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Power Exertion Strategies in Couples: A Q-Methodological Investigation of Self- and Partner-Perceived Frameworks

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A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of the University of Ottawa as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my first teacher:

Lynda Jean Rae Pinsent

(1943 - 1999)

"she walked lightly on the earth

with peace and grace and strength"

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Abstract

To date, power exertion strategies in intimate relationships have been studied primarily using R-methodology techniques (e.g., Falbo, 1977; Fablo and Peplau, 1980). These studies have most often produced a two-dimensional model of power exertion strategies. The model used by Falbo and Peplau (1980) is composed of two bidirectional dimensions consisting of a laterality dimension (bilateral to unilateral) and a directness dimension (direct to indirect). The aim of the present study was to determine whether using an alternative methodology developed to measure operant subjectivity, namely Q-methodology, would provide similar results to those found using R-methodology. Non-violent, heterosexual couples who had been married or living together for at least six months were recruited for the present study. Fifty-four participants (27 couples) completed three computerised Q-sorts based on the perceived usage of 60 power-exertion strategies from the self, partner and ideal-perspectives. In addition, couple members completed self-reports designed to measure intimacy (*Miller Social Intimacy Scale* – Miller and Lefcourt, 1982), relationship adjustment (*Dyadic Adjustment Scale – Short Form* - Spanier, 1976 and Hunsley, Pinsent, Lefebvre, James-Tanner, and Vito, 1995), impression management (*Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding - Impression Management Subscale* – Paulhaus, 1991), psychological reactance (*Hong's Psychological Reactance Scale* – Hong and Page, 1989), dominance (*General Population Dominance Scale* – Roy, 1981), machiavellianism (*MACH IV* – Christie and Geis, 1970), sex-role egalitarianism (*Sex-role Egalitarianism Scale – Short Form* – King and King, 1994), and perspective-taking (*Self-dyadic Perspective Taking Scale* and *Other-dyadic Perspective Taking Scale* – Long and Andrews, 1990). Frameworks derived from the Q-sort data

indicate that participants actively use the dimensions of laterality and directness to describe their own and their partners' use of power exertion strategies in their intimate relationships. When asked to describe the "ideal partner", participants used only the dimension of laterality. Overall, participants reported using significantly more bilateral and direct strategies in comparison to unilateral and indirect strategies. When describing their own power exertion strategies, women and those with lower levels of psychological reactance were more likely to exclusively use the bilateral/lateral dimension. In comparison, men and those individuals with higher levels of psychological reactance were more likely to exclusively use the directness dimension. When describing their partners' use of power exertion strategies, those individuals using primarily the bilateral/unilateral dimension were more likely to have higher levels of social desirability, higher levels of perspective-taking, lower levels of psychological reactance, and lower levels of machiavellianism, in comparison to those individuals who primarily used the direct/indirect dimension.

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Introduction

Overview

The study of power and influence has long been a fundamental component of the social sciences. In 1937, Bertrand Russell claimed that to understand power is to comprehend the essence of the human condition. Power appears to be an intuitive concept that people use to make sense of their relationships with one another and societal structures (Huston, 1983). Despite the prevalence of the concept, when asked to explain what power is, people generally have great difficulty. As Bierstedt (1950) stated, borrowing from St. Agustine's declaration regarding time, "we all know perfectly well what it [power] is - until someone asks us" (p.730). Despite this difficulty in defining and learning about the concept of power, it remains a crucial aspect of many theories on various topics found in a wide array of disciplines. Power and influence are significant components of theories about small group processes (Berger, 1985), marketing (Burns, 1992), formation of political ideologies (Rothman, 1984), victimology (Ford, 1991; Groth & Burgess, 1980; LaFree, 1982), therapeutic strategies (Bosch, 1988, Fish, 1990), oppression (Goldner, 1991), personality structure (Bennett, 1988; Grams & Rogers, 1990) social movements (Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988), and parenting styles (Peterson, 1986) to cite but a few diverse examples.

Although the concepts of power and influence have been used to describe and to explain a vast collection of extremely diverse subjects, the concepts are not so unwieldy that they have become of questionable use as proposed by a number of authors (Turk, 1975). Rather, when studying the concept of power, one should remain relatively

respectful of its vastness and realize *the* quintessential finding will not be made by any one researcher. Instead, researchers recommend that choices be made in three different areas before engaging in either descriptive or explanatory studies of power: 1) what aspect of power will be studied; 2) what type of relationships will be studied; and 3) what methodologies are appropriate (Cromwell & Olson, 1975; Huston, 1983; McDonald, 1980; Saffilios-Rothschild, 1969; Szinovacz, 1987). For the present research, the choices for these three areas are described below.

With regards to what aspect of power was studied, one area of power that has been relatively overlooked is the *process* of power (Cromwell & Olson, 1975; Szinovacz, 1987). Many researchers have looked at either the bases of power or the outcomes of power but relatively few have focused on how people actually exercise power. The present study focussed on how people perceive their attempts to exercise power through the choice of influence strategies.

Secondly, the construct of power has been studied within a large variety of types of relationships. For example, researchers have studied power between parent and child (Henry, Wilson & Peterson, 1989), siblings (Furman & Buhrmaster, 1985), couples (Blood & Wolfe, 1960), friends (Bradac, 1983), peers (Cobb, 1986; Offerman & Beil, 1992), supervisor and worker (Adler, 1983), political groups (Gentry, 1982) ethnic groups (Hastings, Clelland & Danielson, 1982; Louw-Pergieter & Giles, 1987), societal structures (Grbich, 1990), and countries (Ward & House, 1988). As a result, if one takes into account that the concept of power may be as multifaceted and multidimensional as the relationships it is often used to describe, it is crucial to not only define the type of relationship that one is studying, but also to consider that the aspects of power defined in

one type of relationship may or may not be applicable to other types of relationships (Szinovacz, 1987). For the present study, the focus was on the perceptions of power processes of couples in intimate heterosexual relationships. Although power within couples has been studied more frequently than have other forms of family power, there remains an overall lack of research of power issues within families, especially research on power processes (Cromwell & Olson, 1975; Huston, 1983; Szinovacz, 1987).

Couples provide a particularly interesting dyad within which to study power processes in the family, partially due to the ever-increasing presumption of equality between marital partners. This is in comparison to the socially accepted hierarchical familial relationships of parent-child or older-younger siblings. Much of the research on power in couples was completed prior to 1975, before which gender, and thus, marital partner, equality was not as prevalent or desirable as it is today (Gerstel & Gross, 1982; Greenglass, 1985; Mansfield, McAllister & Colland, 1992). Therefore, despite the relatively large amount of research which has been completed on couples in comparison to other family dyads, the changing social assumptions about marriage and gender equality should be considered when evaluating the relevancy of past research.

Finally, once the two tasks of choosing not only a facet of power to study, but also a type of relationship within which to study this facet have been completed, it is necessary to choose an appropriate approach or method of inquiry. As the social sciences move into a post-positivistic period, the connection between method of inquiry and findings are beginning to be elucidated (Burman & Parker, 1993; Silverman, 1993). The interactions between questions, methods, and findings encourage researchers to consider many options when choosing methods of inquiry. As a result, the choice of method is

crucial not only to what questions one is asking about a certain aspect of power within a certain type of relationship, but also to what one hopes to find.

To date, most of the methodology of studying power within couples has been objective in nature. The main methods have been either self-report measures based upon objectively derived items or behavioral observation (Huston, 1983; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Szinovacz, 1987). As a result, many of the findings may be considered to have either confirmed or disconfirmed various researchers' assumptions and beliefs about intimate forms of power. At present, it appears that few researchers have attempted to find out, in the subjective sense (Stephenson, 1953), how couples perceive power, and, as a result, what types of frameworks or constructs individuals use within their intimate relationships to conceptualise power. If indeed people do "know what *it* is" and are able to readily report how they go about using *it* (Szinovacz, 1987), it should be possible to systematically identify how each individual conceptualises how he or she uses power and influence. By understanding how people conceptualise their use of power processes within their own individual, intimate relationships, we will come to a better understanding of the nature of power. One of the primary modes of studying subjectivity within the social sciences has been Q-methodology as developed by Stephenson (1953). Further description of the benefits and challenges of using this subjective method is found in the section describing various methodological options when studying power and influence.

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of the concepts of power and influence as they relate to intimate relationships. Extensive theorizing and research have been completed on the subject of power and influence in a broad array of

domains including intimate relationships. The goal of the present research is to contribute in a unique manner to this significant body of literature. This was achieved through the attempt to partially redress the shortcomings or gaps within the current research by utilising a method of inquiry, Q-methodology, which is not common to the study of power. This method was applied to an aspect of power that has been understudied: influence strategies used in power exertion by couple members in intimate relationships.

This introductory chapter consists of four sections. The first section consists of a brief review of how the concepts of power and influence have previously been defined by various researchers in addition to various considerations that must be made when defining these concepts. As well, the definitions for the present study are included in this section. This is followed by a brief review of the literature relevant for the present study. This review covers two main areas: 1) gender in relation to influence and power; and, 2) influence strategies in intimate relationships. In addition, there is a brief review of challenges and benefits to studying influence and power in intimate relationships. The third section provides a review of the methodology traditionally used to study power and influence in intimate relationships. This is contrasted with a description of the tenets and assumptions of Q-methodology, the approach used in the present study. Finally, a summarised rationale for the present study as well as the guiding hypotheses are presented.

Defining Influence and Power

As mentioned previously, there appear to be a number of facets of power. Surrounding the concept of power in most theories and research is the concept of influence. These concepts have been defined in a number of ways according to various theories, however, most of the definitions have similar bases. Within this section, a review of various definitions of influence and power is presented. Following this review is a discussion of various considerations in defining power and influence. Finally, this section concludes with the definitions of power and influence used for the present study.

Influence. Most of the work defining influence as a concept related to power has been completed by people interested in social exchange theory (Cromwell & Olson, 1975). One of the more recent works in the area of influence within families has been by Huston, a family sociologist. In his 1983 article, Huston described influence as a descriptive term describing "instances in which events in one partner's chain are causally connected to events in the other's chain" (p.173). He claimed that this definition of influence is similar to that of French and Raven's (1959) definition of influence as that which occurs when two people have an interaction which results in "psychological change". Psychological change was defined as change in a person's cognitions, affect and/or behaviour.

According to Huston (1983), there are five important features of influence sequences which must be considered when studying issues around influence: 1) the content of influence; 2) the consequences for the actor; 3) mode of influence; 4) magnitude of influence; and, 5) actor's intentions. Content of influence consists of the events that are involved. The consequences for the actor can be assessed on various

dimensions such as positive or negative, facilitative or interfering, and successful or failing. The third feature involves the various methods or strategies of influence which a person may use (e.g., coercion, bargaining). Magnitude of influence is generally assessed on three dimensions: 1) strength - the degree to which influence produces change in the other person; 2) diversity - the number and range of events affected by the influence; and 3) temporal reach - subsequent changes in the person's chain of event due to the initial influence. Finally, actor's intentions are the most important defining feature of influence and how influence relates to power.

Huston (1983) divides the concept of influence into two categories: unintentional, and intentional. Unintentional influence occurs within intimate relationships when "P influences O unwittingly, the influence being an incidental consequence of their interaction" (p.178). For example, a person could be in an energetic, uplifting mood and unintentionally influence a positive affect in his/her partner. According to Huston, unintentional influence is unrelated to power.

Power only occurs with intentional influence. Although intentional influence is a necessary concept to explain power, intentional influence is not equivalent to power. Rather, Huston claimed that power is an explanatory concept that accounts for how people can take certain causal conditions such as societal norms, physical strength, or relative amounts of love and convert them into intentional influence by interacting with another person. At this point, he claimed that within the social sciences there is no concept similar to power to explain the link between causal conditions and unintentional influence.

According to some researchers, influence appears to be interchangeable with concepts of power, dominance and control; however, as Huston (1983) has illustrated, influence may be more fruitfully conceptualised as related to rather than identical to power. This distinction between influence and control may become even more necessary as one examines the different definitions of power.

Power. Although it may be one of the primary constructs within the social sciences (Russell, 1937), power has proven to be frustratingly difficult to define and operationalize in mutually agreed upon terms. This difficulty, combined with the resulting compounded complications of measuring power, has led some researchers to suggest abandoning the concept (Turk, 1975). Despite the attractiveness of this suggestion, it appears that this may not be the best option. Considering many people use the power construct to define some aspects of their relationships (Huston, 1983), it seems somewhat self-defeating for the social sciences to abandon the concept entirely because of definition and measurement difficulties. As Dahl (1957) stated, it may be more useful to think of power as multifaceted or composed of many "things" rather than as a single concept. These facets of power are best elucidated through a brief review of how various researchers have defined power.

Most researchers have defined power to fit their particular school of thought. Within social psychology, power has been defined primarily by researchers working within field theory and social exchange theory. Lewin's field theory (1951) carries the notion that behaviour is a result of needs and tensions between individuals or "fields of

interaction". Lewin described the power of one person (A) over another person (B)[1] as the ratio of the maximum force that A can induce on B and the maximum resistance that B can offer. Cartwright (1959) later expanded and reformulated some of Lewin's work to include the idea that a power act by A would set off two types of forces in B: the force to resist, and the force to comply. Under field theory, power is defined according to forces and tensions.

The other major theory within social psychology that has contributed to the concept of power in families is that of social exchange theory. Briefly, social exchange theory uses an economic approach to the analysis of the interactions between people. A general assumption is that people behave in ways which maximise their rewards and minimise the costs they experience within their interactions (Homans, 1961). With the idea that social behaviour is actually an exchange of material and non-material goods (Blau, 1964), comes the idea that power can be conceptualised within an equation of costs and rewards to respective participants. According to Thibault and Kelley (1959), A's power over B is A's ability to determine or control the rewards and costs B experiences. This type of conceptualisation has outcome as one of the main components of the definition.

Those who work under the auspices of resource theory, a subset of social exchange theory (Shehan & Lee, 1990) partially derived from the notions of motives and bases in field theory (Cromwell & Olson, 1975), define power in terms of control of resources. For example, Blood and Wolfe (1960), two of the first researchers to work on

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[1] The notation of "A" as the person exerting power and "B" as the person A is acting upon will be

the concept of power in couples under the umbrella of resource theory, defined power as the differential control of resources of value to others for need fulfilment (Wolfe, 1959). Because of the general shortcomings of resource theory (Szinovacz, 1987), this type of resource-based power was eventually combined with "ideological theory" in Rodman's (1972) theory of resources in cultural context and Burr's (1973) normative resource theory to include the concept of legitimate power as well. Legitimate power (what some term "authority", Szinovacz, 1987) was considered to be that type of power which was a facet of role prescriptions and societal or cultural norms. For example, the husband may be considered to be the more powerful member of a couple because he controls more resources (resource theory) or because men are culturally expected to be the more powerful member in a marital dyad (ideological theory).

Finally, another area that has contributed to the study of family power has been the research on family process and family systems (Bateson, 1972; Haley, 1976; Watzlawick & Weakland, 1977). In contrast to the other fields, this area has relied primarily on clinical interventions and case studies for its theoretical constructs (Cromwell & Olson, 1975). Unfortunately, this leaves the field with questionable results from an empirical standpoint; however, these theorists have introduced some interesting concepts surrounding power from a radically different perspective into the research arena (Szinovacz, 1987). Watzlawick, Haley and Bateson have introduced the idea of defining relationships on a power dimension according to how power is played out within a particular dyadic system or sub-system. Relationships are then described as

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used through out this paper in order to avoid confusion resulting from numerous types of notations.

complementary, symmetrical, meta-complementary, and pseudo-complementary (Haley, 1976), a system of classification which other researchers have subsequently used extensively within their research (e.g. Bradac, 1983; Gottman, 1994). Sprey (1975) attempted to incorporate some of the systems-based thinking when describing power as a relational concept rather than as an individual attribute. In contrast to power as an individual attribute which is defined as "the ability to influence others" (p.63), power as a relational concept is considered to be "the ability to influence the direction or outcome of a joint course of action" (p.63).

Considerations in defining power. Despite the marked differences amongst the above definitions of power from various types of theories, one commonality is that they all define power as some sort of ability. Linked to the idea of power as ability is that of power as potential (Bierstedt, 1974). Thus, power does not appear to be a behaviour or an outcome, but rather, the ability or potential to intentionally effect an outcome. This indicates that power is a dispositional concept and not a behavioural act (Huston, 1983). As a result, power as an ability-potential disposition cannot be directly measured in much the same manner that other types of abilities or potentials cannot be directly measured (Blalock & Wilken, 1979; Sprey, 1975). Consequently, defining and operationalizing power requires not only the definition of power, but also, an inferential operationalization of power.

This operationalization must rely on those aspects that are believed to contribute to or determine this ability, or, on the outcomes which are believed to be the results of the successful use of power. In addition, power as a disposition does not necessarily mean that it is static. Rather, as a disposition, power can be considered dynamic, changing

according to situation and timing (Rogers, 1974). By determining that power is best considered as an ability-potential disposition, researchers generally now consider that the search for *the* valid power measure is a relatively fruitless endeavour (Cromwell, Klein, & Wieting, 1975, Szinovacz, 1981). This abandonment has led to the search for multidimensional power indicators which examine the processes of power exertion as well as outcomes and precursors of power (Szinovacz, 1987).

Another consideration when defining power is that there are always at least two people involved. This may appear somewhat simple, however, due to this, power is a relational concept, not only an individual attribute (Sprey, 1975). As a result, A's power is not necessarily independent of B's perception of A's power. Thus, attributions can play a major role in how power is exercised (or not). For example, B's perception that A is powerful may actually enhance A's ability to effect change in B (Wrong, 1979). The perceived power is termed "reputational power" in comparison to "actual" power according to Szinovacz (1987). Considering that actual power cannot be measured, most of the research that has been completed on power has actually been measuring reputational power collected either through B's-reports or behavioral observation (Szinovacz, 1987). For the present proposed study, this distinction between reputational power and actual power is important. There is the possibility that how a person (B) views the other (A) in a dyad using specific power exertion strategies may differ substantially from how A him/herself views his/her own use of power strategies.

Definition of power for the present study. Szinovacz's (1987) review of definitions and theories of family power is comprehensive in its scope and synthesis. As a result, her definition of power and its related concepts were used in the present study.

Combining elements of field theory, social exchange theory and systems theory, she defines power as:

> *A's net ability to affect B's behaviors and outcomes, after the potential resistance forces of Other(s) and/or costs arising from power exertion have been taken into onsideration... power, therefore, is "systemic" or "relational" in that it always implies a relationship among the actors. (p.653)*

This definition of power is similar to others stated previously as it describes power as an ability. As a result, power even in this definition cannot be directly measured. In order to elaborate on which related aspects of power can be successfully operationalized and measured, Szinovacz (1987) has incorporated the two issues of power as an ability and reputational or attributed power into a two dimensional table with six categories. One of these dimensions is composed of actual vs. reputational (attributed) power. The other dimension consists of potential power (usually referred to as power) and exercised power (usually referred to as control). This table is reproduced in Table 1 with the addition of another category along the actual vs. reputational dimension to include aspects of the current study.

Insert Table 1

As described previously, Szinovacz (1987) took into account that actual power may differ substantially from attributed power or reputational power. She described two sources of attributed power: B, the person being acted upon by A; and, an outsider

observing the interaction between A and B. For the present study, a third perspective was added: the self (shaded portions in Table 1). This is a fundamental aspect of the present study. The present study focussed exclusively on the perception of influence strategies used as a result of reputational power from two perspectives: self attributions and partners' attributions (indicated by italics in Table 1).

It appears that our self-attributions and self-perceptions may differ substantially from objective or normative measurements (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 1988). A person's self-report of his/her perceived "ability to affect B's behaviours and outcomes" may be assumed to be composed of self-attributions and self-perceptions in much the same manner as B's report. Once one takes into account the idea of reputational power, there may be at least four frameworks at work in a couple regarding the perceived use of power exertion strategies: A's framework of self-use; B's framework of A's use; B's framework of self-use; and, A's framework of B's useIn order to understand how people perceive the use of power within couples, it may be less important to try to approximate "actual power" than it is to find out which frameworks partners use and share in thinking about power.

The above table is a brief yet comprehensive account of how one may conceive of many of the issues surrounding the study of power and related concepts. A review of past research illustrates that when power is conceived of in the above manner, few researchers have actually been studying power *per se*. Instead, much of the work has focussed on exercised power or control with the understanding that past control may be indicative of future potential (e.g., "revealed differences technique" - Strodtbeck, 1951; "SIMFAM" - Straus & Tallman, 1971; "Inventory of Marital Conflict" - Olson & Ryder, 1970). As

well, much of the earlier work in resource theory examined exercised power from the attributional standpoint of either the actor or acted upon (e.g. "Decision-making Scale" - Blood & Wolfe, 1960; "Who is boss?"- Heer, 1962). Finally, the work on power which has been completed by the "outsider" perspective is that which has been completed through observation, interviews, and behavioural coding (e.g. Witteman & Fitzpatrick, 1986).

Prior to 1975, family power was defined and conceptualised in relatively static terms (Cromwell & Olson, 1975; Huston, 1983; Szinovacz, 1987). Before Cromwell and Olson's (1975) edited collection of essays on family power, models were based solely on an outcome approach to understanding power (e.g. Blood & Wolfe, 1960). This was primarily a "win or lose" manner of conceptualising power with little or no concern about the actual processes with which people effectively or ineffectively used power. Cromwell and Olson (1975) were among the first to systematically identify three conceptual domains of power as bases, processes, and outcomes. With the addition of "processes" as a valid and understudied domain of power, dynamic models of power began to be constructed in which the underlying processes of power or "powering" (Sprey, 1972) began to be considered as fundamental components. Despite this "new" category in 1975, a review by Szinovacz (1987) twelve years later stated that there is a definite " lack of relevant research on power exertion processes in families" (p.660). In an attempt to address this gap in the literature, the current study focussed on power processes, namely influence strategies people use with their intimate partners.

Review of literature

This section provides a brief review of the relevant literature for various aspects of studying influence strategies used by couple members within their intimate relationships. This review is composed of two related bodies of literature. Initially, a brief review of the literature on gender and influence will be presented. Following this, is a review of the relevant literature about couples in intimate relationships and influence strategies. Following the presentation of these reviews, a brief discussion of the challenges and benefits encountered when studying power in intimate couples is presented.

Gender and influence. With much of the original work in power and influence having occurred in the late 1950s and early 1960s, one of the most prominent models of power was French and Raven's (1959) model of power bases. According to French and Raven's model, influence is derived from one or more of six power bases: reward, coercion, referent, legitimate, expert, and informational. Reward power refers to one person's power in relation to another based on his or her perceived ability to reward the other. Coercion refers to one's perceived ability to punish another for non-compliance. Referent power is based on the extent to which the person being influenced likes, or is attracted to, the person doing the influencing. Legitimate power occurs when the person influencing and person being influenced ascribe to the same code of behaviour. Expert power is based on the person who is influencing having greater knowledge, skills or expertise in a specific are. Informational power refers to the content of the influence attempt and the extent to which it contains facts and articulate arguments. This is different than many of the other power bases that refer to personal characteristics of the

influencer or influencee. Overall, power bases are considered to be a reflection of the particular relationship between the actor (A) and the person being influenced (B).

Johnson (1976) developed a gender-based theory derived from French and Raven's (1959) model involving power bases. Johnson claimed that one theory of power could not apply equally to both men and women because men generally had greater access to resources. In addition, women and men had different sex-role expectations that would impact on the power bases available to each gender. Johnson theorised that in comparison to men, women have a limited number of influence strategies that are sex-role consistent. According to her theory, Johnson proposed that the most sex-role appropriate power base for women is referent power. In 1978, Johnson further clarified sex-role appropriate influence approaches for women as generally restricted to helpless, personal, and indirect approachs.

In the presentation of her theory on gender differences and power bases, Johnson (1976) reported the results of a study she conducted where she presented students with scenarios within which one person was attempting to influence another. Participants were asked to identify for 15 different strategies whether the person doing the influencing was more likely a man or a woman. Results indicated that while the theorised "masculine" strategies were more typically identified with men, there were no gender differences found for the more "feminine" strategies. Johnson (1976) interpreted these findings as power and influence being a male domain, with women being viewed as having very few choices of sex-role appropriate approaches to influence.

In 1986, similar findings were reported by Gruber and White. Participants were required to self-report their use of 21 different influence strategies. Similar to the

Johnson (1976) study, men reported using both traditionally masculine and feminine influence strategies. In comparison, women reported using feminine strategies significantly more often than masculine strategies.

Falbo and Peplau (1980) found gender differences in use of power exertion strategies with heterosexual men more likely than gay men, heterosexual women, or lesbian women to report using bilateral and direct influence strategies. They also reported that heterosexual women were more likely to use indirect and unilateral strategies. Interestingly, there were no gender differences found between gay men and lesbian women.

Other researchers have found that the main determinant in choice of strategies is not necessarily gender, but rather the status of the people involved in the influence relationship. Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980) reported that choice of influence strategies was related to the status of the target or person being influenced (subordinate, co-worker, or boss) as well as the status of the influencer. Gender was not predictive of choice of strategy. Similarly, Eagly and Wood (1982) reported that high status communicators were judged to be more influential than lower status communicators with no differences according to gender. Following a similar pattern, Cowan, Drinkard and MacGavin (1984) found that the most salient factor in choice of influence strategies is the status of the target person (mother, father, or friend). A more recent study by Sagrestano (1992) also concluded that power differences have a more profound effect on the choice of influence strategies than does gender. Sagrestano (1992) indicated that what may be reported as gender differences in influence may better understood as perceived power differences.

Eagly (1983) explained that the discrepancies in findings between studies that have found gender differences and those that do not find gender differences when controlling for status, are due to the close alignment between gender and status in society. She defines gender as a diffuse status characteristic which people will use in the absence of other cues about status.

Influence and power in intimate relationships. Identification of influence strategies has been attempted by a number of researchers. Previous to Falbo's (1977) initial inductive study of power exertion strategies among college students, most studies of power strategies had been of a deductive nature in which theories of how people influenced one another were formulated and then tested. According to Falbo (1977), although a deductive method is a popular and respected method, it can lead to a fairly restrictive conceptualisation of strategies. In her attempt at having a more inclusive approach, Falbo (1977) generated 16 primary strategies that people use to ""get their way". With a sample of 141 undergraduate college students, she asked each person to write a paragraph of "How I Get My Way". From these essays, she derived 346 strategies, 91% of which were classifiable into a 16-strategy code. Experts (members of a team researching various aspects of power) provided similarity judgements of the 16 strategies. The data were submitted to a multidimensional scaling analysis. The most interpretable model was that of two dimensions labelled rational/nonrational and direct/indirect.

Prachar, Pinsent and Hunsley (1990) replicated the findings from Falbo's (1977) study. In place of "experts", students were asked to make the multi-dimensional judgements. As well, definitions of strategies as stimuli were replaced with

representative vignettes. Despite these changes in method, the best multi-dimensional model remained a two-dimension model very similar to that found by Falbo (1977).

Falbo and Peplau (1980) used a similar type of inductive approach to identify strategies used in intimate relationships with the hypothesis that strategies used would be different according to the identity of the target person (B) (i.e., spouse, friend, etc). An overall sample of 434 participants wrote an open-ended essay describing "how I get (Partner) to do what I want". From these essays, coders created 13 categories of power strategies that accounted for 98% of the strategies reported in the essays. Again, the best solution from a multidimensional scaling of experts' similarity ratings of the 13 categories was a 2-dimensional model. The first dimension was renamed from rational/nonrational to bilateral/unilateral to better reflect the group of strategies that occurred in the 1980 study. Laterality refers to the amount of interaction between the two members of the dyad required by a particular power exertion strategy. The second dimension remained direct/indirect. The overall consistency of dimensions between the two studies was relatively robust.

As previously reported, Falbo and Peplau (1980) found gender differences among heterosexual women and men, but no gender differences among homosexual women and men. Heterosexual men were more likely to report using direct and bilateral strategies. In addition, bilateral and direct strategies were also preferred by individuals who perceived themselves as being the more powerful member of a couple. Bilateral and direct strategies are those strategies used when one expects compliance from a partner. In contrast, heterosexual women were more likely to report using indirect and unilateral strategies. Unilateral strategies were preferred not only by women, but also more

generally among individuals who valued autonomy, independence, and equality in their relationships. The authors stated that unilateral strategies are more often used when the overall outcome is important but noncompliance is anticipated.

As far as identification of power exertion strategies, the two studies described above (Falbo, 1977; Falbo & Peplau, 1980) provided interesting, useful findings partially due to the adoption of an inductive approach. However, a number of shortcomings in method and choice of sample in the study by Falbo and Peplau (1980) may severely limit the generalizability of some of the other results they produced. The sample of 200 participants they chose were unmarried undergraduate students who were relatively young (average 21-23 years old) with rather short-term relationships (on average just over 12 months). In addition, the study included people who reported not currently being in an intimate relationship. Finally, data were collected from one member of a couple which provides only one perspective on a relational variable.

Attempting to overcome some of the shortcomings of Falbo and Peplau's (1980) study, Howard, Blumstein, and Schwartz (1986) obtained a sample of 235 couples in which both partners participated (98 heterosexual couples, 62 lesbian couples and 75 gay male couples). One aspect of the study was the identification of an underlying structure of power exertion strategies used by couples. Borrowing heavily from the identification work of power strategies by Falbo and Peplau (1980), as well as from other studies and theories of influence (Cody, McLaughlin, & Jordan, 1980; Kipnis, Castell, Gergen, & Mauch, 1976; Marwell & Schmitt, 1967a; 1967b), they selected 24 strategies or "influence tactics". The respondents were asked "when your partner wants you to do something you do not want to do, how often does (he/she) do each of the following?".

The participants were asked to then provide their response on a 9-point scale ranging from "always" to "never". These responses were submitted to a factor analysis with the chosen resulting model containing six factors (manipulation, supplication, bullying, autocracy, disengagement, and bargaining) with three items not loading on any the factors (nag, distort truth, and get angry). These six factors were further divided according to whether they were weak strategies (manipulation and supplication), strong strategies (bullying and autocracy), or neutral strategies (bargaining and disengagement).

In describing what type of person was more likely used the various types of strategies, Howard and colleagues (1986) found that partners of men were more likely to be perceived as using weak strategies. This finding was regardless of whether the partner was a woman or a gay man. Interestingly, neither gender nor sexual orientation had an effect on the perceived use of strong tactics or neutral tactics.

Although this study clearly addressed some of the limitations of the previous work, it has shortcomings as well. One is that the question of frequency of usage of power exertion strategies is addressed from only one perspective. Thus, one partner reports on the other's strategies but not on his/her own. This may create an emphasis on direct or obvious power strategies partially because some partners may not be aware of the more subtle power strategies used by their partner (e.g., positive affect, smiling a lot.

Another shortcoming of the Howard et al. (1986) study is that the usefulness of the findings of the factor analytically derived model is questionable. Although they are relatively strong factors, if one examines the actual reported frequencies of how much each couple uses each of the individual components or items loading on the factors then the utility of performing a factor analysis is questionable. On a nine point scale with one

being interpreted as *never* and nine as *always*, the mean frequencies of five of the six factor range between 1.9 (Bullying) and 3.5 (Manipulation) with the sixth mean in mid-range at 5.2 (Bargaining). This means that most of the people are reporting that they use 18 of the 21 strategies infrequently, if at all. Thus, a factor analysis of this data is really a factor analysis of strategies that people report not using.

Aida and Falbo (1991) examined use of influence strategies in 42 couples who were classified as *egalitarian* (couple members viewed themselves as equally responsible for financially providing for family) or *traditional* (couples viewed the husband as responsible for providing for family). The results indicated that there were neither gender differences nor couple type differences in terms of the types of influence strategies used (bilateral, unilateral, direct or indirect). Similar to other studies (e.g., Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Rosenbluth & Steil, 1995), Aida and Falbo (1991) found that use of direct-bilateral strategies was associated with higher levels of relationship intimacy and satisfaction. Conversely, the use of indirect-unilateral strategies was associated with lower levels of intimacy and greater dissatisfaction with the intimate relationship.

In another study focussing on gender, resources, and influence strategies, Steil and Weltman (1992) studied a sample of 60 professional, dual-career couples. The couples were sampled so that for 30 couples the woman earned at least one-third more than her male partner. The other half of the sample was reversed, with the men earning at least one third more than their female partners. The study's authors reported no gender differences in the extent to which men and women described themselves as oriented towards autonomy, dominance or achievement. The most frequently used strategy for

both men and women was the direct request. Use of indirect strategies was associated with lower self-confidence and with less financial resources.

In a recent study, Ball et al. (1995) studied 27 couples using a multi-method approach to determine the presence of gender differences in perceptions of influence among couples. Couples were asked to discuss a self-selected problem during which they were videotaped. Couple members were then individually audio-taped while viewing the videotape of their discussion. In addition, observers rated the couples' discussions on both quantitative and qualitative variables. The study's main findings were that women more frequently mobilized the couple to discuss a problem and to reach a concrete solution. Men were more likely to define and elaborate the problem and to limit the emotional depth and terrain covered by the discussion. As well, it was determined that women's marital satisfaction was higher when there was concordance between partners in how they perceived the discussion.

Similar to Ball et al. (1995), Sprecher and Felmlee (1997) found that women and men in intimate relationships had different perceptions with regards to the power balance in the relationship. Using a sample of 101 couples who were surveyed five times over a four-year period, the authors found that perceptions of power in the relationship remained somewhat stable over the four-year period. The less emotionally involved partner in the couple (most often the male partner) was more often perceived as the more powerful couple member. An additional finding was that men, more frequently than women, perceived a male dominance power balance in the relationship.

Frieze and McHugh (1992) collected in-depth interview data from 274 women to compare influence strategies used in violent and non-violent marriages. Unlike previous

studies, the most common strategies the women reported using overall were indirect-positive strategies (e.g., being affectionate, being nice). Similarly, overall, the participants most frequently reported that their male partners used indirect-positive strategies as well. The study found that women in violent marriages reported using more influence strategies in comparison to women in non-violent marriages. The results of the study indicate that a positive-negative dimension for influence strategies should be added to the dimensions of laterality and directness to account for more violent and coercive strategies.

One recent study in the area of influence strategies and intimate relationships focussed on the very specific situation of attempting to influence a partner to use a condom (Chapman De Bro, Campbell, & Peplau, 1994). Using a college sample of 393 students, the authors collected opinions and experiences with six "condom power strategies". Strategies were gender-typed according to the goal of the strategy. Strategies having the goal of persuading condom use were labelled "feminine". Strategies having the goal of avoiding condom use were labelled "masculine". Men reported using the strategy of seduction more frequently than did women, regardless of the goal of the strategy (either avoiding or encouraging condom use). Women reported using the strategy of withholding sex when trying to encourage their partners to wear a condom. The authors concluded that even when women and men have the same goal of using a condom during intercourse, they adopt gender-based influence strategies to achieve the goal.

Influence and power in relation to group and member characteristics With the delineation of types of power exertion strategies, the connection between group and

member characteristics and choice of strategy can be examined. A relatively large amount of work has already been completed in this area partially due to the popularity of examining group and member characteristics within psychology. However, no systematic effort has been made to understand power processes according to member characteristics (Szinovacz, 1987). Rather, power processes have usually been used to explain member characteristics. The main area that has examined processes and characteristics is that of personality research.

Two areas within personality research that have been shown to have a connection to the degree and manner in which people exhibit power-related behaviour, as well as their choice of strategies, are personality dimensions and feelings of powerfulness. Two of the personality dimensions most often linked to power exertion strategies are machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970) and authoritarianism (Adorno, 1950). Individuals who score high on machiavellianism are often competitive and exploitive however, they tend to use indirect and nonrational strategies which allow them greater ability to be manipulative (Falbo, 1977b). In contrast, authoritarian people (men especially) tend to use more direct and rational methods, however, they are more likely to engage in retaliation (Friedell, 1967) and competitive bargaining (Rubin & Brown, 1975).

Feelings of powerfulness are embedded within the concepts of self-confidence and self-esteem. People who lack self-confidence and have low levels of self-esteem tend to choose competitive and coercive strategies (Minton, 1967). Another widely used measure of feeling of powerfulness is locus of control (Rotter, 1966). The evidence on the effect of locus of control of power exertion processes is inconclusive (Szinovacz, 1987). Some research has indicated that those with an internal locus of control tend to

use exploitive strategies, whereas, other research has claimed that people with an external locus of control tend to use more punishing strategies (Assor & O'Quinn, 1982).

One additional aspect specific to couples and power is relationship satisfaction. In the review by Gray-Little and Burks (1983) on the subject, they concluded that egalitarian couples who were syncratic (husband and wife wield power or make decisions jointly) were the happiest of types of couples. Wife-dominant couples reported being the least happy. Husband-dominant couples were somewhat more satisfied than egalitarian-autonomic couples (each partner exercises control over certain areas). In addition, couples reporting low levels of marital satisfaction also tended to report or were observed using more coercive types of power exertion strategies than more satisfied couples.

Challenges and benefits in studying power and influence in intimate couples. Although a number of dyads can be used as subjects of study for students of power, marital or sexually intimate couples provide an interesting challenge. Even though there are a number of difficulties that go along with choosing to study couples because of the intimacy which is present, this intimacy has the beneficial effect of contributing to the understanding of the more subtle forms of power and influence.

From a review of the couples and power literature, there are four main difficulties regularly encountered while studying power and influence within intimate couples. The first of these is common to most couple-based research regardless of issue: incongruence between partners. Once it became clear that it was methodologically unacceptable to study one partner as representative of the couple (Huston & Robins, 1982; Thompson & Walker, 1982), studies began to include both partners, however, this led to problems of incongruence between partners. Studies designed to examine this incongruency found

that there were overall marked differences between partners in the description of their relationship on many different variables. Overall there was a similarity of response pattern within groups divided by gender (i.e., similar response pattern amongst men or within the "husband group") (Booth & Welch, 1978; Douglas & Wind, 1978; Quarm, 1981). Although incongruence has been explained by methodological inadequacies such as social desirability or question ambiguity, it appears that the incongruence may be more substantive. Szinovacz (1987) has attempted to explain this difference according to a "cognitive dissonance bias" which occurs in couples when the marital reality deviates from their expectationsThis incongruence may not so much be a "deviation from expectations", but rather, a different set of expectations which produces incongruent responses. As was assessed in the current study, incongruence may be attributed to the difference in "subjective frameworks". For example, the two partners may operate from different "subjective frameworks" regarding various aspects of their relationship, such as what constitutes satisfaction, communication or power.

The second difficulty in studying couples, somewhat specific to power and influence, concerns the study of "chains of influence" (Huston, 1983). According to Huston (1983), people influence one another in a chain like fashion of connections. Influence is generally easier to separate and understand if the influence occurs: between two chains (or people) who are less closely connected, and the influence is asymmetrical or one person is clearly dominant. In couples, almost by definition, the occurrence of either of these situations is rare. As a result, studying influence and resulting power within couples is relatively more difficult than amongst other dyads in which the people

are less closely connected, such as acquaintances, or dyads in which there is a clear, socially acceptable asymmetry, such as boss and worker.

The third difficulty in studying couples and power is the sensitivities that the topic arouses within participants (Huston, 1983). For a multitude of reasons, people may be reluctant to talk about power and influence within their intimate relationships. Perhaps one reason people find the topic of power and marriage or intimacy distasteful is because marriage is commonly deemed to be egalitarian in nature (Gerstel & Gross, 1982; Greenglass, 1985; Mansfield, McAllister & Collard, 1992). Power is often conceived of as being "one up or one down" rather than as a dynamic, ever-changing concept (Szinovacz, 1987) and, as a result, does not fit with the concept of equality for most people. Another reason may be that one's intimate relationship is somewhat of an "oasis" from the often structural, hierarchical nature of work where power is often obvious. Finally, the existence of violence as a form of power in the relationship may lead participants to be reticent in discussing power tactics.

Finally, a fourth difficulty in studying couples and power is compatibility. Although compatibility may be a predictor of marital satisfaction, it provides difficulty for the power researcher. If conflict is a necessary condition of power exertion (Duke, 1976; Rollins & Bahr, 1976), then there may be fewer opportunities in which power is displayed among highly compatible couples (Huston, 1983). This situation leads to difficulty in seeing examples of power being displayed providing less "data" for the researcher.

The benefits of choosing couples as the dyad within which to study issues of power are three-fold. In the first place, intimate couples provide the researcher the

chance to examine power within one of the closest relationships most people have and desire in their lifetime. The level of self- and other-knowledge found in couples is often not found in other dyadic relationships such as supervisor-worker (Offerman & Schrier, 1985). This intimacy provides two sources of rich details of self and other within which to understand power.

Another benefit of studying couples is that one can learn about how power and influence operate in a supposedly egalitarian relationship. Unlike many of the other dyads within which power has been studied, such as parent-child (Savin-Williams & Small, 1986) or older-younger siblings (Furman & Burmaster, 1985), the marital couple is considered more egalitarian (Gerstel & Gross, 1982; Greenglass, 1985; Mansfield, McAllister & Collard, 1992). As others have claimed, the rise of women's equality has not erased power from marital relationships, but rather, has altered the type of power exertion strategies used by partners (Szinovacz, 1987). This provides researchers an opportunity to study power in modern egalitarian marriages vs. traditional hierarchical marriages.

One final benefit of choosing to study power within couples is that there are copious amounts of good research completed in other areas on couples. For example, work has been completed on couple communication patterns (Christensen, 1987; Christensen & Heavy, 1990; deTurck & Miller, 1986a; 1986b; Fitzpatrick, 1988), relationship satisfaction and adjustment (Schumm, Paff-Bergen, Hatch, Obiorah, Copeland, Meens, & Bugaighis, 1985; Spanier 1976), and relationship beliefs (Eidelson & Epstein, 1987). This past work has provided a number of reliable, valid measurements of these concepts that can then provide the nexus between components such as member

characteristics and power exertion strategies or situational contingencies and control outcomes.

Methodological issues

As previously mentioned, the difficulties in measuring power and related concepts have led some researchers to call for the abandonment of the concept (Turk, 1975) or at the very least, to call for major reconceptualizations of what is considered to be power (McDonald, 1980). Measurement techniques continue to lag behind the level of conceptual sophistication of many of the studies on power (Shehan & Lee, 1990).

Power and influence in intimate relationships have been primarily studied using either self-reports or behavioural observation. One of the main issues in using self-reports to measure power issues in couples is that of incongruence between partners (Szinovacz, 1987) which was discussed previously. Another concern with self-report data is that little is known as to how people come to their conclusions regarding who has power in a relationship (Huston, 1983). Additionally, self-reports about power require that not only must an individual have accurate memories of who "won", but also he/she is able to determine that changes which did occur were the result of power and not the result of some other cause (Huston, 1983).

In a similar fashion, there are a number of difficulties in studying power using behavioural observation methodology. Many behavioural observation studies are necessarily conducted in the lab, however, the artificiality of many lab situations or discussions leads to questionable generalizability of results to everyday marital interactions (Huston, 1983; Szinovacz, 1987). As previously mentioned, many power

strategies cannot be observed in the lab situation either because they are of too intimate a nature, require optimum timing, or require a long time, and repeated application (Huston, 1983). As well, the presence of a third party may disrupt the normal processes of the couple under observation, producing an onstage effect and impression management (Huston, 1983; Szinovacz, 1987).

In addition to problems within each of these methods, a comparison of results between these methods illustrates low convergent and discriminant validity. There remain high intercorrelations within methods, but these drop substantially when compared across methods (Cromwell, Klein, & Weiting, 1975). According to Szinovacz (1987), this discrepancy between types of measures can be accounted for if one considers that the type of data collected by each method is different. "Observational and self-report data touch on divergent realities (outsider's and insider's) and are thus inherently distinct" (p.657). An example of divergent realities is illustrated in Szinovacz's conceptualization of the different types of power is presented in Table 1. One of the unique contributions of the current study is that the measurement of the subjective framework with which a person understands and perceives power within his/her intimate relationships. To date, it appears that no research has been completed on this aspect of power within couples. The current study uses Q-methodology as the main approach. The measurement of individual subjectivity is of primary concern in Q-methodology. As a result, a brief overview of Q-methodology describing its main tenets, flexibility, and shortcomings is provided below.

Q-methodology. Q-methodology has been an approach within the social sciences for over 40 years, however, relatively few researchers have attempted to understand

people using this approach (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Q-method is an approach to studying operant subjectivity, a concept discussed in greater detail below. The method was developed by Stephenson (1953), a student of Charles Spearman. Stephenson designed Q-method as an alternative way of thinking about studying behaviour. The primary technique of Q-methodology, Q-sorting, has proven to be a flexible, ipsative technique of having people rate items from which can be derived data suitable for either constructing subjective frameworks or for performing normative-based analyses such as traditional factor analysis or analysis of variance (e.g., Block, 1978). To better understand the Q-method approach, this portion of the paper is composed of five sections: a review of the concept of operant subjectivity, a review of the major tenets of Q-method, differences between Q-methodology and R-methodology, an attempt to address the current misconceptions of Q-method, and, finally, a section exploring the possibilities of using Q- and R- methodology in a complementary, combined fashion..

Operant subjectivity is at the heart of Q-method. The need for a different methodology can only be argued if the current popular methods are lacking in some areas or if they can provide "new worthwhile direction or a promising approach to old issues" (Brown , 1980, p.1). The current popular approach to studying behaviour remains that of studying people from an *external* point of view (R-methodology). The standpoint is that of the researcher who begins with his viewpoint against which he/she measures various concepts of interest. "Theories have been entertained by the investigator, consequences have been hypothetically explicated by him [sic], relevant categories have been conceived, measures have been constructed, respondents queried, and scores obtained and analyzed" (Brown, 1980, p.1,). In contrast, very little work has gone into understanding

concepts from the *internal* viewpoint of a person being studied. Surprisingly, subjectivity remains understudied considering many researchers in psychology use external methods which are assumed to tap internal states, or frameworks, of the individual.

If one accepts the idea that behavioural scientists need to know about the internal frameworks of people in order to fully understand behavioural concepts, then much of the research on concepts such as attitude, personality, and interpersonal power has been completed from an external standpoint, with possibly little understanding of people's internal frameworks and perceptions of these concepts. A number of linguists, cognitive psychologists, and philosophers such as Wittgenstien (1971), have proposed that relationships with words and meanings differ significantly according to each individual. If this is the case, then how two people respond or give meaning to the same scale item may differ depending on personal significance or relevance despite perhaps producing the same response.

Q-method was developed to examine human subjectivity (Stephenson, 1953) or to understand how people give meaning to things according to their personal relevance. Q-technique consists of a person placing a number of objects (Q-sample) in relation to one another according to personal significance. The resulting array of items represents a Q-sort. Q-sorts are considered an individual's model of reality based in personal relevancewith regards to the subject under study. The person uses the Q-sample to provide a model of his/her framework vis-à-vis the subject under study. (Brown, 1980).

Usually, a number of Q-sorts from different people using the same Q-sample are then correlated and factor analyzed (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Rather than analyzing an item by item correlation matrix, a person by person correlation matrix is analyzed.

This produces factors representative of clusters of people who have ranked items of the Q-sample in a similar manner. The factors point to categories of operant subjectivity (Stephenson, 1977) or shared frameworks.

R-methodology remains the more popular method of research providing a number of methods based on the correlation coefficient (e.g., multiple regression, factor analysis, structural equation modelling). One of the easier ways of understanding the fundamental concepts of Q-methodology is to compare and contrast it with the more common R-methodology. The comparison table below was constructedusing a number of works describing Q-methodology (Brown, 1980; 1986; Brown & Brenner, 1972; McKeown &Thomas, 1988; Stephenson, 1953).

Insert Table 2

As illustrated in Table 2, Q-methodology provides not only a new technique (Q-sort) to be added to the repertoire existing within R-methodology (Block, 1978), but also, an alternative approach to studying a subject often overlooked by R-methodologists, namely subjectivity (Brown, 1980).

It should be noted that Table 2 has been included to describe Q-methodology focussing on the strengths or opportunities that Q-methodology provides a researcher. By using a compare and contrast approach with R-methodology to describe Q-methodology, we may have raised the question of "which is the *better* approach?" An appropriate answer to this question is that it depends entirely on what type of research question one is attempting to answer. If one is attempting to understand the underlying processes people

use to perceive various aspects of their relationships, then most likely an approach similar to Q-method is "*better*". In contrast, if one is attempting to understand the relationship between the rate at which individuals use certain influence strategies and the level of conflict in the relationship, than an approach similar to R-methodology is "*better*". By including an awareness and knowledge of various approaches from different methods in his or her repertoire, a researcher can then better respond to the more important question of "which approach is most *appropriate?*"

A number of misconceptions have been formulated surrounding Q-method (Brown, 1980). These tend to take one of three forms that will be described briefly below. The first is that Q-method is equated with Q-sort (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). In making this equation, the philosophical distinctions are often lost. With this loss, what is actually an approach to thinking about people is relegated to a way to sort some cards. This unfortunate condensation of an approach to a technique may be one of the reasons that Q-method has never enjoyed popularity with researchers.

Another misconception of the initial purposes of Q-methodology has been its use as an objective measurement of behaviour. Block's (1978) work in constructing the California Q-set has been one of the most cited examples within psychology in regards to Q-sort method. Block used the Q-sort method in a primarily normative fashion. His construction of a Q-sort was for the purpose of creating a tool with which observers such as psychiatrists and psychologists could come to relatively quick summations of a patient's behaviour. Incongruence on selected items was solved by either removing the item from the sample or by having the sorters discuss until they come to an agreement on the placement of an item. Although very useful, the popularity of using a normative

approach to analysing Q-sort data has often precluded the use of Q-sort data in a more constructionist approach (Kitzinger & Stainton-Rogers, 1985) as a measure of subjectivity.

Finally, one of the major misconceptions about Q-method which at one point caused it to be abandoned as a viable method for a number of years is that it is "inverted factor analysis" (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Inverted factor analysis refers to the standard raw data matrices that provide the structure for the correlational matrices used in factor analysis. Initially, Q-method was proposed as an inversion of matrices, however, it was discovered that r-matrices were rarely suitable for Q-analysis (Brown, 1980). This is due to the units of measurement often differing across columns which makes correlation in an inverted fashion nonsensical. An example is shown below in Figure 1 in which the question of interest to a researcher is the link between intelligence, locus of control, and creativity.

Insert Figure 1

Using R-methodology, the researcher finds or constructs a reliable, valid measure of each of these constructs and then has three different people fill out each of the measures. This results in the data depicted in Matrix A. Because each column consists of the same base measurement, each number within a column is based on the same unit of measurement. Thus, a mean for each column or variable can be obtained and correlations between variables can be calculated. As is demonstrated in Matrix B, an inverted Matrix A becomes relatively useless. Although a mean is calculable, it is meaningless because

of the different units of measurements. Stephenson (1953) proposed that by following the Q-sorting process, units of measurements become uniform for the variables (persons) because all judgements are premised on the common unit of self-significance.

The Present Study

Rationale. Despite power and influence having been topics of study for at least the past four decades, there remain a number of gaps, especially in the area of power and influence in couples. The present study is an attempt to address some of the gaps that remain by using a methodology previously not used in the study of power and influence in couples. In addition, the study focusses on the lesser studied area of perceived power processes rather than power bases or power outcomes. The third contribution of the study is the examination of power and influence in couples from a multi-perspective approach involving the perceptions from both members of a couple. In addition to reporting from the perspective of oneself, participants were also asked to report on their perceptions of the power processes used by their partners. As well, participants reported on what the they perceived would be the power processes of an "ideal person". This relatively in-depth examination of how individuals think about and perceive power processes combined with the uncovering of structures of subjective frameworks used by couple members contributes to a literature that has often relied on a brief self-report of one perspective on power outcomes.

Hypotheses and exploratory research questions. Prior to the collection of data, a number of hypotheses and exploratory research questions were generated to guide the research. The formulated hypotheses and research questions are stated below.

Framework construction and description
Power exertion strategies within couples from the *self-perspective*
• ***Hypothesis:*** Structural commonalities exist between people in how they view their use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships • ***Hypothesis:*** The types of subjective frameworks can be described and identified according to the most salient power exertion strategies • ***Hypothesis:*** People use the dimensions of laterality and directness to structure how they view their use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships • ***Research question:*** What are the common characteristics of people who share similar subjective frameworks in how they view their use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships?
Power exertion strategies within couples from the *partner-perspective*
• ***Hypothesis:*** Structural commonalities exist between people in how they view their partner's use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships • ***Hypothesis:*** The types of subjective frameworks describing how partners are perceived can be described and identified according to the most salient power exertion strategies • ***Hypothesis:*** People use the dimensions of laterality and directness to structure how they view their partner's use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships • ***Research question:*** What are the common characteristics of people who share similar subjective frameworks in how they view their partner's use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships?
Power exertion strategies within couples from the *ideal-perspective*
• ***Hypothesis:*** Structural commonalities exist between people in how they view the ideal person's use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships • ***Hypothesis:*** The types of subjective frameworks describing the ideal person can be described and identified according to the most salient power exertion strategies • ***Hypothesis:*** People use the dimensions of laterality and directness to structure how they view the ideal person's use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships • ***Research question:*** What are the common characteristics of people who share similar subjective frameworks in how they view the ideal person's use of power exertion strategies within their intimate relationships?

Exploratory Research Questions about relation between similarities in frameworks and gender, perspective-taking, relationship adjustment, intimacy, and impression management
• ***Research question:*** Are women's partner-perceived frameworks more similar to their partner's self frameworks than vice-versa?
• ***Research question:*** Are similarities between Q-sorts related to perspective-taking?
• ***Research question:*** Are similarities between Q-sorts related to marital adjustment?
• ***Research question:*** Are similarities between Q-sorts related to intimacy?
• ***Research question:*** Are similarities between Q-sorts related to impression management?

Method

Participants

Participants were heterosexual couples who had cohabited for at least six months, and who reported that there was, at the time of recruitment, no physical violence between partners. In addition, participants were stratified according to length of relationship, level of education, income, and whether they were parents. Both members of the couple had to be willing to participate in the study. Participants were recruited via posters in various locations in downtown Ottawa. Each participant was paid $30 for participating in the study.

Q-methodology using inverted factor analysis techniques requires far fewer participants than the more traditional R-methodology approach to factor analysis. The tradition in Q-methodology is to have at least twice as many statements (items) as there are participants (Brown, 1980). This ratio permits a balance between statistical power and interpretive power. Following these guidelines, for the current study that used 60 statements, a sample size of 30 participants was warranted. However, to examine the replicability of factor structure, the participant sample was approximately doubled. Usable data were obtained from 54 participants from 27 couples.

Initially, sixty individuals from 30 couples participated in the study. Members from two of the 30 couples were unable to complete the computerised Q-sort task due to a lack of computer skills. Another couple's data were not usable due to a computer

malfunction during the data collection process. The data collected from these three couples were removed from the analyses.

In order to obtain a varied participant sample, an attempt was made to stratify the participant sample according to length of time cohabiting, education level as a gross indicator of socio-economic status, and whether the couple members had children. Table 3 contains the results of this attempt at stratification. As illustrated, the attempt at stratification was partially successful with overrepresentation in some stratification cells (e.g., no university degree, no children, and cohabiting less than 5 years) and under-representation in other cells (e.g., no university degree, children, and cohabiting less than 5 years). Although at the cell level of stratification there were some areas under- or over-represented, at the variable level the stratification was moderately successful. For the overall sample, 56 percent had cohabited less than five years. Approximately 60 percent of couples had at least one couple member with a university degree. Finally, 63 percent of couples did not have children.

Insert Table 3

Approximately two thirds of couples (63%) reported that they were married. The remaining couples (37%) reported living in common-law relationships. One third of the participants (33%) had children with their current partner. All had been cohabiting for at least 6 months (M=7.3 years; SD=8.1; range 0.5 years to 26.4 years). The age of participants ranged from 19 to 55 years (M=29.4 years; SD=9.16 years).

The participants were relatively well-educated, having attended some community college (2%), graduated from community college (11%), completed some university courses (39%), graduated with a bachelor's degree (15%), completed some professional or graduate courses (17%), and graduated with a professional or graduate degree (17%). Most couples (65%) reported combined annual earnings of less than $40,000 with a range of under $10,000 to over $100,000.

Measures

Three sets of measures were used: 1) two screening measures; 2) three Q-sort measures; and, 3) eight scales to measure various constructs related to interpersonal influence.

Screening Measures. Participants completed the following two self-report measures as screening instruments prior to being invited to the laboratory portion of the study.

Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix A). This questionnaire was designed to measure some of the demographics of the individuals such as age, gender, length of relationship, individual and combined income, occupation, married or common-law, and number of children.

Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS) - Straus (1979); additional 9 items from Astin, Ogland-Hand, Coleman, and Foy (1995) (Appendix A). The purpose for including the CTS was to screen out couples in which there were reports from either partner of violence. The reason for screening out couples in which there were reports of violence was that power structures may be significantly different (Gelles & Cornell, 1990; Thompson & Walker, 1989). The presence of absence of violence was not a variable of

study for the present work.

The CTS is a 19-item Likert type questionnaire designed to assess individual responses to situations within the family involving conflict. It consists of three scales: reasoning, verbal aggression, and violence. Respondents are asked to indicate how often their partner did each of nineteen actions to them within the past twelve months. In addition, they are asked if their partner has ever done each of the actions within their relationship. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the three subscales have been found to range between .42 and .88. Although the CTS can be used to measure a number of different dyads within a family (i.e., parent-child, sibling-sibling), for the present study the items have been worded so the respondent will refer to the relationship with his/her partner. For the present study, nine additional items were included from the nineteen suggested by Astin, Ogland-Hand, Coleman, and Foy (1995). These were designed to tap "low-levels" of violence and abuse. The full scale with the additional 19 items has been shown to correlate highly with the original 19-item scale ($r = .93$).

Q-sort measures. In Q-methodology, the Q-sample is the set of items that the participants are asked to sort. In the case of the present study, the items were various power exertion strategies. According to McKeown and Thomas (1990), a Q-sample of 40-60 items is usually sufficient. The present study used 60 items as its Q-sample.

One of the main issues in Q-methodology is the sampling process of items. The goal of the sampling process is to obtain a varied, cross section of opinions (or in case of the present study, power exertion strategies). In order to get a broad array of items, most researchers choose one of two methods for collecting statements: unstructured or structured (McKeown & Thomas, 1990). Unstructured sampling consists of the

researcher choosing items that are presumed to be relevant to the topic creating somewhat of a "survey". The researcher using this method doesn't make an undue effort to insure that all sub-issues are covered by the sample. The major problem with this type of sampling is that some issues may be over-represented or underrepresented in the Q-sample creating undesired bias within the Q-sorts. Structured sampling attempts to address the shortcomings of the unstructured sampling technique by systematically collecting items. As part of this systematic collection, the researcher takes into account hypothetical considerations.

Once a form of sampling has been chosen, it is necessary to decide whether to collect statements from naturalistic sources, ready-made sources, or a combination of the two sources. Naturalistic sources involve collecting items from people who could be potential participants themselves. Ready-made sources involve collecting items from external sources such as questionnaires or previous research.

The Q-sample for the present study was generated using a structured process from ready-made sources. The 60 power exertion strategies were chosen to be representative of the two relatively robust dimensions of bilateral/unilateral strategies and direct/indirect strategies that have been described in the literature on power exertion strategies (i.e., Falbo, 1977; Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Prachar, Pinsent & Hunsley, 1990). Table 4 contains the power strategies and their hypothesized affiliation with these two dimensions. Because of the previous research using an inductive approach to item development in which participants were asked to produce the various power exertion strategies they use in their interpersonal relationships (Falbo, 1977; Falbo & Peplau, 1980), Q-sample items for the present study could be collected from previous studies.

Developing the Q-sample for the present work involved a process consisting of four steps. Initially, types of power exertion strategies were collected from a variety of studies to include as much breadth as possible. Power exertion strategies were collected from the following studies: Coward, Drinkard and MacGavin (1984); Falbo (1977); Falbo & Peplau(1980); Gruber and White (1986); Howard, Blumstein, and Schwartz (1986); McCormick, Brannigan and LaPlante (1984); and Offerman and Schrier (1985).. Some strategies were collected from studies with couples or couple members (e.g., Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Howard et al., 1986; McCormick et al., 1984), while other strategies were collected from studies involving other groups including peers and friends (e.g, Falbo, 1977; Cowan et al., 1984), students' perceptions of strategies used by "average men and women" (e.g., Gruber & White, 1986), adolescents and parents (e.g, Cowan et al., 1984), and employers and supervisors (e.g., Offermand & Schrier, 1985).

The second step in developing the Q-sample was to categorise the various strategies according to the dimensions of laterality and directness. Many of the strategies had previously been categorised according to the two dimensions, particularly those strategies extracted from the Falbo and Peplau (1980) study. Table 4 contains the results of this categorisation process conducted by the present author.

The third step was to stratify the Q-sample according to the two dimensions. During this process, the attempt was made to keep a similar number of power exertion strategies from each of the four quadrants resulting from the two dimensions. This was to prevent introducing bias into the Q-sample (e.g., large proportion of direct, bilateral strategies). The results of this stratification process is presented in Table 5.

The final step involved developing specific Q-sort items representing the various power exertion strategies. The items for the three Q-sorts were written in phrases with the ideal person, the self, or the partner as the "actor" depending on the perspective being measured. The actual items for the three Q-sorts are contained in Appendix B.

Insert Tables 4 and 5

Construct measures. In addition, to the Q-sorts and screening measures, participants completed a package containing eight separate scales designed to measure constructs previously demonstrated in the literature to be related to methods of interpersonal influence.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) - Spanier (1976) (Appendix C). The DAS is a 32 item scale designed to measure marital or couple adjustment. The scale consists of Likert-style items in either 7-,6-,5-, or 2- point response formats. It contains four sub-scales: consensus, satisfaction, cohesion, and affectional expression. The global scoring method (summary of all four scales) for the scale produces high internal consistency (.90). A short form of the scale (7 items) was demonstrated to have similar psychometric properties (Hunsley, Pinsent, Lefebvre, James-Tanner, & Vito, 1995). The short form demonstrated an internal consistency of .82 in the Hunsley et al. study. As a result, the short-form was used in the present study. For the present study, internal consistency demonstrated by Cronbach's alpha was measured as moderate at .69.

MACH IV - Christie and Geiss (1970) (Appendix C). This 20-item scale is designed to measure the personality construct of machiavellianism. Responses are made on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7).

The reported mean split-half reliability is .79. The present study found the scale's internal consistency to be a moderate .61.

Hong's Psychological Reactance Scale - Hong and Page (1989) (Appendix C). This is a 14-item Likert type questionnaire designed to measure psychological reactance as proposed by Brehm (1966). Respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with statements using a 5-point scale ranging *completely disagree* (1) to *completely agrree* (5). Previous studies have demonstrated that the scale has reasonable internal consistency (Cronbach alpha = .77) and high test-retest stability over a 2-week period (.89). The present study found a similar level of internal consistency (.79).

Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding - Impression Management sub-scale (BIDR-IM) Paulhaus (1991) (Appendix C). The BIDR-IM is designed to measure impression management. It consists of 20 items that are responded to on a 7-point Likert style scale ranging from "not true" to "very true". Once the negatively keyed items are reversed, only the extreme responses of 6 or 7 are kept and summed producing the overall score for the sub-scale. The IM sub-scale has internal consistency measurements of .75 and test-retest reliability of .65 over a 5-week period. In addition, it demonstrates convergent and discriminant validity. The present study obtained a moderate alpha of .62.

Miller Social Intimacy Scale - Miller and Lefcourt (1982) (Appendix C) This is a 17-item, 10-point Likert-type questionnaire designed to assess the degree of closeness felt to a person with whom the respondent feels closest. The endpoints for six items are *very rarely* (1) and *almost always* (10). For the remaining eleven items, the endpoints range from *not much* (1) to *a great deal* (10). The scale has been demonstrated as having high internal consistency (.86-.91) as well as high test-retest reliability (.96) Convergent and discriminant validity has also been assessed. The present study found the scale had high internal consistency with an alpha of .86.

Self-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale (SDPT) & Other-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale (ODPT) - Long and Andrews (1990a; 1990b) (Appendix C). These two scales are designed to measure two separate dimensions of dyadic perspective taking: from the perspective of the self and from the perspective of one's partner. The SDPT consists of 13 items and the ODPT consists of 20 items. Responses for the scales' items are made on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from *does not describe me (my partner) very well* (0) to *does describe me (my partner) very well* (4). Each scale shows reasonable internal consistency (Cronbach alpha: SDPT, .86 (husbands) to .88 (wives); ODPT, .93 (husbands) to .95 (wives)). Work has also been completed regarding its concurrent validity. The present study found an alpha of .80 for the SDPT and .87 for the ODPT.

General Population Dominance Scale (GPDS) – Ray (1981) (Appendix C). This scale is designed to measure dominance within the general population. The GPDS consists of 30 items which are rated by a respondent as to whether they describe (Yes), do not describe (No), or unsure whether they describe (?) the respondent. The scale has been demonstrated to have high reliability (coefficient alpha = .89). As well, the scale's validity was confirmed by correlating scores with peer ratings (.40) and other related constructs such as directiveness (.84). The scale demonstrated high levels of internal consistency in the present study with a resulting alpha of .86.

Sex-Role Egalitarian Scale – Short-Form (SRES-BB) – King & King (1986; 1994) (copyrighted so items are not included in Appendices). The SRES is a scale designed to measure attitudes towards equality between the sexes. The scale is designed to measure attitudes across five domains of adult living: marital, parental, employment, social-interpersonal-heterosexual, and education. The original SRES contains 95-items, however, for the present study one of the 25-item short forms was used. The short form has been demonstrated to have good reliability (coefficient alpha = .94) and to have

similar characteristics to the long-form SRES. Respondents use a 5-point scale to indicate their level of agreement ranging from *strongly agree* (1) to *strongly disagree* (5). Evidence for the validity of the scale includes significant differences between men and women, between college majors of psychology and business administration, and between age groups (as reported in King & King, 1990). The short form used for the present study demonstrated a lower level of internal consistency than reported in previous studies. The internal consistency for the present study was measured as .69.

The descriptive statistics for each construct measure obtained with the sample from the current study are contained in Table 6.

Insert Table 6

Apparatus

IBM compatible microcomputers, located in individual testing rooms, were used to administer and collect data for the Q-sort portion of the study. Each computer was equipped with a mouse and a 14-inch colour monitor. The computer program used for presenting the Q-sort tasks and for collecting data was developed using Microsoft Visual Basic Professional 4.0. Copies of the main screens for the Q-sort program are contained in Appendix D.

Procedure

Once potential participants indicated that they were interested in participating in the study, they were mailed two self-report screening packages to their residences (Appendix A). The screening package contained a letter describing the purpose of the

study and the types of tasks participants would be asked to complete. Each couple member's package contained two copies of the consent form, a demographic questionnaire, and an adapted version of the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979). Participants were instructed to complete the questionnaires, sign one copy of the consent form, and then return the completed forms in a sealed envelope to the researcher. If participants met the screening criteria (varied demographic profiles and no violence present) then the couple was invited to a testing session at a university laboratory.

Overall, 160 couples participated in the screening phase of the study. No couples were screened out for violence. Forty-nine couples were screened out due to the pre-requisite number of couples with similar demographic profiles having already been accepted to participate in the study. These couples were primarily couples who had been cohabiting less than five years and did not have children. An additional 17 couples were screened out because they were members of same-gender couples. Sixty-three couples were screened out because they were either not currently cohabiting, or had been cohabiting less than six months at the time of the study. Two couples returned the package wishing not to participate because of the difficulty in finding childcare during the lab portion of the study. An additional four couples were screened out because both couple members were not sufficiently fluent in English to complete the task.

During the testing session, members of the couple were placed in separate testing rooms. Each participant was shown how to operate the equipment (mouse and computer). Participants were given an overall description of the tasks required to perform the three Q-sorts (ideal, self, and partner). All participants engaged in a practice

session of two or three minutes while the researcher was present so that they could ask any questions or request further clarification.

Once the practice session was completed, the researcher left the testing room and participants performed the Q-sort for the "ideal-perspective". Initially, participants sorted the 60 randomized statements into three piles of statements of "like the ideal person" (18 statements), "neither like nor unlike the ideal person"(24 statements), and "unlike the ideal person" (18 statements). Participants were free to change the position of cards as they worked their way through the task.

Following this initial sort, participants further sorted the three piles into eleven piles arranged in a normal distribution. The distribution of statements is contained in Table 7. Participants were restricted to sorting the pile of 18 statements labelled "most unlike the ideal person" into categories –5, -4, -3, and –2. Participants were restricted to sorting the statements in the pile labelled "neither like nor unlike the ideal person" into categories –1, 0, and +1. Finally, for the 18 statements labelled "most like the ideal person" participants were restricted to categories +2, +3, +4 and +5. Within the three main categories, participants were free to change and switch the placement of cards as they worked their way through the task.

Insert Table 7

Following the Ideal Q-sort, participant followed the same procedure for completing the Self Q-sort and the Partner Q-sort. Copies of the main screens for each of these Q-sorts are contained in Appendix D.

After completing the three Q-sorts, participants completed a self-report package containing the scales designed to measure intimacy, psychological reactance, dominance, perspective taking, dyadic adjustment, sex role egalitarianism, machivellianism, and impression management. Participants completed the self-report package while seated in individual testing rooms. Upon completion of the self-report package, participants were paid and debriefed with regards to the overall purpose of the study.

Results

This chapter contains the findings from the analyses. . Following an initial description of the plan for analyses, the results are grouped according to preliminary data analysis, principal component analyses (PCA), factor content analyses, and Q-sort pairs correlation analyses. Interpretation of the various results presented is contained in the following chapter containing the discussion.

Plan for Analyses

Four groups of analyses were performed. These included preliminary analyses, principal component analyses, factor content analyses, and the exploratory Q-sort pair correlation analyses.

Preliminary analyses. Initially, a preliminary data analysis was conducted. For the data sets collected via questionnaires (scales), this analysis involved examining the data for normality, missing data, and univariate outliers. For the data sets collected through the Q-sorts, an examination was conducted only for missing data. Other preliminary analyses for this data set were not necessary due to the fact that the methodology used to collect Q-data ensures normality and no outliers.

Principal component analyses (PCA). The analysis plan for the PCAs is presented in Figure 2. This overall process was followed for each of the three perspectives (self, partner, and ideal). The main purpose of conducting PCAs on the N X N matrices (participant by participant) is to determine the factor structure of the frameworks that people use to understand power exertion from various perspectives (self, partner, and ideal). The present study attempted to go further than determining factor structures by

actually attempting to replicate a similar factor structure in two separate samples. As previously explained, the participant sample was approximately doubled to give an adequate number of participants in a split sample design.

Insert Figure 2

Before describing the approach used for the present study, a brief description of traditional exploratory/confirmatory factor analysis is warranted to demonstrate the differences between the two approaches. If a researcher is using a traditional r-methodology approach, generally the analysis plan is to initially perform an exploratory factor analysis using I X I matrices (item by item). Once a reasonable exploratory model has been developed through the examination of number of factors and item factor loadings, a confirmatory factor analysis is performed on an independent sample. During the confirmatory analysis, a set number of factors are extracted, and items are restricted to load on certain factors. For example, Item 4 is restricted to loading on Factor Two in a three-factor solution. Once the confirmatory model is run, goodness of fit indices are examined to determine whether the model originally developed from the exploratory analyses has been confirmed with the new sample.

Using a Q-method approach, the traditional steps of exploratory/confirmatory factor analyses are not appropriate. The primary reason for this is that the researcher is working with N X N matrices rather than I X I matrices. As a result, it is not individual items that load on factors, but rather peoples' entire frameworks that load on factors.

Factor loadings under a Q-approach refer to particular individuals' frameworks rather than individual items. As a result, it would not make sense to assume that Individual 4 would load on Factor Two in a three-factor solution for two independent samples, to use the previous example. The exploratory/confirmatory model used with r-methodology is thus not appropriate for a Q-method approach. For the present study, an approach to replicating factor structure more appropriate to Q-methodology was attempted. This approach follows that outlined by McKeown and Thomas (1988).

As described in Figure 2., the initial step was to randomly divide the sample according to the stratification status of a couple. The stratification cells were randomly sorted. For example, the division process may have started with non-university graduates with no children who have cohabited less than five years, followed by university graduates with children who have cohabited for less than five years. Within each cell, couples were assigned a random number. Then within each cell, the random numbers were sorted from lowest to highest number. The lowest number couples would be assigned to Sample 1 and the highest number couples would be assigned to Sample 2 for that cell. For cells in which there were uneven numbers of couples, the "extra couple" was alternatively assigned to either Sample 1 or Sample 2. By originally sorting the stratification cells randomly, the bias of alternation was eliminated. As well, this alternation permitted the sample sizes to be comparable.

Once the overall sample had been randomly divided into Sample 1 and Sample 2, an exploratory PCA was performed using varimax rotation techniques for each sample. This produced an initial solution for each sample independently. Each initial solution was examined for number of factors, significant factor loadings, and primary factor

loadings. For a factor to remain in the solution, it had to have an eigenvalue of at least 1.00, have two significant factor loadings, and at least two "primary factor loadings". Primary factor loadings refer to loadings for individuals who have a significant factor loading only on that factor and do not have significant factor loadings on other factors (i.e., individuals did not cross-load across factors). For example, a factor may have many secondary, significant factor loadings but no loadings that are primary or the sole significant loading for a particular individual. Again, it should be noted that these derivations of initial solutions were conducted independently for each sample.

After examining the initial solutions for each sample according to the three sets of criteria, a derived solution was calculated independently for each sample. The derived solution for each sample was a second PCA restricted to the optimum number of factors.

Composite factor arrays or model Q-sorts were then calculated for each factor within each solution. Composite factor arrays were calculated by determining primary loadings for each factor, then weighting the individual's Q-sort for which there is a primary loading according to the magnitude of the loading. For example, a person who loads on Factor One of a solution at a magnitude of .85 would have his or her Q-sort weighted more heavily than a second person who has a primary loading on Factor One of .65. Once the weighting was completed, a composite factor array or model Q-sort was developed so each Q-item receives a representative score. A composite factor array was developed for each factor of each derived solution.

The factor arrays for the derived solutions for each sample were then compared to ascertain whether there were similarities that had been attained through independent analyses. Comparability of the two derived solutions was assessed according to three

criteria. The initial criteria was the number of factors in each derived solution. A second comparability assessment involved examining the correlations of factor arrays for the various power exertion strategies across samples. Finally, the third criteria involved a second order principal component analysis of the factor arrays for each factor from the derived solutions. The purpose of conducting a second-order PCA was to ascertain the extent to which there was a similar factor structure underlying the derived solutions from each of the two samples. For example, if there were three factors within each sample's solution then the results from the second-order PCA should demonstrate a similar structure. The second-order PCA permits the researcher to examine the structural commonalities underlying separately derived solutions.

The final steps in the analyses involved combining the two samples into an overall sample. A final PCA was run on the overall sample with the number of factors being restricted to the optimum number as determined from the comparability assessment.

Content of factors. The third set of analyses involved understanding the content of the factors. This set of analyses consisted of three processes. The first process involved developing a composite factor array or model Q-sort for each factor from the final PCA solution for each perspective (self, partner, and ideal). The second process consisted of determining the uses of the dimensions of laterality and directness in the PCA solutions. The third process involved examining the characteristics of individuals representative of each factor.

To develop composite factor arrays or model Q-sorts for each perspective, representative participants were selected for each factor. A participant was considered representative if she or he had a primary loading on a specific factor, that is, he or she had

a significant factor loading on a solitary factor. The Q-sorts of the representative participants were then used to develop the composite factor array or model Q-sort. The factor loadings of the representative participants were used to calculate proportional weights for individual Q-item scores. The weighting procedure ensured that the representative participants with larger primary factor loadings would contribute proportionately more to the definition of composite factor arrays in comparison to representatives with smaller factor loadings. Once the weighting system was developed, weights were applied to individual Q-sorts for representative participants. The sum of weighted scores were then calculated across participants per item. The sum of weighted scores for each of the 60 Q-sort items were then converted to z-scores. The z-scores were then converted to the original Q-sort distribution with a scale of +5 to –5. From these conversions and matchings, the most salient items for each model Q-sort were derived. Salient items were considered to be those at the extreme ends of the Q-sort or the "most like" or "most unlike". These were items that would have been placed in the ±4 and ±5 positions within the Q-sort and are therefore, the defining items of the Q-sort.

The second process used to determine the content of factors involved describing the factors according to the two dimensions of laterality and directness. Using the categorisation of items as described in Table 5, the scores from the composite factor arrays were submitted to a factorial analysis of variance to determine the explanatory power of these two dimensions for the PCA solutions. The ANOVA approach to factor description was modelled after that described by McKeown and Thomas (1988) and Brown (1980).

The third process was also designed to aid in the interpretation of frameworks. This involved examining various characteristics of representative participants for each factor within each perspective. With traditional factor analysis, factor labelling is usually completed according to the types of items loading on a particular factor. By being able to develop model Q-sorts as described above, the Q-method approach is able to also benefit from a similar type of interpretation. However, the Q-method approach permits an additional step in interpretation because rather than items loading on factors, the researcher has "individuals" loading on factors. Thus, the researcher is able to go a bit further in attempting to interpret a factor by also examining the commonality of characteristics of people who load on a particular factor. Once the representative participants were selected for each factor within each perspective, the scores of representatives were submited to independent sample t-tests or chi-square tests to determine whether there were differences between factors derived for a specific perspective. Given that these test were conducted in an exploratory fashion with no prior hypotheses generated, no correction factor such as Bonferroni correction method was used. Instead, these sets of test were intended to give direction to possible future research areas with regards to characteristics of people sharing similar frameworks.

Q-sort pairs correlation analyses. The final group of analyses centred on various pairs of Q-sort scores. Correlations were used to represent the level of similarity between a pair of Q-sorts. For example this could be the level of similarity between how a participant views her own use of power exertion strategies and how her partner views her use of power exertion strategies. Pearson correlation coefficients for four pairs of Q-sorts: self Q-sorts with partner's description of partner Q-sorts; self Q-sorts with

description of partner Q-sorts; self Q-sorts with ideal Q-sorts; and, description of partner Q-sorts with ideal Q-sorts. The correlation coefficients for each pair of Q-sorts were transformed using Fishers' Z transformation[2], an approach suggested by Judd and MacLennan (1989) to ensure that the distribution met the assumption of normality. The transformed coefficients were then submitted to -tests (hypothesis on gender differences) or correlated with measures of various constructs (intimacy, perspective taking, marital adjustment, and impression management) depending on the specific exploratory research question being addressed.

Preliminary Data Analysis

As previously described, prior to any hypothesis-based analyses being conducted, preliminary data analysis was conducted to verify that the data met various statistical assumptions. Given that the Q-method approach controls for most statistical assumptions such as normality, linearity, etc., the data from the Q-sorts was only assessed for completeness.

Missing data. All data derived from scales and Q-sorts were examined to determine their completeness. For the Q-sort data, three couples' data were removed from analyses. For two of these couples, only one of the couple members was able to complete the computerized task. For the third couple, there was a computer malfunction during the testing session for one of the couple members, and, as a result, data for two of

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[2] Fisher's Z transformation: $w_i = \frac{1}{2}\log_e\left[\frac{1+Y_i}{1-Y_i}\right]$ where Y_i is the correlation coefficient

the perspectives were unusable. An examination of the data from the self-report scales revealed no missing data.

Outliers. The self-report scale data were examined for univariate outliers for each of the scales. Boxplots were calculated and examined to determine the presence of outliers. Outliers were found on four of the eight scales. However, when the outlying scores were compared with scale scores derived from larger samples in the literature, it was determined that all "outliers" were within two standard deviations of scores found with larger, more diverse samples. As a result, all data were used in the present analyses.

Normality. For each scale, the assumption of normality was also examined. For the eight scales, skewness ranged from –1.71 to .36. Kurtosis results ranged from -.42 to 3.70. These were considered to be within acceptable ranges, so no transformations were performed.

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

As previously described, the purpose of performing the PCAs was to determine the structural commonalities that exist between people in how they view power exertion strategies from various perspectives. The structural commonalities are represented by the factor structure resulting from analysis of Q-sorts. In this section, the results from the PCAs for each perspective (self, partner, and ideal) are presented. Within each perspective, initially the results from the replication exercise are presented. These are followed by the results from the solutions derived from the overall sample.

Initial and derived solutions for the self-perspective. The results for the initial PCA for both Sample 1 and Sample 2 for the self-perspective are contained in Table 8.

The unrestricted analysis resulted in four factors with eigenvalues above 1.00 for both samples. These four factors accounted for approximately 65 to 68 percent of the variance. The examination of each sample's initial solution according to the three criteria of a viable factor having an eigenvalue of at least 1.00, at least two significant factor loadings[3], and at least two primary factor loadings, indicated that the best solution was a two factor solution for both Sample 1 and Sample 2. Factors Three and Four in both samples had only one primary factor loading. As a result, the best solution for the derived solution was determined to be a two-factor solution for each sample. The results for the derived models for each sample are contained in Table 9.

Insert Tables 8 and 9

Comparability assessment for factor structure of self-perspective. As previously described, the comparability assessment for the two solutions derived from independent samples utilised three criteria: 1) whether derived solutions resulted in similar number of factors; 2) whether there were similarities of factor content across samples (i.e., did composite factor arrays for the various factors correlate across samples); and, 3) did a second-order principal component analysis of composite factor arrays result in support for similar solutions across samples.

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[3] Significance of factor loadings was calculated using the approach suggested by Brown (1980). Significant factor loadings ($p<.01$) are those that are in excess of 2.58 standard errors (SE) where $SE = 1/\sqrt{N}$ where N is the number of items in the q-sort.

The comparability assessment using the first criterion indicated that the factor structure was similar in that both derived solutions had two factors. The assessment according to the second criterion was less conclusive. As illustrated in Table 10, although there were significant relationships between factor scores across samples, the analysis did not provide a clear pattern of one factor in Sample One being directly related to one factor in Sample Two . It appears that the second factor for Sample Two is very similar to Factor One of Sample One, with relatively strong correlations of .77 and .59. However, Factor Two from Sample One is relatively independent from the factors derived in Sample Two, with relatively weak correlations of .29 and .16. These results would indicate that one sample (Sample Two) is probably best described with a one factor solution. The other sample (Sample One) clearly contains two factors.

Insert Table 10

The third criterion to determine similarity between the independently derived solutions was to submit the factor arrays to a second-order principal component analysis and examine factor loadings. Table 11 contains the results of this second order PCA. Results from this analysis are similar to those described with regards to zero-order correlation matrix found in Table 10. Component One clearly has the first factors from both samples loading. Component 2 is composed primarily of Factor 2 from Sample 1

Insert Table 11

Overall, the comparability of the two solutions was moderate. The conclusions made were that the first sample contained two factors. The second sample contributed primarily to the component described most clearly by Factor One of Sample One. This indicates that the second sample was describing only one factor. It was decided to maintain two factors despite the lack of an exact match between samples. The rationale for keeping two factors rather than one factor for the overall solution was that the second factor does have some explanatory power, if only for one of the two samples.

Final PCA for self-perspective. The final PCA solution for the self-perspective contained two factors accounting for approximately 60 percent of the variance. Results for the final PCA solution are in Table 12. The final PCA solution is based on the overall sample and incorporates the findings from the initial and derived PCA solutions developed with the two samples. Both factors in this solution contained significant and primary factor loadings.

Insert Table 12

Initial and derived solutions for the partner-perspective. The results for the initial PCA solutions for both Sample 1 and Sample 2 for the partner-perspective are contained in Table 13. For Sample One, the unrestricted initial PCA produced five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00. These five factors accounted for approximately 72 percent of the variance. All factors in this solution had more than one significant factor loading. However, it was determined for Factors Three, Four and Five, there was only one primary factor loading for each of these factors. The initial unrestricted PCA for Sample Two produced four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 accounting for approximately 68 percent of the variance. All four factors had more than one significant factor loading. Similar to the solution calculated with Sample One, the significant factor loadings for Factors Three and Four contained less than two primary factor loadings. Given the amount of cross-loading produced in both solutions, it was decided that a two-factor solution would guide the derived solutions for both samples. The results from the derived solutions are presented in Table 14.

Insert Tables 13 and 14

Comparability assessment for factor structure of partner-perspective. The comparability assessment was conducted using the same three criteria as in the self-perspective analyses. The criterion of similar numbers of factors across samples indicated that the factor structure was similar. Both Sample 1 and Sample 2 produced two factor solutions independently of one another.

Similar to the findings from the self-perspective, the assessment according to the criterion of correlation between composite factor arrays was less conclusive. As illustrated in Table 15, although there were significant relationships between composite factor arrays across samples, the analysis once again did not provide a clear pattern of one factor in Sample One being directly related to one factor in Sample Two. Factor Two of Sample One appears to be split across the two factors from Sample Two.

Insert Table 15

The results from the second order principal component analysis of composite factor arrays are contained in Table 16. The results indicate that there are clearly two components. Factor Two from Sample Two loads solely on the second component with Factor Two from Sample One cross-loading onto the second component as well.

Insert Table 16

The conclusion from the comparability assessment was similar to that arrived at for the self-perspective solution. Despite there not being a specific pattern, the second factor is warranted given that it does have some explanatory power.

Final PCA for partner-perspective. The final PCA solution for the partner-perspective was calculated restricting the analysis to a two-factor solution for the entire sample. The results for the final PCA solution are found in Table 17. The two factors

account for approximately 56 percent of the total variance. The final solution's factors contained multiple significant and primary factor loadings for each factor.

Insert Table 17

Initial and derived solutions for the ideal-perspective. Table 18 contains the results from the initial PCA solutions for both Sample One and Sample Two. For Sample One, the initial solution resulted in four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00. These four factors accounted for approximately 78 percent of the variance in the correlation matrix. Factors Two, Three and Four did not meet the criteria of at least two primary factor loadings. Sample Two resulted in an initial solution of two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 accounting for approximately 79 percent of the variance. Only Factor One had multiple significant and primary factor loadings. The best solution was determined to be a one-factor solution. It was decided that a one-factor solution would guide the derived solutions for both Sample 1 and Sample 2. Results from the derived solutions are contained in Table 19.

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Insert Tables 18 and 19

Comparability assessment for factor structure for the ideal-perspective. Both Sample 1 and Sample 2 produced one factor solutions independently of one another. The

correlation between the two composite factor arrays was .88. Given that there was only one factor in each solution, a second order PCA was not conducted.

Final PCA for Ideal-perspective. The final PCA solution for the ideal-perspective was calculated using the findings from the initial and derived PCA solutions. Using the overall sample to produce a one-factor solution, the resulting factor had an eigenvalue of 37.46 that accounted for 69 percent of the variance in the N X N correlation matrix. Fifty-two of the 54 participants produced significant factor loadings on the one factor.

Factor content analyses

As previously described, the factor content analyses involved three sets of analyses. The first set of analyses involved developing a composite factor array or model Q-sort for each of the factors for each final PCA solution. The second set required determining the use of the dimensions of laterality and directness within each final solution for each perspective. Finally, the third set of analyses included examining various characteristics for the representative participants for each factor for each perspective. The results for these three sets of analyses are presented below grouped according to perspective (self, partner, and ideal).

Development of composite factor arrays for self-perspective. The final solution for the self-perspective was a two-factor solution with twelve participants having primary factor loadings on Factor One and eight participants having primary factor loading on Factor Two. Using the approach described in McKeown and Thomas (1988), Brown (1980), and Stephenson (1953), weights were assigned to each participant loading

significantly on one factor. The most salient items for the two resulting composite factor arrays for the self-perspective are contained in Table 20. The salient items are those that occupy the extreme ends of the Q-sort continuum (±4 and ±5). Complete composite factor arrays with all 60 items are contained in Appendix E.

Insert Table 20

Use of dimensions of laterality and directness in self-perspective To determine the use of the dimensions of laterality and directness according to the factors from the final solution for the self-perspective, composite factor array scores were submitted to a 2 X 2 X 2 ANOVA or Factor (Factor One, Factor Two) X Laterality (Unilateral, Bilateral) X Directness (Direct, Indirect). A significant main effect was found for the laterality dimension [F (1,112) = 18.00; MSE = 5.67; p<.01]. Bilateral strategies received significantly higher ratings (more like self) than did unilateral strategies (more unlike self). A significant main effect was also found for the directness dimension [F (1,112) = 4.53; MSE = 5.67; p<.05]. Direct strategies received significantly higher rating (more like self) than did indirect strategies (more unlike self). Figures 3 and 4 represent the significant interactions that were obtained for Factor X Laterality [F (1,112) = 4.52; MSE = 5.67; p<.05], and Factor X Directness [F (1,112) = 6.27; MSE = 5.67; p<.01] respectively.

Insert Figures 3 and 4

Comparison of characteristics of representatives for self-perspective Variables upon which representatives from the two factors were compared using a chi-square test were gender and whether the couple had children. Continuous variables upon which the two groups were compared using an independent sample *t*-test were age, length of time living together, and scores on Miller's Social Intimacy Scale, Hong's Psychological Reactance Scale, Dyadic Adjustment Scale, MACH IV, Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding, Self-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale, Other-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale, General Population Dominance Scale, and Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale. The only significant differences between the representatives of Factor One and the representatives of Factor Two were found for gender ($\chi^2 = 4.43$; df = 1; $p<.05$) and scores on Hong's Psychological Reactance ($M_1 = 35.9$; $SD_1 = 12.1$; $M_2 = 44.6$; $SD_2 = 5.7$; $t = -2.18$; df = 18; $p<.05$). There were significantly more women than men representing Factor One. As well, Factor One representatives scored significantly lower than Factor Two representatives on Hong's Psychological Reactance Scale.

Development of composite factor arrays for the partner-perspective. The final solution for the partner-perspective was a two-factor solution with 25 participants having primary factor loadings on Factor One and eight participants having primary factor loadings on Factor Two. Weights were assigned to individual Q-sorts according to magnitude of factor loadings. The most salient items for the resulting two composite factor arrays are contained in Table 21. Complete composite factor arrays with all 60 items for each factor are contained in Appendix E

Insert Table 21

Uses of dimensions of laterality and directness in partner-perspective As previously described, composite factor array scores were submitted to a 2 X 2 X 2 ANOVA to determine the extent to which the dimensions of laterality and directness were evident in the composition of the factors in the final solution for the partner-perspective. A significant main effect was found for laterality [F (1,112) = 7.01; MSE = 6.05; p<.01]. Similar to the self-perspective, bilateral strategies received significantly higher ratings (more like partner) in comparison to unilateral strategies. There was no main effect for directness. As illustrated in Figures 5 and 6, significant interactions were found for both Factor X Laterality [F (1,112) = 6.34; MSE = 6.05; p<.05] and Factor X Directness [F (1,112) = 4.46; MSE = 6.05; p<.05].

Insert Figures 5 and 6

Comparison of characteristics of representatives for partner-perspective Comparisons were made between the 25 participants representing Factor One and the eight participants representing Factor Two. The same set of variables was used for comparisons as was used with the self-perspective. Four significant differences were found between the two groups. A significant difference was found between the two groups with scores on Hong's Psychological Reactance Scale with representatives of

Factor One scoring significantly lower (M_1 = 41.4; SD_1 = 6.9; M_2 = 49.3; SD_2 = 6.7;t = -2.79; df = 31; p<.01). Representatives of Factor One also scored significantly lower on the MACH IV (M_1 = 70.2; SD_1 = 10.4; M_2 = 82.9; SD_2 = 13.7; t = -2.79; df = 31; p<.01). Representatives of Factor one scored significantly higher than representatives of Factor Two on the Self Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale (M_1 = 37.0; SD_1 = 6.1; M_2 = 30.9; SD_2 = 6.9; t = 2.38; df = 31; p<.05) and the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (M_1 = 6.1; SD_1 = 3.1; M_2 = 2.8; SD_2 = 2.7; t = 2.69; df = 31; p<.05).

When the same comparisons were made between the partners of the two representative groups (the actual people being described), there were no significant differences on any of the measures.

Development of composite factor array for ideal-perspective The final solution for the ideal-perspective resulted in one factor with 52 participants loading significantly on the factor. Weights were assigned to the individual Q-sorts to develop the factor array. The most salient items for the factor array are included in Table 22.

Insert Table 22

Use of dimensions of laterality and directness in ideal-perspective Given that the ideal-perspective produced a one-factor solution, a 2 X 2 ANOVA was conducted using Laterality X Directness. A main effect was found for laterality with bilateral strategies receiving significantly higher ratings (more like me) than unilateral strategies [F (1,112) = 9.81; MSE = 6.23; p<.01]. There was no significant main effect for directness.

Overall similarities of factor arrays across perspectives To determine the similarities between perspectives, correlations between composite factor arrays were calculated. As illustrated in Table 23, correlations ranged from a low of .25 (Factor 1 – self-perspective with Factor 2 – partner-perspective) to a high of .92 (Factor 1 – partner-perspective with Factor 1 – ideal-perspective).

Insert Table 23

In addition, the use of factors by couple members across perspectives was also examined. The results according to individual couple members is presented in Table 24.

Insert Table 24

Q-sort pairs correlation analyses

As an indication of similarity between two individual Q-sorts, correlation coefficients were calculated. As previously described, correlation coefficients were then transformed using Fishers' Z transformation (Judd & McLennan, 1989). Depending upon the exploratory research question being addressed, the correlation coefficients were submitted to t-tests or correlations with scales measuring various constructs.

Q-sort pairs Correlations were calculated for four different pairings of Q-sorts. Table 25 contains the results of these calculations (coefficients are not transformed). The highest average correlation (.66) was found between self and ideal Q-sorts. The remaining pairings produced very similar average correlation coefficients (.57 – .59).

Insert Table 25

Gender differences in Q-sort similarities The exploratory research question addressed by these analyses was whether women's descriptions of their male partners were more similar to the male partner's own description of himself than vice versa. The transformed correlation coefficients for these Q-sort pairs were submitted to an independent t-test. No significant difference was found based on gender ($t = -1.40$; $df = 52$; $p > .05$).

Correlation between Q-sort similarities and intimacy, perspective-taking, marital adjustment, and impression management. Pearson r correlations were calculated between the transformed correlations coefficients for the four pairings of Q-sorts and individual's scores on the Miller Social Intimacy Scale, Self Dyadic Perspective-Taking Scale, and Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding. Table 26

contains the results from these sets of analyses. Significant positive correlations were obtained only with Miller Social Intimacy Scale.

Insert Table 26

Discussion

Although the area of interpersonal power and influence has been a well-studied domain in the past four decades, most researchers have used the more traditional R-methodology techniques in understanding how people influence one another in various constellations such as families, small groups, or the workplace. This trend towards R-methodology is also evident in the in the area of power and influence within couples. To contribute to the understanding of how couple members conceptualise power and influence strategies within the couple dyad, Q-methodology was used to construct individual couple members' frameworks of influence strategies. The present study used a Q-methodological approach to have individuals actively "construct" the frameworks they use to understand influence within their intimate relationships.

This section provides the interpretation and discussion of findings for the present study. Much of the interpretive work involved with Q-methodology is in the form of labelling and characterising the frameworks. These processes are the unique contribution of the study, as the interpretation of subjective frameworks is compared and contrasted with the current literature. The main body of literature that will be used to interpret the findings is the work completed in the area of power exertion strategies in intimate relationships. Particular attention has been paid to interpreting the findings according to the dimensions developed by Falbo and Peplau (1980) in their innovative study on power exertion strategies used by couple members within intimate relationships. In addition, the other body of literature used to help interpret findings is that of gender and influence characterised by studies by Johnson (1976), Guber and White (1986), and Eagly (1983).

This discussion is divided into four sections. The first section contains the interpretive work completed in labelling and characterising the frameworks from the three perspectives of self, partner, and ideal. A discussion of the findings for the analyses completed for similarities between pairs of Q-sorts is presented in the second section. This is followed by a discussion of the contribution of the use of Q-methodology as well as the benefits and drawbacks of using the computer assisted administration of the Q-sorting task developed for the present study. The final section outlines the discussion of various limitations of the present study and possible areas for additional research arising from the present findings.

Labelling and characterising frameworks

One set of hypotheses for the study was that structural commonalities exist between people in how they view the use of power exertion strategies within intimate relationships from various perspectives (self, partner and ideal). This set of hypotheses was upheld with the production of a two-factor solution for the self-perspective, a two-factor solution for the partner-perspective, and a one-factor solution for the ideal-perspective. Two other sets of hypotheses included labelling and characterising the frameworks derived for each perspective.

With traditional factor analysis, once the optimum factor model is derived, researchers then examine the items loading on the factors to interpret each factor. With Q-methodology, the interpretation of factors is more extensive. Factors can be described and interpreted according to the frameworks they represent. For the present discussion this process is referred to as "labelling" frameworks. In addition, because individuals'

frameworks load on factors, researchers using Q-methodology can further interpret factors by examining common characteristics of individuals with frameworks loading closely on certain factors. This process is referred to in the present discussion as "characterising" frameworks.

The following section contains the interpretation of the factors derived for the solutions for each perspective (self, partner, and ideal). For each framework in each perspective, initially, a discussion of how the frameworks compare with previous studies with special attention paid to the Falbo and Peplau's (1980) dimensions of directness and laterality is presented. This is followed by a discussion of the common characteristics of representative individuals for each framework.

Results from the principal components analyses indicated that individuals tend to use two frameworks for the self-perspective; two frameworks when describing their partners; and, one general framework for influence strategies from the ideal-perspective. To assist in the labelling of these frameworks, ANOVAs were conducted on the composite factor arrays to determine whether or not the dimensions of *directness* (indirect versus direct) and *laterality* (unilateral versus bilateral) were used by people to describe their perception of power exertion within their own relationships.

In addition to labelling the frameworks by looking at salient items and possible underlying dimensions, an additional layer of interpretation occurred by examining what characteristics are common among people who are strongly affiliated with a particular framework. For the present study, data from a number of demographic variables for each participant were collected to examine if there were differences between people who shared different types of frameworks. In addition to demographic variables, self-report

measures of various constructs such as intimacy, perspective-taking, and sex-role egalitarianism were administered to participants to determine whether any of the constructs previously identified in the literature as related to influence had explanatory power in interpreting the frameworks.

Labelling and characterising frameworks from the self-perspective. The principal component analyses resulted in two factors representing two frameworks for the self-perspective. The interpretation of factors is presented below starting with labelling the factors and then characterising the factors.

The comparison of the self-perspective frameworks on the dimensions of laterality and directness produced easily interpretable results with one framework (Factor One) clearly relying on the laterality dimension, and the other framework (Factor Two) aligned with the directness dimension. This means that approximately one-quarter of the overall sample (12 of 54 participants) clearly used the laterality dimension as the way they characterise power exertion in their intimate relationship with their partners. A smaller proportion (8 of 54 participants) clearly used the directness dimension. The majority of participants (34 or 54 participants) used both frameworks and, thus, both dimensions to understand their use of power exertion in intimate relationships. This indicates that even though there are clearly two dimensions that people actively use to understand power exertion in intimate relationships, a sizeable proportion of individuals report using exclusively one dimension. An interesting question that arises from this finding is what happens in relationships where couple members are operating from "distinct frameworks", that is, one couple member exclusively uses laterality to understand his or her power exertion and the other couple member exclusively uses

directness to understand power exertion? For the present study, this question was not addressed, however, there were two couples in the sample where this did occur. For these two couples, the female partners loaded exclusively on the laterality framework while the male partners loaded exclusively on the directness framework. Unfortunately, given the small number of couples in which this phenomenon occurred (N=2), it was not feasible to study this aspect in-depth. However, now that the presence of frameworks has been confirmed through the present study, a next step would be to study different couple types based on the partners' similarities in use of the various frameworks.

Overall, across factors, people described themselves as using more bilateral strategies and more direct strategies. These findings are similar to those found in numerous other studies with couples using more traditional r-methods where people tend to report more frequent use of both bilateral and direct strategies (e.g., Aida & Falbo, 1991; Falbo, 1977; Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Howard et al., 1986; Rosenbluth & Steil, 1995; Steil & Weltman, 1992).

Differences between the groups of representatives for the two factors were gender and psychological reactance. The finding for gender does not concur with previous studies that have found gender differences in power exertion strategies within intimate relationships. For the present study, there were significantly more women than men defining the laterality factor, and vice versa for the directness factor. According to findings from Falbo and Peplau's (1980) study, the prediction would be that more men than women would report using bilateral strategies and direct strategies, and more women than men would report using unilateral and indirect strategies. As a result, if the findings had fit the Falbo and Peplau study, there would have been no gender differences between

factors. What would have been present is one gender group with negative loadings on a factor and the other gender group with positive loadings on the same factor. For the present study, there were no significant negative loadings for any individual Q-sort. Instead, there was a significant gender difference among those who affiliate exclusively with one framework. The finding of a gender difference in the present study also obviously contradicts findings from studies that have not found gender differences in the choice of power exertion strategies in intimate relationships (e.g., Aida & Falbo, 1991; Steil & Weltman, 1992).

In order to understand the current finding of a gender difference, it was necessary to go beyond a discussion of the two dimensions of laterality and directness, and to examine the actual content of the most salient strategies. An examination of the most salient or defining strategies for each of the two frameworks lends insight to the gender difference finding. For the laterality framework, the most salient, positive strategies were instilling a good mood, using humour, expressing affection, discussing, using logic, compromising, and negotiating. For the directness framework, the most salient strategies were using logic, asking, stressing importance, reasoning, needing help, discussing, and telling. The finding of gender difference between these types of strategies is predictable, according to the results of the Ball et al. (1995) study. According to this study, women were more frequently mobilized the couple to discuss a problem and to reach a concrete solution. Men were more likely to define and elaborate the problem and limit the emotional depth of the discussion. An examination of the salient items in this context illustrates how the findings are in-line with the Ballet al. (1995) study.

The finding of differences in levels of psychological reactance according to framework is best understood with a review of the nature of the construct of psychological reactance. Psychological reactance is defined as a motivational drive directed toward re-establishing a threatened or eliminated personal freedom (Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Brehm, 1981). Through the development of measures of psychological reactance, the construct was found to have four dimensions including freedom of choice, conformity reactance, behavioural freedom, and reactance to advice and recommendations (Hong & Page, 1989). Not surprisingly, individuals who score highly on psychological reactance more frequently perceive their personal freedom being threatened or eliminated. There is no reason to expect that these individuals would not also extend these perceptions to their intimate relationships. It is understandable that people who have higher levels of psychological reactance would choose to use more direct strategies to re-establish their freedom when they feel threatened. What is interesting is that the same individuals apparently do not make distinctions between unilateral and bilateral strategies. Falbo and Peplau (1980) reported that unilateral strategies were preferred by individuals who valued autonomy and independence. As well, the authors indicated that unilateral strategies are used when the overall outcome is important but noncompliance is anticipated. Both situations would appear to describe the individual who has high levels of psychological reactance.

Labelling and characterising frameworks from the partner-perspective. The principal components analyses resulted in two factors representing two frameworks for the partner-perspective. This section is composed of the interpretation of each of the two factors. Interpretation was accomplished by initially labelling each factor according to

the most salient strategies. This process was followed by examining the common characteristics of individuals representative of each framework.

Similar to the self-perspective, the two frameworks comprising the partner-perspective align closely with the dimensions of laterality and directness. The framework represented by Factor One is clearly defined by the dimension of laterality. Conversely, the framework represented by Factor Two is clearly defined by the dimension of directness. Approximately half of the sample (25 of 54) described their partner's power strategies using the dimension of laterality to distinguish between what strategies were most like and unlike their partner. A smaller proportion (8 of 54) reported using only the dimension of directness. The remaining participants (21 of 54) reported using a combination of these two dimensions by loading significantly on both factors representing the two frameworks. Similar to the self-perspective, a small number of couples (N=3) used opposite frameworks to describe their partners' strategies, that is one person described his or her partner according to the directness dimension while the partner described the other person using the laterality dimension.

Differences between the groups of representatives for the two factors were found for scores on the measures of psychological reactance, machiavellianism, perspective-taking, and impression management. Those affiliated with the laterality dimension scored significantly higher on perspective-taking and impression management and lower on psychological reactance and machiavellianism. Interestingly, when the partners' scores were compared for the representative participants, there were no differences found between the two groups. This would indicate that the differences are attributable to the person using the framework, and not the object of the framework (i.e., the partner).

The finding of difference in levels of psychological reactance can be explained in a manner similar to that used for the self-perspective. With a person high in psychological reactance tending to see more "challenges" than the average person, it is not surprising that he or she views his or her partner as using more direct strategies rather than indirect strategies.

What differs between this group and the representative group from the directness factor for the self-perspective is that there is the added dimension of higher levels of machiavellianism. Falbo (1977) found that people scoring high on machivellianism often are competitive and exploitive, however, they also tend to use indirect strategies allowing themselves greater opportunities to be manipulative. This would indicate that if a person has high levels of machiavellianism and psychological reactance, he or she would be more likely to be competitive with the partner, and to perceive ongoing challenges from the partner. In this situation, characterising one's partner as using primarily direct strategies makes sense in that the person is perceived as being somewhat challenging (making direct requests) but at the same time, not adept at the more subtle forms of power (indirect). This permits the machiavellian partner the opportunity of having the perception of "winning" in the sense that the partner is not aware that he or she is being influenced.

With regards to the finding that the representative participants for the laterality factor reported higher levels of both perspective-taking and impression management, there are two possible interpretations. One interpretation is based on the assumption that if someone has higher levels of impression management, then their scores on other scales or tasks will be "flavoured" by this tendency to present the most socially desirable picture

of themselves, if given the opportunity. An alternative interpretation is not to treat impression management as an artifact of the measurement process (i.e., something to remove to get at the "true" picture), but rather as a construct in its own right, adding explanatory power to the bilateral framework.

Using the first interpretation of impression management as an artifact, the findings make sense. People were asked to participate in a study of influence within couples. The modern socially desirable type of couple is egalitarian, involved jointly in decision-making, understands each other, and are supportive and sensitive to each other's needs (Felmlee, 1994; Peplau & Campbell, 1989). Given this schema, it is reasonable to assume that someone describing their partners in a manner which is socially desirable would choose to use a framework based on laterality, with primarily bilateral strategies as perceived as being most like their partner. As well, the finding of high levels of perspective-taking also fit with the picture of the socially desirable intimate relationship.

The alternative interpretation of these findings requires the assumption that people with high levels of impression management are not necessarily "covering-up" their true perceptions of their partners or themselves. The finding of high levels of impression management and perspective-taking in the same set of individuals is reasonable. Impression management requires a relatively high level of "putting yourself in the other's shoes" to ensure that one is giving the desired impression. Someone with a relatively lower ability to perceive what someone else is thinking is probably less astute at impression management. Using a similar line of reasoning, if one has "skills" in impression management, then the person is most likely more adept at participating in bilateral strategies in a manner that preserves or strengthens the relationship. Reviewing

the more salient positive strategies for this factor (discussing, suggesting, asking, explaining, and compromising), it is evident that the types of strategies involve sustained interactions with a partner. Unilateral strategies (violence, threats, insulting, yelling and anger) would not require the same level of impression management skills.

Labelling and characterising frameworks from the ideal-perspective. The principal component analyses for the ideal-perspective resulted in one factor representing one framework. The framework was aligned with the laterality dimension. The single picture of the ideal person's use of power exertion strategies in intimate relationships was agreed upon by most with 52 of 54 participants' Q-sorts registering significant factor loadings on the one factor. This level of concurrence with regards to power exertion strategies in the ideal relationship has been in demonstrated in other studies as well (e.g., Felmlee, 1994; Peplau & Campbell, 1989).

The finding of the ideal person being seen as using primarily bilateral strategies concurs with the findings from the partner-perspective's laterality dimension. It is reasonable that bilateral strategies are seen as the most desirable. Given the predominant perception of the most desirable type of couple member as someone who is egalitarian, participates jointly in decision-making, understands his or her partner, and is supportive and sensitive to his or her partner's needs (Felmlee, 1994; Peplau & Campbell, 1989), the use of strategies that involve high levels of interaction perceived as ideal is understandable.

Similarity of frameworks across perspectives. Overall, there were similarities among the different perspectives (ideal, self, and partner) as to what dimensions people used to sort strategies, as well as similarities with regards to the actual strategies people

reported choosing and avoiding. As illustrated in the summary table below (Table 27), a framework based on the laterality dimension appears in each perspective. Similarly, a framework based on the directness dimension appears in two perspectives.

Insert Table 27

To what extent do people use the same framework regardless of the perspective they are taking? This question can be addressed in part from the present study. According to Q-method researchers, frameworks represented by Q-sorts remain relatively stable over time. That is, the reliability coefficients for individual Q-sorts generally are above .80 when measured over two time periods. The reliability of a particular factor is determined by a composite of the number of Q-sorts loading on a specific factor and the reliability of individual Q-sorts (Stephenson, 1953, Brown, 1980 and McKeown and Thomas, 1988). For the present study, estimates of reliability for the individual factors ranged from .97 to .99.[4] However, the extent to which people use the same or similar frameworks to understand and describe different perspectives is more of a research question and less of a measurement question. Given that Q-sorts are relatively reliable, then the differences between frameworks across perspectives can be attributed to an actual difference rather than a fluctuation due to using a method with questionable reliability.

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[4] Estimate based on expression; $r_{cr} = \frac{0.80p}{1+(p-1)0.80}$ where p is the number of persons defining a factor.

For the present study, people who use the laterality framework in the self-perspective also tend to use the laterality framework in the partner and ideal-perspectives. As illustrated in Table 24, the individuals who reported using the directness framework in the self-perspective used a combination of frameworks (both laterality and directness) when describing their partners. Similarly, those individuals who used the directness framework to describe their partners tended to then use a combination of frameworks to describe themselves in the self-perspective. Given the findings from the present study, it is most likely that people tend to use the same frameworks in describing different perspectives. This conclusion is based on the finding that for the strongest (most variance accounted for) and most reliable factor (most individuals loading on factor), there is a trend among representative participants to use the same framework to describe multiple perspectives.

A second question in discussing the similarity of frameworks is to what extent is the actual content of the frameworks similar. According to Table 23, there is a high degree of similarity of frameworks across perspectives. When actual composite factor arrays were compared, not just underlying dimensions, the findings were similar to those outlined in Table 27. The bilateral frameworks from each perspective are clearly similar (correlation coefficients ranging from .86 to .92). As well, the directness frameworks from the self and partner-perspectives are also similar.

One criticism of using a model to select items for a Q-sort (e.g., Direct/indirect) is that the model will bias the findings towards replicating the mode. This is not normally a concern due to the actual approach used to collect data. By asking people to sort items according to personal relevance, they have the freedom to demonstrate relationships

between items to construct their own "model", assuming there are a sufficient number of Q-sort items available. This level of freedom is demonstrated by the astounding nuimber of possible ways to sort 60 items into 11 categories. With the number of possible combinations for sorting 60 items into three piles (not even considering 11 piles) being equivalent to 5.8×10^{26}, the likelihood that a random Q-sort will match the model is essentially nil. Therefore, participants have sufficient freedom to not replicate a model is the model is not personally relevant for them.

Overall, these findings lead to the conclusion that people use two frameworks to understand power exertion strategies in intimate relationships. Some people use exclusively one framework regardless of the perspective they are taking, however, the majority use various combinations of these two frameworks to describe power exertion from multiple perspectives.

Similarities between individual Q-sorts

A number of exploratory research questions were posed in the introduction in relation to the level of similarity between individual pairs of Q-sorts and relation to gender, intimacy, perspective-taking, dyadic adjustment, and impression management. The interpretation of findings for these questions is reported below.

The rationale for including a research question on the relationship between gender and similarities between a person's self Q-sort and how the partner viewed the person was that some research has demonstrated that women tend to use behavioral cues to determine choice of strategies in comparison to men. Rubin and Brown (1975) and Terhune (1970) reported that men tended to use influence strategies that would maximize their chances of success. In contrast, they reported women tended to read interpersonal

cues and then reciprocate with appropriate strategies that would be cooperative or competitive depending on the cues they interpreted. This gender difference in reading interpersonal cues was also found in the more recent study by Ballet al. (1995). As a result, it was supposed that if women tended to read interpersonal cues more readily, then they would likely be more adept at describing their partners' strategies. As was previously reported, there were no significant differences found in the present study.

One possiblity why this gender difference was not found in the present study is that the original differences found in the Terhune (1970) and Rubin and Brown (1975) studies, or the more recent Ball, Cowan and Cowan (1995) study may actually have been attributable to differences in status, and not actually gender. As Eagly (1983) found, many researchers reporting gender differences with regards to power and influence (especially in the 1960s and 1970s) may have actually been studying status rather than gender. If this is the case, then the findings of the present study would lend support to Eagly's hypothesis that power and influence are more accurately explained by status rather than gender. The present study was conducted with couple members who scored relatively highly on measures of sex role egalitarianism. This indicates that for most of the couples, egalitarianism would be a defining characteristic of their relationship. Thus, for the present study, there were very few couples where large power differentials or non-equal status was reported to have occurred.

Relationship variables and framework similarities. Various pairs of frameworks were correlated with the scores on self-report measures of intimacy, perspective-taking, relationship adjustment, and impression management. Small to medium significant correlations were found between the pairs of Q-sorts and the measure of intimacy. The

largest correlation (.41) was between the intimacy measure and the correlations between the Q-sorts of self and partner's perception of partner. This makes sense given that the more intimate couples are, the more likely they will be able to describe aspects of their relationships in similar ways.

One possibility as to why no significant relationships were found among the other pairings between Q-sorts and construct measures is that for two of the four scales (DAS, and BIDR), relatively low alpha coefficients, indicating poorer reliability were obtained in comparison to other studies. Low scale reliability will affect the magnitude of correlation coefficients (Howell, 1992). One possible reason for the lower reliability coefficients obtained is the homogeneity of the present sample. Again, the sample of participants reported similarly limited ranges of scores on most measures when compared to previous studies with larger samples. This curtailed variance would ultimately affect the reliability of Cronbach's alpha measurement of reliability (Howell, 1992).

Benefits of Q-methodology

Through the use of Q-methodology, the present study has contributed to the understanding of how couple members view influence within their relationships. Previous to this study, most of the work in this area has relied on traditional r-methodology techniques to describe how influence strategies were related to one another as well as some possible factors people use to determine what influence strategies they use within relationships. By using Q-methodology, the study was able to expand the question from *how do influence strategies relate to one another?* to *how do people view influence strategies in their own intimate relationships?* The method of answering these questions changes from using people's responses to uncover a latent structure of

influence strategies to using people's responses to uncover the structure of perceptions of influence strategies. Although a relatively subtle shift in technique or method, it is a relatively large shift in philosophy. It mirrors the shift from a positivistic approach to research to more of a constructivist approach. As a result, there is not only a shift in how one finds an answer, but also a shift in the actual question one is attempting to answer.

The Q-method approach should not be considered as a replacement of the more traditional r-method techniques, but rather, as a complement. By posing and answering slightly different questions within the same topic areas, the two methods can be used to expand findings, as was demonstrated in the present study.

Q-sort computerized task

Another area in which the study has contributed to the literature is through the development and use of a computer administered Q-sort task. Most commonly, a Q-sort is conducted using cards with one item on each card. The participant is expected to sort the cards in front of the researcher. The researcher then records items. For the present study, a computer program was developed to administer the Q-sort. A number of advantages and some disadvantages were discovered in this process.

One main advantage was the speed with which data collection could occur. Normally, after each Q-sort, the researcher has to have the participant wait while he or she records responses. With the computer administered approach, there is no "down-time" during the exercise. This allows for the possibility of multiple Q-sorts to be completed by a participant in a relatively short period of time.

Another advantage is that the Q-sort can be administered without the researcher present. This is particularly important for Q-sorts that may be made up of items that have

an element of social desirability. For the present study, this was a particularly relevant feature. After a few minutes of practice, the participants were able to perform the Q-sorts of influence strategies without the presence of the researcher. All data were stored automatically upon the completion of the various Q-sorts.

One disadvantage is that a certain level of computer skills is required to go through the computerized Q-sort task. Some individuals may not be comfortable with working on a computer, as was the case with two individuals for the present study.

Limitations and research implications of present study

One of the main limitations of the present study is that the sample of participants was relatively homogenous composed of heterosexual couples with overall high levels of social economic status, high levels of relationship satisfaction, and no presence of violence in relationships. This may limit the generalizability of findings to different types of couples (e.g., homosexual couples, distressed couples, couples with lower levels of SES indicators, couples with violence present).

One other limitation is that not a lot is known about reasons why people hold different frameworks. Due to the procedure chosen for the present study, this aspect of measurement was attempted but was only moderately successful. Self-report scales measuring constructs upon which these groups may differ necessarily were chosen *a priori* to the results of the Q-data being determined.

Another potential limitation of the current study was the possible lack of independence of observations due to having both members of each couple participate in the study. In Q-method, this is is not a concern due to the fact that the approach does not

rely on inferential statistics with regards to making population estimates based on a sample (i.e., the sample is Q-sort items, not individuals). For some of the additional analyses that were conducted (e.g., *t*-tests, and correlations), the possible lack of independence of obsrvations would have been critical. However, it should be noted that the main problem associated with not meeting the assumption of independence of observations is an increase in Type I error. Given that most of these analyses resulted in no significant findings, the inflation of Type I error is of little concern.

One other possible limitation of the current study is the process used to select items for the Q-sort. As described in the methodology section, the items for the Q-sort were generated using a structured process using ready-made sources. The ready-made sources included strategies identified from previous studies on power-exertion in various dyads. This may appear to a contradiction in that a Q-method study used items developed primarily from studies that used R-method approaches. We have identified three conditions in which this type of approach may limit the findings of the study. Initially, this would be of concern if the Q-sort process did not allow the participant to indicate that a particular item was of little relevance to him or her. In the current study, there were numerous opportunities for the participants to sort out items which were of little or no relevance by placing them within the −1, 0, or +1 categories. As well, this approach would be of concern if the R-method studies used a very restricted or narrow approach to item generation. In the case of Falbo (1977) and Falbo and Peplau (1980), all power strategies were developed using an inductive approach in which 100 to 400 participants were asked to describe in open-ended essays the various ways they influence others. The third condition in which there would be some concern in using a structured,

ready-made source for Q-items was if the items were not "representative" of the model tested. This is one shortcoming of the current study in that there was only one rater who categorised or "structured" the Q-sort based on definitions and previous categorisations. Additional confidence in this structuring process would have been obtained with the use of additional raters.

The present work was an initial attempt at introducing an alternative approach to studying power processes in intimate relationships. By introducing a new method derived from a different philosophical approach to conceptualising human behaviour, the present work has demonstrated a link between findings with other approaches, namely r-methodology. This extension of conducting research from a multi-method to a mutli-approach can continue to be expanded upon. The immediate avenues of investigation that may benefit from further application of this approach is in studying different types of couples with a operant subjectivity approach to determine if the structural commonalities that were demonstrated to exist among couples in the present study are present in other types of couples.

The present study focussed on relatively highly educated, heterosexual, non-violent couples who exhibited high levels of relationship satisfaction and held non-traditional views on sex-roles. The understanding of subjective frameworks of power in couples could be expanded to include distressed couples, violent couples, or same gender couples. Current literature indicates that the power structure within these types of couples may differ from the couples who participated in the present study. As a result, it is a reasonable hypothesis that their subjective frameworks of power processes may also differ.

The other main area that would benefit from application of a Q-method approach would be the examination of power processes outside of intimate couples. Power has been studied in a number of different interpersonal relationships such as parent/child, boss/supervisor, siblings, friends, acquaintances, and strangers. By studying the subjective frameworks of people participating in these various types of relationships, researchers may add to the already comprehensive literature bases in each of these areas.

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Appendix A – Initial Screening Package

Université d'Ottawa • University of Ottawa

École de psychologie School of Psychology

Dear interested couple member:

Thank you for expressing an interest in our study. Enclosed in this package you will find two complete sets of consent forms and questionnaires. One set is for you; the other, for your partner.

Each set contains:

- ☐ ***Two copies of a consent form***. Please read and sign if you agree to participate in the study. Include one of the signed copied in with your questionnaire package when you return it. Keep the other copy for your own records.

- ☐ ***A brief questionnaire***. Instructions are included on the questionnaire.

- ☐ ***A preaddressed-stamped envelope***. Please use this to return your completed questionnaire and one copy of the consent form.

As mentioned previously, the purpose of this study is to learn more about how people in intimate relationships influence one another on a day to day basis. This includes things like decision-making, expressing needs, etc. If you decide to participate, all of your responses on the questionnaires and within the lab session will be remain confidential.

The study consists of two parts. The first part involves the couple completing and returning the set of questionnaires provided. We ask that you fill them out individually, however, if you both desire, feel free to discuss your responses afterwards.

Assuming you have agreed to participate in the study, once you have completed the questionnaires and returned them, we will be going over your responses and contacting you about participating in the second part of the study. This involves coming into the lab at the University of Ottawa for a session which would last approximately 2 hours. There you would sort a number of statements about intimate relationships and complete additional questionnaires. If you decide to participate in the lab session, you and your partner will each be paid 30 dollars.

As explained earlier, we have set a number of criteria for asking couples to participate in the second portion of the study. In order to participate, we ask that couples:

1) - have been living together or married for at least 6 months
2) - be fluent in English
3) - not be violent or abusive with one another
4) - both partners willing to participate

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(613) 562-5799 • Téléc./Fax (613) 562-5147

In addition, we are hoping to have couples with a variety of experiences. As a result, we will be asking couples to participate according to how long they have been together (16 couples, more than 5 years; 16 couples, less than 5 years), whether or not they are parents (16 couples, parents; 16 couples not parents), and what types of educational backgrounds they possess.

If you have any questions about the above criteria or about any other aspect of the study, please do not hesitate to contact us at 562-5800 ex. 4460.

Once again, thank you for considering to participate in this study.

Yours sincerely,

Celine Pinsent, Ph.D. student in Clinical Psychology, University of Ottawa

John Hunsley, Ph.D., C.Psych., Professor in Psychology, University of Ottawa

Université d'Ottawa • University of Ottawa

École de psychologie School of Psychology

CONSENT FORM

RESEARCHERS: **Celine Pinsent (Ph.D. student) & John Hunsley, Ph.D., C.Psych.**
INSTITUTION: **School of Psychology, University of Ottawa**
TELEPHONE: **562-5800 ext. 4460**

Whenever a research project is undertaken with human participants, the written consent of the participants must be obtained. This does not imply, of course, that the present study necessarily involves a risk. In view of the respect owed the participants, the University of Ottawa and the research funding agencies have made this type of agreement mandatory.

I, _____, am interested in participating in this study on influence in couples conducted by Celine Pinsent and Dr. John Hunsley of the School of Psychology of the University of Ottawa. The purpose of this study is to better understand how people in intimate relationships influence one another when they are a couple.

If I agree to participate, my participation will consist of filling out 2 questionnaires which will take approximately 15 minutes and will be mailed to my home. After I have returned these questionnaires by mail, the researchers will contact my partner or I and we will be asked to attend or not one three hour session or two 90-minute sessions at the University of Ottawa during which time I will sort a number of statements about my relationship with my partner and complete additional questionnaires. The questionnaires are self-report measures which ask for information about my general perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors in relationships including my current intimate relationship with my partner. If I am asked and agree to participate in the lab portion of the study, I will be paid 30 dollars.

I am free to withdraw from the study at any moment or refuse to participate without having to provide an explanation or without penalty. Some subjects may feel some discomfort filling out the questionnaires. Although it would be preferable that I answer all questions, if I am uncomfortable with any particular question, I may refuse to answer.

I have also received assurance from the researchers that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. All of my information will be kept confidential by separating the consent forms from the questionnaire, coding all my information according to an assigned number rather than my name, and presenting the results in a grouped format. In addition, I understand that my partner will not be given access to the information I provide to researchers. If I decide to participate, only me, my partner, and the researcher will be present at the lab session. No identifying information about individual participants will be available in any presentation of results.

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I have been informed that there are certain criteria which must be met in order to be included in the lab portion of the study. If I or my partner do not meet the criteria specified in the opening letter, the researcher will contact either myself or my partner and explain why.

There are two copies of the consent form. Please sign both. Return one copy with the questionnaires and keep the other copy for your own records.

If you have any questions, you may call either Celine Pinsent or Dr. Hunsley at 562-5800 ext 4460

Participant's Signature: _____

Date: _____

Researcher's Signature: _____

Optional: I wish to receive a summary of the findings of this study which will be available in June, 1998 at the following address:

_____

_____

Demographic Questionnaire

In order to help us decide if you and your partner are eligible for the lab portion of this study, we would like to ask you the following questions.

Please circle the most appropriate response or write in requested information.

- Gender: Male Female
- Age: _____ years
- **How long have you and your partner lived together:** _____ years _____ months
- **Are you and your partner married?** Yes No
- **Do you have children with your partner?** Yes No **If yes, how many?** _____
- **Do you have children from a previous relationship?** Yes No
  If yes, do they live with you? Yes No
- **Current occupation:** _____
- **Level of education: (circle one)**
  - primary school
  - high school
  - some community college
  - community college diploma
  - some university courses
  - undergraduate degree
  - some graduate or professional training
  - graduate or professional degree
- **Your *individual* annual gross income: (circle one)**
  - under $5000
  - $5,000 - $15,000
  - $15,001 - $25,000
  - $25,001 - $35,000
  - $35,001 - $45,000
  - $45,001 - $55,000
  - $55,001 - $65,000
  - above $65,000
- **Your *combined* annual gross income: (circle one)**
  - under $10,000
  - $10,000 - $25,000
  - $25,001 - $40,000
  - $40,001 - $55,000
  - $55,001 - $70,000
  - $70,001 - $85,000
  - $85,001 - $100,000
  - above $100,000

No matter how well a couple gets along, there are times when they disagree on major decisions, get annoyed about something the other person does, or just have spats or fights because they're in a bad mood or tired or for some other reason. They also use many different ways of trying to settle their differences. Following is a list of some things that you and your partner might have done when you had a dispute. Please indicate the appropriate response for how often ***your partner*** has done the following ***to you*** during the past year. As well, please indicate if this has ever happened in your relationship.

0 = Never
1 = Once
2 = Twice
3 = 3-5 Times
4 = 6-10 Times
5 = 11-20 Times
6 = More than 20 Times

			Ever happened?	
◆	____	Discussed issue calmly	Yes	No
◆	____	Get information to back up his/her side of things	Yes	No
◆	____	Brought in or tried to bring in someone to help settle things	Yes	No
◆	____	Insulted or swore at you	Yes	No
◆	____	Sulked or refused to talk about it	Yes	No
◆	____	Stomped out of the room, house or yard	Yes	No
◆	____	Cried	Yes	No
◆	____	Did or said something to spite you	Yes	No
◆	____	Said you could not leave or see certain people	Yes	No
◆	____	Made nonviolent threats to withhold money, take away children, have an affair and so forth	Yes	No
◆	____	Threatened to hit or throw something at you	Yes	No
◆	____	Threw or smashed or hit or kicked something	Yes	No
◆	____	Threw something at you	Yes	No
◆	____	Pushed, grabbed, or shoved you	Yes	No
◆	____	Slapped you	Yes	No

Appendix B – Actual Q-sort Items

Q-sort items for the self-perspective

Strategy	Q-sort Statement Self-perspective (male partner)
• Hint	*I drop hints regarding what I want him to do*
• Flatter	*I flatter him*
• Seduce	*I behave seductively towards him*
• Favours	*I reminds him of past favours*
• Plead	*I plead with him*
• Cries	*I cry in front of him*
• Act ill	*I act ill or sick*
• Helpless	*I act helpless*
• Threats	*I makes threats towards him*
• Insult	*I insult him*
• Violent	*I become violent with him*
• Ridicule	*I ridicule him*
• Insists	*I insist he do what I want*
• Knowledge	*I claim greater knowledge than him*
• Authority	*I assert my authority over him*
• Sulk	*I sulk in front of him*
• Guilty	*I make him feel guilty*
• Leave	*I leave the scene*
• Reason	*I reason with him*
• Compromise	*I offer to compromise with him*
• Trade-off	*I offer a trade-off with him*
• Nag	*I nag him*
• Distort	*I distort the truth*
• Angry	*I get angry with him*
• Ask	*I ask him*
• Negotiate	*I negotiate with him*
• Does it him/herself	*I start to do what I want him to do*
• Pout	*I pout in front of him*
• Persist	*I persist in requesting him*
• Persuade	*I attempt to persuade him*
• Smile	*I smile a lot*

Strategy	Q-sort Statement Self-perspective (male partner)
• Affection	*I express a lot of affection towards him*
• Good-mood	*I try to get him in a good-mood*
• Logic	*I use logic with him*
• Importance	*I stress the importance of him doing what I want*
• Suggest	*I make suggestions to him*
• Discuss	*I discuss why I want him to do something*
• Explain	*I explain why I want him to do something*
• Tell	*I tell him what I want him to do*
• State	*I state to him what I want him to do*
• Mislead	*I mislead him by giving him irrelevant information*
• Nuisance	*I am a nuisance until he agrees to do what I want*
• Yell	*I yell at him*
• Convince	*I convince him*
• Ideas	*I present what I want him to do as if it was his idea*
• Sincere	*I try to look very sincere*
• Withdraw	*I withdraw my affection*
• Silent	I *grow silent*
• Cold	*I become cold and distant*
• Body language	*I use body-language*
• Relationship	*I talk about our relationship*
• Interests	*I show him it is in his best interest to do what I want*
• Help	*I tell him that I need his help*
• Argue	*I argue with him*
• Mean	*I act mean towards him*
• Bribe	*I try to bribe him*
• Reciprocate	*I do something I know he wants me to do so he will do what I want*
• Humour	*I use humour to get him to do what I want*
• Complain	*I complain about him not doing what I want*
• Apologise	*I apologise to him that I want him to do something*

Q-sort items for the partner-perspective

Strategy	Q-sort Statement Partner-perspective (male partner)
• Hint	*He drops hints regarding what he wants me to do*
• Flatter	*He flatters me*
• Seduce	*He behaves seductively towards me*
• Favours	*He reminds me of past favours*
• Plead	*He pleads with me*
• Cries	*He cries in front of me*
• Act ill	*He acts ill or sick*
• Helpless	*He acts helpless*
• Threats	*He makes threats towards me*
• Insult	*He insults me*
• Violent	*He becomes violent with me*
• Ridicule	*He ridicules me*
• Insists	*He insists I do what he wants*
• Knowledge	*He claims greater knowledge than me*
• Authority	*He asserts his authority over me*
• Sulk	*He sulks in front of me*
• Guilty	*He make me feel guilty*
• Leave	*He leaves the scene*
• Reason	*He reasons with me*
• Compromise	*He offers to compromise with me*
• Trade-off	*He offers a trade-off with me*
• Nag	*He nags me*
• Distort	*He distorts the truth*
• Angry	*He gets angry with me*
• Ask	*He asks me*
• Negotiate	*He negotiates with me*
• Does it him/herself	*He starts to do what he wants me to do*
• Pout	*He pouts in front of me*
• Persist	*He persists in requesting me*
• Persuade	*He attempts to persuade me*
• Smile	*He smiles a lot*

Strategy	Q-sort Statement Partner-perspective (male partner)
• Affection	*He expresses a lot of affection towards me*
• Good-mood	*He tries to get me in a good-mood*
• Logic	*He uses logic with me*
• Importance	*He stress importance of me doing what he wants*
• Suggest	*He makes suggestions to me*
• Discuss	*He discusses why he wants me to do something*
• Explain	*He explains why he wants me to do something*
• Tell	*He tells me what he wants me to do*
• State	*He states me what he wants me to do*
• Mislead	*He misleads me by giving me irrelevant information*
• Nuisance	*He is a nuisance until me agrees to do what he wants*
• Yell	*He yells at me*
• Convince	*He convinces me*
• Ideas	*He presents what he wants me to do as if it was my idea*
• Sincere	*He tries to look very sincere*
• Withdraw	*He withdraws his affection*
• Silent	*He grows silent*
• Cold	*He becomes cold and distant*
• Body language	*He uses body-language*
• Relationship	*He talks about the relationship with me*
• Interests	*He shows me it is in my best interest to do what he wants*
• Help	*He tells me that he needs my help*
• Argue	*He argues with me*
• Mean	*He acts mean towards me*
• Bribe	*He tries to bribe me*
• Reciprocate	*He does something he knows I want him to do so I will do what he wants*
• Humour	*He uses humour to get me to do what he wants*
• Complain	*He complains about me not doing what he wants*
• Apologise	*He apologises to me that he wants me to do something*

Q-sort items for the ideal-perspective

Strategy	Q-sort Statement Ideal-perspective
• Hint	*Person drops hints regarding what he/she wants partner to do*
• Flatter	*Person flatters partner*
• Seduce	*Person behaves seductively towards partner*
• Favours	*Person reminds partner of past favours*
• Plead	*Person pleads with partner*
• Cries	*Person cries in front of partner*
• Act ill	*Person acts ill or sick*
• Helpless	*Person acts helpless*
• Threats	*Person makes threats towards partner*
• Insult	*Person insults partner*
• Violent	*Person becomes violent with partner*
• Ridicule	*Person ridicules partner*
• Insists	*Person insists partner does what person wants*
• Knowledge	*Person claims greater knowledge than partner*
• Authority	*Person asserts his/her authority over partner*
• Sulk	*Person sulks in front of partner*
• Guilty	*Person make partner feel guilty*
• Leave	*Person leaves the scene*
• Reason	*Person reasons with partner*
• Compromise	*Person offers to compromise with partner*
• Trade-off	*Person offers a trade-off with partner*
• Nag	*Person nags partner*
• Distort	*Person distorts the truth*
• Angry	*Person gets angry with partner*
• Ask	*Person asks partner*
• Negotiate	*Person negotiates with partner*
• Does it him/herself	*Person starts to do what he/she wants partner to do*
• Pout	*Person pouts in front of partner*
• Persist	*Person persists in requesting partner*
• Persuade	*Person attempts to persuade partner*
• Smile	*Person smiles a lot*

Strategy	Q-sort Statement Ideal-perspective
• Affection	*Person expresses a lot of affection towards partner*
• Good-mood	*Person tries to get partner in a good-mood*
• Logic	*Person uses logic with partner*
• Importance	*Person stress importance of partner doing what person wants*
• Suggest	*Person makes suggestions to partner*
• Discuss	*Person discusses why person wants partner to do something*
• Explain	*Person explains why person wants partner to do something*
• Tell	*Person tells partner what person wants partner to do*
• State	*Person states partner what person wants partner to do*
• Mislead	*Person misleads partner by giving partner irrelevant information*
• Nuisance	*Person is a nuisance until partner agrees to do what person wants*
• Yell	*Person yells at partner*
• Convince	*Person convinces partner*
• Ideas	*Person presents what person wants partner to do as if it was partner's idea*
• Sincere	*Person tries to look very sincere*
• Withdraw	*Person withdraws his/her affection*
• Silent	*Person grows silent*
• Cold	*Person becomes cold and distant*
• Body language	*Person uses body-language*
• Relationship	*Person talks about the relationship with partner*
• Interests	*Person shows partner it is in partner's best interest to do what person wants*
• Help	*Person tells partner that person needs partner's help*
• Argue	*Person argues with partner*
• Mean	*Person acts mean towards partner*
• Bribe	*Person tries to bribe partner*
• Reciprocate	*Person does something person knows partner wants person to do so partner will do what person wants*
• Humour	*Person uses humour to get partner to do what person wants*
• Complain	*Person complains about partner not doing what person wants*
• Apologise	*Person apologises to partner that person want partner to do something*

Appendix C - Self-Report Package

How Couple Members Influence One Another

Questionnaire Booklet

Celine Pinsent & Dr. John Hunsley

School of Psychology
University of Ottawa

Number _____

Miller Social Intimacy Scale - Miller & Lefcourt (1982)

Please indicate the most appropriate response for each of the following statements

1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
Very Rarely				*Some of the Time*					*Almost Always*

- ____ When you have leisure time how often do you choose to spend it alone with your partner?
- ____ How often do you keep very personal information to yourself and do not share it with your partner?
- ____ How often do you show your partner affection?
- ____ How often do you confide very personal information to your partner?
- ____ How often are you able to understand your partner's feelings?
- ____ How often do you feel close to your partner?

Please indicate the most appropriate response for each of the following statements

1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
Not Much				*A Little*					*A Great Deal*

- ____ How much do you like to spend time alone with your partner?
- ____ How much do you feel like being encouraging and supportive to your partner when he/she is unhappy?
- ____ How close do you feel to your partner most of the time?
- ____ How important is it to you to listen to your parnter's very personal disclosures?
- ____ How satisfying is your relationship with your partner?
- ____ How affectionate do you feel towards your partner?
- ____ How important is it to you that your partner understands your feelings?
- ____ How much damage is caused by a typical disagreement in your relationship with your partner?
- ____ How important is it to you that your partner be encouraging and supportive to you when you are unhappy?
- ____ How important is it to you that your partner show you affection?
- ____ How important is your relationship with your partner in your life?

Hong's Psychological Reactance Scale - Hong & Page (1989)

Please indicate your amount of agreement with each of the following statements.

1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
disagree completely		***neither agree nor disagree***		***agree completely***

- ____ Regulations trigger a sense of resistance in me
- ____ I find contradicting others stimulating
- ____ When something is prohibited, I usually think "that's exactly what I am going to do"
- ____ The thought of being dependent on others aggravates me
- ____ I consider advice from others to be an intrusion
- ____ I become frustrated when I am unable to make free and independent decisions
- ____ It irritates me when someone points out things which are obvious to me
- ____ I become angry when my freedom of choice is restricted
- ____ Advice and recommendations usually induce me to do just the opposite
- ____ I am contented only when I am acting of my own free will
- ____ I resist the attempts of others to influence me
- ____ It makes me angry when another person is held up as a role model for me to follow
- ____ When someone forces me to do something, I feel like doing the opposite
- ____ It disappoints me to see others submitting to society's standards and rules

Self-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale (SDPT)

Please indicate the number that is the best description of yourself for each of the following items.

0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*
Does not describe me very well				***Does describe me very well***

- ____ I am good at understanding my partner's problems.
- ____ I not only listen to my partner, but I understand what he/she is saying, and seem to know where he/she is coming from.
- ____ I very often seem to know how my partner feels.
- ____ I always know exactly what my partner means.
- ____ I am able to sense or realize what my partner is feeling.
- ____ Before criticizing my partner I try to imagine how I would feel in his/her place.
- ____ I sometimes try to understand my partner better by imagining how things look from his/her perspective.
- ____ In my relationship with my partner I believe that there are two sides to every question, and I try to look and think about both sides.
- ____ I try to look at my partner's side of a diagreement before I make a decision.
- ____ When I'm upset with my partner, I usually try to put myself in his/her shoes for a while.
- ____ Even if my partner has difficulty in saying something, I usually understand what he/she means.
- ____ I usually do not understand the full meaning of what my partner is saying to me.
- ____ I am able to appreciate exactly how the things my partner experiences, feel to him/her.

MACH IV - Christie & Geiss (1970)

Please indicate the appropriate response for each of the following items

1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
strongly disagree	*somewhat disagree*	*slightly disagree*	*no opinion*	*slightly agree*	*somewhat agree*	*strongly agree*

- ____ Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so
- ____ The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear
- ____ One should take action only when sure it is morally right
- ____ Most people are basically good and kind
- ____ It is safest to assume that all people hace a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance
- ____ Honesty is the best policy in all casess
- ____ There is no excuse for lying to someone else
- ____ Generally speaking, people won't work hard unless they're forced to do so
- ____ All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than important and dishonest
- ____ When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which might carry more weight
- ____ Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives
- ____ Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble
- ____ The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that criminals are stupid enough to get caught
- ____ Most people are brave
- ____ It is wise to flatter important people
- ____ It is possible to be good in all respects
- ____ Barnum was very wrong when he said there's a sucker born every minute
- ____ It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there
- ____ People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death
- ____ Most people forget more easily the death of a parent than the loss of their property

Other-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale (ODPT) - Long & Andrews (1990a; 1990b)

Please indicate the number that is the best description of your partner's actions towards you for each of the following items.

0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*
Does not describe him/her very well				*Does describe him/her very well*

- ____ When involved in an argument with me, my partner is the types of person who will consider and take into account my point of view and compare that with his/her own.
- ____ My partner is not good at understanding my problems.
- ____ My partner no only listens to what I am saying but really understands and seems to know where I am coming from.
- ____ My partner does not seem to know how I feel.
- ____ My partner is able to accurately compare his/her point of view with mine.
- ____ My partner evaluates my motivation for doing something before he/she makes judgments about a situation.
- ____ My partner easily becomes impatient with me.
- ____ My partner is not able to put his/herself into my shoes.
- ____ My partner nearly always knows exactly what I mean.
- ____ My partner does not sense or realize what I am feeling.
- ____ My partner realizes what I mean even when I have difficulty saying it.
- ____ My partner does not usually understand the whole meaning of what I say to him/her.
- ____ My partner appreciates how the things I experience, feel to me.
- ____ Before criticizing me, my partner tries to imagine how I feel.
- ____ If my partner thinks he/she is right about something he/she doesn't waste much time in listening to my arguments.
- ____ My partner tries to understand me better by imagining how things look from my perspective.
- ____ My partner believes there are two sides to every argument and tries to look at both sides.
- ____ My partner sometimes finds it difficult to see things from my perspective.
- ____ My partner tries to look at my perspective before making a decision.
- ____ When my partner is upset with me he/she tries to put him/herself in my shoes for a while.

General Population Dominance Scale (GPDS) – Ray (1981)

Please circle one of the three responses provided for each of the following questions.

Yes	?	No	Are you the sort of person who always likes to get your own way?
Yes	?	No	Do you tend to boss people around?
Yes	?	No	Do you dislike having to tell others what to do?
Yes	?	No	If you are told to take charge of some situation, does this make you feel uncomfortable?
Yes	?	No	Would you rather take orders or give them?
Yes	?	No	Do you dislike standing out from the crowd?
Yes	?	No	Do you find it difficult to make up your own mind about things?
Yes	?	No	If anyone is going to be "top dog", would you rather it be you?
Yes	?	No	Do you tend to dominate the conversation?
Yes	?	No	Do you let your partner get his/her own way most of the time?
Yes	?	No	Are you generally a follower rather than a leader?
Yes	?	No	Would you prefer to be a worker rather than a manager?
Yes	?	No	Do you give in to other people rather easily?
Yes	?	No	Do you tend to be the one who makes the decisions at home?
Yes	?	No	Do other people tend to seek your opinion on things?
Yes	?	No	Do you like to have the last word in an argument or discussion?
Yes	?	No	Do you hate giving speeches or talks in public (For example: being asked to say a few words at a wedding)?
Yes	?	No	In an argument or discussion, will you argue for your own point of view even though you are in the minority?
Yes	?	No	Have you ever run for office in any club or organization?
Yes	?	No	Are you a bit of a social organizer?
Yes	?	No	Are you pretty good about getting your own way in most things?
Yes	?	No	Rather than argue, do you sometimes let other people push you around a bit?
Yes	?	No	Does the idea of being a leader rather attract you?
Yes	?	No	Do you try to get yourself into positions of authority where you can?
Yes	?	No	Do you think you would make a good officer in the army?
Yes	?	No	Are you often in situations where you can't make up your mind what to do for the best?
Yes	?	No	Are you hopeless at organizing other people?
Yes	?	No	Are you easily swayed by other people's opinions?
Yes	?	No	Do you think you would make a poor military leader?

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) - Spanier (1976)

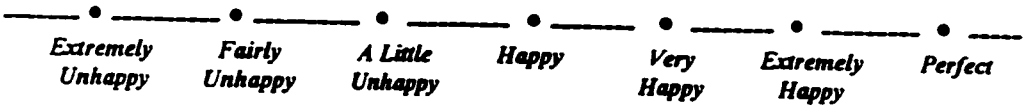
Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list. (Place a checkmark to indicate your answer).

	Always Agree	*Almost Always Agree*	*Occasionally Disagree*	*Frequently Disagree*	*Almost Always Disagree*	*Always Disagree*
Philosophy of life	____	____	____	____	____	____
Aims, goals, and things believed important	____	____	____	____	____	____
Amount of time spent together	____	____	____	____	____	____

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

	Never	*Less than Once a Month*	*Once or Twice a Month*	*Once or Twice a Week*	*Once a Day*	*More Often*
Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	____	____	____	____	____	____
Calmly discuss something	____	____	____	____	____	____
Work together on a project	____	____	____	____	____	____

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



Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding -

Impression Management sub-scale (BIDR-IM) Paulhaus (1991)

Using the scale below as a guide, write a number beside each statement to indicate how much you agree with it.

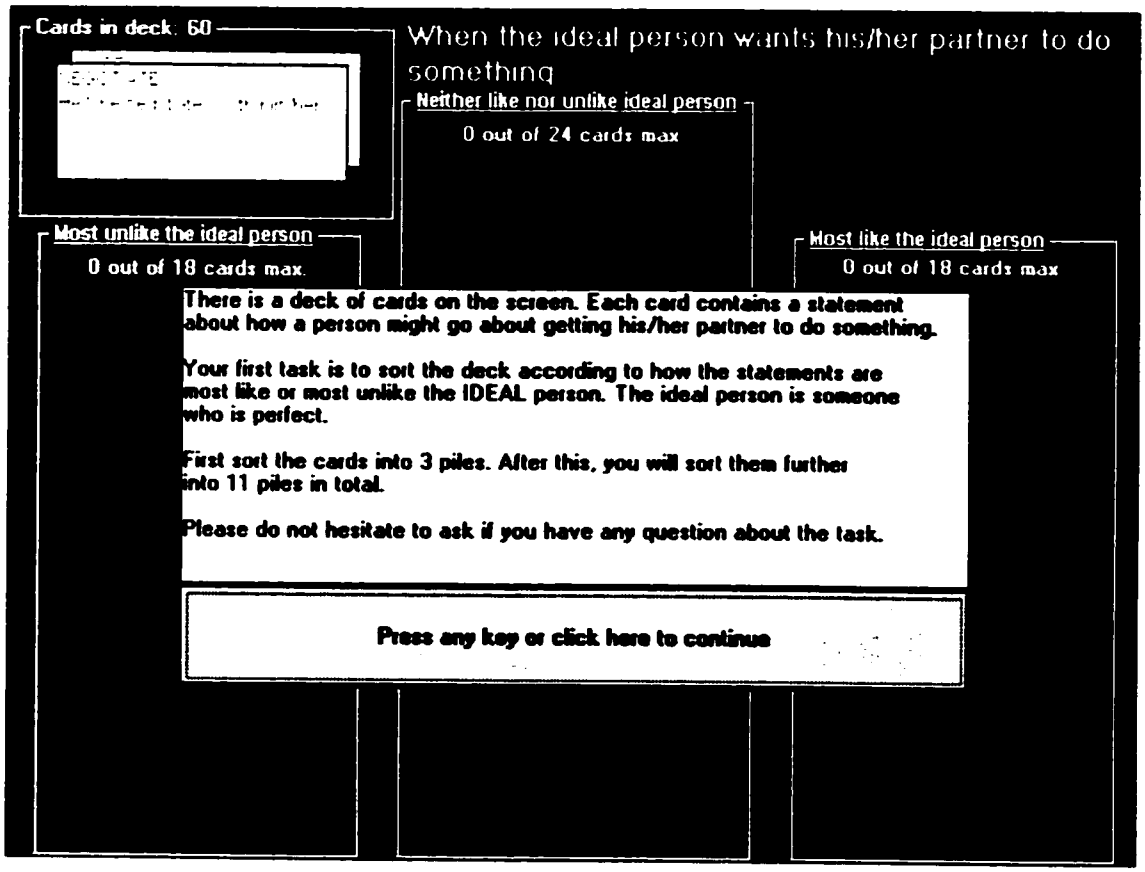
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
not true			***somewhat true***			***very true***

- ____ I sometimes tell lies if I have to.
- ____ I never cover up my mistakes.
- ____ There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.
- ____ I never swear.
- ____ I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
- ____ I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.
- ____ I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.
- ____ When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.
- ____ I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling her.
- ____ I always declare everything at customs.
- ____ When I was young I sometimes stole things.
- ____ I have never dropped litter on the street.
- ____ I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit.
- ____ I never read sexy books or magazines.
- ____ I have done things that I don't tell other people about.
- ____ I never take things that don't belong to me.
- ____ I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick.
- ____ I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it.
- ____ I have some pretty awful habits.
- ____ I don't gossip about other people's business.

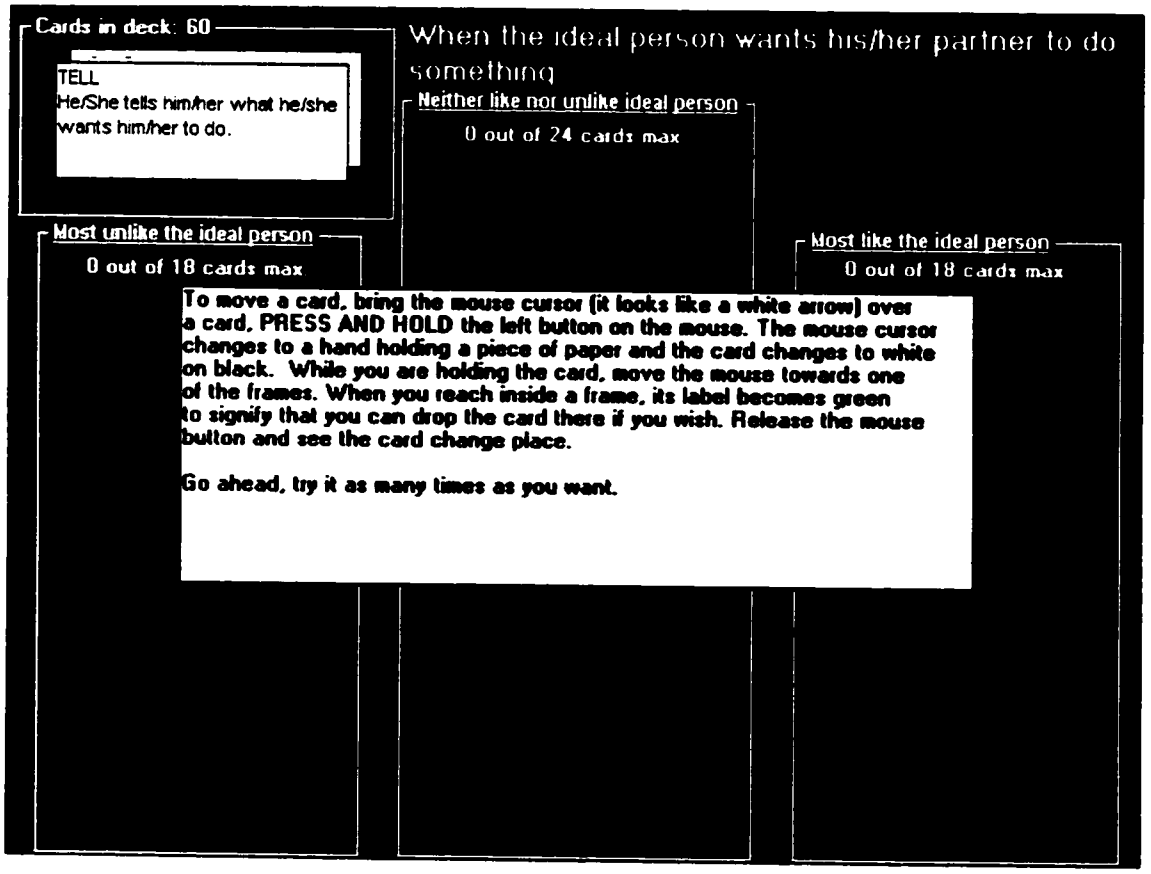
Appendix D - Sample Screens of Q-sort Task

Sample Screens from Q-sort Task

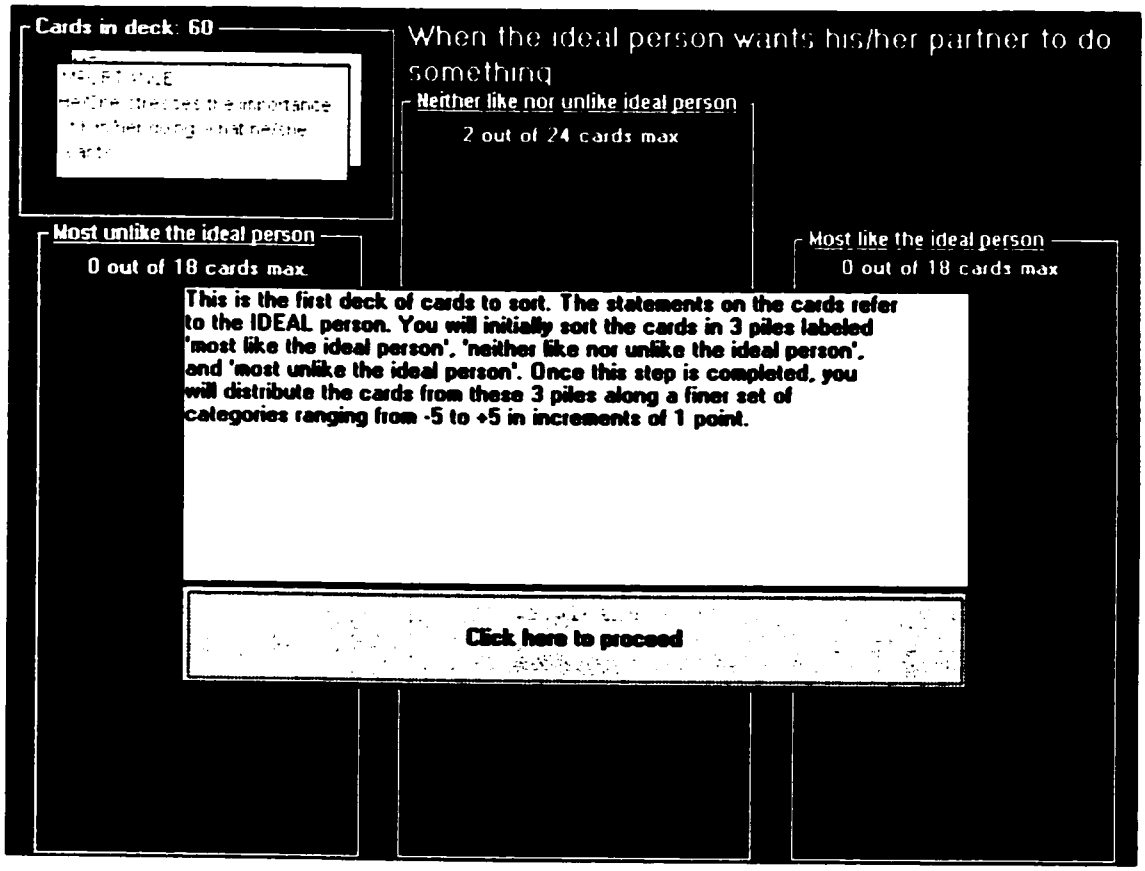
#1 Initial Screen for Q-sort Tasks



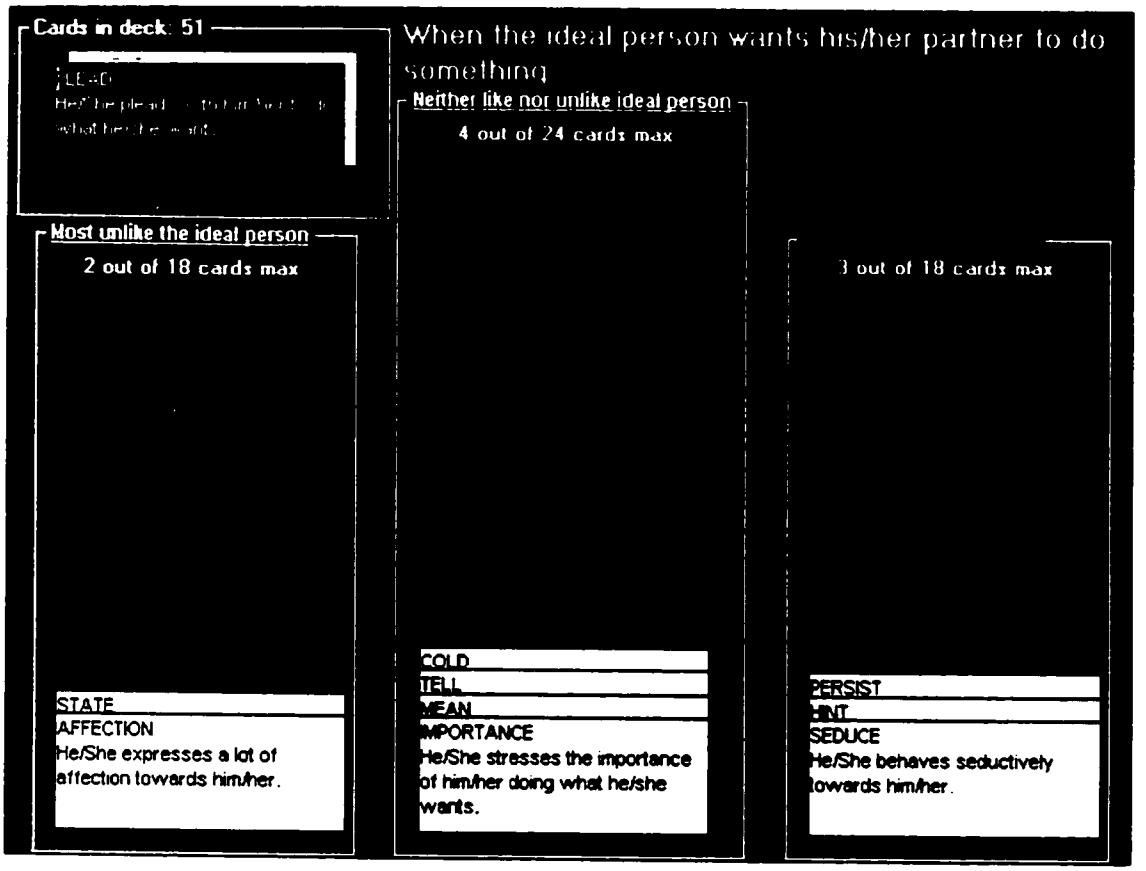
#2 Practice Screen for Q-sort Tasks



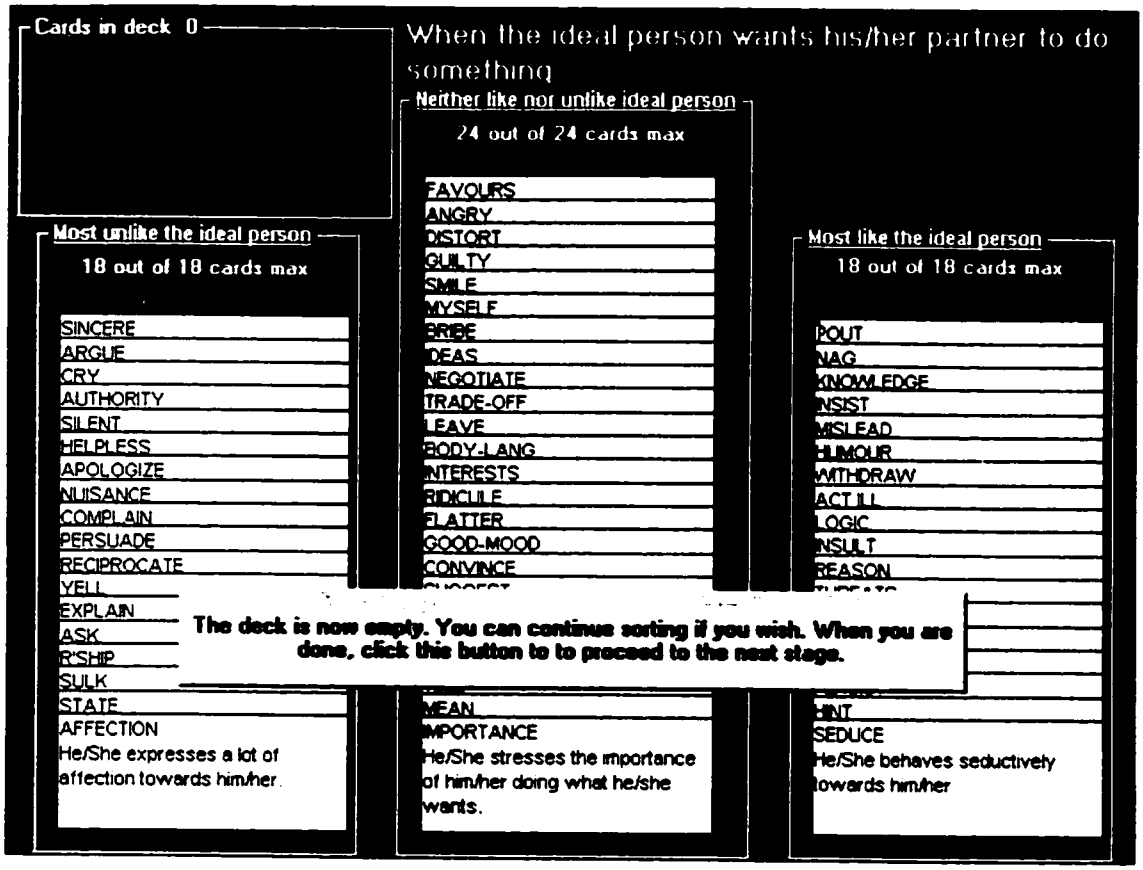
#3 Instructions for Ideal Q-sort Task



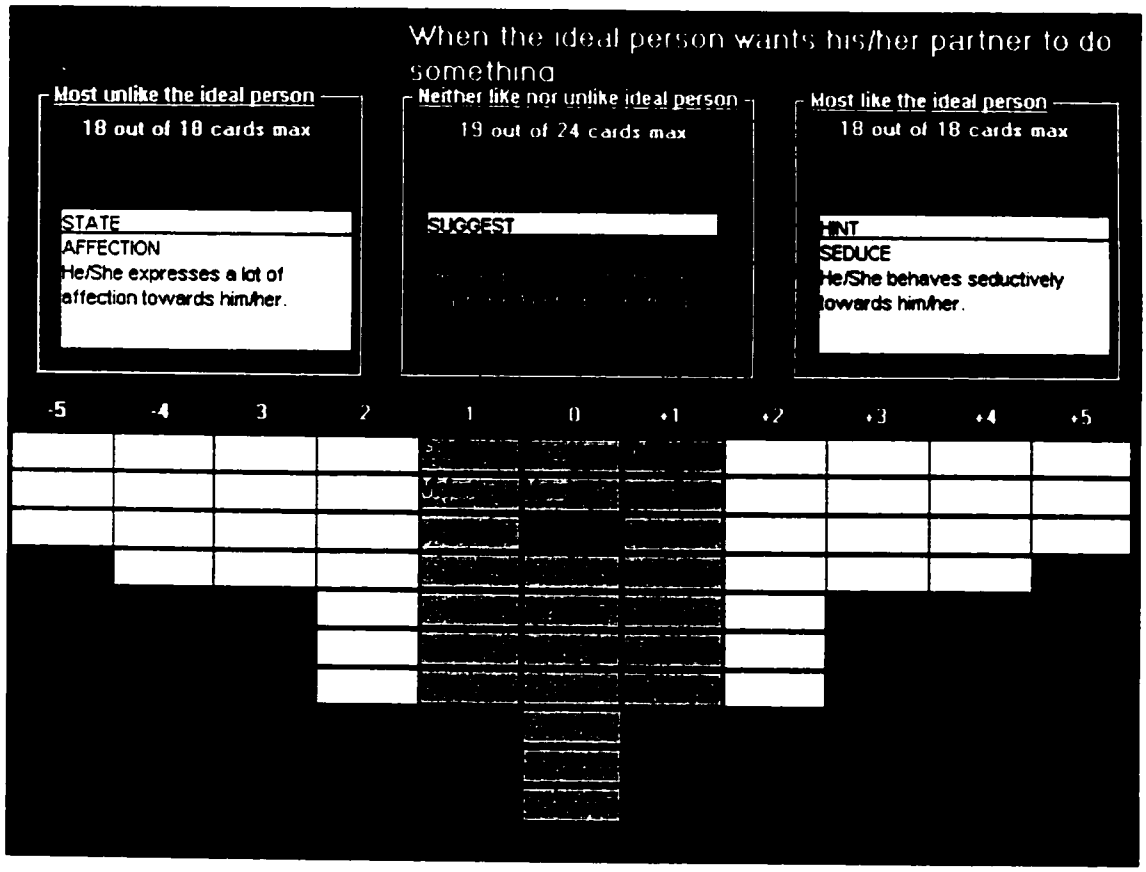
#4 *Screen from First Stage of Q-sort Task*



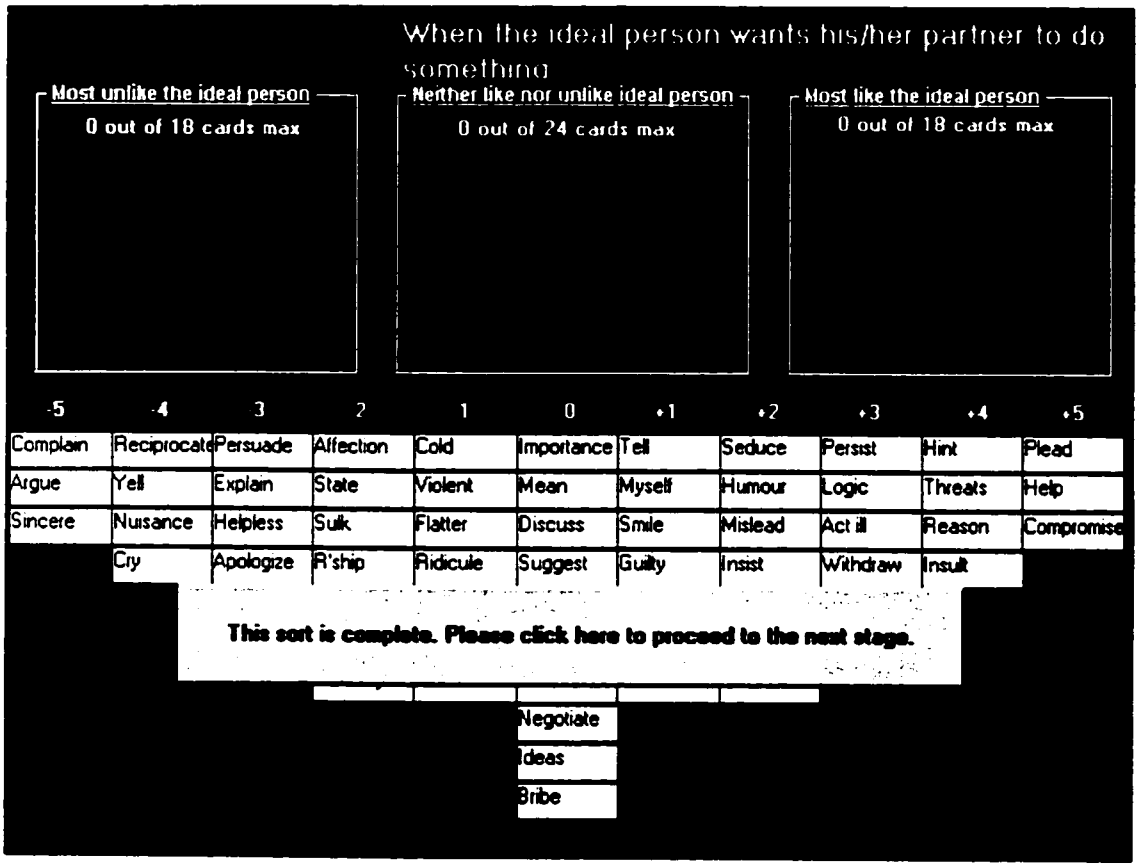
#5 *Screen for End of Initial Stage of Ideal Q-sort Task*



#6 *Screen for Final Stage of Ideal Q-sort Task*



#7 *Screen for Completion of Final Stage of Ideal Q-sort Task*



Appendix E - Composite Factor Arrays

Q-ITEM	SELF F1	SELF F2	PARTNER F1	PARTNER F2	IDEAL
ACT ILL	-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
AFFECTION	5	-1	5	-3	3
ANGRY	-3	0	-4	2	-4
APOLOGISE	0	-2	0	-1	0
ARGUE	-1	1	-1	5	-2
ASK	2	5	4	4	5
AUTHORITY	-3	-1	-3	-2	-2
BODY LANGUAGE	0	0	1	-2	1
BRIBE	-1	-4	-2	-3	-2
COLD	-2	0	-2	0	-3
COMPLIANCE	0	2	0	4	-1
COMPROMISE	4	1	4	1	3
CONVINCE	1	3	2	2	1
CRY	-2	-1	-3	-4	-2
DISCUSS	4	4	5	1	4
DISTORT	-4	-2	-2	-4	-3
EXPLAIN	3	3	4	2	5
FAVOUR	0	-3	0	2	0
FLATTER	1	-4	1	-3	0
GOOD MOOD	5	-2	4	1	2
GUILT	-2	0	-3	3	-3
HELP	2	4	3	0	3
HELPLESS	0	0	-1	1	-1
HINT	2	2	3	0	1
HUMOUR	5	1	3	-1	2
IDEAS	0	-2	0	0	1
IMPORTANCE	0	5	2	3	2
INSIST	-3	2	-2	5	-1
INSULT	-5	-3	-4	-2	-4
INTERESTS	1	1	0	1	2
KNOWLEDGE	-1	1	-1	0	-2
LEAVE	-2	-1	-1	-1	0
LOGIC	4	5	2	0	4
MEAN	-4	-2	-5	-2	-4
MISLEAD	-2	-5	-2	-5	-2
MYSELF	0	0	0	2	0

Q-ITEM	SELF F1	SELF F2	PARTNER F1	PARTNER F2	IDEAL
NAG	-1	3	-1	3	-1
NEGOTIATE	4	2	2	0	5
NUISANCE	-1	0	-1	4	-1
PERSIST	0	3	0	4	0
PERSUADE	2	2	2	1	1
PLEAD	0	-1	0	-1	-1
POUT	-3	1	0	-1	0
REASON	3	4	2	3	2
RECIPROCATE	1	-1	1	0	2
RIDICULE	-4	-4	-4	-3	-5
RELATIONSHIP	3	-1	0	-2	0
SEDUCTIVE	2	-5	1	-5	0
SILENT	-1	0	-1	-1	0
SINCERE	2	0	1	-1	1
SMILE	2	-3	3	-4	2
STATE	1	2	2	2	3
SUGGEST	3	2	5	2	4
SULK	-2	0	-2	0	-1
TELL	1	4	1	5	1
THREAT	-5	-4	-5	-4	-5
TRADE	1	1	1	1	4
VIOLENT	-5	-5	-5	-5	-5
WITHDRAW	-1	-2	-3	0	-3
YELL	-4	-3	-4	-2	-4

Figure 1.

Example of problems with inverted matrices

Typical r-methodology matrix			
	IQ	**Int/Ext**	**Creative**
Person 1	115	75	9
Person 2	105	85	11
Person 3	95	80	7
Mean	105	80	9

Inverted matrix			
	Person 1	**Person 2**	**Person 3**
IQ	115	105	95
Int/Ext	75	85	80
Creative	9	11	7
Mean	?	?	?

Figure 2. Principal components analysis plan

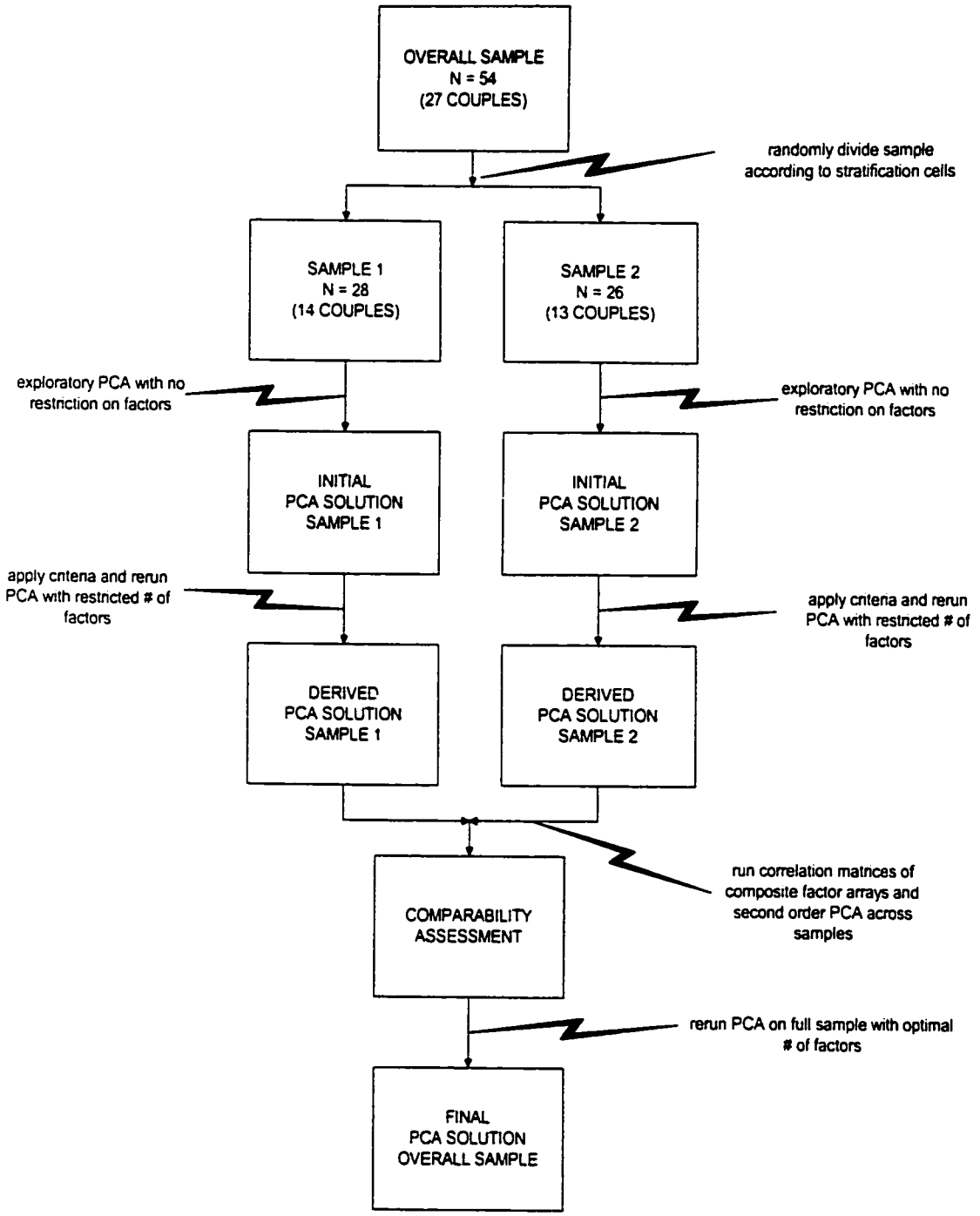


Figure 3

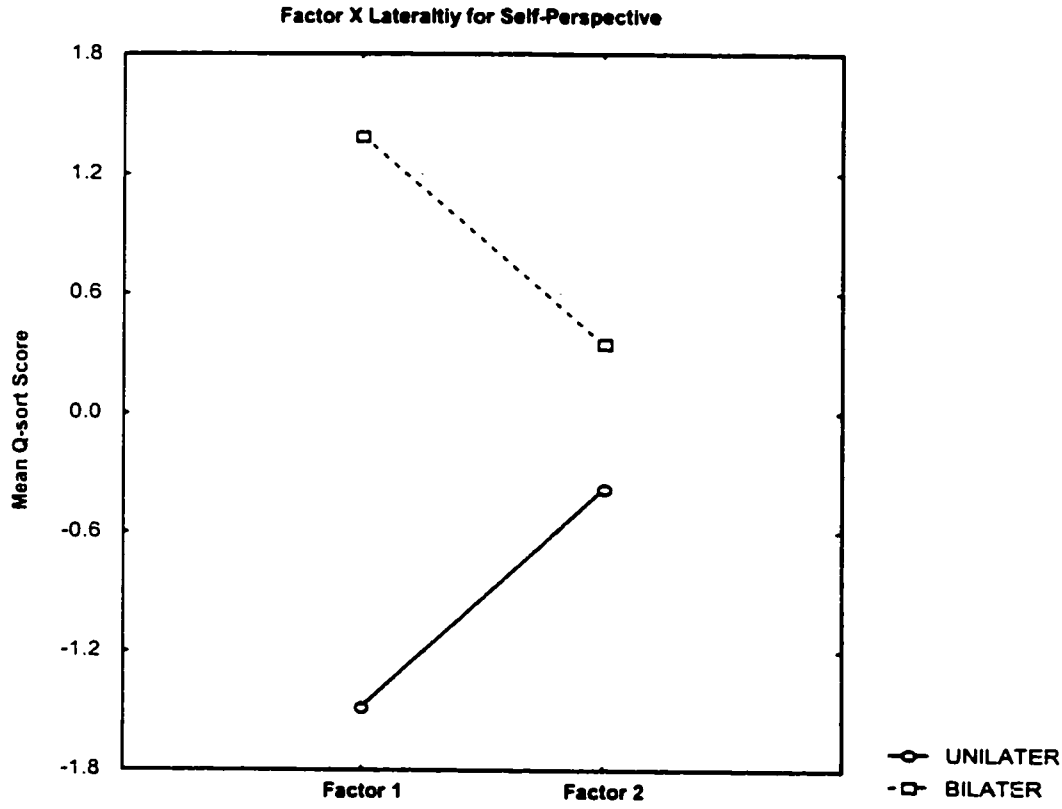

Factor X Lateraltiy for Self-Perspective
1.8
1.2
0.6
0.0
-0.6
-1.2
-1.8
Mean Q-sort Score
Factor 1
Factor 2
UNILATER
BILATER

Figure 4

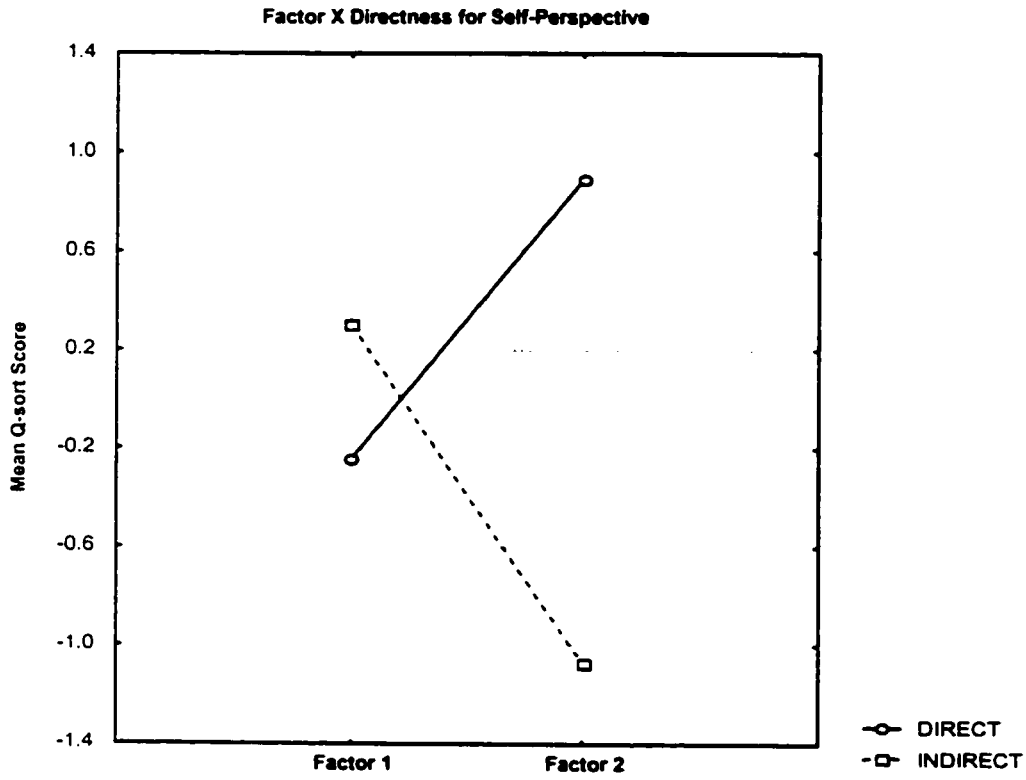

Factor X Directness for Self-Perspective
Mean Q-sort Score
1.4
1.0
0.6
0.2
-0.2
-0.6
-1.0
-1.4
Factor 1
Factor 2
DIRECT
INDIRECT

Figure 5

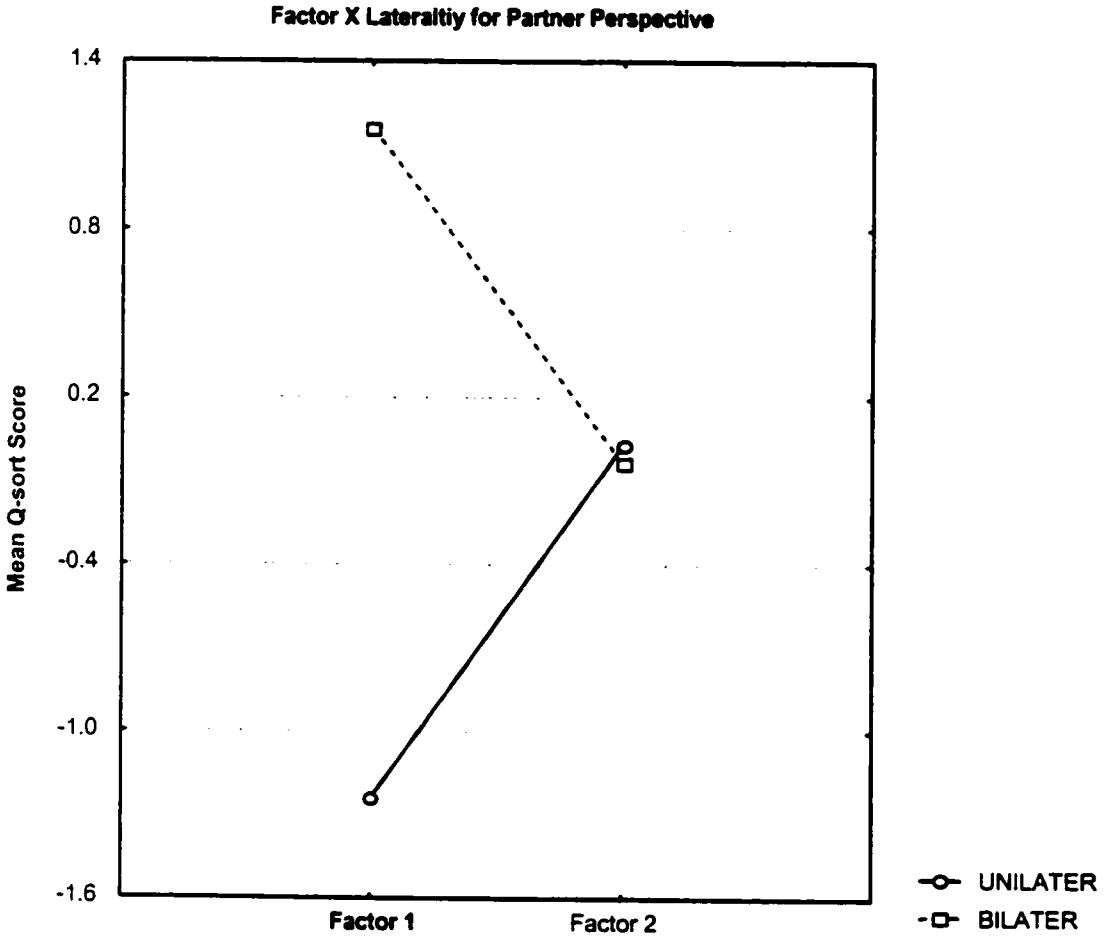

Factor X Lateraltiy for Partner Perspective
1.4
0.8
0.2
-0.4
-1.0
-1.6
Mean Q-sort Score
Factor 1
Factor 2
UNILATER
BILATER

Figure 6

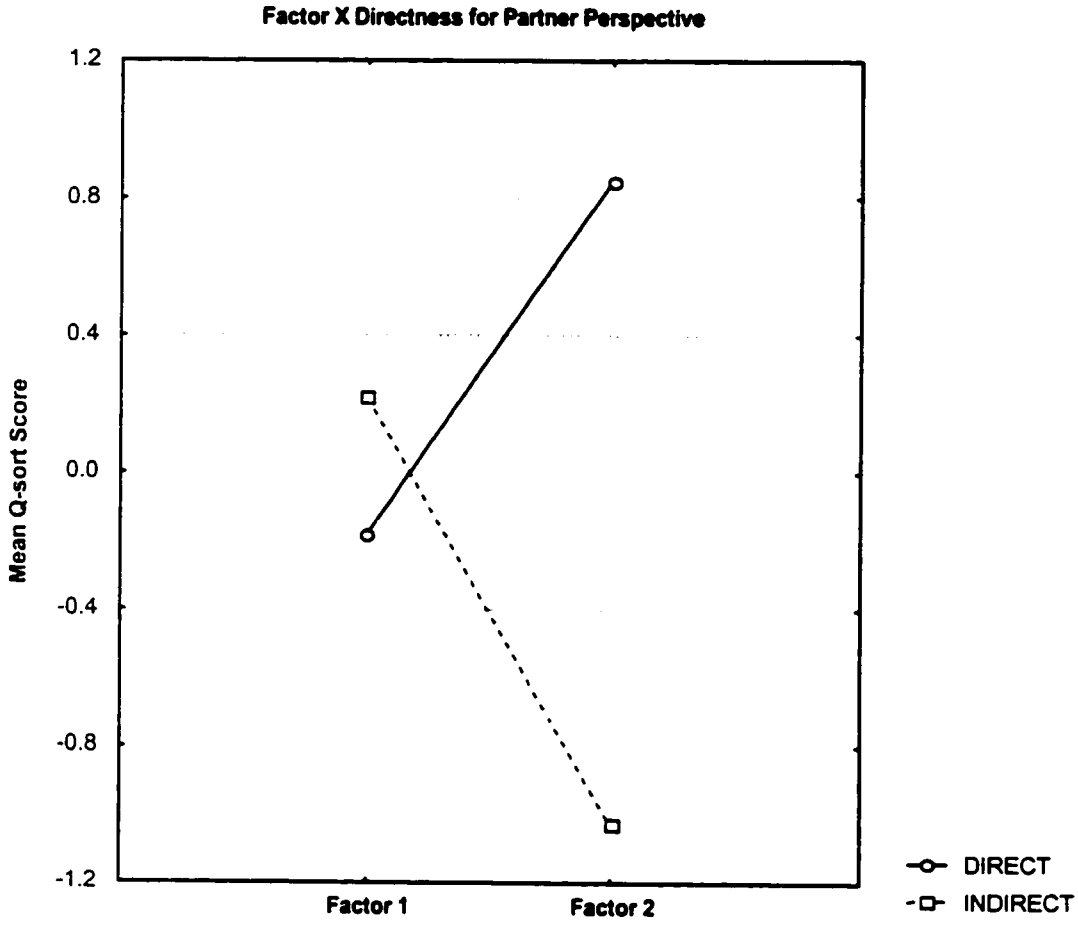

Factor X Directness for Partner Perspective
1.2
0.8
0.4
0.0
-0.4
-0.8
-1.2
Mean Q-sort Score
Factor 1
Factor 2
DIRECT
INDIRECT

Table 1.

Actual vs. Reputational Power by Potential vs. Exercised Power

	Actual	***Reputational*** Attributions Self (A)	***Reputational*** Attributions Other (B)	***Reputational*** Attributions Outsider (OS)
Potential Power **("Power")** ***Future oriented***	A **can** cause specific effects on B.	*A **perceives** that A **can** cause specific effects on B.*	*B **perceives** that A **can** cause specific effects on B.*	OS **perceives** that A **can** cause specific effects on B.
	Not directly measurable.	*Self-reports (A) regarding A's ability to affect B's behaviour or outcomes.*	*Self-reports (B) regarding A's ability to affect B's behaviour or outcomes.*	OS's reports regarding A's ability to affect B's behaviour or outcomes.
Exercised Power **("Control")** ***Past oriented***	A **has** caused specific effects on B.	A **perceives** that A **has** caused specific effects on B.	B **perceives** that A **has** caused specific effects on B.	OS **perceives** that A **has** caused specific effects on B.
	Behavioral self - reports or behavioral measures of control	Self-reports (A) on A's relative control over a specific event or outcome.	Self-reports on A's relative control over a specific event or outcome.	OS' s reports on A's relative control over a specific event or outcome.

- Adapted and modified from Szinovacz (1987).
- Shaded area indicates modification of Szinovacz's model
- Italics indicate focus of present study

Table 2.

Differences between Q-methodology and R-methodology

R-methodology	*Q-methodology*
• Investigator has task of determining what goes with what	• Subject has task of determining what goes with what
• Sample – population of persons	• Sample – population of statements
• Do not measure the personal significance of item to subject	• Primary concern is the personal significance of item to subject
• Assume individual differences on objectively scorable traits	• Assume intra-individual differences in significance of items
• 40 items ---> 40 discrete bits of information	• 40 items ---> 780 item comparisons [(1/2)(N)(N-1)]
• Elements of sample (persons) do not interact	• Elements of sample (statements) interact

Table 3.

Stratification of participant sample

University degree		
	No children	Children
Cohabiting < 5 years	4 (4)	3 (4)
Cohabiting > or = 5 years	4 (4)	5 (4)

No university degree		
	No children	Children
Cohabiting < 5 years	7 (4)	1 (4)
Cohabiting > or = 5 years	2 (4)	1 (4)

( ) indicate ideal stratification

Table 4.

Q-sample and affiliation with dimensions

Strategy	Statement ("Person" as actor)	Unilateral	Bilateral	Direct	Indirect
Hint	*Person drops hints regarding what he/she wants partner to do*		✓		✓
Flatter	*Person flatters partner*		✓		✓
Seduce	*Person behaves seductively towards partner*		✓		✓
Favours	*Person reminds partner of past favours*	✓			✓
Plead	*Person pleads with partner*		✓	✓	
Cries	*Person cries in front of partner*		✓		✓
Act ill	*Person acts ill or sick*		✓		✓
Helpless	*Person acts helpless*		✓		✓
Threats	*Person makes threats towards partner*	✓		✓	
Insult	*Person insults partner*	✓		✓	
Violent	*Person becomes violent with partner*	✓		✓	
Ridicule	*Person ridicules partner*	✓		✓	
Insists	*Person insists partner does what person wants*	✓		✓	
Knowledge	*Person claims greater knowledge than partner*	✓		✓	
Authority	*Person asserts his/her authority over partner*	✓		✓	
Sulk	*Person sulks in front of partner*	✓			✓
Guilty	*Person make partner feel guilty*	✓			✓
Leave	*Person leaves the scene*	✓			✓
Reason	*Person reasons with partner*		✓	✓	
Compromise	*Person offers to compromise with partner*		✓	✓	
Trade-off	*Person offers a trade-off with partner*		✓	✓	
Nag	*Person nags partner*		✓	✓	
Distort	*Person distorts the truth*	✓			✓
Angry	*Person gets angry with partner*	✓		✓	
Ask	*Person asks partner*	✓		✓	
Negotiate	*Person negotiates with partner*		✓	✓	
Does it him/herself	*Person starts to do what he/she wants partner to do*		✓		✓
Pout	*Person pouts in front of partner*		✓		✓
Persist	*Person persists in requesting partner*		✓	✓	
Persuade	*Person attempts to persuade partner*		✓	✓	

Strategy	Statement ("Person" as actor)	Unilateral	Bilateral	Direct	Indirect
Smile	*Person smiles a lot*		✓		✓
Affection	*Person expresses a lot of affection towards partner*		✓		✓
Good-mood	*Person tries to get partner in a good-mood*		✓		✓
Logic	*Person uses logic with partner*		✓	✓	
Importance	*Person stress importance of partner doing what person wants*	✓		✓	
Suggest	*Person makes suggestions to partner*	✓			✓
Discuss	*Person discusses why person wants partner to do something*		✓	✓	
Explain	*Person explains why person wants partner to do something*		✓	✓	
Tell	*Person tells partner what person wants partner to do*	✓		✓	
State	*Person states partner what person wants partner to do*	✓		✓	
Mislead	*Person misleads partner by giving partner irrelevant information*	✓			✓
Nuisance	*Person is a nuisance until partner agrees to do what person wants*		✓	✓	
Yell	*Person yells at partner*	✓		✓	
Convince	*Person convinces partner*		✓	✓	
Ideas	*Person presents what person wants partner to do as if it was partner's idea*	✓			✓
Sincere	*Person tries to look very sincere*		✓		✓
Withdraw	*Person withdraws his/her affection*	✓			✓
Silent	*Person grows silent*	✓			✓
Cold	*Person becomes cold and distant*	✓			✓
Body language	*Person uses body-language*		✓		✓
Relationship	*Person talks about the relationship with partner*		✓		✓
Interests	*Person shows partner it is in partner's best interest to do what person wants*	✓		✓	
Help	*Person tells partner that person needs partner's help*	✓		✓	
Argue	*Person argues with partner*		✓	✓	
Mean	*Person acts mean towards partner*	✓		✓	
Bribe	*Person tries to bribe partner*		✓	✓	
Reciprocate	*Person does something person knows partner wants person to do so partner will do what person wants*		✓		✓
Humour	*Person uses humour to get partner to do what person wants*		✓		✓
Complain	*Person complains about partner not doing what person wants*	✓		✓	
Apologise	*Person apologises to partner that person want partner to do something*	✓		✓	

Table 5

.

Stratification of Q-sample items

	Unilateral	Bilateral
Direct	18 (15)	15 (15)
Indirect	11 (15)	16 (15)

( ) indicate ideal stratification

Table 6

Descriptive statistics for construct measures (N=54)

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Alpha Coefficient
Miller Social Intimacy Scale	136.8	12.8	.86
Hong's Psychological Reactance Scale	42.2	8.3	.79
Self-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale	35.3	6.0	.80
Other-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale	51.9	10.7	.87
Dyadic Adjustment Scale – Short Form	33.9	3.9	.69
General Population Dominance Scale	66.2	10.7	.86
Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale – Short Form	111.3	10.8	.69
MACH IV	72.6	10.9	.61
Balanced Inventory of Desired Responding -IM	5.7	3.1	.62

Table 7.

Item Distribution for Ideal Q-sort.

	Most unlike ideal person					Neither like nor unlike ideal person				Most like ideal person	
Q-score	(-5)	(-4)	(-3)	(-2)	(-1)	(0)	(+1)	(+2)	(+3)	(+4)	(+5)
# Items	3	4	4	7	7	10	7	7	4	4	3

Table 8.

Initial PCA solution for self perspective – Two Samples

	Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings	Primary Factor Loadings
Sample One					
	1	10.54	37.66	22	6
	2	5.64	20.15	17	3
	3	2.05	7.33	4	1
	4	1.45	5.18	1	1
Sample Two					
	1	9.04	34.77	22	5
	2	4.94	19.02	15	2
	3	3.61	13.88	11	1
	4	1.25	4.82	1	1

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 9.

Derived PCA solution for self perspective – Two Samples

	Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings	Primary Factor Loadings
Sample One					
	1	15.37	54.90	25	15
	2	1.69	6.02	12	3
Sample Two					
	1	14.59	56.11	23	7
	2	2.02	7.75	19	3

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 10.

Correlation matrix across samples for composite factor arrays from self-perspective.

		Sample Two	
		Factor One	Factor Two
Sample One	Factor One	.77	.59
	Factor Two	.29	.16

Table 11

Factor loadings for second-order PCA self perspective

	Component 1	Component 2
Sample 1 – Factor 1	.93	-.21
Sample 1 – Factor 2	.44	.86
Sample 2 – Factor 1	.84	.00
Sample 2 – Factor 2	.69	-.34

Table 12.

Final PCA for Self Perspective – Two Factors

Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings	Primary Factor Loadings
1	20.51	37.98	45	12
2	11.89	22.01	43	8

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 13.

Initial PCA solutions for partner perspective – two samples

	Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings	Primary Factor Loadings
Sample One	1	8.41	30.05	20	7
	2	4.33	15.47	11	2
	3	2.90	10.35	7	1
	4	2.32	8.30	7	1
	5	2.20	7.85	4	0
Sample Two	1	10.96	42.13	22	16
	2	3.51	13.50	7	2
	3	1.89	7.25	2	1
	4	1.38	5.29	2	0

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 14.

Derived PCA solutions for partner perspective – two samples

	Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings	Primary Factor Loadings
Sample One	1	9.69	34.62	21	10
	2	6.55	23.40	18	7
Sample Two	1	12.12	46.60	22	19
	2	2.96	11.39	7	4

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 15.

Correlation matrix across samples for composite factor arrays from partner-perspective.

		Sample Two	
		Factor One	Factor Two
Sample One	Factor One	.86	.15
	Factor Three	.59	.44

** $p < 0.01$

Table 16

Factor loadings for second-order PCA partner perspective

	Component 1	Component 2
Sample 1 – Factor 1	.94	.06
Sample 1 – Factor 2	.49	.69
Sample 2 – Factor 1	.95	.22
Sample 2 – Factor 2	.00	.93

Table 17.

Final PCA for Partner Perspective – Two Factors

Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings	Primary Factor Loadings
1	21.36	39.59	46	25
2	8.67	16.05	30	8

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 18.

Initial PCA solutions for ideal perspective – two samples

	Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings	Primary Factor Loadings
Sample One	1	13.00	43.33	27	3
	2	7.82	26.08	25	1
	3	1.44	4.78	2	1
	4	1.19	3.97	1	1
Sample Two	1	15.57	59.87	25	6
	2	4.96	19.07	19	1

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 19.

Derived PCA solutions for ideal perspective – two samples

	Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)	Sig. Factor Loadings
Sample One	1	19.80	66.01	28
Sample Two	1	19.42	74.71	2.6

Note: All values are the rotated solutions using varimax factor rotation.

Table 20.

Salient items for self perspective – two factors

	Most Unlike Me		Most Like Me	
Factor One	• I become ***violent*** towards my partner	(-5)	• I try to get my partner in a ***good mood***	(+5)
	• I ***insult*** my partner	(-5)	• I use ***humour*** to get my partner to do what I want	(+5)
	• I make ***threats*** towards my partner	(-5)	• I express a lot of ***affection*** towards my partner	(+5)
	• I act ***mean*** towards my partner	(-4)	• I ***discuss*** with my partner why I want my partner to do something	(+4)
	• I ***ridicule*** my partner	(-4)	• I use ***logic*** with my partner	(+4)
	• I ***distort*** the truth	(-4)	• I offer to ***compromise*** with my partner	(+4)
	• I ***yell*** at my partner	(-4)	• I ***negotiate*** with my partner	(+4)
Factor Two	• I become ***violent*** towards my partner	(-5)	• I use ***logic*** with my partner	(+5)
	• I behave ***seductively*** towards my partner	(-5)	• I ***ask*** my partner to do what I wants	(+5)
	• I ***mislead*** my partner by giving him/her irrelevant information	(-5)	• I stress to my partner the ***importance*** of doing what I want	(+5)
	• I ***flatter*** my partner	(-4)	• I ***reason*** with my partner	(+4)
	• I try to ***bribe*** my partner	(-4)	• I tell my partner I need ***help***	(+4)
	• I make ***threats*** towards my partner	(-4)	• I ***discuss*** with my partner why I want my partner to do something	(+4)
	• I ***ridicule*** my partner	(-4)	• I ***tell*** my partner what I want him/her to do	(+4)

Table 21.

Salient items for partner perspective – two factors

	Most Unlike My Partner		Most Like My Partner	
Factor One	• My partner becomes ***violent*** towards me	(-5)	• My partner ***discusses*** with me why he/she wants something	(+5)
	• My partner makes ***threats*** towards me	(-5)	• My partner makes ***suggestions*** to me	(+5)
	• My partner acts ***mean*** towards me	(-5)	• My partner expresses a lot of ***affection*** towards me	(+5)
	• My partner ***insults*** me	(-4)	• My partner ***asks*** me to do what he/she wants	(+4)
	• My partner ***yells*** at me	(-4)	• My partner ***explains*** to me why he/she wants me to do something	(+4)
	• My partner ***ridicules*** me	(-4)	• My partner ***compromises*** with me	(+4)
	• My partner gets ***angry*** with me	(-4)	• My partner tries to get me in a ***good mood***	(+4)
Factor Two	• My partner ***misleads*** me by giving me irrelevant information	(-5)	• My partner ***insists*** that I do what he/she wants	(+5)
	• My partner becomes ***violent*** towards me	(-5)	• My partner ***argues*** with me	(+5)
	• My partner behaves ***seductively*** towards me	(-5)	• My partner ***tells*** me what he/she wants me to do	(+5)
	• My partner makes ***threats*** towards me	(-4)	• My partner ***persists*** in requesting me to do what he/she wants me to do	(+4)
	• My partner ***smiles*** a lot	(-4)	• My partner ***complains***	(+4)
	• My partner ***cries*** in front of me	(-4)	• My partner is a ***nuisance*** until I agree to do what he/she wants	(+4)
	• My partner ***distorts*** truth	(-4)	• My partner ***asks*** me to do what he/she wants	(+4)

Table 22.

Salient Items for Ideal Perspective – One Factor

	Most Unlike the Ideal Partner		Most Like the Ideal Partner	
Factor One	• He/she becomes ***violent*** towards partner	(-5)	• He/she ***explains*** why he/she wants partner to do something	(+5)
	• He/she makes ***threats*** towards partner	(-5)	• He/she ***asks*** partner to do what he/she wants	(+5)
	• He/she acts ***mean*** towards partner	(-5)	• He/she ***discusses*** with partner why he/she wants something	(+5)
	• He/she ***ridicules*** partner	(-4)	• He/she uses ***logic*** with partner	(+4)
	• He/she ***yells*** at partner	(-4)	• He/she offers a ***trade-off*** with partner	(+4)
	• He/she ***insults*** partner	(-4)	• He/she offers to ***compromise*** with partner	(+4)
	• He/she gets ***angry*** with partner	(-4)	• He/she uses ***reason*** with partner	(+4)

Table 23.

Individual couple members' affiliation with factors

Couple #	Gender	Self-perspective		Partner-perspective	
		Laterality	Directness	Laterality	Directness
1	Man	X		X	
1	Woman	X	X	X	
2	Man		X	X	X
2	Woman		X		X
3	Man	X	X	X	X
3	Woman	X	X	X	X
4	Man	X	X	X	
4	Woman	X		X	
5	Man	X	X		X
5	Woman	X		X	
6	Man	X	X	X	X
6	Woman	X		X	
7	Man	X		X	
7	Woman	X		X	
8	Man	X	X	X	
8	Woman	X	X	X	X
9	Man	X	X	X	
9	Woman	X		X	
10	Man	X	X	X	
10	Woman	X	X	X	
11	Man	X	X	X	
11	Woman	X	X	X	X
12	Man	X	X	X	X
12	Woman		X	X	
13	Man		X	X	X
13	Woman	X	X	X	X
14	Man	X	X	X	X
14	Woman	X	X	X	
15	Man	X	X	X	
15	Woman	X	X	X	
16	Man		X	X	X
16	Woman	X	X	X	X
17	Man	X	X		X
17	Woman	X			X
18	Man	X	X	X	
18	Woman	X	X	X	X
19	Man		X	X	
19	Woman	X			X
20	Man	X	X	X	X
20	Woman	X			X
21	Man		X	X	
21	Woman	X		X	

Couple #	Gender	Self-perspective		Partner-perspective	
		Laterality	Directness	Laterality	Directness
22	Man	X	X	X	
22	Woman	X	X	X	X
23	Man	X	X	X	
23	Woman	X			X
24	Man	X	X	X	X
24	Woman	X	X	X	X
25	Man	X	X	X	X
25	Woman	X	X	X	X
26	Man	X	X		X
26	Woman		X	X	X
27	Man	X	X	X	
27	Woman	X	X		X

Table 24

Correlation matrix of composite factor arrays across perspectives (N=60)

	Self F1	**Self F2**	**Partner F1**	**Partner F2**	**Ideal F2**
Self F1	1.00				
Self F2	.46	1.00			
Partner F1	.91	.55	1.00		
Partner F2	.25	.74	.30	1.00	
Ideal F1	.86	.62	.92	.34	1.00

Table 25

Average correlations between pairings of individual q-sorts (N=54)

Q-sort Pair	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
Two people's q-sorts				
Self and Partner's Perception of Partner	.57	.16	.81	.16
One person's q-sorts				
Self and Ideal	.66	-.15	.88	.21
Partner and Ideal	.58	-.40	.90	.25
Self and Partner	.59	-.05	.90	.25

Table 26
Summary of framework interpretation

Perspective	Interpretations	Framework One		Framework Two	
		Most Like	Most Unlike	Most Like	Most Unlike
Self	**Dimensions**				
	Directness and Laterality	Bilateral	Unilateral	Direct	Indirect
	Common Characteristics	Women Lower levels of psychological reactance		Men Higher levels of psychological reactance	
Partner	**Dimensions**				
	Directness and Laterality	Bilateral	Unilateral	Direct	Indirect
	Common Characteristics	Higher levels of social desirability Higher levels of perspective-taking Lower levels of psychological reactance Lower levels of machiavellianism		Lower levels of social desirability Lower levels of perspective-taking Higher levels of psychological reactance Higher levels of machiavellianism	
Ideal	**Dimensions**				
	Directness and Laterality	Bilateral	Unilateral		

Table 27

Correlation matrix of q-sort pairings, intimacy, perspective-taking, marital adjustment, and impression management (N=54)

	S-PP	S-I	S-P	P-I	MSIS	SDPTS	DAS	BIDR
S-PP	1.00							
S-I	.32*	1.00						
S-P	.49**	.69**	1.00					
P-I	.26	.75**	.79**	1.00				
MSIS	.41**	.30*	.31*	.30*	1.00			
SDPTS	.24	.10	.24	.27	.41**	1.00		
DAS	.26	.18	.14	.20	.68**	.39**	1.00	
BIDR	-.08	-.10	.09	.16	.03	.22	-.04	1.00

S-PP=Self and Partner's Perception of Partner; S-I=Self and Ideal; S-P=Self and Perception of Partner; P-I=Partner and Ideal; MSIS=Miller's Social Intimacy Scale; SDPTS=Self-Dyadic Perspective Taking Scale; DAS=Dyadic Adjustment Scale; BIDR=Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding