3.095	.640
Within Subjects	153	4.836	
Total	160	5.289	

*p < .05 ** p < 0.01

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

	Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married	Cohabiting
Males	9.95(2.23)	9.40(3.40)	9.79(2.01)	11.20(2.14)	9.50(1.62)
Females	11.01(2.24)	11.00(2.66)	10.89(2.06)	12.07(2.20)	10.18(2.48)
Total	10.47(2.29)	10.20(3.08)	10.34(2.10)	11.62(2.17)	9.82(2.05)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE IX
ANOVA Summary Tables
Means and Standard Deviations for Relationship Satisfaction

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex	1	168.34	1.131
Type Relationship	3	988.126	6.638***
Sex x Type Relationship	3	20.882	.207
Within Subjects	153	148.861	
Total	160	162.446	

***p < .001

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Dating	Steady Dating	Married
Males	112.26(12.72)	98.25(14.40)	113.68(11.00)	115.73(8.99)
Females	114.27(12.66)	103.00(18.83)	114.80(10.75)	117.60(10.45)
Total	113.26(12.69)	100.62(16.38)	114.24(10.83)	116.66(9.63)

	Cohabiting
Males	111.54(17.24)
Females	115.63(15.06)
Total	113.59(15.94)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE X
(Multiple Regression Summary Table)
(With Relationship Staisfaction as D.V.)
(ALL)

Variable	Multiple R	R Square	Simple R
Defensiveness	.35105	.12324	.35105
Bem Femininity	.40397	.16319	.25149
Alienation	.45205	.20435	-.23337
Bem Masculinity	.46707	.21815	-.00433
Expression	.48615	.23634	-.19316
Discomfort	.48820	.23834	-.18126
Nonconformity	.49118	.24136	-.17241
Age	.49259	.24364	-.01129
Sex	.49269	.24375	.07716

APPENDIX F

Sex-Type Analyses
(Tables XI through XVI)

TABLE XI
ANOVA Summary Tables and
Means and Standard Deviation for "Alienation"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex Type	3	11.271	1.378
Within Subjects	162	8.182	
Total	165	8.238	

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiate
Males	6.09(2.64)	6.45(3.00)	5.42(2.50)	5.67(2.10)	6.20(2.28)
Females	6.20(3.09)	7.81(4.95)	6.16(2.74)	5.50(2.50)	
Total	6.15(2.87)	6.72(3.47)	6.07(2.70)	5.60(2.26)	6.20(2.28)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE XII
ANOVA Summary Table and
Means and Standard Deviation for "Social Nonconformity"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex Type	3	176.390	13.544***
Within Subjects	162	13.023	
Total	165	15.993	

***p < .001

---

b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiate
Males	10.94(3.90)	12.11(3.93)	9.28(3.03)	9.42(3.73)	11.40(2.51)
Females	7.62(3.36)	9.27(3.74)	7.04(3.41)	8.09(2.79)	
Total	9.30(3.99)	11.54(4.02)	7.32(3.42)	8.84(3.38)	11.40(2.51)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE XIII
ANOVA Summary Table and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Discomfort"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex Type	3	233.525	11.416***
Within Subjects	162	20.456	
Total	165	24.330	

***p < .001

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b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiated
Males	8.34(4.88)	7.40(4.14)	12.71(4.99)	7.35(4.28)	16.00(5.09)
Females	10.26(4.81)	8.54(5.10)	11.22(5.22)	9.00(3.03)	
Total	9.29(4.9)	7.63(4.32)	11.41(5.17)	8.08(3.84)	16.00(5.09)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE XIV
ANOVA Summary Table and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Expression"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex Type	3	346.339	19.027***
Within Subjects	162	18.203	
Total	165	24.169	

***p < .001

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b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiat
Males	14.36(4.36)	16.29(3.77)	11.00(2.70)	12.85(4.23)	10.60(3.97)
Females	13.57(5.42)	18.18(5.47)	10.83(4.08)	17.36(4.14)	
Total	13.97(4.91)	16.67(4.18)	10.85(3.92)	14.84(4.72)	10.60(3.97)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE XV
ANOVA Summary Table and
Means and Standard Deviations for "Defensiveness"

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex Type	3	9.46	1.832
Within Subjects	162	5.167	
Total	165	5.245	

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b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiate
Males	9.98(2.21)	9.50(2.01)	9.85(2.60)	10.78(2.43)	10.00(1.00)
Females	11.01(2.25)	11.90(1.37)	11.12(2.44)	10.31(2.03)	
Total	10.49(2.29)	9.98(2.13)	10.96(2.47)	10.58(2.25)	10.00(1.00)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)

TABLE XVI
ANOVA Summary Table and
Means and Standard Deviations
for Sex Type and Relationship Satisfaction

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	DF	Mean Square	F
Sex Type	3	382.340	2.394
Within Subjects	156	159.676	
Total	159	163.877	

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b. Means and Standard Deviations

Sex	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous
Males	112.29(12.79)	110.76(13.40)	118.66(14.37)	115.10(9.29)
Females	114.36(12.80)	115.22(7.10)	115.36(13.79)	111.66(12.31)
Total	113.31(12.80)	111.54(12.58)	115.72(13.76)	113.63(10.70)

Undifferentiated	
Males	101.80(17.71)
Females	
Total	101.80(17.71)

(Standard deviations are presented in parentheses)