

CHAPTER 9 FINDINGS

The findings of the study are presented in this chapter. The outline used in Chapter 6 to set the aims, objectives and hypotheses for the study, is followed closely. **The focus is on analysing and discussing observations that either confirm or disconfirm the two central theoretical pillars underpinning the present research.** These theoretical positions, or theories in the making, as introduced towards the end of Section 2.3, comprise:

- the relationship satisfaction congruence theory; and
- the dyadic relationship outcome theory.

The two frameworks have supported the classification and evaluation of findings from the literature review (see Chapters 3 and 4), and are now further tested against the empirical data collected for this purpose.

As stated in Chapter 6, most of the analyses and presentation in this chapter have been anticipated in advance. However, some additional exploratory analyses are also accommodated. Sections and sub-sections are always sequenced in such a way that the most important or central topics are addressed first, and more peripheral and exploratory matters afterwards. As a result, the present chapter is structured as follows in terms of content:

- Section 9.1 comprises ~~frequency distributions~~ of the responses of participants, as well as reliability and validity evidence, for the instruments measuring the main (independent and dependent) ~~research variables~~.
- Section 9.2 comprises the presentation and discussion of the findings and hypothesis testing aimed at establishing the degree to which sex-role identity configurations (that is, whether the sex-role identity type (and traits) of partners are identical or not identical) contribute to relationship satisfaction (combinations) ~~at the dyadic level~~, and the interpretation of the findings in terms of the experience of the relationship as one of accord (acceptance) or discord (non-acceptance).
- Section 9.3 comprises the presentation and discussion of the findings and hypothesis testing from a ~~partly-dyadic perspective~~, including the extent to which individual sex-role identity type and dyadic relationship satisfaction combinations are related (Section 9.3.1), as well as dyadic sex-role identity type combinations and individual relationship satisfaction (Section 9.3.2).
- Section 9.4 comprises the presentation of the findings and hypothesis testing at the individual level, to establish the direct association between individual sex-role identity type and individual relationship satisfaction level (albeit within the same respondents, or across partners).
- Section 9.5 comprises an overview of the findings from the exploration of any ~~further relationships between contextual variables and the theoretical models~~.
- Section 9.6 entails ~~concluding statements~~ about the extent to which the empirical data supported the proposed theory formulation.

9.1 Descriptive statistics / general findings

In this section, the emphasis is twofold. In the first instance, information is provided about how the research instruments performed in terms of sufficiently measuring the range of targeted underlying behaviours and characteristics. Reference is therefore also made to the reliability and validity of the instruments.

In the second instance, the score distributions of the research participants on the instruments are also reported, not only globally for the whole sample, but also in terms of some cross-tabulations that compare score trends or patterns of performance between sub-groups. Such patterns may suggest correlations between some variables. In order to get a clearer grasp of the various findings, it was decided to keep all the information about a variable, and the instruments measuring it, together in the same section. The report therefore follows the sequence below:

- Relationship satisfaction is covered in Section 9.1.1.
- Sex-role identity is covered in Section 9.1.2.
- Any important remaining variables are covered in Section 9.1.3.

9.1.1 Relationship satisfaction

Relationship satisfaction, functioning as the dependent variable of the study, was measured in two ways. The internationally known *Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)*, and a three-item scale constructed by the researcher, were both employed.

9.1.1.1 The *Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)*

Table 9.1 presents the overall score distribution on the *DAS* for the various sub-samples of the current study. The gay (homosexual male) sub-group is rather small, and could therefore have been a very unique sub-sample, which fact may explain this sub-group's apparently higher relationship satisfaction level. It is also clear that most of the respondents achieved scores in the 111 to 130 range, with the mean scores for sub-samples between 113 and 115. The lesbian (homosexual female) sub-sample's scores appear to be a fraction lower compared to the scores of the other participants.

Table 9.1: Respondents' score distribution on the *DAS* as measure of relationship satisfaction by target group (sub-sample)

Score range	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total sample
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
70 and below (with lowest 53)		1	4	5
71 to 80			1	1
81 to 90		5	4	9
91 to 100		3	8	11
101 to 110	1	9	14	24
111 to 120	9	10	21	40
121 to 130	8	3	33	44
131 to 140	2	7	12	21
Above 140 (with highest 144)	2	2	1	5
Total	22	40	98	160

Mean scores for the groups	122,5	112,8	114,7	115,3
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A comparison of the score distributions across the *DAS* sub-scales revealed insignificant differences between the scores of the respondents in the various sub-samples, as can be seen in Table 9.2 (ANOVA f-statistics resulted in $p > 0,01$; with $p=0,024$ for Dyadic Cohesion, and $p=0,036$ for Dyadic Satisfaction).

Table 9.2: Respondents' mean scores on the *DAS* sub-scales by target group (sub-sample)

Sub-scales of the <i>DAS</i>	Gay partners	Lesbain partners	Heterosexual partners	Total sample
Dyadic consensus	52,3	49,7	50,3	50,4
Affective expression	9,6	9,0	9,1	9,1
Dyadic satisfaction	42,1	37,6	39,5	39,4
Dyadic cohesion	18,5	16,5	15,8	16,4
<i>DAS</i> total score	122,5	112,8	114,7	115,3

The reliability of the *DAS* measure during the local application was investigated by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient. For dyadic consensus, the coefficient was 0,88, which compares well with the highest figure of 0,90 reported in Section 7.2.1.1 for studies abroad, among some figures as low as 0,78. The corrected item-total correlations for the 13 items mainly fell between 0,53 and 0,63, with single exceptions at the low end at 0,31 and 0,39, and two at the high end at 0,71. For affectional expression, the coefficient was 0,62, which is lower than the figures of 0,65 to 0,73 routinely found abroad. Two of the corrected item-total correlations for the four items were about 0,50, but the other two were low at 0,28 and 0,36. The limited number of items in the sub-scale may explain the lower than expected figures. For dyadic satisfaction, the coefficient was 0,88, which again compares well with the range of previously reported figures of between 0,77 and 0,94. The corrected item-total correlations for the ten items ranged between 0,56 and 0,76, with a single exception at a low 0,28. For dyadic cohesion, the coefficient was 0,78, which compares well with the range of previously reported figures of between 0,67 and 0,86. The corrected item-total correlations for the five items were all between 0,54 and 0,63, with a single exception at a lower 0,40. Treating the *DAS* as a single scale with 32 items, rendered a very satisfactory alpha coefficient of 0,93, just short of the highest statistic of 0,96 reported in Section 7.2.1.1, ranging up from 0,86.

The construct validity of the *DAS* was investigated by performing a factor analysis¹. The factor loadings found for the present study compare well with those reported by Spanier (see Section 7.2.1.1). The loadings ranged from 0,37 to 0,74 for dyadic consensus; from 0,59 to 0,74 for affectional expression; from 0,33 to 0,83 for dyadic satisfaction; and from 0,56 to 0,79 for dyadic cohesion.

Further evidence towards content and construct validity is submitted in Section 9.1.1.3, where scores on the two instruments used in the present study to measure relationship satisfaction are correlated.

9.1.1.2 Self-constructed three-item relationship satisfaction scale

¹ Extraction method – principal component analysis; rotation method – Equamax with Kaiser normalisation.

Table 9.3 presents the overall score distribution on this short relationship satisfaction scale for the various sub-samples of the current study. It can be observed that a quarter each of the respondents in each sub-sample, with the homosexual groups only deviating slightly, respectively achieved scores of 7, 8 and 9. The gay sub-group again performed slightly higher, and the lesbian sub-sample slightly lower compared to the heterosexual respondents. The mean scores for the sub-samples also fall within a close range between 7,0 and 7,7. Statistical comparisons of the scores revealed insignificant differences between the various sub-samples (ANOVA f-statistic rendered $p > 0,01$, with $p=0,157$; chi-square insignificant, with $p=0,329$).

Table 9.3: Respondents' score distribution on the self-constructed three-item relationship satisfaction scale by target group (sub-sample)

Score achieved	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total sample
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
0				
1			1	1
2				
3		1	2	3
4	1	3	3	7
5		2	9	11
6		6	8	14
7	9	12	20	41
8	5	11	26	42
9	7	5	29	41
Total number of respondents	22	40	98	160
Mean scores for the groups	7,7	7,0	7,4	7,3

The comparative patterns for the three items comprising this scale were so similar to the overall picture that they are not reported. A relatively larger, but still insignificant, proportion of lesbian respondents more often considered their relationships to be in trouble.

The scale can be considered as very short because it comprises only three items. Nevertheless, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated at 0,68, providing strong evidence for its reliability. The corrected item-total correlations for the 3 items respectively were 0,45, 0,51, and 0,51.

It did not make sense to investigate construct and content validity through techniques such as factor analysis, because of the brevity of this scale. However, correlating the scores of respondents to those scores achieved by them on the parallel *DAS* measure, revealed the outcomes reported hereafter in Section 9.1.1.3.

9.1.1.3 Correlation between the *DAS* and three-item relationship satisfaction scale

The purpose of this section is to provide further evidence in support of the validity of the two measures of relationship satisfaction used in the present study. In order to achieve this, the extent to which selected items, the sub-scales and total scores of the two instruments concerned correlate with each other, is reported. In this process, special attention has been given to expected correlation patterns.

In Table 9.4, the Pearson correlation coefficients, which all are significant at the 0,01 level (two-tailed), are reported for the scores of respondents on the sub-scales and total score of the *DAS*. As expected, the sub-scales all correlate to a moderate extent, because each sub-scale measures a unique facet of the common construct. However, the correlations between the sub-scales and the total *DAS* score are slightly higher, with dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction fairly strong predictors of respondents' evaluations on the complete instrument.

Table 9.4: Correlation matrix for scores of respondents on the *DAS* and its sub-scales

Scales of the <i>DAS</i> *	Dyadic consensus	Affective expression	Dyadic satisfaction	Dyadic cohesion
Dyadic consensus	1,00			
Affective expression	0,55	1,00		
Dyadic satisfaction	0,65	0,56	1,00	
Dyadic cohesion	0,62	0,49	0,59	1,00
<i>DAS</i> total score	0,90	0,68	0,87	0,80

* Descriptions of the contents of the various sub-scales are provided in Section 7.1.1.

In Table 9.5, the Pearson correlation coefficients, which all are significant at the 0,01 level (two-tailed), are reported for the scores of respondents on the sub-scales and total score of the three-item short relationship satisfaction scale. Sub-scales again correlate moderately, as expected. However, it is clear that the third item, asking respondents about the frequency of having considered their relationship to be in trouble during the preceding year, is a particularly good predictor of overall relationship satisfaction. It has to be noted that the length of its scoring scale (5-point item), and that of the full scale (9-point scale) caused a great part of this outcome. As a result, the corrected item-total correlation ranges reported in the previous two sub-sections also have to be taken into consideration.

Table 9.5: Correlation matrix for scores of respondents on the three-item relationship satisfaction scale and its items

Items of the short relationship satisfaction scale *	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Item 1 (About partners sharing their lives again if they had the choice)	1,00		
Item 2 (Rating of applicability of a statement on happiness being together)	0,41	1,00	
Item 3 (Rating of frequency of trouble in the relationship in previous year)	0,37	0,47	1,00
<i>DAS</i> total score	0,55	0,78	0,91

* The contents of the various items are provided in Annexure 7.2.

Whereas Tables 9.4 and 9.5 provide good evidence towards the internal coherence of the two relationship satisfaction measures, correlating respondents' scores across the two instruments gives a far better indication of validity. One expects high coefficients, in general, because the two measures evaluate the same broad construct. Certain more closely related sub-scales or items should correlate even more.

Table 9.6 provides an indication of the strength of the Pearson correlation coefficients between the total score on the three-item relationship satisfaction measure, and the *DAS* and its sub-scales. The high overall correlation coefficient of 0,76 between the total scores of the two instruments, and the moderate to high coefficients between the short scale and the *DAS* sub-scales, confirm that the short scale measures the whole *DAS* domain quite well, and in particular that of dyadic satisfaction, which covers issues of trust, regret and disharmony in the relationship.

Table 9.6: Correlation coefficients for link between the three-item relationship satisfaction scores and those on the *DAS* and its sub-scales

Dyadic consensus	Affective expression	Dyadic satisfaction	Dyadic cohesion	Total <i>DAS</i>
0,61	0,58	0,80	0,51	0,76

In Table 9.7, further evidence is given, through the correlation (Pearson coefficients) between the three items of the short relationship satisfaction measure, and the *DAS* and its sub-scales, of the validity of the research instruments. On its own, the third item from the short relationship satisfaction scale has a strong ability to predict not only respondents' ratings on dyadic satisfaction, but also the total *DAS* score. This fact makes Item 3 a powerful, one-item screening tool that can serve as barometer of a much more complete assessment of the quality of a given relationship, as covered by the *DAS*, for instance. Also Item 2 functions well in this regard.

Table 9.7: Correlation matrix for the three items of the short relationship satisfaction scale and the *DAS* and its sub-scales

Items on the short relationship satisfaction scale	<i>Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)</i>				
	Dyadic consensus	Affective expression	Dyadic satisfaction	Dyadic cohesion	Total <i>DAS</i>
Item 1 (Sharing lives again)	0,41	0,21	0,48	0,28	0,45
Item 2 (Happiness with partner)	0,57	0,48	0,60	0,48	0,65
Item 3 (Being in trouble during the year)	0,48	0,54	0,73	0,41	0,65

Finally, specific items were selected from the *DAS*, with which the three short relationship satisfaction scale items and total score should correlate highly because of their common contents at the level of detail. Table 9.8 provides the outcome of this analysis. It is clear that Items 16 and 31 from the *DAS*, and Items 2 and 3 from the short measuring scale, correspond in the expected manner, further enhancing confidence that the two instruments used in the study are valid for evaluating relationship satisfaction.

Table 9.8: Correlation matrix for the three items and total score of the short relationship satisfaction scale and selected *DAS* items

Selected <i>DAS</i> items	Three-item relationship satisfaction scale			
	Item 1 (Sharing lives again)	Item 2 (Happiness with partner)	Item 3 (Being in trouble during the year)	Total scale
Item 16 (Considered terminating relationship)	0,30	0,35	0,54	0,55
Item 31 (Rating of happiness)	0,43	0,59	0,65	0,73
Item 32 (Wish / feeling about future success)	0,38	0,54	0,45	0,57

9.1.2 Sex-role identity

Sex-role identity is treated as the independent variable of the study, and was also measured in two ways. All the research participants completed the internationally known *Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)*, as well as an *Adjective Checklist* procedure adapted by the researcher for the assessment of sex-role identity (*ACL-SRI*). In addition, the participants rated not only their own sex-role identity functioning, but also that of their partners by making use of both of these techniques. Through this procedure, the researcher obtained both a self-rated and a partner-rated (ascribed) profile of the sex-role identity traits and type of every individual.

9.1.2.1 The *Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)*

Scoring the *BSRI* always starts by establishing the mean and median scores for the distributions of the masculinity and femininity scale (trait) scores obtained by the respondents comprising a given research sample (see Section 7.2.2.1). For the present study, substantial consistency was revealed in this regard, not only between its South African and the American benchmark statistics, but also with regard to the score distributions applicable to the self-rated ~~vis-à-vis~~ ascribed ratings obtained. The mean and median scores for self-rated and ascribed ~~masculinity~~ respectively were 49,3 and 49,2 (means), and 50 (both medians). The masculinity scores respectively ranged from 26 to 67 (self-rated), and 25 to 66 (ascribed). The mean and median scores for self-rated and ascribed ~~femininity~~ respectively were 55,3 and 54,9 (means), and 56 and 58 (medians). The femininity scores respectively ranged from 25 to 70 (self-rated), and 23 to 70 (ascribed).

The cut-off scores to establish (or describe) the presence or absence of masculinity and femininity among respondents were set according to the statistics obtained and reported in the previous paragraph. Individuals were considered to be low on ~~masculinity~~ when their scores were 4,9 or below, and high on masculinity when their scores were 5,0 and above. This figure is calculated by dividing the obtained scores by the number of items (ten) from which they were calculated (50/10, and 49/10).

The cut-off point reported in the *BSRI* manual, as based on American findings, was set between 4,8 and 4,9, differing only with 0,1. Individuals were considered to be low and high respectively on ~~femininity~~ when their scores were 5,5 or below, or 5,6 and above. This figure was identical to the cut-off point reported in the American *BSRI* manual, which is also set between 5,5 and 5,6. The classification of each respondent into the correct sex role identity type was derived from these two sets of trait scores and applied from Section 9.2 onwards in further analyses.

Tables 9.9 and 9.10 present the score distributions for masculinity and femininity as measured by the *BSRI* for the various sub-samples of the current study. The responses of heterosexual partners are also split by sex. The patterns with regard to self-rated and ascribed masculinity were very similar between the various sub-samples. The same is true for femininity. However, in the latter case a small tendency is evident for female respondents (lesbian and heterosexual) to “claim” more femininity for themselves compared to what their partners would ascribe to them. In the case of gay respondents,

their partners ascribed slightly greater masculinity and femininity to them compared to what they themselves would do.

Table 9.9: Respondents' score distribution for self-rated and ascribed masculinity as measured on the *BSRI* by target group (sub-sample)

Score range	Sub-sample (Target group)								Total sample	
	Homosexual partners				Heterosexual partners					
	Gay		Lesbian		Male		Female			
	Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed	
25 to 30	1	1		2			2		3	3
31 to 35			5		2	3	1	3	8	6
36 to 40		2	4	4	2	5	5	4	11	15
41 to 45	3		8	11	5	3	8	13	24	27
46 to 50	8	6	7	8	16	13	10	8	41	35
51 to 55	4	6	5	8	11	10	12	13	32	37
56 to 60	4	5	7	5	8	9	9	5	28	24
61 to 65	2	2	3	2	5	4	2	3	12	11
66 to 70			1			2			1	2
Total	22	22	40	40	49	49	49	49	160	160
Mean scores	50.1	51.3	48.1	47.5	50.6	50.8	48.8	48.0	49.3	49.2

Table 9.10: Respondents' score distribution for self-rated and ascribed femininity as measured on the *BSRI* by target group (sub-sample)

Score range	Sub-sample (Target group)								Total sample	
	Homosexual partners				Heterosexual partners					
	Gay		Lesbian		Male		Female			
	Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed	
23 to 30	1		1		3	2			5	2
31 to 35			1	3		2		1	1	6
36 to 40	1	1	2				3		3	4
41 to 45		1	3	7	3	5	3	2	9	15
46 to 50	3	1	10	9	6	6	3	6	22	22
51 to 55	2	6	12	3	12	7	12	4	38	20
56 to 60	11	5	4	8	12	9	12	19	39	41
61 to 65	4	6	6	6	10	11	8	8	28	31
66 to 70		2	1	4	3	7	11	6	15	19
Total	22	22	40	40	49	49	49	49	160	160
Mean scores	55.5	56.6	51.9	47.6	54.6	54.7	58.7	56.5	55.3	54.9

Whereas masculinity and femininity (self-rated and ascribed) adhered to a sex-typed pattern for heterosexual respondents (males achieved higher masculinity scores than females, and females higher femininity scores than males), this pattern differed among homosexual couples. In the latter case, it was true for masculinity, but not for femininity, where gay respondents achieved higher scores than lesbian respondents.

A statistical comparison of the score distributions across the *BSRI* scales for masculinity and femininity revealed insignificant differences between the scores of the respondents in the various sub-samples (ANOVA f-statistics rendered $p > 0,01$; with $p=0,02$ only for self-rated femininity), and according to sex (ANOVA f-statistics $p > 0,01$; with $p=0,02$ only for ascribed masculinity).

The reliability of the *BSRI* measure during the local application was investigated by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient. For self-rated masculinity, the coefficient was 0,77, and for self-rated femininity it was 0,88. The corrected item-total correlations for the ten self-rated masculinity items mainly fell between 0,33 and 0,60, with a single exception one item at the low end at 0,16 ("willing to take risks"). The corrected item-total correlations for the ten self-rated femininity items were clearly higher between 0,50 and 0,72, with a single exception one item at the low end at 0,40 ("love children"). For ascribed masculinity, the alpha coefficient was slightly lower at 0,74, and for self-rated femininity it was even higher at 0,90. The corrected item-total correlations for the ten self-rated masculinity items mainly ranged from 0,27 to 0,56, with two exceptions at the low end at 0,22 ("aggressive") and 0,24 ("willing to take risks"). The corrected item-total correlations for the ten self-rated femininity items mainly fell between 0,62 and 0,75, with a single exception the same item at the low end at 0,34 ("love children").

The construct validity of the *BSRI* was investigated by performing a factor analysis². The factor loadings for the ten self-rated masculinity items were: 0,51, 0,55, 0,67, 0,77, 0,42, 0,61, 0,24, 0,70, 0,74 and 0,43. The loadings for the ten self-rated femininity items were: 0,68, 0,79, 0,76, 0,69, 0,74, 0,57, 0,80, 0,77, 0,47 and 0,74. All these values, being higher than 0,30, with the exception of the value of 0,24 underscored above, provide strong evidence towards the construct validity of the *BSRI*. Further evidence towards content and construct validity is submitted in Section 9.1.2.3, where scores on the two instruments used in the present study to measure sex-role identity are correlated.

9.1.2.2 Self-constructed *Adjective Checklist* measure of sex-role identity (*ACL-SRI*)

As with the *BSRI*, the masculinity and femininity scales on the *ACL-SRI* first had to be calibrated to enable interpretation of the sex-role identity (trait) scores of respondents. The relevant means and medians achieved by the respondents on the masculinity and femininity scales were again calculated. For the present study, a fair degree of consistency exists between the self-rated and ascribed ratings, with the latter ratings always somewhat lower. The mean and median scores for self-rated and ascribed masculinity respectively were 5,1 and 4,8 (means), and 5 (both medians). The masculinity scores respectively ranged from 1 to 11 (self-rated), and 0 to 10 (ascribed). The mean and median scores for self-rated and ascribed femininity respectively were 6,4 and 5,8 (means), and 6 (both medians). The femininity scores respectively ranged from 1 to 13 (self-rated), and 0 to 12 (ascribed). Although the *ACL-SRI* technique also makes provision for breaking down the masculinity and femininity items and scales into desirable and undesirable characteristics, those scores are not reported separately here.

The cut-off scores to establish (or describe) the presence or absence of masculinity and femininity among respondents were set according to the statistics obtained and reported in the previous paragraph. Individuals were considered to be low on masculinity when their scores were 4 or lower, and high on masculinity when their scores were 5 and above. Individuals were considered to be low and high respectively on femininity when their scores were 6 or lower, or 7 and above. These scores

are again applied and used from Section 9.2 onwards in later analyses where respondents are classified into the correct sex-role identity type.

Tables 9.11 and 9.12 present the score distributions for masculinity and femininity as measured by the *ACL-SRI* for the various sub-samples of the current study. The responses of heterosexual partners are also split by sex.

Table 9.11: Respondents' score distribution for self-rated and ascribed masculinity as measured on the *ACL-SRI* by target group (sub-sample)

Score range	Sub-sample (Target group)								Total sample	
	Homosexual partners				Heterosexual partners					
	Gay		Lesbian		Male		Female			
	Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed			
0 to 1	1		1	3	2	3	2	10	6	16
2 to 3	6	5	7	8	8	4	13	12	34	29
4 to 5	6	8	12	15	14	12	19	13	51	48
6 to 7	4	7	17	7	14	22	11	12	46	48
8 to 9	5	2	2	5	8	7	4	1	19	15
10 to 11			1	2	3	1		1	4	4
Total	22	22	40	40	49	49	49	49	160	160
Mean scores	5.1	5.0	5.2	5.0	5.5	5.6	4.6	3.8	5.1	4.8

Table 9.12: Respondents' score distribution for self-rated and ascribed femininity as measured on the *ACL-SRI* by target group (sub-sample)

Score range	Sub-sample (Target group)								Total sample	
	Homosexual partners				Heterosexual partners					
	Gay		Lesbian		Male		Female			
	Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed		Self / Ascribed			
0 to 1		1	1	1		3	2		3	5
2 to 3		1	5	4	9	12	4	7	18	24
4 to 5	5	4	8	15	11	10	6	11	30	40
6 to 7	7	9	20	17	16	14	16	13	59	53
8 to 9	3	3	5	3	9	9	16	15	33	30
10 to 11	3	3	1		4	1	5	3	13	7
12 to 13	4	1							4	1
Total	22	22	40	40	49	49	49	49	160	160
Mean scores	7.9	6.8	5.7	5.4	5.9	5.1	6.8	6.4	6.4	5.8

Self-rated and ascribed masculinity differed very little for respondents across all the sub-samples. The exception is heterosexual female respondents who claimed more masculinity characteristics (self-ratings) than their partners would ascribe to them. However, in the case of femininity, the latter pattern occurred rather consistently, with self-ratings always higher than ascribed ratings. These patterns differ somewhat from the ones observed in Section 9.1.2.1 detailing the outcomes when using the *BSRI*.

Whereas both masculinity and femininity (self-rated and ascribed) followed a sex-typed pattern among heterosexual respondents (with males achieving higher masculinity scores than females, and females

² Extraction method – principal component analysis; rotation method – Equamax with Kaiser normalisation.

higher femininity scores than males), among homosexual male couples, as with the *BSRI*, the inverse applied for femininity. Gay males achieved higher scores than lesbian respondents, and even heterosexual ones.

A statistical comparison of the score distributions across the *ACL-SRI* scales revealed significant differences only between the self-rated femininity scores of the respondents in the various sub-samples, and between the ascribed masculinity scores of male and female respondents ($p=0,003$ in both cases, associated with ANOVA f-statistic; or $p=0,007$ and $p=0,002$ respectively for chi-square statistic).

The reliability of the *ACL-SRI* measure during the local application was investigated by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient. For self-rated masculinity, the coefficient was 0,56, and for self-rated femininity it was 0,62. The corrected item-total correlations for the 14 (seven each socially desirable and undesirable) self-rated masculinity items were not high and fell between 0,13 and 0,36, with two exceptions at the low end at 0,04 and 0,08 ("arrogant" and "boastful"). The corrected item-total correlations for the 14 self-rated femininity items were a little higher between 0,16 and 0,36, with a single exception one item at the low end at 0,01 ("passive"). For ascribed masculinity, the alpha coefficient was 0,57, and for self-rated femininity it was 0,60. The corrected item-total correlations for the 14 self-rated masculinity items mainly ranged from 0,13 to 0,42, with one exception at the low end at -0,01 ("cruel"). The corrected item-total correlations for the 14 self-rated femininity items mainly fell between 0,16 and 0,40, with two exceptions at the low end at 0,07 and 0,01 ("passive" and "weak"). All the items noted as exceptions were from the socially undesirable subset of items. Although there is consistency between the self-rated and ascribed applications, the *ACL-SRI* technique is not as reliable as the *BSRI*.

The construct validity of the *ACL-SRI* was investigated by performing a factor analysis³. The factor loadings for the seven socially desirable self-rated masculinity items were: 0,48, 0,44, 0,57, 0,17, 0,36, 0,30, and 0,22. For the seven socially undesirable self-rated masculinity items, the loadings were: 0,18, 0,32, 0,49, 0,47, 0,57, 0,32, and 0,36. The loadings for the seven socially desirable self-rated femininity items were: 0,60, 0,52, 0,36, 0,56, 0,30, 0,58, and 0,66. For the seven socially undesirable self-rated femininity items, the loadings were: 0,40, 0,23, 0,45, 0,26, 0,29, 0,27, and 0,22. It is evident from the greater number of items not achieving factor loadings of 0,30 or above, that the *ACL-SRI* is not as robust as the *BSRI*. Further evidence towards content and construct validity is submitted in Section 9.1.2.3, where scores on the two instruments used in the present study to measure sex-role identity are correlated.

9.1.2.3 Correlation between the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI* scale

The purpose of this section is to provide further evidence in support of the validity of the two measures of sex-role identity used in the present study. In order to achieve this, the extent to which the masculinity and femininity scales of the two instruments, both also assessed as self-rated and

ascribed constructs, correlate with each other, is reported. In this process, correlation patterns are interpreted in terms of being expected or not.

In Table 9.13, the Pearson correlation coefficients for the self-reported masculinity and femininity scale scores of respondents on the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI* are reported. As expected, and also as a desirable outcome, the masculinity and femininity constructs are not related significantly, irrespective of whether comparisons are made within or between measurement instruments. This finding confirms the fact that these constructs are orthogonal, and independently measure two variables on different continuums. Respondents' scores on both masculinity and femininity are related significantly between measurement instruments.

Table 9.13: Correlation matrix for the scores of respondents on the self-report masculinity and femininity scales of the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI*

Scales and instruments	<i>BSRI</i> Masculinity	<i>BSRI</i> Femininity	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Masculinity	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Femininity
<i>BSRI</i> Masculinity	1,00			
<i>BSRI</i> Femininity	0,17	1,00		
<i>ACL-SRI</i> Masculinity	* 0,39	-0,05	1,00	
<i>ACL-SRI</i> Femininity	0,04	* 0,49	0,06	1,00

* Correlations significant at the 0,01 level (two-tailed)

The corresponding set of comparisons has also been made for the ascribed masculinity and femininity scale scores of respondents on the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI*. The resulting Pearson correlation coefficients are reported in Table 9.14. The expected independence between the masculinity and femininity scores is not supported as strongly as for the self-rated constructs above (within *BSRI* only). However, respondents' scores on both ascribed masculinity and femininity are related significantly, and even more strongly compared to the self-reported constructs, between measurement instruments.

Table 9.14: Correlation matrix for the scores of respondents on the ascribed masculinity and femininity scales of the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI*

Scales and instruments	<i>BSRI</i> Masculinity	<i>BSRI</i> Femininity	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Masculinity	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Femininity
<i>BSRI</i> Masculinity	1,00			
<i>BSRI</i> Femininity	* 0,17	1,00		
<i>ACL-SRI</i> Masculinity	** 0,46	-0,05	1,00	
<i>ACL-SRI</i> Femininity	0,12	** 0,53	-0,08	1,00

* Correlation significant at the 0,05 level (two-tailed)

** Correlation significant at the 0,01 level (two-tailed)

Comparisons have also been made between respondents' self-reported and ascribed scale scores within and across measurement instruments. The findings are reported in Table 9.15, and completely support all the expected patterns. Masculinity scores correlate with all other masculinity scores as measured by different instruments and techniques. So do femininity scores. In addition, the coefficients for the between-technique measures with the same instruments (on the diagonal of the table) are consistently greater than the coefficients for the between-instruments measures for different techniques (the remaining significant coefficients in the table). Also, the findings in Table 9.15 align

³ Extraction method – principal component analysis; rotation method – Equamax with Kaiser normalisation.

well with those reported in the previous two tables where the within-technique, between-instruments coefficients are reported. The sex-role identity instruments also seem to be valid tools that would enable the accurate assessment of respondents' relevant characteristics.

Table 9.15: Correlation matrix comparing respondents' self-reported and ascribed masculinity and femininity scores within and across the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI*

Scales and instruments		Self-reported ratings (Technique 1)			
		<i>BSRI</i> Masculinity	<i>BSRI</i> Femininity	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Masculinity	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Femininity
Ascribed ratings (Technique 2)	<i>BSRI</i> Masculinity	* 0,52	-0,01	* 0,31	-0,04
	<i>BSRI</i> Femininity	0,02	* 0,58	0,04	* 0,37
	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Masculinity	* 0,28	-0,15	* 0,51	-0,06
	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Femininity	0,00	* 0,37	0,00	* 0,45

* Correlations significant at the 0,01 level (two-tailed)

In Table 9.16, the Pearson correlation coefficients for respondents' scores on all the *ACL-SRI* scales and sub-scales are shown to provide further evidence for its construct validity (see highlighted cells).

Table 9.16: Correlation matrix comparing all *ACL-SRI* scale and sub-scale scores

	sM+	sM-	sF+	sF-	sMf	sMf	aM+	aM-	aF+	aF-	aMf	aMf
Self M+	1,00											
Self M-	*0,19	1,00										
Self F+	**0,24	*-0,18	1,00									
Self F-	-0,15	*0,20	*0,16	1,00								
Self Mf	**0,86	**0,66	0,09	-0,01	1,00							
Self mF	0,08	-0,01	**0,81	**0,71	0,06	1,00						
Ascr M+	**0,50	0,10	0,14	-0,13	**0,43	0,02	1,00					
Ascr M-	0,13	**0,38	**0,28	0,07	**0,30	-0,15	0,09	1,00				
Ascr F+	0,16	**0,21	**0,49	0,01	0,01	**0,36	**0,28	**0,41	1,00			
Ascr F-	-0,13	*0,17	0,05	**0,40	-0,01	**0,28	**0,27	0,12	-0,01	1,00		
Ascr Mf	**0,48	**0,27	-0,02	-0,07	**0,51	-0,06	**0,87	**0,57	0,04	*-0,17	1,00	
Ascr mF	0,04	-0,06	**0,41	**0,26	0,00	**0,45	0,05	**0,25	**0,79	**0,62	-0,08	1,00

* Correlations significant at the 0,05 level (two-tailed)

** Correlations significant at the 0,01 level (two-tailed)

Legend: + = socially desirable - = socially undesirable M/Mf = masculinity F/mF = femininity

Self / s = self-rated Ascr / a = ascribed

One also expects reliable and valid parallel measuring instruments to concur on the sex-role identity type to which individuals are assigned on the basis of their endorsement of the sex-role stereotypes (traits) measured by the instruments. The findings obtained when correlating the sex-role identity types derived from the self-rated and ascribed techniques employed in administering the *BSRI* and the *ACL-SRI* scales are reported in Table 9.17. The significant coefficients observed support the validity of the instruments concerned.

Table 9.17: Correlation matrix comparing respondents' sex-role identity types calculated from their responses to the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI*

Instruments and techniques	<i>BSRI</i> Self-report	<i>BSRI</i> Ascribed	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Self-report	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Ascribed
<i>BSRI</i> Self-report	1,00			
<i>BSRI</i> Ascribed	* 0,46	1,00		
<i>ACL-SRI</i> Self-report	* 0,39	* 0,24	1,00	
<i>ACL-SRI</i> Ascribed	* 0,23	* 0,30	* 0,43	1,00

* Correlations significant at the 0,01 level (two-tailed)

In addition, Table 9.18 reveals that the smallest deviation occurred between the even spread of self-reported and almost even spread of ascribed sex-role identity types established through the *BSRI*. A similar, but smaller, between-technique correspondence is evident for the *ACL-SRI*. However, the between-instruments patterns for both self-reported and ascribed sex-role identity deviate more. These observations provide further evidence and confidence towards using the *BSRI* data for the independent variable in the analyses reported in Section 9.2.

Table 9.18: Frequency distribution of respondents' sex-role identity types calculated from their responses to the *BSRI* and *ACL-SRI* by technique applied (n=160)

Sex-role identity type	<i>BSRI</i> Self-report	<i>BSRI</i> Ascribed	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Self-report	<i>ACL-SRI</i> Ascribed
Androgynous	42 (26,3%)	52 (32,5%)	48 (30,0%)	30 (18,8%)
Masculine	39 (24,4%)	32 (20,0%)	46 (28,8%)	56 (35,0%)
Feminine	40 (25,0%)	39 (24,4%)	28 (17,5%)	28 (17,5%)
Undifferentiated	39 (24,4%)	37 (23,1%)	38 (23,8%)	46 (28,8%)

9.1.3 Contextual variables

In this section, the distribution of responses by the research participants to the demographic and other background questions put to them during the research (see Annexure 7.5) is briefly reported. The aim is to evaluate the usefulness of this information collected on the additional contextual (or nuisance) variables or constructs applicable to the study during the hypothesis testing soon to follow. The variables mainly comprise the intra-personal constructs introduced in Section 4.3. For each variable, the response distribution is reported separately according to the target groups (sub-samples) of the study. These distributions are used in the sections hereafter at the appropriate places when investigating the effect that the contextual variables may have on sex-role identity, relationship satisfaction, and the relationship between the two.

Some items covered the emotional functioning of respondents. Tables 9.19 and 9.20 show the response distributions on the constructs of moodiness / feelings of depression, and emotional stability / lability. It is clear that about 70 % of the respondents seldom or almost never considered themselves as moody or depressed. A slightly higher proportion of lesbian respondents did, though. Whereas about 90 % of the heterosexual respondents considered themselves as emotionally stable, the corresponding figure for homosexual respondents was about 80 %. A large enough proportion of respondents reported moodiness or depression, as well as emotional unevenness, to enable analysis of the effect of these factors.

Table 9.19: Response distribution for the construct of moodiness or depression by target group (sub-sample)

Extent of feelings of moodiness or depression	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Mostly moody, difficult or depressed		3	1	4
Often moody, difficult or depressed	6	13	15	34
Seldom moody, difficult or depressed	6	14	55	75
Almost never moody, difficult or depressed	10	10	27	47

Total	22	40	98	160
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Table 9.20: Response distribution for the construct of emotional stability by target group (sub-sample)

Description of emotional stability	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Emotionally stable	18	33	88	139
Emotionally uneven or unsteady	4	7	10	21
Total	22	40	98	160

Respondents rated their feelings about sex as reported in Table 9.21. It can be observed that a majority (85 %) of respondents mostly or always enjoyed sex. There may be insufficient variance in the distribution of responses for this construct to detect any effect on the other research variables.

Table 9.21: Response distribution reflecting respondents' feelings about sex by target group (sub-sample)

Rating of feelings about sex	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Never enjoy sex	1	2		3
Seldom enjoy sex		1	2	3
In two minds about sex	1	5	12	18
Mostly enjoy sex	6	15	45	66
Always enjoy sex	14	17	39	70
Total	22	40	98	160

Happiness with life and job satisfaction comprise strong emotional components, and are therefore also dealt with at this point. The distributions of responses are covered in Tables 9.22 and 9.23. It is shown that more or less 80 % of the respondents consistently reported being mostly happy or very happy with their lives. This distribution may offer enough variance for meaningful analyses. With regard to job satisfaction, about 60 % of the respondents reported experiencing enough job satisfaction most of the time, or quite a lot, with lesbian respondents slightly more unhappy. This split enables analysis to try and detect any influence that this factor may have on the other research variables.

Table 9.22: Response distribution reflecting respondents' life satisfaction by target group (sub-sample)

Rating of general happiness and satisfaction with life	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Most unhappy		1	1	2
Rather unhappy	1	2	1	4
Very in-between	2	6	18	26
Mostly happy	13	24	51	88
Very happy	6	7	27	40
Total	22	40	98	160

Table 9.23: Response distribution reflecting respondents' job satisfaction by target group (sub-sample)

Rating of job satisfaction	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Not applicable (not employed)		3	10	13
None	1	1	2	4
A little	4	4	7	15
Very in-between	3	11	21	35
Enough, most of the time	9	12	33	54
Quite a lot	5	9	25	39
Total	22	40	98	160

Two personality factors have also been interrogated in the study. The response distributions relating to extraversion and independence are reported in Tables 9.24 and 9.25. The findings show that between 60 % and 65 % of respondents consistently reported being extraverted, leaving a large proportion of reportedly introverted respondents. This division enables the detection of any meaningful research effects. For independence, about 85 % of the respondents reported that they were independent, with this proportion among gay respondents slightly smaller at 77 %. The variance should again allow the detection of research effects.

Table 9.24: Response distribution for the construct of extraversion by target group (sub-sample)

Description of extraversion / introversion	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Extraverted, social and outgoing	14	26	61	101
Introverted, reserved and quiet	8	14	37	59
Total	22	40	98	160

Table 9.25: Response distribution for the construct of independence by target group (sub-sample)

Description of (in)dependence	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Free and independent	17	34	84	135
Timid and dependent	5	6	14	25
Total	22	40	98	160

Communication skills should enable problem solving, and the findings based on an item covering this aspect are reported in Table 9.26. The table shows that between 82 % and 86 % of respondents considered themselves good at problem solving, with the proportion of gay respondents (a relatively small sub-sample) even higher at 86 %. The variance does become somewhat limited for further confident analyses.

Table 9.26: Response distribution for the construct of problem solving through communication by target group (sub-sample)

Rating of problem solving skills (through communication / discussing matters)	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Good at solving problems and conflict	19	30	82	131
Poor at solving problems and conflict	3	10	16	29
Total	22	40	98	160

A final few items covered respondents' own preferences with regard to their ideal relationship type, as well as their perceptions about the relationships of their parents. In Table 9.27, respondents' preferences with regard to their own ideal relationship type are reported. The distribution of choices shows that partners in homosexual couples equally preferred the two modern options of egalitarian and comradeship relationships. However, partners in heterosexual couples favoured a relationship based on comradeship (64 %), rather than an egalitarian one (33 %). Sufficient variance exists to confidently attempt further analyses.

Table 9.27: Response distribution reflecting respondents' preference for relationship type by target group (sub-sample)

Relationship type preferred	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Egalitarian (partners are equal in rights and chores)	11	18	23	52
Comradeship (partners negotiate all along the way)	11	20	70	101
Traditional (one partner is stronger, makes the rules, takes decisions, exercises authority)		2	4	6
Total	22	40	* 97	* 159

* One respondent did not record a preference

The type of relationship that the parents of respondents had had, is reflected in Table 9.28. Where respondents had not lived with both parents, or by implication, the two parents had not shared the same relationship type, respondents were asked to make the rating with regard to the parent they had been closest to for the longest period of time, or else, for the type of relationship that had influenced them most. The findings show slight variance in that by far a majority of parents (about 86 %) had lived in heterosexual marriages. The parents of lesbian respondents formed an exception, with a larger proportion of them having had homosexual relationships, having been divorced, or having been never-married single parents.

Table 9.28: Response distribution reflecting the relationship type of the parents of respondents by target group (sub-sample)

Relationship type of parent(s) of respondents	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Heterosexual marriage	19	31	87	137
Homosexual (gay / lesbian) relationship		2		2
Divorced	2	4	8	14
Single parent (never married)	1	3	2	6
Total	22	40	* 97	* 159

* One respondent did not record a preference

By far the majority (90 %) of respondents' parents lived in the relationship that was indicated in the previous table and paragraph for longer than ten years. Participants did not respond appropriately to the items requesting information on the number of changes in the type of relationship that parents had lived in over the years. As a result, this information cannot be used.

Tables 9.29 and 9.30 reflect the extent of relationship satisfaction that the parents of respondents had experienced most of the time. The fathers of about 77 % of the respondents had consistently experienced at least more happiness than unhappiness. With regard to the mothers of respondents, the situation differed. On average, only 70 % of them had experienced more happiness than unhappiness. In addition, this figure dropped to 59 % among the mothers of lesbian respondents. It was higher (at 86 %) for the small gay male sub-sample. The variance observed in the responses should enable the investigation of further research effects.

Table 9.29: Response distribution reflecting the extent of relationship satisfaction experienced by the fathers of respondents by target group (sub-sample)

Level of relationship satisfaction experienced by fathers of respondents	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Extremely unhappy	1	3	2	6
More unhappy than happy	4	4	20	28
More happy than unhappy	15	22	64	101
Could not be happier	2	6	10	18
Total	22	* 35	* 96	* 153

* Seven respondents (five lesbian and two heterosexual) did not complete the item, or the item was irrelevant to them

Table 9.30: Response distribution reflecting the extent of relationship satisfaction experienced by the mothers of respondents by target group (sub-sample)

Level of relationship satisfaction experienced by mother of respondents	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Extremely unhappy	1	1	6	8
More unhappy than happy	2	14	24	40
More happy than unhappy	17	17	58	92
Could not be happier	2	5	8	15
Total	22	* 37	* 96	* 155

* Five respondents (three lesbian and two heterosexual) did not complete the item, or the item was irrelevant to them

The level of health experienced by respondents is reported in Table 9.31. It shows that homosexual partners reported feeling well most of the time or feeling very healthy most or all of the time slightly less (in about 76 % of the cases) than respondents living in a heterosexual relationship (87 %). Sufficient variance should enable meaningful further research analyses of the effects of this variable.

Table 9.31: Response distribution reflecting respondents' health status by target group (sub-sample)

Rating of own health	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Often ill or unwell *		1	4	5
In-between	5	9	9	23
Feeling well most of the time	9	16	36	61

Very healthy most or all of the time	8	14	49	71
Total	22	40	98	160

* The option "Being ill or not well most of the time" was never selected

Having provided descriptions of the score and frequency distributions of respondents on the research variables of the study, it is evident that the dataset by far supports the larger proportion of the anticipated analyses. This mapping of the dataset, mostly broken down for the three target groups or sub-samples of the study, albeit mainly at the level of individuals, at this point has to proceed by focussing on the dyadic picture (Section 9.2), after which the findings covering partly-dyadic patterns (Section 9.3), non-dyadic patterns (Section 9.4), and the influence of extraneous variables (Section 9.5), are reported, as anticipated in Sections 6.2 and 6.3.

9.2 **Identical and non-identical sex-role identity types and traits and relationship satisfaction congruence from a dyadic perspective (hypothesis testing)**

The most central findings of the study are presented in this section. The empirical data are investigated with a view to establishing the extent to which identical or non-identical sex-role identity types between partners correspond with their simultaneous experience of relationship satisfaction or dissatisfaction. As stated in Section 6.2, once this is established, the findings have to be interpreted in terms of partners' experience of their relationship as one of accord or discord when identical sex-role identity type is the case, or of acceptance or non-acceptance when non-identical sex-role identity type occurs.

Generally speaking, the central hypothesis is that **couples in which the partners have identical sex-role identity types, or a homo-gender sex-role identity relationship** (Table 2.5), **stand a better chance of experiencing relationship satisfaction**. The opposite also applies. Couples in which the partners have non-identical sex-role identity types, or a hetero-gender sex-role identity relationship (Table 2.6), will most probably experience the least relationship satisfaction. (The appropriate underlying rationale, terminology and notations for the model are presented in Figure 2.2, the accompanying discussion in Section 2.3.2, and Tables 2.1 and 2.2 in Section 2.1.7.)

9.2.1 **Coding of dyadic variables**

In order to make the comparisons just mentioned, information collected at the level of individual partners was inspected and coded in terms of dyadic outcomes.

For ~~relationship satisfaction~~, separate but identical variables were created for the two partners in each couple. Codes were allocated to reflect satisfaction of:

- both partners;
- only the husband or male partner in heterosexual couples, or one of the males in gay couples;
- only the wife or female partner in heterosexual couples, or one of the females in lesbian couples; or
- neither of the two partners in any relationship.

For the *DAS*, scores of 110 and below were considered as indicative of **low** relationship satisfaction, while those of 111 and above were taken as indicative of high relationship satisfaction. For the three-item short relationship satisfaction scale, the corresponding ranges were from 0 to 6 (**low**), and from 7 to 9 (**high**).

For sex-role identity, separate but identical new variables were created at the individual level to reflect the combination of sex-role identity traits and types between partners, comprising (see Figure 2.2 in Section 2.3.2):

- identical masculinity ~~and~~ femininity traits, i.e., both high or both low, and as a result, also an identical sex-role identity type (combinations 1, 2, 3 and 4; see Table 2.5);
- identical femininity trait only (mixed combinations a, b, c and d) (see Table 2.8);
- identical masculinity trait only (mixed combinations i, ii, iii and iv) (see Table 2.7); and
- non-identical masculinity ~~and~~ femininity traits, i.e., the one high and the other low, and as a result, also a non-identical sex-role identity type (combinations A, B, C and D) (see Table 2.6).

A total of four such variables were created to include the self-rated and ascribed techniques of evaluation for both the *BSRI* and the *ACL-SRI*, with a view to some exploratory analyses.

In addition, four more corresponding variables were created (for the two instruments and the two techniques of rating) and coded identically for each partner in a couple. These codes were allocated in ranked order to reflect the highest single sex-role identity type, theoretically assumed to be the ~~most adaptive~~ for the relationship as a whole, present in either partner and include: androgyny; femininity; masculinity; and an undifferentiated sex-role identity type.

The variables and coding system described so far in this section were used in analysing the **dyadic effects** of interest to the study⁴.

9.2.2 Frequency distributions of codes for dyadic variables

The resulting code distributions for the respondents in each of the two dyadic relationship satisfaction categories (high or low) for the sub-samples or target groups of the study are reported in Tables 9.32 (*DAS*) and 9.33 (short relationship satisfaction scale). Based on the *DAS* scores, it is clear that both gay partners in a couple experienced relationship satisfaction more often (91 % of them, albeit from a very small sample), and both lesbian partners less often (50 %), relative to both heterosexual respondents (59 %). For the short relationship satisfaction scale, although overall satisfaction levels were slightly higher, the trend is very similar, with both gay partners in a couple more satisfied (91 % of them), and both lesbian partners less satisfied (60 %), relative to the heterosexual respondents (71 %).

Table 9.32: Frequencies of respondents according to the classification of couples in terms of relationship satisfaction category as measured with the *DAS* by target group (sub-sample)

⁴ With n=160 respondents still the unit of analysis.

Relationship satisfaction level *	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Both partners satisfied	20	20	58	98
Only (one) male partner satisfied	2	-	6	8
Only (one) female partner satisfied	-	4	12	16
Neither partner satisfied		16	22	38
Total	22	40	98	160

* Chi-square statistic significant at p=000 (even when taking couples as the unit of analysis, halving all the frequencies).

Table 9.33: Frequencies of respondents according to the classification of couples in terms of relationship satisfaction category as measured with the short relationship satisfaction scale by target group (sub-sample)

Relationship satisfaction level *	Sub-sample (Target group)			Total
	Gay partners	Lesbian partners	Heterosexual partners	
Both partners satisfied	20	24	70	114
Only (one) male partner satisfied	2	-	6	8
Only (one) female partner satisfied	-	8	4	12
Neither partner satisfied		8	18	26
Total	22	40	98	160

* Chi-square statistic significant at p=000 (even when taking couples as the unit of analysis, halving all the frequencies).

The combinations of sex-role identity type in couples are reported in a similar way. Tables 9.34 and 9.35 reflect the frequency distributions of respondents from the three target groups (sub-samples) of the study according to the sex-role identity type combinations between partners. Separate figures are shown for the two measurement instruments (*BSRI* and *ACL-SRI* scales) and for the two techniques of evaluation (self-rated and ascribed). The *BSRI* figures show that 67 % to 75 % of the respondents lived in couples where the partners had an identical self-rated sex-role identity type, or identical self-rated femininity trait classification. Nevertheless, the variance between sex-role identity type combinations is sufficiently large to expect robust analyses of research effects.

Table 9.34: Frequencies of respondents according to their classification in terms of the sex-role identity type combinations of couples based on self-rated and ascribed *BSRI* measurements by target group (sub-sample)

Combination of sex-role identity type and traits * **	Sub-sample (Target group)						Total	
	Gay partners		Lesbian partners		Heterosexual partners			
	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed
Masculinity and femininity identical	8	14	16	14	38	38	62	66
Identical femininity trait only (mixed)	8	2	14	14	28	20	50	36
Identical masculinity trait only (mixed)		2	6	6	18	18	24	26
Masculinity and femininity non- identical	6	4	4	6	14	22	24	32
Total	22	22	40	40	98	98	160	160

* Chi-square statistic (self-rated) non significant at p=0,270

** Chi-square statistic (ascribed) non-significant at p=0,135

When the *ACL-SRI* scale was used to evaluate the combinations of sex-role identity type and traits, a more even distribution of sex-role identity type combinations was found compared to that rendered by

using the *BSRI*. Whereas the pattern of ascribed sex-role identity type combinations was very similar between respondents from the sub-samples, for self-rated sex-role identity type, the sub-samples differed more (see chi-square statistic's p-value of 0,089, which is much closer to statistical significance).

Table 9.35: Frequencies of respondents according to their classification in terms of the sex-role identity type combinations of couples based on self-rated and ascribed *ACL-SRI* measurements by target group (sub-sample)

Combination of sex-role identity type and traits * **	Sub-sample (Target group)							Total	
	Gay partners		Lesbian partners		Heterosexual partners				
	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	
Masculinity and femininity identical	6	8	14	14	32	28	52	50	
Identical femininity trait only (mixed)	10	6	8	12	18	24	36	42	
Identical masculinity trait only (mixed)	4	4	8	4	32	22	44	30	
Masculinity and femininity non- identical	2	4	10	10	16	24	28	38	
Total	22	22	40	40	98	98	160	160	

* Chi-square statistic (self-rated) non significant at p=0,089

** Chi-square statistic (ascribed) non-significant at p=0,728

In preparation of analysing the combinations of sex-role identity type among couples with a view to evaluating the availability of an assumed highest adaptive sex-role identity type to either partner in a couple (see the explanation towards the end of 9.2.1) from the three target groups (sub-samples) of the study, the distribution of configurations reported in Tables 9.36 and 9.37 resulted. In the first table, it is shown that the combination patterns on the *BSRI* were largely the same for the two techniques of evaluation (self-rated and ascribed). However, for lesbian respondents, the distribution reveals a predominance of masculine and undifferentiated sex-role identity types as the highest adaptive identity available between the two partners in a couple. For gay respondents, the opposite is evident, with a greater proportion of androgynous and feminine partners.

Table 9.36: Frequencies of respondents according to the highest adaptive sex-role identity type available in either partner of a couple based on self-rated and ascribed *BSRI* measurements by target group (sub-sample)

Highest adaptive sex- role identity type * **	Sub-sample (Target group)						Total	
	Gay partners		Lesbian partners		Heterosexual partners			
	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed
Androgyny	10	10	12	12	44	56	66	78
Femininity	8	6	4	12	28	24	40	42
Masculinity	4	6	14	8	22	8	40	22
Undifferentiated			10	8	4	10	14	18
Total	22	22	40	40	98	98	160	160

* Chi-square statistic (self-rated) significant at p=0,000 (p=0,040; Goodman and Kruskal tau; couples as unit of analysis)

** Chi-square statistic (ascribed) non-significant at 1% level at p=0,012, but significant at 5% level (p=0,184; tau; couples)

When the *ACL-SRI* scale was used to evaluate the adaptive sex-role identity type combinations, a more even and consistent distribution could generally be observed compared to that rendered by using the *BSRI*.

Table 9.37: Frequencies of respondents according to the highest adaptive sex-role identity type available in either partner of a couple based on self-rated and ascribed *ACL-SRI* measurements by target group (sub-sample)

Highest adaptive sex-role identity type * **	Sub-sample (Target group)							
	Gay partners		Lesbian partners		Heterosexual partners		Total	
	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed	Self	Ascribed
Androgyny	12	10	14	10	52	30	78	50
Femininity	4	4	10	8	20	30	34	42
Masculinity	4	4	12	18	14	28	30	50
Undifferentiated	2	4	4	4	12	10	18	18
Total	22	22	40	40	98	98	160	160

* Chi-square statistic (self-rated) non significant at $p=0,375$ ($p=0,672$; tau; couples)

** Chi-square statistic (ascribed) non-significant at $p=0,190$ ($p=0,551$; tau; couples)

Reworking the sex-role identity and relationship satisfaction scores of individuals into codes describing the combinations or configurations of identical or non-identical sex-role identity types (and traits) and relationship satisfaction level, based on the simultaneous interpretation of the scores of each partner in every couple, has produced a set of new dyadic constructs or variables. These variables are required for testing the hypotheses set for the study. The resulting balanced and consistent coverage of the relevant ranges of response categories (and patterns or combinations) is highly satisfactory.

Lesbian respondents appear to experience a lower level of relationship satisfaction, differ from their partners in terms of sex-role identity type more than partners from the other sub-samples, and have access to sex-role identity type combinations with lower adaptive potential than the other target groups. This set of findings suggested further exploration, which have been done and are discussed at the appropriate places (see 9.2.3).

9.2.3 Analyses and testing of hypotheses

In this section, four different strategies are followed to analyse the relationship satisfaction levels of respondents as meaningfully as possible. They include breaking down the full sample into sub-samples as required. Couples are treated as the unit of analysis throughout. For this purpose, the average relationship satisfaction scores of couples have been calculated. As a result, the following sections and foci have been selected:

- Section 9.2.3.1, to investigate frequencies (in contingency tables) by means of the chi-square statistic;
- Section 9.2.3.2, to analyse and report couples' average *DAS* relationship satisfaction scores in terms of the congruence or incongruence of sex-role identity type between couples;
- Section 9.2.3.3, to analyse and report couples' relationship satisfaction in terms of the highest adaptive sex-role identity type present in either partner of a couple; and
- Section 9.2.3.4, to analyse and report couples' relationship satisfaction in terms of the direct correspondence of androgyny, femininity and masculinity between the partners in a couple.

9.2.3.1 Frequency distributions relating sex-role identity to relationship satisfaction

A number of expected findings is evident from cross-tabulating the frequencies of couples in the categories created within and by the various combinations of sex-role identity type and level of relationship satisfaction, as shown in Table 9.38. However, **at an overall level (for the full sample), the association between sex-role identity type and relationship satisfaction is not statistically significant**. A possible explanation for the relatively high (i.e., insignificant) p-value (of 0,143), associated with the observed distribution, is that the number of cases in the dataset (n=160) is halved (to n=80) when studying partners as dyads. This situation results in low cell frequencies, reducing the chance of accepting as significant any observed deviation (albeit in the expected direction) from a random pattern. (The table comprises the self-ratings acquired through the *BSRI* and the *DAS* scores.)

Table 9.38: Cross-tabulated frequencies showing the relationship between identical and non-identical sex-role identity traits and type and relationship satisfaction among couples (n=80 couples)

Relationship satisfaction combination * (heterosexual) [homosexual] **	Sex-role identity trait (and type) combinations ***											
	Identical masculinity and femininitv			Identical femininity only (mixed)			Identical masculinity only (mixed)			Non-identical masculinity and femininity		
Both partners satisfied	** (15)	[6]	21	(7)	[9]	16	(3)	[2]	5	(4)	[3]	7
Only (one) male partner satisfied							(1)		1	(2)	[1]	3
Only (one) female partner satisfied	(2)	[1]	3	(2)	[1]	3	(1)		1	(1)		1
Neither partner satisfied	(2)	[5]	7	(5)	[1]	6	(4)	[1]	5		[1]	1
Total	(19)	[12]	31	(14)	[11]	25	(9)	[3]	12	(7)	[5]	12

* The chi-square statistic for the overall frequencies is not significant, at p=0,143. Using the three-item short scale for relationship satisfaction resulted in very similar chi-square statistics. Further strong support (significant at the 5%-level) towards an overall link between identical or non-identical sex-role identity traits or types, and relationship satisfaction, only came from using the ascribed ratings attained through the *ACL-SRI* instrument, irrespective of using the *DAS* or three-item relationship satisfaction scale. The nature of this link is discussed further in the text, especially with reference to sub-sample trends.

** Figures between round “()” and square brackets “[]” respectively show the number of hetero- and homosexual couples.

*** In the first and fourth columns, sex-role identity types are also (non-)identical by virtue of both traits being (non-)identical.

Row frequencies show that simultaneous satisfaction occurs more frequently among both partners when masculinity **and** femininity, or at least femininity, are identical between them (Row 1).

Column frequencies show that identical masculinity **and** femininity, especially among heterosexual couples (Column 1), as well as identical femininity, especially among homosexual couples (Column 2), is associated more often with the simultaneous satisfaction of both partners.

These two findings were expected and predicted (see Section 6.3.1). However, an exception is observed in that partners from couples in which only one male partner experiences high satisfaction, more often have non-identical masculinity **and** femininity traits (Column 4). This pattern can be explained should androgynous (more so than undifferentiated) and feminine (more so than masculine) partners have greater access to adaptive behavioural repertoires than their partners (see Section 9.2.3.3), and apply them to the benefit of the couple.

Inspecting the frequency distributions separately by target group (sub-sample) produced non-significant chi-square values for the two **homosexual** sub-samples (p=0,231 for gays, and p=0,577 for lesbians, respectively). As the already-noticed trends remained intact, the larger p=values are most

likely caused by the relatively small sizes of the two sub-samples (11 gay couples, and 20 lesbian couples). Combining the two groups resulted in a p-value, associated with the chi-square statistic, of 0,409. However, counter to an earlier finding, the ascribed ratings using the *ACL-SRI* measurements and the *DAS*-based classification of couples, for lesbian respondents ($p=0,000$) and homosexual participants in general ($p=0,006$), reveal that couples in which both partners experience high satisfaction, are most likely to have an identical sex-role identity type, rather than coming from identical-femininity mixed combinations.

While identical femininity among lesbian respondents seems to be associated more often with satisfaction for both partners, it is likely that identical masculinity ~~and~~ femininity can also be associated with satisfaction for both of them.

In cases where an identical sex-role identity type between partners is associated with greater dissatisfaction, it could be explained by the discord created between some partners by being in competition with each other as a result of being too similar. As anticipated in Section 6.3.2, familiarity could indeed breed contempt.

In the light of the findings reported above, it was not possible to inspect frequency distributions separately and purely by sex, because of the contaminating influence of membership of either the gay or lesbian sub-samples. However, only selecting the ~~heterosexual~~ partners revealed an almost significant chi-square statistic (with $p=0,056$). An identical sex-role identity type between heterosexual partners was associated much more strongly with a high level of relationship satisfaction. What is more, identical-masculinity mixed configurations were more often associated with dissatisfaction, not only when using the *BSRI*, but also the *ACL-SRI* technique.

When each couple was allocated a mean score for relationship satisfaction, calculated as the mathematical average of their two *DAS* scores, and then categorising this mean score as low when ranging from 110 downwards, or as high, when it was above 110, a rather similar outcome was observed. However, the chi-square statistic associated with the pattern of frequencies for heterosexual couples, which were ranked high or low on relationship satisfaction, when investigating the effect of (non-)identical sex-role identity types and traits, resulted in a statistically significant finding (at the 5%-level, with $p=0,019$), mainly because partners with an identical sex-role identity type, and partners with an identical femininity trait, were more often counted among those experiencing a high level of relationship satisfaction. In addition, lesbian couples also more frequently belonged to the category in which the three-item relationship satisfaction scale scores were high when the partners were identical on the femininity trait only. Also, the trends observed among heterosexual respondents, as already reported, were mostly confirmed using this different *DAS* classification technique, especially in combination with *ACL-SRI* measurements of sex-role identity type.

9.2.3.2 Relationship satisfaction and sex-role identity congruence between couples

Not only the frequency distribution reflected in Table 9.38, but also combining all the respondents from the sub-samples, and even the two sexes, potentially masks the relationship satisfaction scores⁵ achieved by the various groups of respondents. As a result, the ~~(mean) score distributions~~ also have to be investigated. Because of the relatively small size of the sample compared to the number of sub-groups created in contingency tables such as the one in Table 9.38, many cells will contain low numbers of respondents. This has the effect that t-tests or analysis of variance (f-statistics) will not be powerful (or sensitive) enough to indicate even apparently sizeable mean-score differences as statistically significant. In addition, because of the nature of the study design and sampling, only non-parametric statistics are sensible to use, and elaborate statistical testing is not advised. Consequently, the comments about the mean-score differences detected and discussed below, also refer to whether or not trends were in the expected or hypothesised directions.

Table 9.39 indicates the mean scores for couple averages on relationship satisfaction within the four dyadic sex-role identity type and trait combinations using each of the four sex-role identity measures/techniques.

Table 9.39: Mean scores for couple averages on relationship satisfaction by dyadic sex-role identity combination as measured on the various instruments

Relationship satisfaction* score** by sex-role identity instrument (n)	Couples' combination of dyadic sex-role identity traits				Total (n)
	Both identical	Only identical femininity	Only identical masculinity	Both non- identical	
DAS with <i>BSRI</i> (self-rated)	(31) 116,8	(25) 115,0	(12) 109,5	(12) 118,0	(80) 115,3
DAS with <i>BSRI</i> (ascribed)	(33) 118,6	(18) 112,6	(13) 110,6	(16) 115,3	(80) 115,3
DAS with <i>ACL-SRI</i> (self-rated)	(26) 114,8	(18) 118,9	(22) 111,1	(14) 118,2	(80) 115,3
DAS with <i>ACL-SRI</i> (ascribed)	(25) 119,2	(21) 111,5	(15) 109,9	(19) 118,7	(80) 115,3

* Measured by means of *DAS*

** ANOVA (f-statistic) p-values for the models in this column were 0,577, 0,435, 0,464 and 0,191 respectively

The expected higher mean scores on relationship satisfaction for couples with partners who have identical masculinity and femininity, or only identical femininity, are clear. However, a surprising finding is the high relationship satisfaction scores for dyads with a non-identical sex-role identity type. The possible adaptive value of a complementary sex-role identity type through good communication or other strategies is a plausible explanation for this pattern.

In Table 9.40, the effect of sub-sample on the relationship between sex-role identity combination and relationship satisfaction is investigated. Only scores achieved by using the *DAS* and *BSRI* (self-ratings) are reported. However, the p-values for all the sex-role identity techniques/instruments associated with every model are reported below the table.

Table 9.40: Mean scores for partners on average dyadic relationship satisfaction by sex-role identity trait combination as measured on the *DAS* and *BSRI* (self-ratings) by target group (sub-sample)

Relationship satisfaction score*	Couples' combination of dyadic sex-role identity traits	Total (n)
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⁵ As such, but also differences in these relationship satisfaction scores between sub-groups.

by sub-sample (n)	Both identical	Only identical femininity	Only identical masculinity	Both non-identical	
Homosexual males	(4) 122,4	(4) 126,0		(3) 118,0	(11) 122,5
Homosexual females	(8) 104,0	(7) 120,3	(3) 126,8	(2) 101,3	(20) 112,9
All homosexual respondents	(12) 110,1	(11) 122,4	(3) 126,8	(5) 111,3	(31) 116,3
Heterosexual respondents	(19) 121,1	(14) 109,1	(9) 103,7	(7) 122,8	(49) 114,7

* ANOVA (f-statistic) p-values for the four models in this column respectively for *BSRI* (self-rated), [*BSRI* (ascribed), *ACL-SRI* (self-rated), and *ACL-SRI* (ascribed)] were: 0,538, [0,009, 0,026, 0,759]; 0,125, [0,970, 0,300, 0,607]; 0,164 [0,920, 0,374, 0,780]; and 0,023, [0,492, 0,082, 0,237]. Note how the self-rated evaluations tend to pick up significance better, as do the *BSRI* above the *ACL-SRI*. These observations supported the decision to hence focus on the *BSRI*'s self-ratings.

It becomes clear that sexual preference (sub-sample) has a moderating influence on the relationship between sex-role identity type and trait combination and relationship satisfaction.

It is notable that among heterosexual couples, identical and non-identical sex-role identity types between partners are associated with the highest average relationship satisfaction levels. However, among homosexual respondents, especially lesbian partners, identical masculinity between them is associated with a high average relationship satisfaction level, while among gay partners, it is identical femininity.

The findings regarding homosexual dyads, therefore, reveal a kind of cross-typed adaptive ability among couples. Also, as foreseen in Section 6.3.2, a non-identical sex-role identity type is sometimes associated with satisfaction, signifying that opposites could also attract.

The foreseen or hypothesised hierarchy of relationships, as introduced in Sections 6.2.1 to 6.2.6, and the **hypotheses** set formally from Section 6.3.1 onwards, are now investigated in closing and in an integrated fashion. Both sex-role identity and relationship satisfaction are dealt with in a purely dyadic sense (as patterns between partners in couples). (Reporting on the partly-dyadic and direct (not necessarily dyadic) relationships between sex-role identity and relationship satisfaction is respectively covered in Sections 9.3 and 9.4.)

It has been hypothesised (in Section 6.3.2) that relationship satisfaction scores will decrease from high to low in the sequence of combinations listed hereafter:

- identical sex-role identity type, with the relationship experienced by both as satisfactory (accord);
- non-identical sex-role identity type, with the relationship experienced by both as satisfactory (acceptance);
- identical sex-role identity type, with the relationship experienced by both as unsatisfactory (discord); and
- non-identical sex-role identity type, with the relationship experienced by both as unsatisfactory (non-acceptance).

Analysis of the data broadly supports this hypothesis ($p=0,207$, f-statistic/ANOVA), with the mean *DAS* scores respectively for heterosexual and homosexual respondents, following the sequence above, being ~~124,5~~ and 121,9; ~~127,8~~ and 120,5; 104,0 and 95,3; and 84,0 (only homosexual couples in the last category). It is again evident that acceptance of non-identical sex-role identity types have substantive adaptive value. The complementary dynamics could be as (or even more) powerful than sharing sex-role behaviour repertoires.

Further explanations have been sought in the relationship preferences (egalitarian, comradeship, or traditional) of individuals in the various configurations listed above (as anticipated under 6.2.6). However, very few respondents preferred a traditional relationship, preventing proper analysis. When partners with an ~~identical sex-role identity type~~ both were ~~dissatisfied~~ with their relationship, and the partners ~~both preferred an egalitarian relationship~~, then **homosexual and heterosexual** couples had much **higher** average relationship satisfaction scores (107,8 and 109,0 respectively on *DAS*) **compared to couples preferring a comradeship relationship** (80,0 and 99,0) (see Figure 9.1). However, when partners with ~~non-identical sex-role identity types~~ both were ~~satisfied~~ with their relationship, **homosexual and heterosexual** respondents **differed** on their *DAS* scores in terms of their relationship preference. Homosexual couples with partners preferring an egalitarian relationship scored higher (128,5) than homosexual couples preferring a comradeship relationship (116,5). Inversely, among heterosexual couples, those with a comradeship preference scored slightly higher (128,0) than those with an egalitarian preference (127,0).

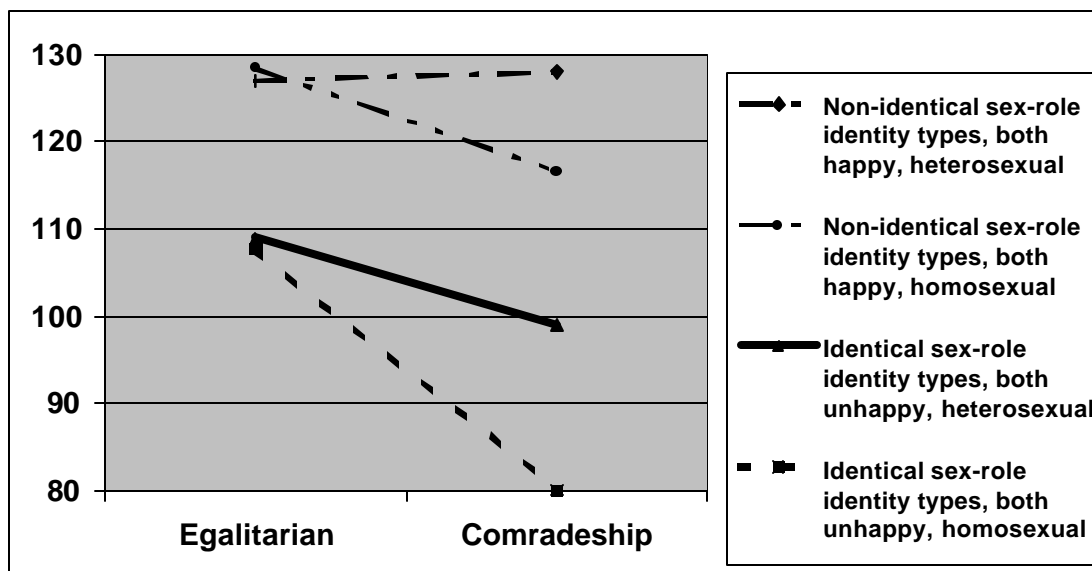


Figure 9.1: Graphic representation of selected relationship satisfaction (*DAS*) scores for couples according to sub-sample, sex-role identity type combination, and relationship satisfaction outcomes ($n < 5$ in all cases)

~~Identical sex-role identity types~~ between partners (i.e., both partners androgynous, or masculine, or feminine, or undifferentiated), in no instance proved to be the most adaptive sex-role identity type combination, (i.e., associated with the highest relationship satisfaction mean scores in the rows of Table 9.40), although it came close for heterosexual participants, and was second highest also in the case of gay couples. **The sex-role identity and relationship satisfaction congruence theory is thus supported only partially at this stage.**

The first three formal hypotheses set in Section 6.3 deal with the anticipated superior contribution of sex-role identity congruence to relationship satisfaction. The research notations and legend for the hypotheses are repeated for convenient reading, followed each time by the overall finding, normally worded and in bold type.

Legend: **rs** = the mean (DAS) score for relationship satisfaction of the sub-group concerned
id / congr = congruence, congruent or identical (also homo-gender here)
non-id / incongr = incongruence, incongruent or non-identical (also hetero-gender here)
sri = sex-role identity (type or trait, as appropriate)
M = masculinity
F = femininity
MF = androgyny
Operators: = - is equal to
> - is greater than

Hypothesis 1: H_0 : rs for couples with id sri = rs for couples with id F mixed sri
 H_1 : rs for couples with id sri > rs for couples with id F mixed sri

Relationship satisfaction scores for couples (n=31) with an identical sex-role identity type, although higher at 116,8, as expected, were not significantly higher than those of couples where partners (n=25) had identical femininity, but non-identical masculinity, at a score of 115,0 (p=0,658).

However, as many effects based on sex and sub-sample are masked by this overall figure, Table 9.41 is used to show how/where this pattern changes with reference to the sub-groups. It is clear that the hypothesis about the superiority of identical sex-role identity types is only supported for heterosexual respondents (significant at the 5%-level), while identical femininity only is more adaptive for homosexual, especially lesbian, couples (significance of both close to the 5%-border). **This finding confirms the sex-role identity congruence hypothesis among heterosexual respondents, but disconfirms it for homosexual participants.**

Table 9.41: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores* between couples in which both sex-role identity traits and only femininity are identical between partners by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Sex-role identity trait combination	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
Homosexual by sex	Both identical	122,4	4	0,589	104,0	8	0,049
	Only femininity identical	126,0	4		120,3	7	
	By sexual orientation	Both identical	121.1	19	0,031	110,1	12
Only femininity identical		109.1	14	122.4		11	

* DAS mean scores of the average score of each couple, as in all tables hereafter

Hypothesis 2: H_0 : rs for couples with id sri = rs for couples with id M mixed sri
 H_1 : rs for couples with id sri > rs for couples with id M mixed sri

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for partners (n=31) with an identical sex-role identity type were higher, at 116,8, than those where partners (n=12) had identical masculinity, but non-identical femininity, at a score of 109,5. The finding is not significant (p=0,213).

The effects based on sub-sample are shown in Table 9.42. It is clear that the hypothesis about the superiority of identical sex-role identity types over identical masculinity is only supported (significant at the 1%-level) for heterosexual couples, while identical masculinity is more adaptive for homosexual, especially lesbian couples. (Because of the small gay male sub-sample, no partners from such couples had only an identical masculinity trait.) **The significant finding strongly confirms the sex-role identity congruence hypothesis among heterosexual respondents, but disconfirms it in the case of homosexual, especially lesbian, participants.**

Table 9.42: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples in which both sex-role identity traits and only masculinity are identical between partners by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Sex-role identity trait combination	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Both identical	122,4	4	-	104,0	8	0,093
	Only masculinity identical	-	0		126,8	3	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Both identical	121.1	19	0,009	110,1	12	0,156
	Only masculinity identical	103.7	9		126.8	3	

Hypothesis 3:	H_0 : rs for couples with id sri = rs for couples with non-id sri H_1 : rs for couples with id sri > rs for couples with non-id sri
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Contrary to expectations, relationship satisfaction scores for partners (n=31) with an identical sex-role identity type were not higher, at 116,8, than those of partners (n=12) with non-identical sex-role identity types, at a score of 118,0 (p=0,790).

However, as many effects based on sex and sub-sample could be masked by this overall figure, Table 9.43 is used to investigate whether or not this pattern changes with reference to the sub-groups. No further significant findings have been revealed, showing consistency in the lack of support for the hypothesis about the superiority of identical (congruent) over non-identical (incongruent) sex-role identity types.

Table 9.43: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples in which partners have identical and non-identical sex-role identity types by sub-sample

	Sex-role identity trait combination	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
Sub-sample		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Both identical	122,4	4	0,417	104,0	8	0,844
	Both non-identical	118,0	3		101,3	2	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Both identical	121,1	19	0,653	110,1	12	0,891
	Both non-identical	122,8	7		111,3	5	

It is stated in Chapter 6 that, because the literature is silent in this regard, no direction can be set for the next hypothesis. (Note that the order of hypothesis testing anticipated in Chapter 6 is also changed at this point to make the present discussion sequence more meaningful.)

Hypothesis 12:	H_0 : rs for couples with id F mixed sri = rs for couples with id M mixed sri
	H_1 : rs for couples with id F mixed sri > rs for couples with id M mixed sri

Without having set any expected direction, relationship satisfaction scores for couples (n=25) with identical femininity, but non-identical masculinity, were higher, at 115,0, than those of partners (n=12) with identical masculinity, but non-identical femininity, at a score of 109,5 (p=0,454).

The effects based on sub-sample have been investigated and are reported in Table 9.44. No significant findings have been revealed, but the figures suggest that sexual orientation (sub-sample) could serve as modifier of the relationship between relationship satisfaction and the correspondence of femininity and masculinity between partners. Among homosexual couples, correspondence of the masculinity trait between partners was associated with a higher relationship satisfaction level. The inconsistent patterns observed above confirm the inability of previous studies to find any link between the relationship satisfaction scores of couples and their (non-)identical feminine and masculine sex-role identity traits.

Table 9.44: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples in which partners have either identical femininity or identical masculinity sex-role identity traits by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Sex-role identity trait combination	Male couples		p-value	Female couples		p-value
		DAS score	n		DAS score	n	
Homosexual by sex	Only femininity identical	126,4	4	-	120,3	7	0,579
	Only masculinity identical	-	0		126,8	3	
		Heterosexual couples		0,564	Homosexual couples		0,654
By sexual orientation	Only femininity identical	109,1	14		122,4	11	
	Only masculinity identical	103,7	9		126,8	3	

The remaining two sets of null and alternative hypotheses examine the possible links between relationship satisfaction and sex-role identity for partners who are identical only in terms of one of the sex-role identity traits (masculinity or femininity), compared to couples in which partners have non-identical sex-role identity types.

Hypothesis 10:	H_0 : rs for couples with id F mixed sri = rs for couples with non-id sri
	H_1 : rs for couples with id F mixed sri > rs for couples with non-id sri

Contrary to expectations, but not statistically significantly, the relationship satisfaction scores for partners (n=25) with identical femininity, but non-identical masculinity, were lower, at 115,0, than those of partners (n=12) with non-identical sex-role identity types, at a score of 118,0 (p=0,609).

The effects based on sub-sample are reported in Table 9.45. All findings with regard to homosexual couples are in the expected direction, indicating that an identical femininity trait between partners are associated with a higher satisfaction level than non-identical sex-role identity types. The scores of heterosexual couples, though, do not follow the trend.

Table 9.45: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples in which partners have an identical femininity trait and non-identical sex-role identity types by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Sex-role identity trait combination	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Only femininity identical	126.4	4	0,389	120.3	7	0,158
	Both non-identical	118,0	3		101,3	2	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Only femininity identical	109,1	14	0,107	122.4	11	0,156
	Both non-identical	122,8	7		111,3	5	

<p>Hypothesis 11:</p> <p>H_0: rs for couples with id M mixed sri = rs for couples with non-id sri</p> <p>H_1: rs for couples with id M mixed sri > rs for couples with non-id sri</p>

Contrary to expectations, but not statistically significantly, the relationship satisfaction scores for couples (n=12) with identical masculinity, but non-identical femininity, were lower, at 109,5, than those of couples (n=12) with non-identical sex-role identity types, at a score of 118,0 (p=0,305).

The effects based on sub-sample are reported in Table 9.46. The finding with regard to heterosexual couples is almost significant at the 5%-level. However, it is not in the expected direction as that for homosexual female couples. There were no gay respondents in the category for an identical masculinity sex-role identity trait. For lesbian respondents, therefore, there is an indication that an identical masculinity trait between partners are associated with a higher satisfaction level, rather than non-identical sex-role identity types.

Table 9.46: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples in which partners have an identical masculinity trait and non-identical sex-role identity types by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Sex-role identity trait combination	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Only masculinity identical	-	0	-	126.8	3	0,331
	Both non-identical	118,0	3		101,3	2	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Only masculinity identical	103,7	9	0,061	126.8	3	0,316
	Both non-identical	122,8	7		111,3	5	

9.2.3.3 Relationship satisfaction and highest adaptive sex-role identity type

Testing the next few hypotheses implies investigating the effect of the highest adaptive sex-role identity type present in one partner in a couple. The assumption is that the relationship satisfaction level of couples should decrease from high to low as at least one partner in a couple has an androgynous, feminine, masculine, or undifferentiated sex-role identity type, in this order. The subsequent analyses are therefore executed to establish whether or not there is a point at which sex-

role identity (type and trait) congruence gives way to unique contributions by androgyny, or even femininity and masculinity, on its own. Put differently, it may be better for the combined relationship outcome level of the two partners in a couple that at least one of them is androgynous or feminine with regard to sex-role identity type, whatever the other partner's sex-role identity type is, rather than that the two partners have an identical sex-role identity type, or at least some identical sex-role identity traits. The relative role of identical sex-role identity types (e.g., both partners are androgynous) is covered in Section 9.2.3.4, although some cell frequencies are becoming low.

Hypothesis 4:	H_0 : rs for couples with MF sri highest = rs for couples with F sri highest
	H_1 : rs for couples with MF sri highest > rs for couples with F sri highest

Contrary to expectations, relationship satisfaction scores for couples (n=33) where the “highest” (supposedly most adaptive) sex-role identity type for at least one partner was androgyny, were not higher, at 118,3, than those of couples (n=20) where the “highest” sex-role identity type for at least one partner was femininity, at a score of 119,4 (p=0,812).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.47. No further findings were significant. Whereas the *DAS* scores of gay respondents varied in the hypothesised direction, the inverse applied to heterosexual participants. The hypothesis that androgyny is more adaptive than femininity received little support. Gay couples form an exception.

Table 9.47: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where one partner has androgyny or femininity as highest adaptive sex-role identity type by sub-sample

	Highest adaptive sex-role identity type in couple	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value
Sub-sample		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Androgyny	125.2	5	0,483	120,8	6	0,990
	Femininity	120,3	4		120,5	2	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Androgyny	116,0	22	0,609	122,8	11	0,768
	Femininity	119,0	14		120,3	6	

Hypothesis 5:	H_0 : rs for couples with MF sri highest = rs for couples with M sri highest
	H_1 : rs for couples with MF sri highest > rs for couples with M sri highest

As hypothesised, relationship satisfaction scores for couples (n=33) where the highest or most adaptive sex-role identity type for at least one partner was androgyny, were significantly higher (at the 5% level), at 118,3, than those of partners (n=20) where the “highest” sex-role identity type for at least one partner was masculinity, at a score of 109,0 (p=0,045).

The effects of sex and sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.48. No further findings were significant (because of the relatively low cell frequencies), but all the *DAS* scores varied in the hypothesised direction, with androgyny proving to

be more adaptive than masculinity. With regard to heterosexual couples, the 5%-level of significance was almost reached.

Table 9.48: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where one partner has androgyny or masculinity as highest adaptive sex-role identity type by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Highest adaptive sex-role identity type in couple	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Androgyny	125,2	5	0,590	120,8	6	0,400
	Masculinity	120,3	2		111,6	7	
By sexual orientation	Androgyny	116,0	22	0,075	122,8	11	0,213
	Masculinity	105,2	11		113,6	9	

Hypothesis 6: H_0 : rs for couples with MF sri highest = rs for couples with undifferentiated sri (both partners)
 H_1 : rs for couples with MF sri highest > rs for couples with undifferentiated sri (both partners)

As hypothesised, relationship satisfaction for couples (n=33) where the highest or most adaptive sex-role identity type for at least one partner was androgyny, was greater, at 118,3, than that of couples (n=7) where partners had an undifferentiated sex-role identity type, at a score of 107,8 (p=0,101).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.49. The finding related to homosexual couples was significant (at the 5%-level). The DAS scores varied in the hypothesised direction, with androgyny proving to be more adaptive than an undifferentiated sex-role identity type. (Because of the small gay male sub-sample, no couples existed where both partners in a couple had an undifferentiated sex-role identity type.)

Table 9.49: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners are androgynous or undifferentiated as the highest adaptive sex-role identity type by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Highest adaptive sex-role identity type in couple	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Androgyny	125,2	5	-	120,8	6	0,105
	Undifferentiated	-	0		102,0	5	
By sexual orientation	Androgyny	116,0	22	0,558	122,8	11	0,024
	Undifferentiated	122,3	* 2		102,0	5	

* Cell frequencies too low to have confidence in the scores

The analyses now shift towards the relative adaptive role of femininity for relationship satisfaction in the remaining sex-role identity type combinations.

Hypothesis 7: H_0 : rs for couples with F sri highest = rs for couples with M sri highest
 H_1 : rs for couples with F sri highest > rs for couples with M sri highest

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for couples (n=20) where the “highest” (supposedly most adaptive) sex-role identity type for at least one partner was femininity, were higher (almost significant at the 5%-level), at

119,4, than those of couples (n=20) where the “highest” sex-role identity type for at least one partner was masculinity, at a score of 109,0 (p=0,071).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.50. The finding for heterosexual male respondents was almost significant at the 5%-level. All the scores varied in the expected direction, showing femininity's greater adaptive value above masculinity, except where cell frequencies got low.

Table 9.50: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where one partner has femininity or masculinity as highest adaptive sex-role identity type by sub-sample

	Highest adaptive sex-role identity type in couple	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value
Sub-sample		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Femininity	120,3	4	1,000	120.5	2	0,585
	Masculinity	120,3	2		111,6	7	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Femininity	119.0	14	0,092	120.3	6	0,405
	Masculinity	105.2	11		113.6	9	

Hypothesis 8: H_0 : rs for couples with F sri highest = rs for couples with undifferentiated sri (both partners)
 H_1 : rs for couples with F sri highest > rs for couples with undifferentiated sri (both partners)

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for couples (n=20) where the “highest” (supposedly most adaptive) sex-role identity type for at least one partner was femininity, were higher, at 119,4, than those of couples (n=7) where both partners had an undifferentiated sex-role identity type, at a score of 107,8 (p=0,138).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship are reported in Table 9.51. Only the finding for homosexual couples was significant, showing femininity's superior role. None of the remaining pairs of DAS scores could be interpreted with confidence because of two low and one zero cell frequency in the different pairs.

Table 9.51: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners are feminine or undifferentiated as the highest adaptive sex-role identity type by sub-sample

	Highest adaptive sex-role identity type in couple	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value
Sub-sample		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Femininity	120,3	4	-	120,5	2	0,247
	Undifferentiated	-	0		102,0	5	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Femininity	119,0	14	0,828	120,3	6	0,049
	Undifferentiated	122,3	2		102,0	5	

The analyses lastly deal with the relative importance of masculinity for relationship satisfaction, compared to the remaining sex-role identity type (undifferentiated).

Hypothesis 9: H_0 : rs for couples with M sri highest = rs for couples with undifferentiated sri (both

partners)

H_1 : rs for couples with M sri highest > rs for couples with undifferentiated sri (both partners)

Contrary to expectation, relationship satisfaction scores for partners (n=20) where the “highest” (supposedly most adaptive) sex-role identity type for at least one partner was masculinity, were not significantly higher, at 109,0, than those of partners (n=7) where the sex-role identity type of both was undifferentiated, at a score of 107,8 (p=0,874).

The effects of sex and sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.52. The finding for homosexual couples, including lesbian respondents, varied in the expected direction, pointing towards masculinity's more important contribution to relationship satisfaction, relative to that of an undifferentiated sex-role identity type. None of the remaining pairs of *DAS* scores could be interpreted with confidence because of low or zero cell frequencies in the different pairs.

Table 9.52: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners are masculine or undifferentiated as the highest adaptive sex-role identity type by sub-sample

	Highest adaptive sex-role identity type in couple	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value
Sub-sample		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Masculinity	120,3	2	-	111.6	7	0,291
	Undifferentiated	-	0		102,0	5	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Masculinity	105,2	11	0,246	113.6	9	0,161
	Undifferentiated	122,3	2		102,0	5	

9.2.3.4 Relationship satisfaction and identical sex-role identity type comparisons

The sequence and content of hypothesis testing have been changed slightly, as mentioned at the beginning of Section 9.2.3.3. As a result, Hypotheses 10 to 12, already formulated in Chapter 6, have been covered in Section 9.2.3.2. However, additional hypotheses, comparing the relative effect of an identical sex-role identity type, are set for the present section, especially since sex-role identity congruence has not been confirmed.

Another dyadic variable had to be created for each couple, indicating when the two partners from each couple had an identical sex-role identity type. The frequency distribution of the outcome is provided in Table 9.53. It is evident that the number of cases (couples) remaining in the dataset for analyses is reduced dramatically in this way, because identical sex-role identity types does not occur in more than 40 % of the cases. Nevertheless, the ANOVA technique is robust and takes into account sample and sub-group sizes, so it is considered worthwhile to inspect the outcomes and make some exploratory observations.

Table 9.53: Frequency distribution of number of couples in which partners have an identical sex-role identity type by sub-sample

Sex-role identity type * identical for partners	Sub-sample			Total
	Gay couples	Lesbian couples	Heterosexual couples	
Androgyny	1		8	9
Femininity	2		6	8
Masculinity	1	3	3	7
Undifferentiated		5	2	7
Type not identical	7	12	30	49
Total	11	20	49	80

* Based on typology derived from *BSRI* (self-report) scores

Hypothesis A (additional): H_0 : rs for couples both with MF sri = rs for couples both with F sri H_1 : rs for couples both with MF sri > rs for couples both with F sri

Relationship satisfaction scores for androgynous couples (n=9) were not higher, at 120,6, than those of feminine couples (n=8), at a score of 125,2 (p=0,216). Contrary to the hypothesis, but in line with many previous research findings, partners who have an identical feminine sex-role identity type achieved greater relationship satisfaction.

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.54. No further findings were statistically significant. Whereas the *DAS* scores of heterosexual respondents were higher when respondents were feminine, androgyny was associated with greater relationship satisfaction among homosexual male respondents. However, the low cell frequencies in the latter case have to be noted.

Table 9.54: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners have identical androgynous or feminine sex-role identity types by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Identical sex-role identity type for both partners	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Androgynous	126,5	1	-	-	0	-
	Feminine	120,8	2		-	0	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Androgynous	119,8	8	0,125	126,5	1	0,440
	Feminine	126,7	6		120,8	2	

Hypothesis B (additional): H_0 : rs for couples both with MF sri = rs for couples both with M sri H_1 : rs for couples both with MF sri > rs for couples both with M sri

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for androgynous couples (n=9) were higher, at 120,6, than those of masculine couples (n=7), at a score of 111,5 (p=0,163).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.55. No further findings were statistically significant, mainly because of the relatively low cell frequencies. However, all the trends were in the expected direction, with identical androgyny between partners having a much stronger association with relationship satisfaction than identical masculinity.

Table 9.55: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners have identical androgynous or masculine sex-role identity types by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Identical sex-role identity	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
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type for both partners		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Androgynous	126.5	1	- #	-	0	-
	Masculine	121.5	1		107.3	3	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Androgynous	119.8	8	0,243	126.5	1	0,556
	Masculine	112.3	3		110.9	4	

Cell frequencies too low to compute

Hypothesis C (additional): H_0 : rs for couples both with MF sri = rs for couples both with undifferentiated sri
 H_1 : rs for couples both with MF sri > rs for couples both with undifferentiated sri

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for androgynous couples (n=9) were significantly higher (at the 5% level), at 120,6, than those of undifferentiated couples (n=7), at a score of 107,8 (p=0,033).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.56. No further findings were statistically significant. Low cell frequencies most likely caused an erratic pattern for heterosexual couples, where the trend was not in the expected direction. The relatively high relationship satisfaction score associated with an undifferentiated sex-role identity, is only based on two observations.

Table 9.56: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners have identical androgynous or undifferentiated sex-role identity types by sub-sample

	Identical sex-role identity type for both partners	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value	<i>DAS</i> score	n	p-value
Sub-sample		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Androgynous	126,5	1	-	-	0	-
	Undifferentiated	-	0		102,0	5	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Androgynous	119.8	8	0,702	126.5	1	0,116
	Undifferentiated	122.3	2		102.0	5	

Hypothesis D (additional): H_0 : rs for couples both with F sri = rs for couples both with M sri
 H_1 : rs for couples both with F sri > rs for couples both with M sri

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for feminine couples (n=8) were higher (just missing the 5% significance level), at 125,2, than those of masculine couples (n=7), at a score of 111,5 (p=0,052).

The effects of sex and sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.57. The findings for heterosexual couples just missed statistical significance, and were as expected, confirming that femininity is more closely associated with relationship satisfaction than masculinity. The trend among homosexual couples was also as anticipated.

Table 9.57: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners have identical feminine or masculine sex-role identity types by sub-sample

Sub-sample	Identical sex-role identity	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
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type for both partners		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Feminine	120,8	2	0,901	-	0	-
	Masculine	121,5	1		107,3	3	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Feminine	126.7	6	0,060	120.8	2	0,570
	Masculine	112.3	3		110.9	4	

Hypothesis E (additional): H_0 : rs for couples both with F sri = rs for couples both with undifferentiated sri
 H_1 : rs for couples both with F sri > rs for couples both with undifferentiated sri

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for feminine couples (n=8) were significantly higher, at 125,2, than those of undifferentiated couples (n=7), at a score of 107,8 (p=0,008).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.58. The findings for heterosexual couples were as expected, confirming that femininity is more closely associated with relationship satisfaction than an undifferentiated sex-role identity. Among homosexual couples, this trend was confirmed even more strongly.

Table 9.58: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners have identical feminine or undifferentiated sex-role identity types by sub-sample

Identical sex-role identity type for both partners		DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
Sub-sample		Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Feminine	120,8	2	-	-	0	-
	Undifferentiated	-	0		102,0	5	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Feminine	126.7	6	0,509	120.8	2	0,078
	Undifferentiated	122.3	2		102.0	5	

Hypothesis F (additional): H_0 : rs for couples both with M sri = rs for couples both with undifferentiated sri
 H_1 : rs for couples both with M sri > rs for couples both with undifferentiated sri

As expected, relationship satisfaction scores for masculine couples (n=7) were higher, at 111,5, than those of undifferentiated couples (n=7), at a score of 107,8 (p=0,656).

The effects of sub-sample on this relationship were also investigated, and the findings are reported in Table 9.59. The findings were not significant, and the trend among the heterosexual sub-sample was not as anticipated. However, cell frequencies were again too low to warrant confident comparisons. Among homosexual couples, especially lesbian respondents, it does appear as if femininity is more strongly associated with greater relationship satisfaction for couples.

Table 9.59: Comparison of relationship satisfaction scores between couples where partners have identical masculine or undifferentiated sex-role identity types by sub-sample

	Identical sex-role identity	DAS score	n	p-value	DAS score	n	p-value
Sub-sample	type for both partners	Male couples			Female couples		
Homosexual by sex	Feminine	121,5	1	-	107.3	3	0,679
	Undifferentiated	-	0		102,0	5	
		Heterosexual couples			Homosexual couples		
By sexual orientation	Feminine	112,3	3	0,389	110.9	4	0,442
	Undifferentiated	122.3	2		102.0	5	

9.2.3.5 Relative effect of identical and congruent sex-role identity types and traits

Although no explicit hypotheses were set in advance with regard to the relative effect of **identical sex-role identity types** between partners (e.g., both are androgynous, or feminine, etc.) on their dyadic relationship satisfaction, **compared to only partial correspondence of some sex-role identity traits** (say, masculinity only, but not femininity, as for the androgynous and masculine partners of a couple, for example), or even no traits at all (for example, as for the androgynous and undifferentiated partners of couples, or masculine and feminine ones), these potential configurations have all been explored as well. The bulk of the observations and findings confirmed expected associations, as briefly summarised below, without providing any detail.

When comparing the relationship satisfaction level between partners with an identical sex-role identity type, and those with sex-role identity incongruence of any degree, the observations, noted hereafter, emerged. For this set of analyses, the identical-masculinity mixed, identical-femininity mixed, and non-identical dyads, in terms of sex-role identity, were all treated as one sub-group.

- When both partners were ~~androgynous~~, or, even more strongly so, both were ~~feminine~~, they were far more⁶ satisfied in their relationship compared to couples where incongruent sex-role identities existed. For femininity, the confirmation was not as strong for homosexual couples (almost equal relationship satisfaction scores) as for heterosexual ones. Other than this, there were no exceptions.
- When both partners were ~~masculine~~, or ~~undifferentiated~~, they were less satisfied in their relationship compared to couples where incongruent sex-role identities existed. However, this did not apply to heterosexual couples. For homosexual couples, where both partners had an undifferentiated sex-role identity type, the main trend, as stated first, was significant at the 5%-level (p=0,024).

Some noteworthy differences to the general trend just described became evident when the identical-masculinity mixed, identical-femininity mixed, and non-identical dyads were treated separately in the analyses.

When comparing the relationship satisfaction level between partners with an identical sex-role identity type, and those with an incongruent masculinity sex-role identity trait (i.e, ~~identical-femininity mixed dyads~~), the following findings emerged, much as with the overall or combined picture reported first above:

⁶ Links at the 5%-level at least, and exceptions from the reported anticipated trends are mentioned explicitly

- When both partners were ~~androgynous~~, or, even more strongly so, both were ~~feminine~~, they were far more satisfied in their relationship compared to identical-femininity mixed couples. Gay couples formed a single exception, with feminine couples experiencing less satisfaction than couples in identical-femininity mixed dyads (i.e., androgynous-feminine; and masculine-undifferentiated).
- When both partners were ~~masculine~~, or ~~undifferentiated~~, they were less satisfied in their relationship compared to identical-femininity mixed couples. However, this did not apply to heterosexual couples.

When comparing the relationship satisfaction level between partners with an ~~identical sex-role identity type~~, and those with an incongruent femininity sex-role identity trait (i.e, ~~identical-masculinity mixed dyads~~), the following findings emerged, which differ slightly from the picture reported so far:

- When both partners were ~~androgynous~~, or, still more strongly so, both were ~~feminine~~, they were far more satisfied in their relationship compared to identical-masculinity mixed couples (i.e., androgynous-masculine; and feminine-undifferentiated). Homosexual couples with an identical-masculinity mixed sex-role identity type seemed to be more satisfied than feminine couples, although the cell frequencies are quite low. In addition, among heterosexual couples, and in line with the main trend, the stronger role of femininity is significant at the 5%-level ($p=0.042$).
- When both partners were ~~masculine~~, or ~~undifferentiated~~, they were less satisfied in their relationship compared to identical-masculinity mixed couples. However, this did not apply to heterosexual couples. Also, as an overall model (comparing all masculine, or undifferentiated dyads without reference to sub-sample, to the “mixed” dyads), not much difference existed between the two sets of satisfaction levels.

When comparing the relationship satisfaction level between partners with an ~~identical sex-role identity type~~, and those with non-identical sex-role identity traits (both traits non-identical), the following findings emerged:

- When both partners were ~~androgynous~~, they were more satisfied in their relationship compared to non-identical couples (i.e., androgynous-undifferentiated; masculine-feminine). This applied only in the case of homosexual couples.
- When both partners were ~~feminine~~, the satisfaction level was consistently higher compared to the level among dyads with non-identical sex-role identity traits.
- When both partners were masculine, they were more satisfied in their relationship compared to non-identical couples. This applied only in the case of homosexual couples, albeit then only marginally so.
- When both partners were ~~undifferentiated~~, they were generally less satisfied in their relationship compared to non-identical couples. This was definitely and strongly valid for homosexual couples, but otherwise a reasonably immaterial factor.

The findings reported above in this section all point to the relatively stronger and most consistent
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It has to be noted that variance across type of relationship (target group or sub-sample) is not discussed separately at this point, as anticipated in Sections 6.2.5, and 6.2.6, because the influence of these two factors have been integrated throughout into all the discussions and tables thus far in Chapter 9.

In addition, the main focus of the study is neither the performance of the measurement instruments, nor the analysis of relationship outcomes in terms of the *DAS*'s detailed sub-scales, especially in terms of repeating all the dyadic coding and analysis of potential configurations at that level. Therefore, it was decided that the use of sub-scale evidence for instrument validation purposes (see Section 9.1.1) would suffice, and not to iterate the hypothesis testing at more detailed levels. A decisive argument in support of this decision, is the consistently high correlations among the *DAS* sub-scales, and between them and all the other relevant variables.

Although statistical software packages provide valuable tools during the first exploratory stages of analysis for the simultaneous detection of potentially strong connections between large numbers of variables, for example, by using multiple chi-square techniques such as CHAID, these could not be used because of the insufficient numbers of respondents within the various cells determined by the model and various sets of comparisons. Simple chi-square analysis of frequencies, and the serial comparison of mean scores for sub-groups through variance analysis (ANOVA techniques) were the methods of choice, as a result.

9.2.4 Summary and conclusion

In this main section (9.2), the central research hypotheses at the **dyadic** level have been tested and reported. To achieve this, a set of codes was created to reflect the simultaneous presence of a high or low level of relationship satisfaction among both partners of each couple, as well as the various configurations or combinations of sex-role identity type or traits (masculinity and femininity traits). In addition, the dataset was transformed by treating couples as the unit of analysis, in order to enable the various dyadic comparisons.

The central findings are summarised in Table 9.60 to evaluate their significance, or at least their adherence to the expected trends. In addition, an indication is given of the extent to which the sub-samples (target groups) to which respondents belong, resulted in deviations from the main pattern or hypothesis set for each finding.

(Table 9.60 overleaf)

Table 9.60: Summary of findings on testing the central hypotheses about the dyadic relationship between sex-role identity and relationship satisfaction by sub-sample

	Hypothesis	Significant		Expected direction		Exceptions among respondents by *	
Nr	Contents	Yes	No	Yes	No	Sub-sample	Sex(same-sex)
Relationship satisfaction associated with identical/congruent sex-role identity type/traits between partners							
1	Identical > identical-fem mixed		x	✓		Same-sex *	Female *
2	Identical > identical-masc mixed		x	✓		(Same-sex)	(Female)
3	Identical > non-identical		x		x	(Hetero/same sex)	
12	Id-fem mixed id-masc mixed		x	N.a.	N.a.	(">"hetero / "<"same -sex)	(Female)
10	Id-fem mixed > non-identical		x		x	(Hetero)	
11	Id-masc mixed > non-identical		x		x	(Hetero)	
Relationship satisfaction associated with highest adaptive sex-role identity type within either partner of a couple							
4	Androgyny > femininity		x		x	(Hetero)	
5	Androgyny > masculinity	✓		✓			
6	Androgyny > undifferentiated		x	✓		(Hetero)	
7	Femininity > masculinity	#	x	✓			
8	Femininity > undifferentiated		x	✓		(Hetero)	
9	Masculinity > undifferentiated		x	✓		(Hetero)	
Relationship satisfaction associated with comparisons of identical sex-role identity type between two partners							
A	Androgyny > femininity (both)		x		x	(Hetero)	
B	Androgyny > masculinity (both)		x	✓			
C	Androgyny > undifferentiated	✓		✓		(Hetero)	
D	Femininity > masculinity	#	x	✓			(Male)
E	Femininity > undifferentiated	✓		✓			
F	Masculinity > undifferentiated		x	✓		(Hetero)	

* Indicates significance at the 5%-level (with insignificant, unexpected trends reported in brackets)

Almost significant at the 5%-level

Legend: fem = feminine; masc = masculine;
id = identical; hetero = heterosexual

Broad support for the hypotheses at the dyadic level is observed, as reflected in the **summary of the core findings** below.

- As expected, couples involving partners with an identical (congruent) sex-role identity type experience greater relationship satisfaction than couples in which partners have mixed sex-role identity type/trait configurations. However, none of these associations reached statistical significance.
- Androgyny and femininity are associated with greater relationship satisfaction when sex-role identity type is treated as an indicator of the most adaptive behavioural repertoire available to either (at least one) partner in a dyadic relationship. This applies slightly more strongly to homosexual than heterosexual couples.
- When androgyny or femininity is identical between the partners in couples, they experience significantly greater relationship satisfaction compared to couples with other identical sex-role identity type combinations between the partners. In selected cases (see Table 9.60), this applied less often to heterosexual couples, and/or male partners.
- When both partners in dyads are feminine, or both are androgynous, in this order, a more consistent association with relationship satisfaction is observed, relative to that of partners in

couples with non-identical (or incongruent) sex-role identity types or traits (with the latter signalling the inclusion of the so-called mixed combinations as well).