

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION,
RELATIONSHIP POWER AND DYADIC ADJUSTMENT: EXAMINING
ACTOR-PARTNER EFFECTS.

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Approved by:

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(Thesis Advisor)



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DEDICATION

To my husband

*There is not enough chocolate or coffee in the world to match the amount of strength
I can draw upon with your love and support.*

ABSTRACT

This study examined the direct actor and partner effects between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment, as well as, indirect effects between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment via relationship power and ambivalent sexism (hostile sexism and benevolent sexism) among heterosexual married couples in Turkey. This study was conducted with a sample of 90 (90 women and 90 men) heterosexual couples married for at least 2 years ($M = 179.9$, $SD = 116.48$ in months) and with children older than 2 years of age (among couples who had children). Participants came from a diverse range of economic, educational, occupational and geographic backgrounds recruited via the snowball sampling method. Data were collected online via Qualtrics. Participants were asked to fill out the following measures: Social Dominance Orientation (Pratto et al., 1994), Couple Power Scale (Day et al., 2011, in Kaynak-Malatyali, 2014), Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Busby et al., 1995), Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996) and Demographic Information Form. Actor Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) and Actor Partner Interdependence Model of Mediation (APIMeM) analyses were conducted. Three different APIMeM models were run with relationship power, benevolent sexism and hostile sexism as mediators aimed at understanding the relationship between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment. Results indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between women's social dominance orientation and men's dyadic adjustment (direct partner effect, women to men). Moreover, a statistically significant negative relationship between men's own social dominance orientation and men's own dyadic adjustment was found (direct actor effect, men). Although the indirect effects of relationship power were not significant, indicating that social dominance orientation was not

related to dyadic adjustment through relationship power, statistically significant indirect effects were found in APIMeM analyses with benevolent sexism and hostile sexism. Women's own social dominance orientation had a negative indirect effect on their husbands' dyadic adjustment through women's own benevolent sexism (indirect women to men actor-partner effect). Men's own social dominance orientation was negatively indirectly related to men's own dyadic adjustment through their own hostile sexism (indirect men actor-actor effect). The implications of these findings were discussed in terms of the existing body of literature and the theoretical framework. Finally, contributions of this study, its limitations, and suggestions for future research were discussed.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın sosyal baskınlık yönelimi ile çift uyumu arasındaki doğrudan aktör ve partner etkilerinin yanı sıra ilişkideki güç ve çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik yoluyla sosyal baskınlık yönelimi ile çift uyumu arasındaki dolaylı etkileri inceledi. Bu çalışma, en az 2 yıl ($M = 179.9$, $SD = 116.48$ ay) evli olan ve 2 yaşından büyük çocukları olan (çocuk sahibi çiftler arasında) 90 heteroseksüel çiftin (90 kadın ve 90 erkek) örneklemeyle gerçekleştirildi. Katılımcılar çeşitli ekonomik, eğitimsel, mesleki ve coğrafi geçmişlerden gelmektedir ve kartopu örnekleme yöntemi ile toplanmıştır. Veriler Qualtrics aracılığıyla online olarak toplandı. Katılımcılardan aşağıdaki ölçekleri doldurmaları istendi: Sosyal Baskınlık Yönelimi (Pratto ve ark., 1994), Çift Güç Ölçeği (Day ve diğerleri, 2011, akt. iç. Kaynak-Malatyalı, 2014), Yenilenmiş Çift Uyum Ölçeği (Busby ve ark., 1995), Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği (Glick & Fiske, 1996) ve Demografik Bilgi Formu. Aktör-Partner Karşılıklı Bağımlılık Modeli (APIM) ve Aktör-Partner Karşılıklı Bağımlılık Aracılık Modeli (APIMeM) analizleri yapılmıştır. Sosyal baskınlık yönelimi ile çift uyum arasındaki ilişkiyi anlamayı amaçlayan ara değişken olarak ilişkideki güç, korumacı cinsiyetçilik ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik ile üç farklı APIMeM modeli yürütülmüştür. Sonuçlar, kadınların sosyal baskınlık yönelimi ile erkeklerin çift uyumu (doğrudan partner etkisi, kadından erkeğe) arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir pozitif ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, erkeklerin kendi sosyal baskınlık yönelimi ile erkeklerin kendi çift uyumu arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı negatif bir ilişki bulunmuştur (doğrudan aktör etkisi, erkek). İlişkideki gücünün dolaylı etkileri anlamlı olmamakla birlikte, sosyal baskınlık yönelimin ilişkideki gücün üzerinden çift uyumla ilişkili değildi olmadığını gösterirken, korumacı cinsiyetçilik ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik ile APIMeM analizlerinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı dolaylı

etkiler bulunmuştur. Kadınların kendi sosyal baskınlık yönelimi, kadınların kendi korumacı cinsiyetçiliği (kadından erkeğe dolaylı aktör-partner etkisi) yoluyla eşlerinin çift uyumu üzerinde olumsuz dolaylı bir etkiye sahipti. Erkeklerin kendi sosyal baskınlık yönelimleri, dolaylı olarak erkeklerin kendi düşmanca cinsiyetçiliği (dolaylı erkek aktör-aktör etkisi) yoluyla kendi çift uyumu ile olumsuz bir şekilde ilişkiliydi. Bu bulguların sonuçları, mevcut literatür ve teorik çerçeve açısından tartışılmıştır. Son olarak, bu çalışmanın katkıları, sınırlılıkları ve gelecekteki araştırmalar için öneriler tartışılmıştır.



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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“The personal is political.”

— Carol Hanisch

Is it possible that the dynamics of our romantic relationships significantly relate to the way we view social inequality? Moreover, could these constructs be indirectly related through partners’ attitudes regarding sexism and through how they perceive their own as well as their partner’s power in their couple relationships?

This study aspired to highlight the importance of examining relationship processes in relation to socio-political attitudes and worldviews. Drawing upon the theoretical concepts of the Multicontextual Life Cycle Framework developed by Carter and McGoldrick (1999), this study investigated the relationship between the attitudes regarding the stressors of the larger society (i.e. racism, sexism, poverty, classicism, ageism, etc.) and the couple relationship dynamics. Attitudes regarding the larger societal stressors were evaluated through partners’ socio-political attitudes, more specifically, measuring partners’ social dominance orientation and ambivalent sexism. The couple relationship dynamics were evaluated through partners’ perceptions of their own relationship power towards their partner and partners’ dyadic adjustment in their relationship.

The relationship between social dominance orientation and sexism has been a well-established one in the literature (Bareket et al., 2018; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Sibley et al., 2007; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Social dominance orientation has yet not been examined in relation to relationship outcomes; however, ambivalent sexism has been linked to relationship satisfaction (Casad et al., 2015; Hammond & Overall, 2013a; Hammond & Overall, 2013b). Relationship power and relationship

outcomes have also been found to be related to one another (Brezsnyak & Whisman, 2004; Langner & Keltner, 2008; Lennon et al., 2013; Zimbler, 2012). Although these constructs have been previously studied, they have not been studied together. But more importantly, this study aims to gain insight into the connection between socio-political attitudes and worldviews, relationship processes, and relationship outcomes.

As previously mentioned, this study, examined such constructs as social dominance orientation, relationship power, ambivalent sexism, and dyadic adjustment in relation to one another. The purpose of this study was to explore the existence of direct and indirect actor and partner effects of social dominance orientation on partners' dyadic adjustment through perceived relationship power and ambivalent sexism. This chapter begins with definitions of the studied variables and proceeds with an overview of how these variables have been linked to one another in the literature.

1.1 Definition of Social Dominance Orientation

Social dominance orientation refers to the extent to which individuals support for group-based inequality and existing hierarchies or reject them in support of egalitarianism. It encompasses the preference towards ingroups dominating the outgroups (Pratto et al., 1994). It is associated with support for myths created to enhance existing hierarchies that justify group inequality and minimize intergroup conflict (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius et al., 1992; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

1.2 Definition of Relationship Power

Relationship power has usually been defined in terms of how much one partner may influence the behavior of the other partner (Dunbar, 2000; French & Raven, 1959; Rollins & Bahr, 1976). Recent studies view power as a dynamic and

dyadic characteristic claiming that one partner's power is not simply the reverse of the other partner's power (Dunbar, 2000; Langner & Keltner 2008). Power in relationships can be conceptualized in terms of bases (resources of each partner), processes (communication and interactional patterns) and outcomes (results of said interactions) (Cromwell & Olson, 1975).

1.3 Definition of Ambivalent Sexism

Ambivalent sexism is a form of prejudice distinguished by ambivalence toward women and not solely by antipathy (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001). Glick and Fiske (1996, 2001) state that although sexism has traditionally been considered an expression of hostility toward women, it is, in fact, more of a multidimensional concept. Glick and Fiske's (1996, 2001) conceptualization of ambivalent sexism includes two types of sexist attitudes: hostile and benevolent. Hostile sexism is mainly defined by sexist antipathy while benevolent sexism is defined by positive stereotypes about women and constraining a woman's role to the home environment.

1.4 Definition of Dyadic Adjustment

Spanier and Cole (1976) describe dyadic adjustment as a relationship process subject to change. And the outcome of this process is dependent on the following elements of dyadic adjustment: dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, consensus on matters of importance to relationship functioning, and affectional expression (Spanier, 1976).

1.5 Couple Relationship Dynamics and Socio-Political Attitudes

Studies have found associations between social dominance orientation (SDO) and avoidant attachment, tolerance of sexual harassment, decreased support for interracial dating and sexism (Bareket et al., 2018; Lalonde et al., 2007; Russell

& Trigg, 2004; Sibley et al., 2007; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Weber & Federico, 2007). SDO has also been associated with parenting practices such as promoting the pursuit of external goals (e.g. physical attractiveness, financial success), intergenerational transmission of certain ideologies (e.g. racism), various types of narratives families construct, and views on morality. (Duriez & Soenens, 2009; Duriez et al., 2007; McAdams et al., 2008).

Moreover, findings suggest that perceptions of fairness in couple relationships are related to the quality of marital life (Ghaffari et al., 2013). Brown (2014) found that for women, benevolent sexism influenced marital satisfaction through perceived fairness of household labor division. Brown's (2014) study showed that perceived fairness of household work division was positively correlated with benevolent sexism even if women were doing most of the household work. Therefore, it is important to know whether the way in which people view inequality and fairness may play a role in how satisfied they are in their couple relationship.

1.6 The Interplay of Social Dominance Orientation, Relationship Power, Ambivalent Sexism and Dyadic Adjustment

Recent studies on relationship power suggest a link between power, relationship quality, and perceptions of equality. Langner and Keltner (2008) found that an individual's perceptions of both their own power and their partner's power are related to relationship outcomes such as positive and negative emotional experiences. Brezsnayak and Whisman (2004) found that perceived mutual decision making was associated with increased sexual desire. Finally, Zimbler (2012) found that for women, increased power was associated with increased housework fairness and suggested that recovering from an argument was easier for individuals with high marital power.

Social dominance orientation as operationalized by Sidanius and Pratto (1999) has not yet been studied in relation to dyadic adjustment or relationship satisfaction. Studies examining social dominance in relation to close/romantic relationship outcomes have defined it in terms of interpersonal dominance and interactional aggressive/dominant behaviors (Ostrov & Collins, 2007). This study attempted to understand the role of social dominance orientation in couples' dyadic adjustment through ambivalent sexism as well as relationship power. The relationship between social dominance orientation and sexism has been examined in numerous studies (Bareket et al., 2018; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Several researchers examined the link between sexism and relationship outcomes. In the study conducted by Casad et al. (2015), women's benevolent sexism predicted their lower relationship satisfaction and relationship confidence. Hammond and Overall (2013b) found that endorsement of benevolent sexism by women was related to sharper declines in their relationship satisfaction when they experienced relationship difficulties. In another study, Hammond and Overall (2013a) reported that men's endorsement of hostile sexism was associated with lower relationship quality and more negative perceptions of their partners' behavior as well as feeling of being manipulated by their partner. According to Overall et al. (2011), men who highly endorsed hostile sexism were less likely to be open to their partner's perspective and influence and more likely to engage in hostile communication. These findings suggest that attitudes towards social out-groups and group-based hierarchies are indeed, related to relationship processes and outcomes.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Multicontextual Life Cycle Framework

2.1.1 Overview of the Multicontextual Framework: The Expanded Family Life Cycle

Carter and McGoldrick (1999) define family as “people who have a shared history and a shared future” (p. 1). A family is comprised of the emotional system of many generations – three, if not four or five – connected through blood, emotional, historical, and/or legal ties (Carter & McGoldrick, 1999). The main distinction between a family system and any other social system/group is that not only do new members get to join a family exclusively by means of adoption, birth, and commitment or marriage, but also may only leave by means of death, if so (Carter & McGoldrick, 1999). Relationships between family members, boundaries, and roles are all subject to constant change as the family system and its subsystems travel through life cycles (Carter & McGoldrick, 1999). Carter and McGoldrick (1999) list the following six stages of the family life cycle: leaving home, the joining of families through marriage, families with young children, families with adolescents, launching children and moving on, and families in later life.

Carter and McGoldrick (1999) state that each individual exists within multiple systems moving through time. These systems listed outwards start with individuals and continue with immediate family, extended family, community (i.e., friends, work, neighborhood, religion, and organizations), and the larger society (includes the economic, socio-cultural and political contexts). Carter and McGoldrick (1999) underline the impact of stressors on the systems, namely, vertical and horizontal stressors.

Horizontal stressors typically stem from the flow of time and include developmental stressors (e.g. migrations and family life cycle transitions), unpredictable life events (e.g. unemployment, chronic illnesses, accidents, and untimely deaths), and historical events (e.g. natural disasters, war, political climate, and economic depression).

Vertical stressors usually originate from and within the systems levels. The individual level includes the following stressors: abilities, disabilities, and genetic makeup. The immediate family level stressors include depression, violence, ignorance, lack of spiritual expression or dreams, and addictions. The extended family level stressors encompass family secrets, triangles, emotional patterns, losses, legacies, and myths. The community-level stressors include lack of a work-life balance, lack of time to spend with friends, the disappearance of a community, and inflexible workplace. Lastly, the larger societal stressors involve poverty, classism, consumerism, racism, homophobia, sexism, and ageism.

Vertical stressors from and within the larger society are said to affect the community, extended and immediate families as well as the individual themselves. This study examined the relationship between the stressors from the larger systems on the immediate family and individual systems. Stressors from the larger society were assessed through partners' socio-political attitudes, namely, social dominance orientation and ambivalent sexism. The dynamics of the individual and immediate family systems were assessed through partners' perceptions of relationship power and dyadic adjustment.

2.2 Social Dominance Theory

Sidanius and Pratto (1999) aimed to put forth an inclusive and multidisciplinary theory of intergroup conflict and oppression. Therefore, they

synthesized views and ideas across multiple theoretical approaches into social dominance theory (SDT). Sidanius and Pratto (1999) observed that human societies were inclined to organize in hierarchical social groups defined by power and social status inequalities. Moreover, such a system entails the classification of social groups as dominant or subordinate with a dominant group or groups above the subordinate groups within the social hierarchy. Another aspect of this social structure is social value. Positive social value includes such things as high social standing, affluence, and power as well as superior healthcare, housing, and food. In contrast, negative social value encompasses low social standing and power, less favorable or high-risk employment, and acute negative sanctions (e.g., capital punishment and incarceration) as well as comparatively low quality of healthcare, housing, and food. A dominant group typically has — in comparison to subordinate groups — an excessively big portion of positive social value and/or other resources. Whereas subordinate groups typically have an excessively big portion of negative social value compared to the dominant group or groups. The goal of social dominance theory (SDT) is to establish how such a hierarchical social group system is sustained.

Sidanius and Pratto (1999) distinguish between “group-based” and “individual-based” social hierarchies. Within an individual-based social hierarchy, people are thought to possess positive social value as a result of their own greatly valued characteristics such as high intelligence or talent in any one or more professional spheres. However, individuals’ positive social value is not devoid of influences from the positive social value of the group they belong to. Furthermore, social dominance theory (SDT) posits that social group-based hierarchies consist of three main systems, therefore, making the group-based hierarchies trimorphic in

structure. The systems are comprised of a gender system, an age-system, and an arbitrary-set system. The gender system is defined by the disproportionate distribution of political and social power in favor of men over women. The age system is defined by the disproportionate distribution of social power of middle-aged people and adults over younger adults and children. Finally, the arbitrary-set system includes social stratification based on various characteristics (i.e. race, ethnicity, social class, caste, religious affiliation etc.).

Social dominance theory (SDT) is built upon 3 main assumptions. Firstly, Sidanius and Pratto (1999) state that although gender and age systems are likely to take part in the functioning of all societies, arbitrary-set systems will inevitably be formed within societies creating long-lasting economic overabundance. Secondly, Sidanius and Pratto (1999) posit that most types of oppression and intergroup conflict, such as nationalism, sexism, racism, or homophobia, can be explained as varying exhibitions of a tendency for people to form hierarchical social systems. And thirdly, Sidanius and Pratto (1999) propose that all hierarchical social systems are impacted by hierarchy-enhancing (supporting hierarchy) and hierarchy-attenuating (supporting equality) influences.

In a nutshell, Sidanius and Pratto (1999) hierarchical social groups are maintained through the following three processes: behavioral asymmetry (behaviors of individuals from social groups in various positions along the social hierarchy that maintain and perpetuate existing social hierarchical structure), aggregated institutional discrimination (acts of discrimination stemming from institutional actions, procedures, rules, regulations, and regulations), and aggregated individual discrimination (when individuals discriminate against other individuals in daily life settings). The aforementioned three processes are said to be maintained by the

support for legitimizing myths, which are beliefs, ideologies, values, attitudes, and stereotypes that function on a basis of justifying the manner in which social value is distributed in the hierarchical social system. The degree of legitimizing myths support varying from individual to individual depending on how extensively they support or reject the hierarchical social group system. In broad terms, the orientation towards the support of the group-based social hierarchy is what the authors refer to as social dominance orientation (SDO).

2.3 Social Dominance Orientation

Developed by Pratto et al. (1994), social dominance orientation (SDO) explains the individuals' tendency to possess beliefs and attitudes that either support existing hierarchies (hierarchy-enhancing) or reject them (hierarchy-attenuating). SDO is defined in terms of the degree to which individuals support equal or hegemonic relationships among social groups (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). SDO includes such phenomena as, intergroup conflict, discrimination, and oppression of out-groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Individuals who score high on the SDO scale (Pratto et al., 1994) demonstrate a preference for hierarchical intergroup relations and support for hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths. These myths include beliefs, ideologies, and attitudes created to minimize group conflict and justify group inequality (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius et al., 1992; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Research has shown that SDO correlates positively with nationalism, racism, sexism, gender-specific system justification, hostile sexism, objectification of women, sexual double standards, cultural elitism, meritocracy, just world beliefs, right-wing authoritarianism and support for intergroup violence and military programs (Altemeyer, 1998; Bareket et al., 2018; Henry et al., 2005; Pratto, 1999;

Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius et al., 1992; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). According to Perry et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis of the relationship of competitive and dangerous worldviews with social dominance orientation and right-wing authoritarianism, SDO strongly correlates with the competitive worldview and negatively correlates with altruism, tolerance, and concern for others.

2.3.1 Social Dominance Orientation and Couple Relationships

Although the concept of dominance in social relationships has been explored in some depth and variety, the number of studies looking at social dominance orientation from a relational perspective is limited, even more so are the studies that address SDO in the couple relationship dynamics.

Looking at SDO from a couple relationship perspective has resulted in a relative diversity of findings. For instance, SDO has been associated with adult attachment. Weber and Federico (2007) collected data from 255 undergraduates studying in a northeastern state university. They found an indirect effect of avoidant attachment on SDO mediated by the beliefs that the world is a competitive jungle. According to Weber and Federico, avoidant attachment is distinguished by a lack of trust towards and a desire to control others. Hence, the researchers hypothesized that participants with an avoidant attachment style would tend to view the world as an uncaring competitive jungle and exert control by supporting conservative values such as the ones encompassed by SDO.

In some studies, sex differences have been examined. In the study examining the link between SDO and interracial dating and transracial adoption with the sample of 301 undergraduates from Toronto, Lalonde et al. (2007) found that among White-Canadians, SDO was negatively correlated with hierarchy-attenuating beliefs such as, support of interracial dating and transracial adoption and positively

correlated with hierarchy-enhancing beliefs. Moreover, men scored significantly higher on SDO compared to women (Lalonde et al., 2007). The latter finding was in line with Sidanius and Pratto's (1999) invariance hypothesis which states that gender differences will be invariant across such variables as social status and education level. Lalonde et al. (2007) explain the invariant differences by differential socialization and a tendency of men's outgroup aggression such as higher ethnocentrism and outgroup hostility when compared to women. Considering that SDO has been associated with hierarchy-enhancing beliefs, a question can be raised about whether a similar relationship will be observed when it comes to power within the heterosexual relationship context. Russell and Trigg (2004) studied the predictive relationship between SDO and tolerance of sexual harassment with a sample of 457 undergraduates from a private Midwestern university. When compared to women, men scored higher on SDO, sexual harassment tolerance, hostile sexism (including such constructs as competitive gender differentiation, dominative paternalism, and heterosexual hostility), benevolent sexism (including complementary gender differentiation, protective paternalism, and heterosexual intimacy), and masculinity (feeling self-confident, competitive, superior). Moreover, SDO, hostile sexism, and benevolent sexism correlated positively with sexual harassment tolerance. Sexism and tolerance of sexual harassment can be looked at from the perspective of intergroup and interpersonal power dynamics with groups that are more dominant reporting hierarchy-enhancing beliefs. Hence, it can be hypothesized that SDO is related to how much power individuals have in their couple relationships.

McAdams et al. (2008) examined whether political ideologies relate to how families construct narratives and view morality using data obtained from 128 case

studies of middle-aged adults who participated in an interdisciplinary project on faith, politics, and life story. SDO was positively related to rule-reinforcement (an authority figure setting rules/guidelines to regulate moral behavior) and self-discipline (controlling one's emotions and/or desires to achieve a moral goal) metaphor themes and negatively related to the empathy-openness theme. Men used more strict-father (parents setting strict rules to promote discipline and responsibility) metaphors, as well as self-discipline and rules-reinforcement themes than did women. SDO was also associated with concerns for authority-respect (respecting social hierarchy, the necessity of social order), in-group-loyalty (promotion of allegiance to one's group and patriotism and caution of outside threats) and purity-sanctity (approving cleanliness and chastity) and negatively associated with concern for fairness-reciprocity (supporting the notions of justice, fairness, and protection of people's rights) and harm-care (conveying that alleviating suffering is good and hurting others is bad). Seemingly, SDO is related positively to narratives constructed around rules set by authority figures and intrapersonal control and negatively to themes involving justice, fairness, empathy, and care. These associations can imply that individuals higher on SDO may be more assertive towards their partners in their relationships.

SDO has been studied in relation to power but in the context of work relationships. Although this study addressed work relationships, it still gives some insight into the interplay between SDO, interpersonal hierarchies, and power. In a study by Aiello et al. (2018), the link between SDO and employed power tactics in interactions between supervisors and supervisees in hierarchy-enhancing and hierarchy-attenuating work environments. The study included 139 supervisors and 399 supervisees. Supervisors scored higher on SDO than supervisees. SDO also

increased as the endorsement of harsh power tactics (including such tactics as reward and coercion, equity, reciprocity, and legitimacy of position) increased. SDO was also negatively associated with soft power tactics (including power tactics such as expertise, reference, information, and legitimacy of dependence). This relationship was found to be moderated by organizational position with the strongest association found for supervisors (Aiello et al., 2018).

Studies examining couple relationship dynamics in relation to Social Dominance Orientation are limited to the ones described at the beginning of this section (Lalonde et al., 2007; Weber & Federico, 2007). And although the concepts of dominance and social dominance have been occasionally addressed, they have not been defined within the theoretical framework of Social Dominance Orientation, and therefore, dominance has been defined in various terms. For instance, Ostrov and Collins (2007) conducted a longitudinal study with 70 emergent adults to investigate the role of social dominance in intimate relationships in emergent adulthood as predicted by childhood social experiences. In their study, social dominance has been defined as non-verbal dominance behaviors including such behaviors as negative and intrusive touch and resource control (Ostrov & Collins, 2007). For men, externalizing behavior in second grade and internalizing behavior in third grade predicted intrusive touch during observation. For women, internalizing behavior in second and third grades predicted unwanted negative touch during the romantic relationship session. Internalizing behaviors in third grade for men and externalizing behavior in second and third grades for women predicted resource control in the relationship. All in all, socially dominant behaviors were related to higher conflict, verbal and physical aggression lower relationship quality. It can be argued that in this study, the term social dominance has been used to refer to

interpersonal or interactional aggressive/dominant behaviors and not in terms of group-based social dominance, but the findings are still worth considering because they show that social dominance on an interpersonal level is indeed related to relationship outcomes. And this study aims to understand whether when the understanding of social dominance is expanded from interpersonal attitudes to social attitudes still relates to relationship outcome variables. In other words, this study asks whether social dominance when defined in terms of partners' worldviews, ideologies, and attitudes regarding social hierarchy and group-based inequality is related to how they view the degree of their own and their partner's influence in the relationship process and consequently, to how happy partners are in their relationships.

2.4 Relationship Power

In the study of relationships, power has generally been defined as having the potential to influence a change in the other person's behavior or the likelihood of the other person behaving in a certain way (Dunbar, 2000; French & Raven, 1959; Rollins & Bahr, 1976). Dunbar (2000) adds that power in personal relationships is dynamic or subject to change and can be viewed as an ability that may or may not be exercised. Power has also been addressed as a dyadic or relational characteristic rather than as an individual characteristic, which means that power is a system feature and involves reciprocal causation (Dunbar, 2000; Rollins & Bahr, 1976). According to Langner and Keltner (2008), a dyadic approach to power means that one partner's power is not simply the opposite of the other partner's power, meaning that in a relationship both partners may have similar levels of power (e.g. both high or both low). This, of course, does not mean that relationships in which one partner has more power over the other do not exist.

According to Cromwell and Olson (1975) power in couple relationships can be classified into three categories: power bases, power processes, and power outcomes. *Power bases* refer to resources that partners have within the relationship. *Power processes* include the types of interactions and communication patterns that occur between partners in making a decision and influencing one another. *Power outcomes* include what these discussions and interactions result in. This study adapted Cromwell and Olson's (1975) definition of power both in theory and measurement.

2.4.1 Relationship Power and Couple Relationships

The balance of power in heterosexual romantic relationships was examined in a longitudinal study conducted by Sprecher and Feinlee (1997). The data were collected in 5 waves in the span of four years, from 1988 to 1992. The sample at Time 1 consisted of 101 heterosexual dating couples, mostly consisting of undergraduates at a midwestern university. The longitudinal sample included 41 couples. In this study, men reported that the man and not the woman had power and made more decisions in the relationship more often and this relationship has been observed over time. Overall, participants reported balanced power and that more decisions were made by men. However, when imbalance was reported both men and women were more likely to report men having more power in the relationship (Sprecher & Feinlee, 1997). Over time, men were reported to make more decisions and power balance was perceived as equal. Furthermore, more emotionally involved partners tended to have less power, and men were more likely to report less emotional involvement in the relationship. For both genders, relationship satisfaction did not vary across responses to power and decision-making items. However, men who reported equal power had the highest levels of relationship

satisfaction. One of the limitations of this study may lie in the theoretical definition and consequently, the approach to the assessment of marital power. To assess marital power, Sprecher and Felmlee (1997) asked participants who they thought had more power and made more decisions in the relationship. As previously mentioned, power in the couple relationship is a multifaceted construct comprised of power bases, processes, and outcomes, and asking participants which one of them has the most power may result in various interpretations of the term “power” by individuals. Therefore, it is unclear what this measure is assessing. Moreover, recent studies have addressed power as a dyadic and interactional variable meaning that the extent to which partner may influence the relationship is not equated to the other partners’ degree of power (Langner & Keltner, 2008). Thus, measuring power on a continuum that determines which partners have more power may leave little room to assess this variable from a dyadic/interactional perspective.

In a more recent study, Langner and Keltner (2008) examined power in romantic relationships from a dyadic interactional perspective. The sample included 59 heterosexual dating couples from a midwestern university. They examined partner and actor effects, in other words, the effects of a participant’s estimate of their partner’s influence on the relationship (partner effect) and their partner’s perception of the participant’s power in the relationship. Langner and Keltner (2008) found that an individual’s own power or actor effect (as rated by the partner) was positively related to positive emotional experiences, while perceived partner’s power or partner effect (as rated by the individual) was positively related to negative emotional experiences. It is important to keep in mind that the relationship between power and relationship outcome variables such as dyadic adjustment or relationship/marital satisfaction may differ among non-WEIRD samples (Henrich et

al., 2010), particularly among couples with partners holding more traditional gender role ideologies (Schwarzwald et al., 2008).

Brezsnyak and Whisman (2004) examine the relationship between relationship power, sexual desire, and marital satisfaction. In this study, the sample was comprised of 59 heterosexual married couples. Brezsnyak and Whisman (2004) found that increased egalitarianism (mutual or shared decision-making) predicted both partners' higher sexual desire and for husbands, increased congruence between desired and perceived decision-making power was positively related to sexual desire and marital satisfaction.

Lennon et al. (2013) examined power in relationships with 120 dating couples within the context of the investment model of relationship commitment. Higher levels of power were found to be related to lower levels of satisfaction, lower levels of commitment, and higher levels of quality of alternatives. Furthermore, men's satisfaction mediated the link between women's power and men's commitment. In this study, researchers employed a measure of generalized power of one power over the other developed by Mazurek (1999). The scale included items such as "I feel powerful when I can dominate my partner", which could suggest that this measure conceptualizes power in terms of interpersonal/interactional dominance rather than influence within the relationship. Hence, this conceptual distinction could at least in part account for the association between higher levels of power and lower levels of satisfaction.

Zimble (2012) investigated the association between marital power, marital satisfaction, and physiological responses. The study included 213 heterosexual newlywed couples in the sample. According to Zimble (2012), marital power is positively related to marital satisfaction. Moreover, this study suggests gender

effects in the relationships between marital power and relationship satisfaction. Although both men and women who reported greater power also reported more fairness in housework division, women, but not men, reporting more marital satisfaction with increased fairness in housework division. These findings also point to the distribution of power in relationships not being mutually exclusive. Zimbler (2012) also found that recovering from conflict is harder for partners with lower levels of power and the opposite trend was observed for individuals with high power. In summary, when defined in terms of influence, similar to the definitions of power in this study, power was positively associated with relationship satisfaction (Brezsnyak & Whisman, 2004; Langner & Keltner, 2008; Zimbler, 2012). However, when defined in terms of interpersonal/interactional dominance, power was negatively associated with relationship satisfaction (Lennon et al., 2013). The contrast between these findings suggest that the operational definition plays a vital role in the direction of the relationship between power and relationship outcomes.

2.5 Ambivalent Sexism

Sexism, like racism, is said to have changed over time with researchers attempting to distinguish between old-fashioned and modern forms of prejudice (Swim et al., 1995). Swim et al. (1995) point out that old-fashioned sexist beliefs and attitudes mainly included endorsing negative stereotypes about women (i.e. regarding women as less competent), support for traditional gender roles (e.g. motherhood) and discriminatory treatment based on gender. In contrast, Swim et al. (1995) state that more modern sexist attitudes are characterized by tendencies to consider discrimination against women a problem of the past, oppose women's demands and policies aimed at supporting women in the spheres of education and career (i.e. discontent against such "special favors"). The two forms of sexism can

also be compared to overt and covert types of prejudice and discrimination (Swim et al., 1995).

Glick and Fiske (1996, 2001) define sexism as a form of prejudice distinguished by ambivalence toward women and not solely by antipathy. They argue that although sexism has traditionally been considered an expression of hostility toward women, it is, in fact, more of a multidimensional concept (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001). In this study, sexism will be examined from Glick and Fiske's (1996) theoretical perspective.

2.5.1 Ambivalent Sexism Theory

Glick and Fiske's (1996, 2001) ambivalent sexism theory encompasses two types of sexist attitudes: hostile and benevolent. Hostile sexism is defined in terms of the more commonly accepted conceptual understanding of prejudice, namely, sexist antipathy. Benevolent sexism, however, is characterized by positive stereotypes about women and viewing women's existence within limited roles. Benevolent sexist attitudes are underlined by positive feelings toward women often evoking intimacy seeking and prosocial behaviors in the perceiver. In other words, ambivalent sexism includes dichotomous feelings of reverence for women and animosity towards them. Glick and Fiske's (1996, 2001) argue that although benevolent sexism may on the surface seem like a positive attitude toward women, its limiting nature paints women into a corner by ascribing a predetermined set of stereotypical characteristics, expectations or behavioral scripts (i.e. a woman has to be cared for and therefore remains dependent on a man) often taking roots in patriarchal dominance (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001). Benevolent sexism was found to be positively associated with hostile sexism and gender-specific system

justification, while hostile sexism has been linked to the objectification of women and sexual double standards (Bareket et al., 2018).

2.5.2 Ambivalent Sexism and Relationship Power

Overall et al. (2011) explored the role of ambivalent sexism in couple relationships. They examined the links between hostile sexism (HS), benevolent sexism (BS) and resistance to influence in relationship conflict (i.e. relationship power). The study took place in New Zealand and included a sample of 91 heterosexual couples who had been involved for at least 1 year. Fifty-three percent of the participants were either living together or married. Researchers asked couples to discuss an aspect of their partner that they would have liked to see improved. Partners' communication behaviors during the discussion were rated based on their use of hostile and soft power tactics. Hostile communication behavior included autocratic and coercive behaviors while soft tactics included positive affect (e.g., humor), softening attempts to persuade through expressing affection, acknowledgment of, and openness to their partner's perspective. Overall et al. (2011) examined the partner and actor effects and assessed the variables when participants were in both "target" and "agent" roles. An agent of change was the partner who expressed what they wanted to be improved about the other partner and a target of change was the partner at whom the change was targeted.

Overall et al. (2011) found that men's hostile sexism (HS) was associated with lower openness to their partner's perspective and when they were both agents and targets of influence. As men's endorsement of HS increased, they were less open to their partner's influence and more likely to engage in hostile communication. A similar pattern was observed with their partners. Men's endorsement of HS not only decreased their own openness but also their partners' in both the agent and target of

change positions. Moreover, men's HS as targets of change had direct negative effects on their own and their partner's discussion success ratings. But when openness was controlled for, these links became non-significant suggesting that for men who support HS ideology strongly and are less open to their partner's perspective are less likely to be influenced by their partners. Overall et al. (2011) suggest it could also be the case that men who endorsed HS were more resistant to change and expressed more hostility during discussions because they were already experiencing relationship stress as a couple to which men's hostile attitudes towards women had contributed.

The opposite was true for benevolent sexism (BS), which had a positive effect on men's openness as targets as well as agents. Men's endorsement of BS for was positively associated with perceptions of discussion success as rated both by themselves (actor effect) and by their partners. The same trend persisted even after controlling for resistance to influence. Overall, benevolent sexism was positively correlated with relationship quality for men. When women endorsed BS more strongly than their partners, they were less open to their partner's influence, more hostile, and reported a lower rating of discussion success. The researchers proposed that benevolent sexism, when endorsed by men, contributes to decreasing women's resistance against broader inequalities while at the same time, legitimizing their power within the relationship context. This is why men who endorse BS are also open to their partner's perspectives. When benevolent sexism is endorsed by women but not their partners, the contrary effect can be explained by assuming that benevolent sexist beliefs tend to place more importance on romantic relationships for women, and therefore, not being able to produce the desired change in the relationship sphere may elicit a stronger reaction from them.

Researchers discovered significant positive actor and partner effects of the target partner's openness on discussion success ratings. When participants were the agents of change and were more open to change, they rated their discussions as more successful. Women and men's openness to influence as targets of change were positively associated with their own (actor effect) and their partner's (partner effect) discussion success ratings.

Overall et al.'s (2011) study provides a valuable interactional and behavioral picture of the relationship between social views and relationship processes. This study shows how ideas that we hold about an out-group, in this case – women, can affect or facilitate the extent to which we are willing or capable of being receptive towards the perspective of a member of that out-group, even if this person is a close one, a spouse, a partner or a family member. Which is to say that even if ideas revolving within the social realm may be viewed as far away, unrelated and very “out there”, they seem to find a way into the processes taking place in our close relationships. The way in which we are perceived by our partner may be influenced by the way in which our partners view the social group we belong to or are assigned to.

This study also leaves the reader with a few important questions. Will this be relevant in contexts where women are less likely to resist change brought about by a partner who endorses hostile sexism? How will more pronounced power imbalances impact these links? Will the findings in this study still hold up if conducted with a sample comprised of older couples since this study predominantly young and mostly University educated participants? If we assume that couples in New Zealand are on the egalitarian side of relationship power differentials, will the picture change with couples who vary drastically on the relationship power differentials?

2.5.3 Ambivalent Sexism and Social Dominance Orientation

The study by Bareket et al. (2018) explores the relationship between the Madonna-Whore Dichotomy (MWD), patriarchal-ideology-reinforcing variables, and romantic relationship outcomes. This study was conducted with 108 heterosexual Israeli men. Bareket et al. (2018) define the Madonna-Whore Dichotomy (MWD) as contradicting views of women as belonging to either one of the following roles: a pure, chaste, and therefore, “good” – Madonna or a seductive, promiscuous and therefore, “bad” - whore. This dichotomy goes hand in hand with ambivalent sexism theory in the sense that both are believed to sustain the patriarchal system by assigning women into two inherently limiting roles: “good” or “bad”.

MWD correlated positively with SDO, gender-specific system justification, benevolent sexism (BS), hostile sexism (HS), objectification of women, sexual double standards, and negatively with relationship satisfaction. After controlling for ambivalent sexism (hostile and benevolent), MWD was still significantly positively correlated with SDO, gender-specific system justification, and sexual double standards and negatively correlated with relationship satisfaction.

Bareket et al.’s (2018) study shows that a dichotomized ideology about women is related to rather than isolated from relationship variables. The MWD was linked to various patriarchy-supporting and hierarchy-enhancing ideologies. The findings seem to support the hypothesis that the MWD is motivated by a tendency to maintain the status quo. Maintenance of the existing norms, in this particular case, is accomplished through the efforts to control women’s sexual expression and penalize them due to a perceived threat of women’s potential to influence and gain power over men through sexuality within the context of heterosexual relationships. What is

more, this study manages to tie phenomena taking place in the social/political realm to the personal.

2.5.4 Linking Ambivalent Sexism, Relationship Power and Dyadic Adjustment

Schwarzwalder et al. (2008) explored the role of power tactics in conflict interactions as well as the moderating effect of gender role ideology in the relationship between marital satisfaction and the use of power tactics. 78 heterosexual Israeli couples married for at least 3 years took part in this study. Participants rated their own (self-report) and their spouses' usage (spouse-report) of soft and harsh power tactics. Soft tactics were preferred to harsh tactics by both spouses and in self and spouse reports. Spouses tended to agree more on the usage of harsh tactics, for instance, wives' self-reports of their own usage of power tactics and husbands' reports of their wives' power tactic usage. Men reported more frequent use of harsh tactics by their spouses than women about their spouses.

Frequent use of harsh tactics was associated with lower marital satisfaction for both spouses independent of report type. Correlation between marital satisfaction and power tactics were more pronounced for spouses who endorsed traditional gender role ideology than those who endorsed liberal ideology. One possible explanation for these findings is that conflict and what it means within the relationship may differ based on the social ideologies held by partners. If we assume that for couples with traditional gender role ideology roles and responsibilities are clearly and firmly defined, a conflict may be perceived as a threat to how the existing system functions or "the way of things". Whereas liberal couples may be less likely to see conflict as something scary or threatening to their relationship because the roles of each partner are less clearly defined and hence, subject to change. Therefore, liberal couples may perceive conflict as a medium of negotiation

through which partners' relationship roles can be defined. These findings suggest that couples' relationship dynamics may vary depending on their social-political views and/or partners' political identities.

2.6 Dyadic adjustment

The term "dyadic adjustment" or "marital adjustment", as it used to be referred to, has often been used interchangeably with such various terms as "quality", "success", "stability", "happiness" and "satisfaction" (Glenn, 1990; Heyman, Sayers, & Bellack, 1994; Hicks & Platt, 1970; Spanier & Cole, 1976).

Spanier and Cole (1976) liken this ambiguity in the use of the term dyadic adjustment to the concept of "love" in the sense that everyone who uses this term, appears to know what it means, but that does not negate the lack of agreement on the operational definition. Therefore, Spanier and Cole (1976) attempt to provide operationalization of marital or dyadic adjustment. They describe dyadic adjustment as a process subject to change along the continuum (Spanier & Cole, 1976).

According to Spanier and Cole (1976), the outcome of this process depends on the following components of dyadic adjustment: marital satisfaction, troublesome marital differences, dyadic cohesion, consensus on matters of importance to marital functioning, tensions between spouses and personal anxiety. When devising the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), three of the originally hypothesized dimensions – dyadic cohesion, dyadic satisfaction, and dyadic consensus – were retained and joined by the fourth, affectional expression (Spanier, 1976).

On the other hand, although these constructs have been differently labeled in the literature, some researchers believe them to be synonymous (Heyman et al., 1994). Dyadic adjustment has been studied in an array of contexts such as relationship typology, relationship distress, chronic illness, cancer, marital intimacy,

sexual satisfaction, sexual communication, sexual dysfunction, substance use, adult attachment, childhood emotional abuse, and posttraumatic stress among others (Badr & Acitelli, 2005; Badr & Taylor, 2008; Busby et al., 1995; Crane et al., 1991; Crane et al., 2000; Cupach & Comstock, 1990; Fals-Stewart et al., 1999; Fitzpatrick & Best, 1979; Riggs et al., 2011; Trudel et al., 1993; Zerach et al., 2010). All in all, dyadic adjustment along with relationship/marital satisfaction are most commonly studied as outcome variables (Glenn, 1990; Hicks & Platt, 1970; Spanier & Cole, 1976).

Not all studies included in the following sections have utilized dyadic adjustment as their operational definition of the relationship outcome measure. They have, nevertheless, been included because they are regarded as capable of providing insight into the dynamics of power and relationship outcomes since some researchers deem various relationship outcome measures compatible (Heyman et al., 1994).

2.6.1 Links between Dyadic Adjustment and Relationship Power

As previously mentioned, dyadic adjustment and relationship/marital satisfaction have been studied by researchers in terms of how they relate to power in relationships (Brezsnyak & Whisman, 2004; Lennon et al., 2013; Sprechler & Felmlee, 1997; Zimbler, 2012). Sprechler and Felmlee (1997) looked at power as a continuum with one of the partners having more power in the relationship at both ends and found that equal power was associated with the highest levels of relationship satisfaction as measured by the Relationship Assessment Scale. Brezsnyak and Whisman (2004) examined the balance between desired and perceived power and found that increased congruence between the two was positively associated with marital satisfaction measured by the Quality of Marriage

Index. Lastly, whereas Zimbler (2012) found that relationship power was positively related to marital satisfaction, Lennon et al., (2013) discovered an opposite trend.

The conceptualization of power could account for these conflicting findings.

Zimbler (2012) defined power in terms of how much influence partners have within the relationship and Lennon et al., (2013) conceptualized power in terms of how powerful individuals feel when displaying dominance or control over their partner.

Finally, although there are several studies looking into the link between relationship power and dyadic adjustment, there are no findings in the literature concerning the relationship between social dominance orientation (SDO) and dyadic adjustment. There are, however, studies examining sexism or traditional gender role socialization and dyadic adjustment which are covered in the next section.

2.6.2 Links between Dyadic Adjustment and Sexism

Brown (2014) studied the link between marital satisfaction and benevolent sexism with heterosexual married couples who perceive themselves as egalitarian. The sample consisted of 146 heterosexual married people (104 women and 42 men) who have cohabitated for at least 5 years. Brown (2014) found an indirect effect of benevolent sexism on marital satisfaction through perceived fairness of household labor division for women. It seemed that even though women were doing most of the household work, perceived fairness of household work division was positively correlated with benevolent sexism.

Campbell and Snow (1992) investigated the link between men's gender role conflict, marital satisfaction, and aspects of the family environment. 70 married men participated in this study. Marital satisfaction was negatively correlated with the conflict between work/school and family and the restrictive emotionality factor from the gender role conflict scale. Moreover, men's marital satisfaction was positively

associated with family cohesion. Men's gender role conflict together with the family environment was found to account for almost half (46.8%) of the total variance in marital satisfaction. The authors suggest that rather than viewing these findings in terms of men's inabilities and deficits, they should be viewed as possibly beneficial areas of change. If men's greater marital satisfaction is related to less conflict between work/school and family, less restricted emotionality, and more family cohesion, then it would make sense to aim for change in these areas in psychotherapeutic practice.

Burn and Ward (2005) examined the relationship between traditional masculinity and relationship outcomes with 307 introductory psychology students in California, US. Men rated themselves on the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI) and women rated their partners' conformity to masculine norms.

For women who rated their partners on the CMNI, relationship satisfaction was negatively correlated with almost all subscales (dominance, emotional control, disdain for homosexuals, playboy, risk-taking, self-reliance, violence, winning, power over women, and the primacy of work) with the exception of the pursuit of status subscale. For men, relationship satisfaction was negatively associated with only the playboy subscale of their own CMNI ratings. Moreover, only the playboy scale predicted relationship satisfaction for both men and women.

Burn and Ward (2005) suggest using the CMNI as a counseling tool to gain more insight into which aspects of masculinity are functional in which areas of men's lives from a non-pathologizing standpoint. Burn and Ward (2005) also normalize the problems men may be facing due to gender socialization, approach the process from a non-blaming position through attempts to understand socialization,

and promote empathy for and understanding of the gender socialization processes among both men and women.

In the heterosexual romantic relationship context, these findings suggest that women who perceive their partners as less conforming to masculine norms are more satisfied in their romantic relationships. When it comes to men, it seems that conforming to some traditional masculine norms, but not necessarily others, may negatively impact their romantic relationship satisfaction. This finding may imply that certain norms are limiting men from having more satisfying relationships due to gender-based social scripts.

2.7 Current Study

Although the constructs of social dominance orientation, relationship power, ambivalent sexism and dyadic adjustment have been widely studied, the relationships between the ways in which individuals look at the societal structures, group-based equality as the result of functioning of those structures and the way they influence interactions within their couple relationships and how that, in turn, relates to how adjusted they are in their relationships have not yet been examined. Drawing from research findings within the relevant literature, it can be said that views on and attitudes towards social inequality and hierarchies are related to various relationship variables such as attachment styles, support of interracial dating and quality of marital life, perception of fairness in household work division (Brown, 2014; Ghaffari et al., 2013; Lalonde et al., 2007; Weber & Federico, 2007). Social dominance orientation has also been associated with sexism (Bareket et al., 2018; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Sibley et al., 2007; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) and sexism has been linked to relationship satisfaction (Casad et al., 2015; Hammond & Overall, 2013a; Hammond & Overall, 2013b). Moreover, power in relationships has

been found to be related to the amounts of positive and negative emotional experiences, relationship satisfaction, sexual desire, perceptions of housework fairness, physiological experiences post-conflict (Brezsnyak & Whisman, 2004; Langner & Keltner, 2008; Lennon et al., 2013; Zimbler, 2012). Therefore, investigating the links between individuals' attitudes towards group-based inequality, the degree to which they can influence their romantic relationships and how adjusted they are in their relationships can contribute to the way we view and understand couple relationships. Particularly, with respect to the ways in which people in couple relationships interact within the relationship system and with the social system and how the two domains are related. This study aspired to highlight the importance of examining relationships processes in relation to the socio-political attitudes and worldviews. The purpose of this study was to explore the existence of direct and indirect actor and partner effects of social dominance orientation on partners' dyadic adjustment through perceived relationship power and ambivalent sexism.

2.7.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The current study addressed the following research questions:

Question 1: Is women's own social dominance orientation directly related to their own dyadic adjustment (direct actor effect, women)?

Question 2: Is men's own social dominance orientation directly related to their own dyadic adjustment (direct actor effect, men)?

Question 3: Is women's own social dominance orientation directly related to their partners' dyadic adjustment (direct partner effect, women)?

Question 4: Is men's own social dominance orientation directly related to their partners' dyadic adjustment (direct partner effect, men)?

Question 5: Is women's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their own dyadic adjustment through their own relationship power (indirect actor effect, women)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of women's own SDO will be associated with higher levels of their own relationship power which in turn, will be related to higher levels of their own dyadic adjustment.

Question 6: Is men's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their own dyadic adjustment through their own relationship power (indirect actor effect, men)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of men's own SDO will be associated with higher levels of their own relationship power which in turn, will be related to higher levels of their own dyadic adjustment.

Question 7: Is women's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their partners' dyadic adjustment through women's own relationship power (indirect partner effect, women)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of women's own SDO will be associated with higher levels of their own relationship power which in turn, will be related to lower levels of their partners' dyadic adjustment.

Question 8: Is men's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their partners' dyadic adjustment through men's own relationship power (indirect partner effect, men)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of men's own SDO will be associated with higher levels of their own relationship power which in turn, will be related to lower levels of their partners' dyadic adjustment.

Question 9: Is women's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their own dyadic adjustment through their own ambivalent sexism (indirect actor effect, women)?

Question 10: Is men's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their own dyadic adjustment through their own ambivalent sexism (indirect actor effect, men)?

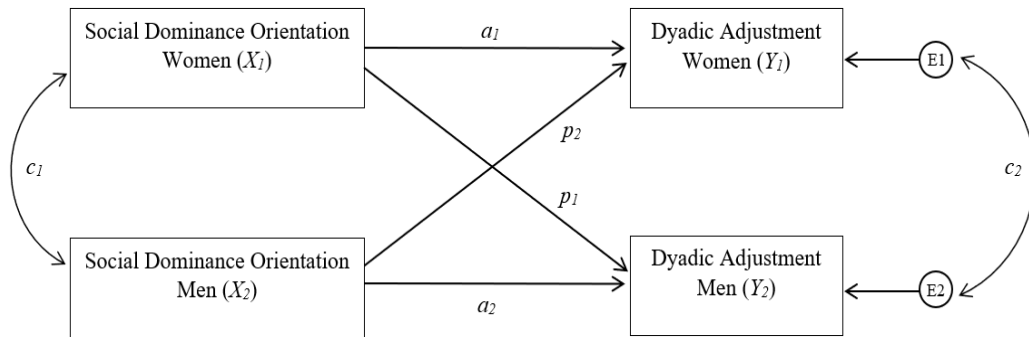
Question 11: Is women's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their partners' dyadic adjustment through women's own ambivalent sexism (indirect partner effect, women)?

Question 12: Is men's own social dominance orientation indirectly related to their partners' dyadic adjustment through men's own ambivalent sexism (indirect partner effect, men)?

Theoretical models for basic Actor Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) and three mediation models (APIMeM) with relationship power, benevolent sexism and hostile sexism as mediators are provided below in Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively.

Figure 1

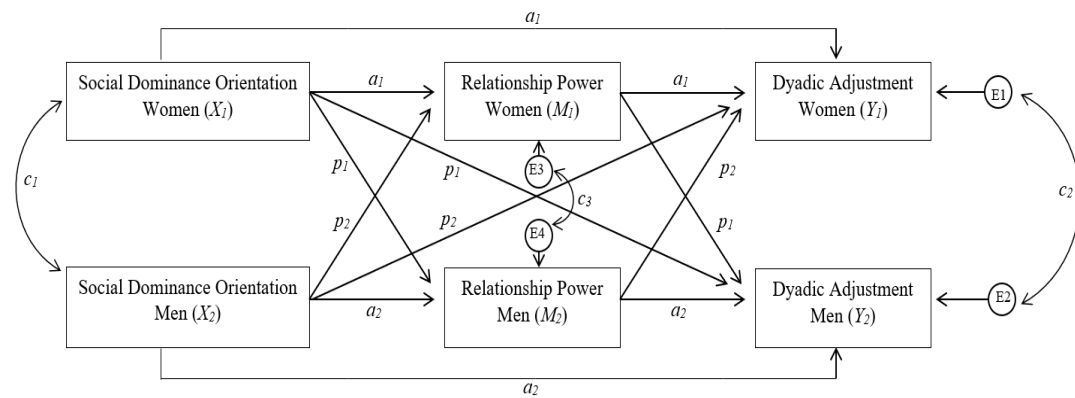
Theoretical Model for Basic APIM



Note. Actor effects are denoted by a , partner effects are denoted by p ; c_1 indicates the correlation between X_1 and X_2 , c_2 indicates the residual non-independence of Y_1 and Y_2 .

Figure 2

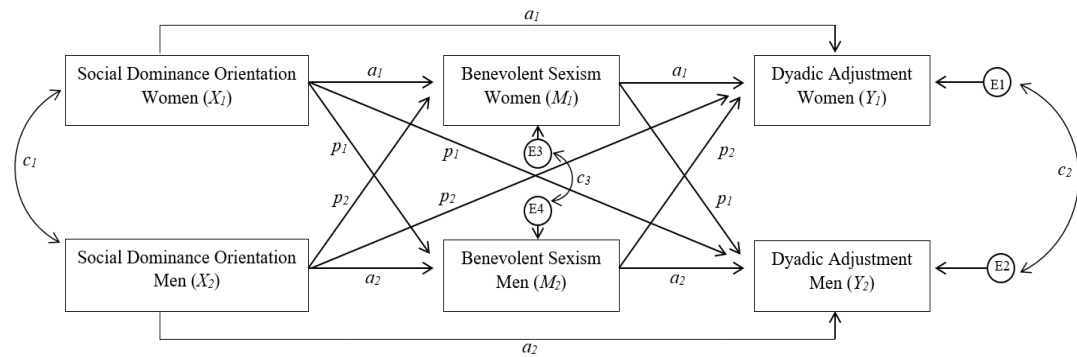
Theoretical Model for APIMeM with Relationship Power as a Mediator



Note. Actor effects are denoted by a , partner effects are denoted by p ; c_1 indicates the correlation between X_1 and X_2 , c_2 indicates the residual nonindependence of Y_1 and Y_2 ; c_3 indicates the residual nonindependence of M_1 and M_2 .

Figure 3

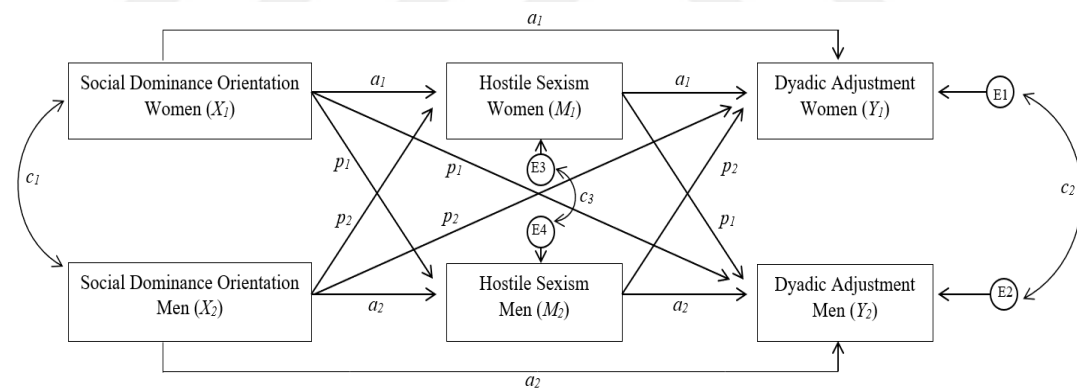
Theoretical Model for APIMeM with Benevolent Sexism as a Mediator



Note. Actor effects are denoted by a , partner effects are denoted by p ; c_1 indicates the correlation between X_1 and X_2 , c_2 indicates the residual nonindependence of Y_1 and Y_2 ; c_3 indicates the residual nonindependence of M_1 and M_2 .

Figure 4

Theoretical Model for APIMeM with Hostile Sexism as a Mediator



Note. Actor effects are denoted by a , partner effects are denoted by p ; c_1 indicates the correlation between X_1 and X_2 , c_2 indicates the residual nonindependence of Y_1 and Y_2 ; c_3 indicates the residual nonindependence of M_1 and M_2 .

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Participants

The initial sample of participants recruited via the snowball sampling method was comprised of 103 couples. After excluding 13 couples due to missing data or not meeting the inclusion criteria, the final sample was comprised of 90 dyads (for more detailed information about missing data, see 4.1 Missing Data and Data Cleaning). The inclusion criteria were as follows: being married for at least 2 years (24 months, having children older than the age of 3 (if the couple had children) and having both partners participate in the study since the purpose of study required dyadic data. These inclusion criteria had been set because the aim of the study was to examine long-term relationships and not relationships in their initial stages as well as partners who have not newly become parents since couples go through an adjustment stage during such periods of transition. Which could influence the measured variables considering that partners who newly became parents tend to rate their perceptions on household-related variables differently (Perales et al., 2015). Due to exclusion of individual responses that were not matched based on the couple pseudonym, data collected from 63 individuals were deleted since the researcher was not able find their partner's matching pseudonym. Moreover, over the course of data cleaning, a decision was made to expand the cut off for one of the initial inclusion criteria – age of children – to include 3 couples whose youngest children were 2 or 2,5 years old.

Participants' ages ranged from 24 to 72 (24 – 66 for women, 25 – 72 for men, $n_s = 90$ and 89 , respectively) with the average age of 41.1 for all participants. See Table 1 for information about partners' ages and duration of marriage. More

detailed information about the demographic makeup of the sample are provided in the results chapter (see 4.2.1 Demographic Descriptive Statistics).

Table 1

Basic Demographic Information

	Women		Men		All participants	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age (<i>n</i>)	39.1 (<i>n</i> =90)	9.16 (<i>n</i> =90)	43.1 (<i>n</i> =89)	10.39 (<i>n</i> =89)	41.1 (<i>N</i> =179)	9.95 (<i>N</i> =179)
Marriage Duration in months (<i>n</i>)	180.6 (<i>n</i> =90)	118.9 (<i>n</i> =90)	179.2 (<i>n</i> =90)	114.7 (<i>n</i> =90)	179.9 (<i>N</i> =180)	116.48 (<i>N</i> =180)

3.2 Procedure

The recruitment process began once the study was approved by Ozyegin University's Human Research Ethics Board. Participants were recruited through the snowball sampling method. Announcements were made on campus via distribution of posters on Ozyegin University Campus, the researcher's personal network connections were utilized in the recruitment process, messaging applications (e.g. WhatsApp) and e-mail were used to distribute study announcement information and the survey link. A poster was prepared and contained brief information about the study, inclusion criteria, the prize draw (a 100TL D&R gift card), the survey link and researcher's contact information. The survey link directed the participants to the survey, which started with the informed consent form (see Appendix A). Once participants read the informed consent, they were provided with an option to give consent and proceed with the survey of their own volition.

Participant were asked to provide some personal information such as age and gender, but names were not taken. Because the aim of this study is to examine

relationships between the variables on a dyadic basis, participant responses have been matched in pairs with their spouse. In order to provide anonymity and confidentiality, participants were asked to enter a pseudonym consisting of a word and a 3-digit number (e.g. 'istanbul253') that would be used by both spouses.

Participants were informed that completing the online questionnaire would take about 15-20 minutes of their time. Upon completing the questionnaire, participants were directed at a page that offered them the option to receive a summary of findings once the study was complete.

Furthermore, participants were given the option to enter their e-mail address in a draw to win a D&R gift card valued at 100 TL. The draw was open to all research participants who enter their name, regardless of whether they decided to withdraw from further participation in the research project. A number was randomly selected amongst those who had entered their e-mail address and the person whose name was drawn was informed via e-mail. The participant responded by confirming their current e-mail address. The online gift card was sent to the participant via e-mail. The odds of winning a prize were approximately equal to 1-0.5%. The prize was awarded as a gift card and could not be redeemed for cash. Participants were informed that the e-mail address they provided when entering the draw was collected only for the purposes of contacting them if they were selected in the draw. Their information was kept confidential and then destroyed once the prizes were awarded.

Online surveys were administered online from Aysoltan Ymamgulyyeva's Qualtrics account. Data collected online is stored in Aysoltan Ymamgulyyeva's personal password protected computer. Data was not collected via paper surveys. Data was exported from Qualtrics in both .xlsx and .sav formats. Participants were

matched based on provided pseudonyms and demographic information. Data was later cleaned. The analyses were conducted in SPSS 23.0 (IBM Corp, 2015) and Mplus7 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). Detailed information about the data cleaning process, missing data and preliminary analyses is provided in Chapter 4, Results.

3.3 Measures

This section provides more detailed information about measures used in this study. This section starts off with a description of the Demographic Information Form. Then, relevant information about the following scales is provided: Social Dominance Orientation Scale, Couple Power Scale, Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and Ambivalent Sexism Inventory.

3.3.1 Demographic Information Form

Participants were asked to indicate their age, sex, duration of their marriage, duration of cohabitation if they are cohabitating, family income level, individual's personal income level, city they currently live in, occupation, employment status, number of children if they have children, age of each child, whether the couple lives together and whether they live with any other people (see Appendix B).

3.3.2 Social Dominance Orientation Scale

Social dominance orientation was assessed using the 16-item Social Dominance Orientation scale developed by Pratto et al. (1994). Participants were asked to rate how strongly they agree or disagree with the items such as: "It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others" and "Group equality should be our ideal" on a scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"). The highest score that one can get from each item is 7 and the lowest score is 1. Items 2, 4, 7, 9, 10, 12, 14 and 15 are reverse-coded. The lowest score one can receive from the total scale is 16 while the highest is 112. The higher scores on the SDO scale

indicate a higher social dominance orientation while the lower scores indicate a lower social dominance orientation.

The Cronbach's alpha of the original scale is .91 (Pratto et al., 1994). The 16-item SDO scale has been adapted to Turkish by Karacanta (2002) as part of their doctoral dissertation. The Cronbach's alpha of Turkish version of the SDO scale was .85. The reliability analysis conducted in this study showed Cronbach's coefficient alpha of $\alpha = .90$ for women and $\alpha = .85$ for men.

The Turkish version of the SDO scale can be found in Appendix C.

3.3.3 Couple Power Scale

Relationship power was assessed using the Couple Power Scale developed by Day et al. (in Kaynak-Malatyali, 2014) as part of the Flourishing Families Project at Brigham Young University and adapted to Turkish by Kaynak-Malatyali (2014). The Couple Power Scale has been constructed on the basis of existing scales measuring couple relationship power. The participants' responses vary from 1 ("strongly agree") to 5 ("strongly disagree") on a 5-point Likert scale. The scale consists of 15 items total. Items 6 and 8 are reverse-coded. Higher scores on the scale indicate higher perceived power of individuals towards their partner/spouse. The scores for the total scale range from the lowest score of 15 to the highest score of 75.

The power processes subscale consists of 9 items (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10) including such items as "My partner does not listen to me." and the power outcomes subscale consists of 6 items (items 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15) including such items as "When it comes to money, my partner's opinion usually wins out."

In the original study, the Cronbach's alpha varied from .91 to .92 for men and women (in Kaynak-Malatyali, 2014). In the Turkish version, the Cronbach's

alpha was found to be .82 for both power processes and outcomes subscales and .87 for the total scale (Kaynak-Malatyali, 2014). In another study conducted using the Turkish version of the Couple Power Scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .85 and .60 for the power processes and power outcomes scales, respectively, and .82 for the entire scale. In this study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha of the power processes subscale for both men and women was $\alpha = .88$. For the power outcomes subscale, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was $\alpha = .86$ for women and $\alpha = .85$ for men. Finally, Cronbach's coefficient alpha of the total scale was $\alpha = .92$ for both women and men.

The Turkish version of the Couple Power Scale can be found in Appendix D.

3.3.4 Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Dyadic adjustment was assessed using the Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Busby et al., 1995). Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was originally developed by Spanier (1976) as a 32-item scale to measure the dyadic adjustment of romantic partners. It measured the following dimensions of dyadic adjustment: dyadic consensus, dyadic cohesion, dyadic satisfaction, and affectional expression. Busby et al. (1995) revised the Dyadic Adjustment Scale reducing it to 14 items. The items in the Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (RDAS) were rated on a Likert scale ranging from either 0 to 4 or 0 to 5. The RDAS contains 3 of the original 4 subscales. The dyadic consensus subscale assesses consensus on such matters as "Sex relations" and "Making major decisions". The dyadic cohesion subscale includes such items as "How often do you have a stimulating exchange of ideas?" and "How often do you work together on a project?". The dyadic satisfaction subscale includes items such as "How often do you discuss terminating your

relationship?” or “Do you ever regret that you married?”. Items 7, 8, 9 and 10 are reverse-coded. RDAS was adapted to Turkish by Gündoğdu (2007).

In the original study, internal consistency coefficients were .81, .85, .80 and .90 for dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction and dyadic cohesion subscales and the total scale, respectively. In the study by Gündoğdu (2007), internal consistency coefficients .80, .80, .74 and .87 for dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction and dyadic cohesion subscales and the total scale, respectively. In this study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the total scale were as follows: $\alpha = .89$ for women and $\alpha = .88$ for men. Moreover, when internal consistency of the subscales was assessed Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction and dyadic cohesion subscales were .86, .79 and .78 for women, .83, .80 and .80 for men, respectively.

The Turkish version of the Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale can be found in Appendix E.

3.3.5 Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

Sexist attitudes toward women were assessed using the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) developed by Glick and Fiske (1996). The scale measures two sets of sexist attitudes that together compose ambivalent sexism: hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexist attitudes are characterized by hostile heterosexuality, competitive gender differentiation and dominative paternalism (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Benevolent sexist attitudes, on the other hand, consist of heterosexual intimacy, complementary gender differentiation and protective paternalism. The ASI consists of 22 items total with 11-item hostile sexism and benevolent sexism subscales. Participants rate how strongly they agree or disagree with the items such as: “Women should be cherished and protected by men” and

“Feminists are making unreasonable demands of men” on a scale from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 6 (“strongly agree”). Higher scores on the ASI scale indicate higher levels of ambivalent sexism and contains no reverse-coded items. The 22-item scale has been adapted to Turkish by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002).

In the original study, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients varied between .80 and .92 for hostile sexism subscale, .73 and .85 for benevolent sexism subscale and .83 and .92 for the entire scale. In the Turkish version, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for hostile sexism subscale, benevolent sexism subscale and the total scale were .87, .78 and .85, respectively. In this study, Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for hostile sexism subscale, benevolent sexism subscale and the total scale, respectively, were .81, .91 and .88 for women and .91, .90 and .90 for men.

The Turkish version of the the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory can be found in Appendix F.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the statistical analyses conducted in this study. The results are presented in four sections. Section 1 covers data cleaning procedures and how missing data issues have been addressed. Section 2 presents descriptive statistics and the results of preliminary analyses. Sections 3 and 4 discuss the results of the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) and Actor-Partner Interdependence Model of Mediation (APIMeM) with relationship power and ambivalent sexism as mediators. The results of the aforementioned analyses are presented in relevance to the research hypotheses and discussed in-depth in the next chapter.

4.1 Missing Data and Data Cleaning

Data were exported from Qualtrics in both .xlsx and .sav formats. A total of 13 couples (26 individuals) were excluded from the final sample due to missing data or not meeting the inclusion criteria (being married for at least 2 years (24 months) and/or the age of children). Two (4 individuals) of the 13 couples were excluded because extensive amounts of data were missing from one of the partners' responses with response rates of 2% and 18% for each couple excluded. Six couples (12 individuals) were excluded because they had children younger than 2 years of age. And 5 couples (10 individuals) were excluded due to the newlywed effect.

Ninety couples (180 individuals) comprised the final sample because they filled out all five questionnaires (Demographic Information Form, Social Dominance Orientation survey, Couple Power Scale, Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, and Revised Dyadic Adjustment scale) with minimal data missing. All missing values were entered as 999 and specified as missing values.

4.2 Preliminary Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

The analyses presented in this section were conducted on IBM SPSS 23.0 (IBM Corp, 2015). Sum scores were calculated for each of the main four variables. To ensure a correct estimation of the sum, minimum numbers of valid cases were entered syntax for each of the main variables. For social dominance orientation (SDO), the sum of at least 14 items out of 16 items total was calculated. Similarly, minimum numbers of valid cases were entered as follows: 14 out 15 items for Couple Power Scale (CPS), 13 out of 14 items for Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (RDAS), and 20 out of 22 items for Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI). Descriptive analysis of the sum scores of the main variables identified 1 missing value for SDO, 1 missing value for ASI, and no any missing values for either RDAS or CPS.

Furthermore, to assess for univariate outliers, z scores of the four main variables were calculated. Z scores for all four variables did not exceed the value of 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Moreover, descriptive statistics were utilized in assessing the normality assumption via the measures of skewness and kurtosis. Skewness and kurtosis statistics were calculated, separately, for men and women due to the dyadic structure of the data (see Table 2).

For women, almost all skewness and kurtosis statistic values for the main variables fall between ± 1.0 , which is regarded as excellent (George & Mallery, 2016). The exception in this case being the kurtosis statistic of 1.01 for women ambivalent sexism (ASI). And according to George and Mallery (2016), skewness and kurtosis statistic values that fall between ± 2.0 are considered as acceptable. For men, skewness and kurtosis statistic values for three main variables fall between ± 1.0 and is regarded as excellent. Skewness statistic for men's ambivalent sexism

(ASI) has the value of -1.12, which still falls between ± 2.0 and therefore, can be considered as acceptable. Kurtosis statistic for men's ambivalent sexism (ASI) has the value of 2.03, suggesting that the distribution is slightly leptokurtic. When looking at the histogram for men's ambivalent sexism (ASI), it can be noticed that men tended to score higher on the ASI, particularly, between the scores of 80 and 100 (see Figure 9, Appendix G). However, when looking at the descriptive statistics of the entire sample, the value of the kurtosis statistic of 1.32 for ambivalent sexism (ASI) falls within the acceptable range of ± 2.0 (see Table 3, see Figure 10, Appendix H for histogram). More importantly, Cronbach's alpha values for Ambivalent Sexism Inventory for women and men are 0.88 and 0.90, respectively. Therefore, a decision not to transform the data was reached.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for SDO, CP, DA and AS by Gender

	Range	Min- Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skew- ness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Women							
Social Dominance Orientation	82	16-98	46.3	17.01	0.60	0.29	0.90
Couple Power	55	20-75	53.3	12.30	-0.27	-0.28	0.92
Dyadic Adjustment	43	25-68	51.1	9.96	-0.64	-0.15	0.89
Ambivalent Sexism	99	22- 121	79.3	18.73	-0.86	1.01	0.88
Men							
Social Dominance Orientation	74	19-93	48.6	15.97	0.40	0.07	0.85

Couple Power	57	18-75	53.9	11.93	-0.53	0.34	0.92
Dyadic Adjustment	43	25-68	51.8	9.49	-0.72	0.55	0.88
Ambivalent Sexism	101	23-124	84.6	18.93	-1.12	2.03	0.90

Note. SDO = social dominance orientation, CP = couple power, DA = dyadic adjustment, AS = ambivalent sexism.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for SDO, CP, DA and AS for All Participants

	Range	Min-Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
All Participants							
Social Dominance Orientation	82	16-98	47.4	16.49	.49	.12	0.88
Couple Power	57	18-75	53.6	12.09	-.39	-.03	0.92
Dyadic Adjustment	43	25-68	51.5	9.70	-.68	.14	0.89
Ambivalent Sexism	102	22-124	81.9	18.96	-.95	1.32	0.89

Note. SDO = social dominance orientation, CP = couple power, DA = dyadic adjustment, AS = ambivalent sexism.

4.2.1 Demographic Descriptive Statistics

Almost all couples (88) cohabitated with their spouse and most couples (79) had children. Among couples who had children, 39 women (43.3%) and 37 men (41.1%) had 1 child, 30 women (33.3%) and 33 men (36.7%) had 2 children, 8 women (8.9 %) and 7 men (7.8%) had 3 children, and 2 women (2.2%) and 2 men (2.2%) had 4 children. According to women's reports, the average ages of their

children were 14.8 ($SD = 9.63$) for the 1st child, 13.4 ($SD = 9.25$) for the 2nd child, 8.5 ($SD = 9.15$) for the 3rd child, and 5.5 ($SD = .71$) for the 4th child. According to men's reports, the average ages of their children were 15.3 ($SD = 10.24$) for the 1st child, 14.1 ($SD = 9.68$) for the 2nd child, 9 ($SD = 9.61$) for the 3rd child, 5.5 ($SD = .71$) for the 4th child. The ages of all children ranged from 2 to 44 for women and from 2 to 45 for men. For descriptive statistics of participants' ages and duration of marriage see 3.3.1 Participants.

In this study, participants came from relatively diverse range of economic, educational, occupational, and geographic backgrounds. Participants reported their personal income as well as the family income. For personal income, 21 participants (11.7 %) reported an income of 850 TL and below, 10 (5.6%) an income of 851 TL – 1500 TL, 46 (25.6%) an income of 1501 TL – 3000TL, 50 (27.8%) an income of 3001 TL – 5000 TL, 27 (15%) an income of 5001 TL – 7500 TL and 23 (12.8%) an income of 7501 TL and above. Overall, about half of all participants reported a personal income between 1501 TL and 5000 TL. For family income, 6 (3.3%) participants had a family income of 850 TL and below, 4 (2.2%) an income of 851 TL – 1500 TL, 25 (13.9%) an income of 1501 TL – 3000TL, 31 (17.2%) an income of 3001 TL – 5000 TL, 41 (22.8%) an income of 5001 TL – 7500 TL, 70 (38.9%) an income of 7501 TL and above. As can be seen in Table 4, about 60% of all participants reported a family income above 5000 TL indicating that more than half of all participants had an above-average family income.

Over one-half of all participants either graduated from high school (27.8%) or had a bachelor's degree (34.4%). Nine women and 7 men (8.9%) went to elementary school, 6 women and 8 men (7.8%) went to middle school, 8 women and 7 men went to college (8.3%), 7 women and 10 men had a master's degree (9.4%),

and 2 women and 2 men (2.2%) had a doctorate/postgraduate degree. The average duration of education in years was 13.5 for all participants (see Table 4 for more detailed information).

Participants reported an array of professions, which were grouped into the following 14 categories by the researcher: engineering (3.9%), manual work (9.4%), health sector (10%), education (17.2%), service industry (7.8%), homemaking (11.1%), business/administration/sales/marketing (10.6%), freelance (3.9%), art/craft/handiwork (4.4%), civil service (3.9%), law enforcement and security (2.2%), private sector (1.7%), unemployed (0.6%), and retired (10%). Most participants were employed (70.6%), 21.7% of all participants reported being unemployed, and 6.1% of all participants chose the “other” category. Most of the participants who reported “other” for employment status were retired. The sample consisted mostly of participants who were employed in various professional sectors.

Most participants lived in either Istanbul or Edirne (57 in Istanbul and 61 in Edirne; 31.7% and 33.9% of all participants, respectively). The remaining one third of the participants lived in Ankara, Afyonkarahisar, Edirne Province (Meriç, Uzunköprü), Kahramanmaraş, Bursa, Denizli, Antalya, Kırklareli, Kütahya, Mardin, Rize, and Uşak (see Table 4 for more detailed information). This sample is not representative of all regions in Turkey. However, it may be useful to keep the geographical background of the participants in mind when interpreting the findings.

Finally, couples were also asked to report their living situation. About 70% of all participants reported living with their spouse and children (63 women and 65 men; 128 total, 71.1%). Twenty-two women and 21 men reported living with their spouse (43 total, 23.9%), 1 woman reported living mother, father, spouse and children, 3 women and 1 man reported living with their in-laws, spouse and

children, 1 woman and 3 men chose the category “other” and specified their living situation as living alone, with their mother and child/children or with their mother, spouse and child/children.

Table 4

Detailed Demographic Information

	Women	Men	All participants
Number of Participants (%)	90 (50%)	90 (50%)	180
Cohabiting with Spouse (%)			
Yes	88 (97.8%)	88 (97.8%)	176 (97.8%)
No	2 (2.2%)	2 (2.2%)	4 (2.2%)
Average Cohabitation Duration in Months (<i>SD</i>)	182.4 (117.95)	184.4 (121.50)	183.4 (119.41)
Children (%)			
Yes	79 (87.8%)	79 (87.8%)	158 (87.8%)
No	11 (12.2%)	11 (12.2%)	22 (12.2%)
Number of Children (%)			
1 Child	39 (43.3%)	37 (41.1%)	76 (42.2%)
2 Children	30 (33.3%)	33 (36.7%)	63 (35%)
3 Children	8 (8.9 %)	7 (7.8%)	15 (8.3%)
4 Children	2 (2.2%)	2 (2.2%)	4 (2.2%)
Average Age of Children (<i>SD</i>)			
1 st Child	14.8 (9.63)	15.3 (10.24)	15.1 (9.91)
2 nd Child	13.4 (9.25)	14.1 (9.68)	13.8 (9.42)
3 rd Child	8.5 (9.15)	9 (9.61)	8.7 (9.08)
4 th Child	5.5 (.71)	5.5 (.71)	5.5 (.58)
City of Residence (%)			

Istanbul	-	-	57 (31.7%)
Ankara	-	-	6 (3.3%)
Edirne	-	-	61 (33.9%)
Afyonkarahisar	-	-	14 (7.8%)
Edirne Province (Meriç, Uzunköprü)	-	-	12 (6.6%)
Kahramanmaraş	-	-	4 (2.2%)
Bursa	-	-	4 (2.2%)
Denizli	-	-	2 (1.1%)
Antalya	-	-	2 (1.1%)
Kırklareli	-	-	2 (1.1%)
Kütahya	-	-	2 (1.1%)
Mardin	-	-	2 (1.1%)
Rize	-	-	2 (1.1%)
Uşak	-	-	2 (1.1%)
Educational Background (%)			
Elementary School	9 (10%)	7 (7.8%)	16 (8.9%)
Middle School	6 (6.7%)	8 (8.9%)	14 (7.8%)
High School	27 (30%)	23 (25.6%)	50 (27.8%)
College (2 years)	8 (8.9%)	7 (7.8%)	15 (8.3%)
Bachelor's Degree (4 years)	30 (33.3%)	32 (35.6%)	62 (34.4%)
Master's Degree	7 (7.8%)	10 (11.1%)	17 (9.4%)
Doctorate/Postgraduate Degree	2 (2.2%)	2 (2.2%)	4 (2.2%)
Average Duration of Education in Years (<i>SD</i>)	13 (4.53)	13.9 (4.61)	13.5 (4.59)
Occupation (%)			
Engineering	2 (2.2%)	5 (5.6%)	7 (3.9%)
Manual Work	8 (8.9%)	9 (10%)	17 (9.4%)
Health Sector	15 (16.7%)	3 (3.3%)	18 (10%)
Education	16 (17.8%)	15 (16.7%)	31 (17.2%)

Service Industry	5 (5.6%)	9 (10%)	14 (7.8%)
Homemaking	20 (22.2%)	-	20 (11.1%)
Business, Administration, Sales, Marketing	7 (7.8%)	12(13.3%)	19 (10.6%)
Freelance	-	7 (7.8%)	7 (3.9%)
Art/Craft/Handiwork	2 (2.2%)	6 (6.7%)	8 (4.4%)
Civil Service	3 (3.3%)	4 (4.4%)	7 (3.9%)
Law Enforcement and Security	-	4 (4.4%)	4 (2.2%)
Private Sector	3 (3.3%)	-	3 (1.7%)
Unemployed	-	1 (1.1%)	1 (0.6%)
Retired	7 (7.8%)	11(12.2%)	18 (10%)
Employment Status (%)			
Employed	54 (60%)	73 (81.1%)	127 (70.6 %)
Unemployed	29 (32.2%)	10 (11.1%)	39 (21.7%)
Other (Most Frequently Retired)	6 (6.7%)	5 (5.6%)	11 (6.1%)
Personal income (%)			
850 TL and below	15 (16.7%)	6 (6.7%)	21 (11.7 %)
851 TL – 1500 TL	10 (11.1%)	-	10 (5.6%)
1501 TL – 3000TL	20 (22.2%)	26 (28.9%)	46 (25.6%)
3001 TL – 5000 TL	29 (32.2%)	21 (23.3%)	50 (27.8%)
5001 TL – 7500 TL	7 (7.8%)	20 (22.2%)	27 (15%)
7501 TL and above	9 (10%)	14 (15.6%)	23 (12.8%)
Family Income (%)			
850 TL and below	3 (3.3%)	3 (3.3%)	6 (3.3%)
851 TL – 1500 TL	3 (3.3%)	1 (1.1%)	4 (2.2%)
1501 TL – 3000TL	13 (14.4%)	12 (13.3%)	25 (13.9%)
3001 TL – 5000 TL	15 (16.7%)	16 (17.8%)	31 (17.2%)
5001 TL – 7500 TL	19 (21.1%)	22 (24.4%)	41 (22.8%)
7501 TL and above	36 (40%)	34 (37.8%)	70 (38.9%)

Live with (%)

With my spouse	22 (24.4%)	21 (23.3%)	43 (23.9%)
With my spouse and children	63 (70%)	65 (72.2%)	128 (71.1%)
With my mother, father, spouse and children	1 (1.1%)	-	1 (0.6%)
With my in-laws, spouse and children	3 (3.3%)	1 (1.1%)	4 (2.2%)
Other	1 (1.1%)	3 (3.3%)	4 (2.2%)

4.2.2 Correlation Analysis

Firstly, this section presents the results of Pearson bivariate correlations between the four main variables (social dominance orientation, relationship power, dyadic adjustment, and ambivalent sexism) and continuous demographic variables, such as participant age, total years of education, duration of marriage and cohabitation in months, number of children and their ages. Ages of the 3rd and 4th children have been excluded from the analyses due to low sample size ($n_s = 9$ and 2 , respectively). Correlations analyses for the main and demographic variables were run separately for men and women due to the dyadic structure of the data. Tables 5 and 6 contain the correlation coefficients of all studied variables for women and men, respectively. Then, the results of the correlation analysis of men's and women's scores on the main four variables was run. Table 7 presents the correlation coefficients of men's and women's scores on the four main variables.

Table 5
Correlations of All Studied Variables for Women

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Social dominance orientation	-										
2. Relationship power	-.343**	-									
3. Dyadic adjustment	-.173	.708**	-								
4. Ambivalent sexism	.379**	-.336**	-.212*	-							
5. Age	-.161	-.043	-.042	-.063	-						
6. Years of education	-.254*	.154	.105	-.137	-.173	-					
7. Marriage duration	-.048	-.137	-.177	.112	.838**	-.336**	-				
8. Cohabitation duration	-.037	-.151	-.179	.123	.835**	-.331**	.996**	-			
9. Number of children	.176	-.213	-.060	.195	.257*	-.350**	.309**	.312**	-		
10. Age of 1st Child	-.066	-.094	-.083	.007	.898**	-.280*	.953**	.951**	.321**	-	
11. Age of 2nd Child	-.072	-.019	-.137	.083	.886**	-.034	.952**	.948**	-.072	.962**	-

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

Note. Ages of the 3rd and 4th children have been excluded from the analysis due to low sample size ($ns = 9$ and 2 , respectively).

Table 6
Correlations of All Studied Variables for Men

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Social dominance orientation	-										
2. Relationship power	-.282**	-									
3. Dyadic adjustment	-.249*	.671**	-								
4. Ambivalent sexism	.219*	-.114	-.243*	-							
5. Age	-.067	-.024	-.121	-.035	-						
6. Years of education	.040	-.065	.009	.224*	-.259*	-					
7. Marriage duration	-.038	-.122	-.152	-.132	.802**	-.347**	-				
8. Cohabitation duration	-.060	-.163	-.192	-.144	.804**	-.336**	.985**	-			
9. Number of children	.091	-.135	-.055	.172	.319**	-.184	.284*	.279*	-		
10. Age of 1st Child	-.079	-.068	-.079	-.021	.909**	-.269*	.861**	.868**	.352**	-	
11. Age of 2nd Child	-.209	.016	-.033	.043	.891**	-.103	.699**	.740**	-.050	.963**	-

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

Note. Ages of the 3rd and 4th children have been excluded from the analysis due to low sample size ($ns = 9$ and 2 , respectively).

Table 7

Correlations of Four Main Variables for Men and Women

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Social dominance orientation ₁	-							
2. Relationship power ₁	-.343**	-						
3. Dyadic adjustment ₁	-.173	.708**	-					
4. Ambivalent sexism ₁	.379**	-.336**	-.212*	-				
5. Social dominance orientation ₂	.365**	-.259*	-.179	.029	-			
6. Relationship power ₂	-.247*	.501**	.552**	-.169	-.282**	-		
7. Dyadic adjustment ₂	-.066	.561**	.740**	-.221*	-.249*	.671**	-	
8. Ambivalent sexism ₂	.066	-.328**	-.164	.472**	.219*	-.114	-.243*	-

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

Note. Subscript 1 refers to women, subscript 2 refers to men.

4.2.3 Paired Samples t-test

Paired samples t-tests were conducted to examine gender differences on the main four variables. The difference between men ($M = 48.78$, $SD = 15.95$) and women ($M = 46.27$, $SD = 17.01$) on social dominance orientation was not statistically significant, $t(88) = -1.27$, $p = .207$. Similarly, no statistically significant difference was found, $t(89) = -.505$, $p = .615$, between women's ($M = 53.24$, $SD = 12.30$) and men's ($M = 53.89$, $SD = 11.93$) relationship power scores. No statistically significant difference was found $t(89) = -.960$, $p = .340$, between women's ($M = 51.09$, $SD = 9.96$) and men's ($M = 51.8$, $SD = 9.49$) dyadic adjustment. However, a statistically significant difference was found when ambivalent sexism scores were compared, $t(88) = -2.530$, $p = .013$, with men scoring higher ($M = 84.55$, $SD = 18.93$) than women ($M = 79.35$, $SD = 18.82$).

Furthermore, because APIM mediation models were to be run separately for hostile and benevolent sexism subscales of ambivalent sexism, the differences between husbands and wives on these two subscales were examined as well. The results revealed a statistically significant difference for hostile sexism, $t(88) = -4.955$, $p = .000$, with men ($M = 40.73$, $SD = 12.21$) scoring higher than women ($M = 34.6$, $SD = 9.94$). However, the paired samples t-test for benevolent sexism did not reveal a statistically significant difference, $t(88) = .554$, $p = .581$, with women ($M = 44.75$, $SD = 12.55$) and men ($M = 43.82$, $SD = 12.22$) scoring similarly.

4.3 APIM

As the first step, the basic saturated APIM model was estimated. Nonindependence of observations of the main variables was assessed using the Pearson product-moment correlation. Women's and men's scores on the main four

variables: social dominance orientation ($r(87) = .37, p < .001$); relationship power ($r(88) = .50, p < .001$); dyadic adjustment ($r(88) = .74, p < .001$); and ambivalent sexism ($r(87) = .47, p < .001$) were all significantly positively correlated.

APIM analyses were conducted using the Mplus7 software and structural equation modelling (SEM) (Cook & Kenny, 2005; Fitzpatrick et al., 2016; Muthén & Muthén, 2017). Results are presented in accordance with the research questions below. The unstandardized effect estimates for the basic saturated APIM and the APIM model are presented in Table 8 and Figure 5, respectively.

4.3.1 Research Question 1

The direct actor effect of women's own social dominance orientation on their own dyadic adjustment was not significant ($b = .07, p = .247$).

4.3.2 Research Question 2

The direct actor effect of men's own social dominance orientation on their own dyadic adjustment was significant ($b = -.23, p < .001$). Hence, men's own social dominance orientation was negatively related to their own dyadic adjustment.

4.3.3 Research Question 3

The direct women to men partner effect of women's own social dominance orientation on their partners' dyadic adjustment was significant ($b = .12, p < .05$). In other words, women's social dominance orientation appeared to be positively related to their husbands' dyadic adjustment.

4.3.4 Research Question 4

The direct men to women partner effect of men's own social dominance orientation on their partners' dyadic adjustment was not significant ($b = .05, p = .387$).

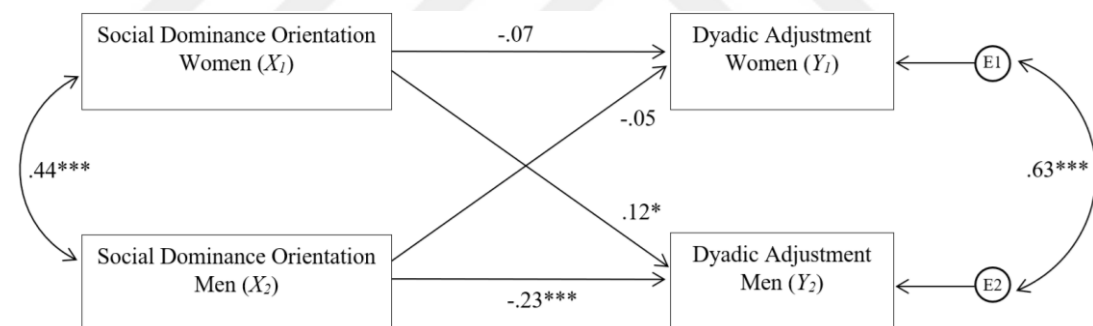
Table 8

Basic Saturated APIM: Unstandardized Effect Estimates

	Estimate	<i>p</i>
Actor effects		
Women – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.064	.247
Men – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.232	.000
Partner effects		
Women to men – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.123	.037
Men to Women – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.047	.387

Note. SDO (X) = social dominance orientation, DA (Y) = dyadic adjustment; subscript 1 refers to women, subscript 2 refers to men; p is two-tailed.

Figure 5

Basic Saturated APIM Model with Standardized Effect Estimates

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

4.4 APIMeM

In this section, the results of the mediation models with relationship power and ambivalent sexism (benevolent sexism and hostile sexism) as mediators, social dominance orientation as the initial variable, and dyadic adjustment as the outcome variable are presented. The decision to run 3 separate mediation models instead of

one model with 3 mediating variables was made due to a lack of a larger sample size and therefore, power.

4.4.1 APIMeM with Relationship Power as a Mediator

The unstandardized direct effect estimates for the APIMeM with relationship power as a mediator and the APIMeM with standardized direct effect estimates are presented in Table 9 and Figure 6, respectively.

4.4.1.1 Direct Effects

Although the indirect effects of the APIMeM with relationship power as a mediator were not significant, several statistically significant direct effects were found. Women's own relationship power was positively related to their own dyadic adjustment ($b = .38, p < .001$). Similarly, men's own relationship power was positively related to their own dyadic adjustment ($b = .27, p = .001$). Furthermore, women's own relationship power was positively related to their partners' dyadic adjustment ($b = .24, p < .05$). And finally, men's own social dominance orientation was negatively related to their own dyadic adjustment ($b = -.21, p = .001$).

Table 9

Unstandardized Direct Effect Estimates for the APIMeM with Relationship Power as a Mediator

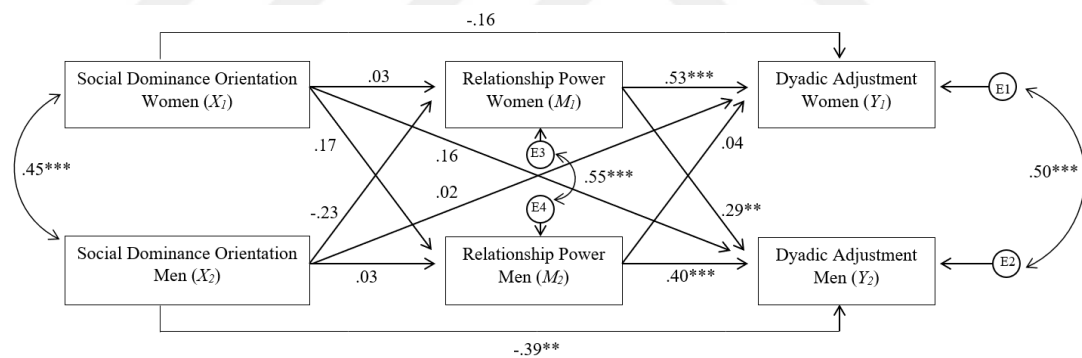
	Estimate	SE	p
SDO (X) → RP (M)			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1$	0.021	0.115	.854
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2$	0.020	0.166	.905
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2$	0.138	0.141	.329
Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1$	-0.147	0.122	.228
RP (M) → DA (Y)			
Women AE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.380	0.086	<.001

Men AE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.268	0.084	.001
Women to men PE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.239	0.083	.004
Men to women PE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.021	0.073	.771
SDO (X) \rightarrow DA (Y)			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.073	0.075	.331
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.205	0.064	0.001
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.088	0.052	0.095
Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.007	0.077	.925

Note. SDO (X) = social dominance orientation, RP (M) = relationship power, DA (Y) = dyadic adjustment; subscript 1 refers to women, subscript 2 refers to men; AE = actor effect, PE = partner effect; *SE* = standard error; p is two-tailed.

Figure 6

APIMeM with Standardized Direct Effect Estimates and Relationship Power as a Mediator



Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

4.4.1.2 Indirect Effects

Question 5 addressed women's indirect actor effect. Because the results of basic APIM did not reveal a significant direct women's actor effect, the indirect effect for this path was not estimated.

Question 6 regarded men's indirect actor effect. It was hypothesized that higher levels of men's own SDO would be associated with higher levels of their

own relationship power which in turn, would be related to higher levels of their own dyadic adjustment.

However, the indirect men's actor effect of men's own social dominance orientation on their own dyadic adjustment through their own relationship power was not significant ($b = .01, p = .908$).

Question 7 addressed the women to men indirect partner effect, and it was hypothesized that higher levels of women's own SDO would be associated with higher levels of their own relationship power which in turn, would be related to lower levels of their partners' dyadic adjustment.

But the indirect women's partner effect of women's own social dominance orientation on their partners' dyadic adjustment through women's own relationship power was not significant ($b = .01, p = .860$).

Question 8 addressed the men to women indirect partner effect, which was also not estimated because the men to women direct actor effect was not significant in the basic APIM.

4.4.2 APIMeM with Benevolent Sexism as a Mediator

The APIMeM analyses with benevolent sexism and hostile sexism as mediating variables were, first, run without bootstrapping and upon identifying a statistically significant indirect effect, the models were run using the bootstrapping method with 5000 samples. The results presented in this section and the next are from the bootstrapped model. The unstandardized direct effect estimates for the APIMeM with benevolent sexism as a mediator and the APIMeM with standardized direct effect estimates are presented in Table 9 and Figure 7, respectively.

4.4.2.1 Direct Effects

Several statistically significant direct effects were found. Women's own social dominance orientation was positively related to their own benevolent sexism ($b = .24, p = .005$). Moreover, women's own benevolent sexism was negatively related to their own dyadic adjustment ($b = -.19, p < .05$), as well as, their husbands' dyadic adjustment ($b = -.27, p = .004$). Finally, men's own social dominance orientation was negatively related to their own dyadic adjustment ($b = -.19, p = .009$). See Table 10 and Figure 6 for unstandardized and standardized direct effect estimates, respectively.

Table 10

Unstandardized Direct Effect Estimates for the APIMeM with Benevolent Sexism as a Mediator

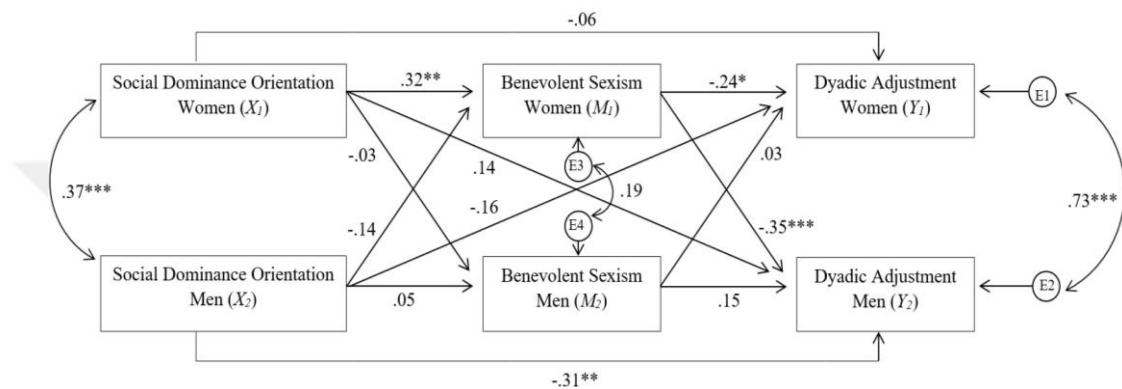
	Estimate	SE	p
SDO (X) → BS (M)			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1$	0.234	0.084	.005
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2$	0.038	0.106	.722
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2$	-0.018	0.096	.850
Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1$	-0.106	0.090	.240
BS (M) → DA (Y)			
Women AE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.190	0.086	.027
Men AE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.113	0.098	.246
Women to men PE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.264	0.093	.004
Men to women PE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.022	0.079	.783
SDO (X) → DA (Y)			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.034	0.072	.640
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.184	0.070	.009
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.075	0.053	.158

Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_1$ -0.101 0.071 .156

Note. SDO (X) = social dominance orientation, BS (M) = benevolent sexism, DA (Y) = dyadic adjustment; subscript 1 refers to women, subscript 2 refers to men; AE = actor effect, PE = partner effect; SE = standard error; p is two-tailed.

Figure 7

APIMeM with Standardized Direct Effect Estimates and Benevolent Sexism as a Mediator



Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$ (two-tailed).

4.4.2.2 Indirect Effects

Question 9 addressing the women's indirect actor effect and Question 12 pertaining to the men to women indirect partner effect were not estimated because the direct effects for these paths were not significant in the basic APIM.

Question 10 regarded men's indirect actor effects. Men's actor-actor and partner-partner effects were not significant ($b = .01$, $p = .794$, 95% CI [-0.015, 0.060]), ($b = .03$, $p = .293$, 95% CI [-0.010, 0.098]), respectively.

Question 11 aimed at estimating the women to men indirect partner effects. Although the women to men partner-actor effect was not significant ($b = .00$, $p = .892$, 95% CI [-0.053, 0.019]), there a statistically significant negative women to men actor-partner effect ($b = -.06$, $p = .029$, 95% CI [-0.133, -0.019]). In other words, women's own social dominance orientation had a negative indirect effect on

their husbands' dyadic adjustment through women's own benevolent sexism. See Table 11 for unstandardized indirect effect estimates.

Table 11

Unstandardized Indirect Effect Estimates for APIMeM with Benevolent Sexism as a Mediator

Indirect effects	Estimate	95% CI	<i>p</i>
Women actor-actor – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.045	-0.110, -0.008	.078
Women partner-partner – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.000	-0.026, 0.012	.962
Men to women partner-actor – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.020	-0.007, 0.080	.332
Men to women actor-partner – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.001	-0.012, 0.028	.931
Women to men actor-partner – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.062	-0.133, -0.019	.029
Women to men partner-actor – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.002	-0.053, 0.019	.892
Men partner-partner – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.028	-0.010, 0.098	.293
Men actor-actor – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.004	-0.015, 0.060	.794

Note. *X* = social dominance orientation, *M* = benevolent sexism, *Y* = dyadic adjustment; subscript 1 refers to women, subscript 2 refers to men; CI = confidence interval; *p* is two-tailed.

4.4.3 APIMeM with Hostile Sexism as a Mediator

The results presented in this section are also from the bootstrapped model.

The unstandardized direct effect estimates for the APIMeM with hostile sexism as a mediator and the APIMeM with standardized direct effect estimates are presented in Table 12 and Figure 8, respectively.

4.4.3.1 Direct Effects

Several statistically significant direct effects were found. Women's own social dominance orientation was positively related to their own hostile sexism ($b = .24, p < .001$). Similarly, men's own social dominance orientation was positively

related to their own hostile sexism ($b = -.40, p = .001$). Moreover, men's own hostile sexism was negatively related to their own dyadic adjustment ($b = -.19, p < .05$).

Table 12

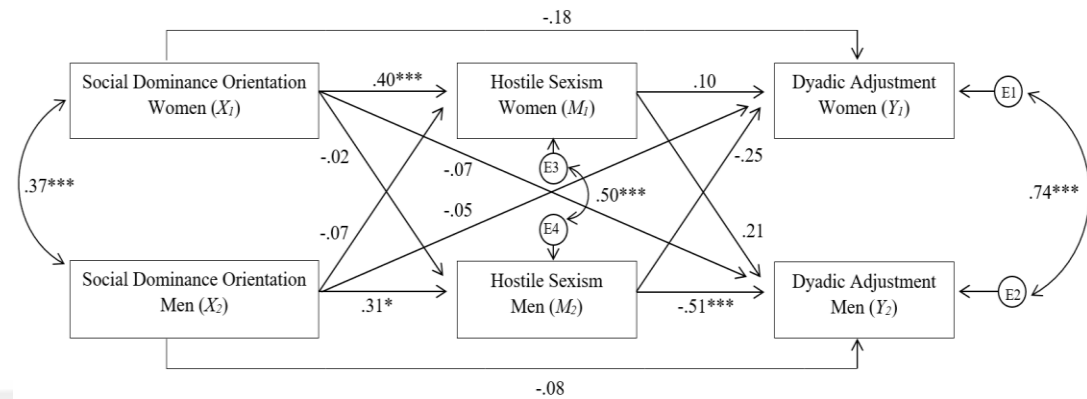
Unstandardized Direct Effect Estimates for the APIMeM with Hostile Sexism as a Mediator

	Estimate	SE	<i>p</i>
SDO (<i>X</i>) → HS (<i>M</i>)			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1$	0.234	0.056	<.001
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2$	0.239	0.102	.019
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2$	-0.010	0.082	.903
Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1$	-0.045	0.073	.540
HS (<i>M</i>) → DA (<i>Y</i>)			
Women AE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.097	0.116	.402
Men AE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.394	0.118	.001
Women to men PE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.198	0.132	.134
Men to women PE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.200	0.109	.065
SDO (<i>X</i>) → DA (<i>Y</i>)			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.104	0.073	.152
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.049	0.081	.547
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.040	0.060	.505
Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.028	0.079	.724

Note. SDO (*X*) = social dominance orientation, HS (*M*) = hostile sexism, DA (*Y*) = dyadic adjustment; subscript 1 refers to women, subscript 2 refers to men; AE = actor effect, PE = partner effect; SE = standard error; *p* is two-tailed.

Figure 8

APIMeM with Standardized Direct Effect Estimates and Hostile Sexism as a Mediator



Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$ (two-tailed).

4.4.3.2 Indirect Effects

As mentioned in the previous section, Questions 9 and 12 were not estimated because the direct effects for these paths were not significant in the basic APIM.

Question 10 was aimed to assess men's indirect actor effects. Although men's partner-partner effect was not significant ($b = -.01$, $p = .619$, 95% CI [-0.073, 0.010]), men's actor-actor indirect effect was significant ($b = -.10$, $p = .05$, 95% CI [-0.214, -0.019]). In other words, men's own social dominance orientation was negatively indirectly related to men's own dyadic adjustment through their own hostile sexism.

Question 11 addressed women's indirect partner effects. The women to men actor-partner and partner-actor effects were not significant ($b = .05$, $p = .145$, 95% CI [-0.004, 0.122]), ($b = .01$, $p = .905$, 95% CI [-0.062, 0.073]), respectively. See Table 13 for unstandardized indirect effect estimates.

Table 13

Unstandardized Indirect Effect Estimates for APIMeM with Hostile Sexism as a Mediator

Indirect effects	Estimate	95% CI	<i>p</i>
Women actor-actor – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.023	-0.027, 0.084	.407
Women partner-partner – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.002	-0.031, 0.051	.914
Men to women partner-actor – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.004	-0.053, 0.007	.735
Men to women actor-partner – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.048	-0.152, -0.001	.170
Women to men actor-partner – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.046	-0.004, 0.122	.145
Women to men partner-actor – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.004	-0.062, 0.073	.905
Men partner-partner – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.009	-0.073, 0.010	.619
Men actor-actor – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.094	-0.214, -0.019	.049

Note. *X* = social dominance orientation, *M* = hostile sexism, *Y* = dyadic adjustment; subscript 1 refers to women, subscript 2 refers to men; CI = confidence interval; *p* is two-tailed.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The research questions raised in this study can be grouped into three general research questions: 1) Does social dominance orientation have a direct effect on dyadic adjustment? 2) Does social dominance orientation have an indirect effect on dyadic adjustment through relationship power? 3) Does social dominance orientation have an indirect effect on dyadic adjustment through ambivalent sexism, specifically, through hostile and ambivalent sexism? All three general questions in this study have been addressed from a dyadic perspective examining both actor and partner effects.

As pertaining to the first general research question, direct effects two (one actor and one partner) of social dominance orientation on dyadic adjustment have been identified. Results of the APIM analysis revealed a statistically significant negative relationship between men's own social dominance orientation and men's own dyadic adjustment. This could mean that for men, supporting hierarchy-enhancing attitudes is associated with being less adjusted in their marital relationship. Moreover, a women to men partner effect was found. A statistically significant positive relationship between women's social dominance orientation and men's dyadic adjustment was identified. This finding implies that for men, having a partner who tend to hold more hierarchy-enhancing attitudes is associated with better adjustment in marriage. Although the findings did not support the hypothesis that social dominance orientation was indirectly related to dyadic adjustment via relationship power, significant indirect effects were found in models with benevolent sexism and hostile sexism. These findings are discussed in detail in the next section.

5.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

5.1.1 General Research Question 1

In order to test whether there are direct links between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment, the basic APIM analysis was conducted. Although the actor effect was not significant for women, it was for men. Results of the APIM analysis, revealed a statistically significant negative relationship between men's own social dominance orientation and men's own dyadic adjustment (direct actor effect, men). This could mean that for men, supporting hierarchy-enhancing attitudes is associated with being less adjusted in their marital relationship. Next, while the men to women partner effect was not significant, a women to men partner effect was found. Women's social dominance orientation appeared to be positively related to their husbands' dyadic adjustment. This finding implies that for men, having a partner who tends to hold more hierarchy-enhancing attitudes is associated with better adjustment in marriage.

As previously mentioned, social dominance orientation as operationalized within the theoretical framework of Social Dominance Theory (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) has not been studied in relation to dyadic adjustment or relationship satisfaction (see Chapter 2). Studies who have addressed the concept of social dominance in close/romantic relationships have defined it in terms of interpersonal dominance and interactional aggressive/dominant behaviors (Ostrov & Collins, 2007). However, perhaps some insight into the role of social dominance orientation in couples' dyadic adjustment can be gained from studies that focused on ambivalent sexism, instead. Sexism is incorporated into the social dominance theory framework and has been positively linked to social dominance orientation in several studies (Bareket et al., 2018; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Researchers who studied sexism in relation to dyadic adjustment or relationship satisfaction found that they were related to gender norms. Campbell and Snow (1992) found that for men, the restrictive emotionality factor from the gender role conflict scale was negatively correlated with marital satisfaction. Burn and Ward (2005) found that men's, relationship satisfaction was negatively associated with the playboy subscale of their own conformity to masculine norms ratings.

With these findings in mind, men's own support of group-based hierarchies being related to lower marital adjustment draws a parallel with findings on gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms (Burn & Ward, 2005; Campbell & Snow, 1992). If we assume that heterosexual marriage is a system that supports traditional patriarchal hierarchy, then for men, supporting such hierarchical norms may restrict their role in their marital relationships to more traditionally masculine, and therefore, their marital adjustment. However, having a partner who supports such traditional hierarchies, may be related to their better adjustment in marriage with patriarchal norms.

5.1.2 General Research Question 2

In order to test the hypotheses that there are indirect links between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment through relationship power, the APIMeM analysis with relationship power as a mediator was conducted.

The results of APIMeM with relationship power as a mediator did not indicate any statistically significant indirect effects. Additionally, no statistically significant direct links between social dominance orientation and relationship power were found. However, several direct effects were identified in this model. As hypothesized in this study, the direct actor effects of relationship power on dyadic adjustment were positive and statistically significant for both men and women. This

goes in line with some of the findings in the literature. Langner and Keltner (2008) found a positive actor effect of power on positive emotional experiences in the relationship. Brezsnyak and Whisman (2004) found that increased congruence between desired and perceived decision-making power was positively related to sexual desire and marital satisfaction. Zimbler (2012) reported that marital power was positively related to marital satisfaction. A contradictory finding was reported by Lennon et al. (2013), in their study, power negatively influenced relationship satisfaction and commitment. This particular inconsistency can be explained by the operationalization of the measure of power. When power was conceptualized in terms of influence within the relationship, similarly to the conceptualization of power in this study, the relationship between power and relationship satisfaction was in the positive direction (Brezsnyak & Whisman, 2004; Langner & Keltner, 2008; Zimbler, 2012). However, when defined in terms of interpersonal/interactional dominance, power was negatively related to relationship satisfaction (Lennon et al., 2013).

Moreover, a direct partner effect from women's power to husbands' dyadic adjustment was identified. This finding is surprising since a relationship in the opposite direction was expected in this study. However, the way in which power is operationalized in this study can be likened to Gottman et al.'s (1998) concept of accepting their partner's influence. In this study, relationship power examines the extent of power towards one's partner as perceived by individuals. In other words, a person rates how much they feel their partner accepts their input in relationship processes or outcomes. For instance, this can be evident from such Couple Power Scale items as "I feel free to express my opinion about issues in our relationship", "When we do not agree on an issue, my partner gives me the cold shoulder" or

“When disagreements arise in our relationship, my partner's opinion usually wins out”. According to Gottman et al.'s (1998) for men, refusing to accept their wives' influence predicts divorce. This finding suggests that men who are more willing to accept influence from their wives are more likely to be in more stable and perhaps, happy marriages. Keeping Gottman et al.'s (1998) findings in mind, it can be assumed that men are more adjusted in their marriage when their wives perceive that they (husbands) are more open to their wives' influence.

5.1.3 General Research Question 3

In order to test the hypotheses that there are indirect links between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment through ambivalent sexism, two APIMeM analyses with benevolent sexism and hostile sexism as mediators were conducted.

The results of the benevolent sexism mediation model did not reveal any statistically significant indirect effects for men's actor-actor and partner-partner paths. The women (women's social dominance orientation) to men (men's dyadic adjustment) partner-actor effect was not significant either. However, a statistically significant women to men negative actor-partner effect was found. Meaning that women's own social dominance orientation had a negative indirect effect on their husbands' dyadic adjustment through women's own benevolent sexism.

In the hostile sexism mediation model, men's actor-actor effect was significant. Meaning that men's own social dominance orientation was indirectly negatively related to men's own dyadic adjustment through their own hostile sexism. The remaining indirect effects – men's partner-partner effect and women to men actor-partner as well as partner-actor effects – were not significant.

Before moving on to the discussion of the indirect effects, let us go over the direct effects in the two mediation models. In the benevolent sexism mediation model, women's own social dominance orientation (SDO) positively influenced their own benevolent sexism (direct actor effect). Similarly, in the hostile sexism model, positive direct actor effects of SDO on hostile sexism were found for both men and women. These findings are not surprising when considering the findings in the literature. As mentioned in the 5.2.1 General Research Question 1 section, several researchers have established a positive relationship between SDO and sexism (Bareket et al., 2018; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Sibley et al., 2007; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). When it comes to the relationship between ambivalent sexism and dyadic adjustment, all significant effects are in the negative direction for both models. For instance, women's benevolent sexism negatively influenced not only their own but also their husbands' dyadic adjustment. And although women's hostile sexism did not impact their husbands' dyadic adjustment, men's own hostile sexism influenced their own dyadic adjustment negatively.

Findings in the literature seem to support the findings on the relationships between ambivalent sexism and dyadic adjustment. Casad et al. (2015) found that women's benevolent sexism predicted their lower relationship satisfaction and relationship confidence. The study by Hammond and Overall (2013b) showed that endorsement of benevolent sexism by women was related to sharper declines in their relationship satisfaction when they experienced relationship difficulties. For men, endorsement of benevolent sexism was associated with increased relationship satisfaction. Moreover, the effect increased as a function of relationship duration. This suggests that for women who are in longer-term relationships and highly endorse the benevolent sexist notions such as reverence for women and valuing

women based on qualities like warmth and sensitivity, place more importance on having their expectations (proposed by benevolent sexist notions) met and are, therefore, more dissatisfied at times when they are not (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Hammond & Overall, 2013b).

These findings may also help interpret the indirect effect of women's own social dominance orientation on their husbands' dyadic adjustment through women's own benevolent sexism. Support of group-based inequality may, on its own, not seem obviously connected to dyadic adjustment. However, when we take benevolent sexism into account, it is possible that when women highly endorse benevolent sexism, their expectations may put a strain on the husband's role in the relationship because benevolent sexism is characterized by reverence for women and expectation that men should protect women, make sacrifices, take care of them even at their own expense (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Moving onto hostile sexism, as in this study, Hammond and Overall (2013a) also found that men who highly endorsed hostile sexism (HS) reported lower relationship quality (which included assessments of commitment, satisfaction, closeness, love, passion, trust, and romance). Moreover, men who highly endorsed HS had more negative perceptions of their partners' behavior and felt more manipulated by their partner. Overall et al. (2011) found that men's endorsement of hostile sexism was associated with lower openness to their partner's perspective and when they were both agents and targets of influence. Moreover, as men's endorsement of HS increased, they were less open to their partner's influence and more likely to engage in hostile communication. These findings coincide with the conceptualization of hostile sexism as a concern that women seek to gain power over men, may attempt to manipulate men using their sexuality these findings (Glick

& Fiske, 1996). According to Sibley et al. (2007) hostile sexism is motivated by group-based dominance and given that within the patriarchal system, for men – women are the outgroup, the belief that men are supposed to overpower women may stem from the group-based dominance encompassed by social dominance orientation. Together, these findings help make sense of the indirect effect of men's social dominance orientation on their own dyadic adjustment through their own endorsement of hostile sexism. It seems that for men, endorsement of group-based hierarchies is related to endorsement of hostile sexism. And since hostile sexism is characterized by mistrust towards women because of the assumption that they have the intention to manipulate and overpower men using intimate relationships and sexuality, it would not be entirely surprising to assume that for men, endorsing social dominance orientation and hostile sexism would contribute to difficulties in men's adjustment in marriage or close relationships.

5.2 Implications and Research Contributions

The findings of this study further highlight the importance of the social and political contexts when examining the dynamics of personal relationships. They help develop a more comprehensive picture of how various systems (political, social, familial, personal) interact with one another as posited by Carter and McGoldrick's (1999) Multicontextual Life Cycle Framework. This study demonstrated a link between the immediate family system (e.g. spouse) and the larger society system (socio-political attitudes) by looking into the relationship between dyadic adjustment of spouses, relationship power, views on sexism and group-based inequality (i.e. social dominance orientation). Carter and McGoldrick (1999) underline the impact of vertical and horizontal stressors on the functioning of the systems. This study assessed the impact of vertical stressors within the larger society (e.g. classism,

racism, homophobia, ageism and sexism) measured by social dominance orientation on marital functioning measured by dyadic adjustment. For men, their own social dominance orientation appeared to be a stressor since it negatively influenced their own dyadic adjustment though their own hostile sexism. Additionally, men's dyadic adjustment was negatively influenced by women's social dominance orientation through women's benevolent sexism.

These findings can also contribute to the process of couples therapy in Couples and Family Therapy field (CFT) and clinical practice in general. These findings may be used to help couples and married individuals when exploring the factors contributing to relationship distress. For instance, women's expectations of their partners can be explored with regards to whether women hold benevolent sexist views and expect their partners to revere them, protect and make sacrifices and whether their husbands are aware of these expectations and how these expectations affect them. As for the indirect actor effect through men's hostile sexism, hostile sexist views and attitudes can be explored with men to see if these views are characterized by mistrust towards women based on the assumption that women seek to gain power over men through sexuality and intimate relationships. Men's feelings can be explored within the socio-cultural and political context.

Finally, researchers addressing similar research topics suggested examining variables from social and personal relationship contexts on a dyadic basis in order to better understand the perspective and influences of both partners, which this study had taken on (Casad et al., 2015, Chen et al., 2009).

5.3 Limitations of the Study

First and foremost, when interpreting the findings in this study causal claims cannot be made due to the correlational nature of the findings. While this study did

find direct and indirect links between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment, conclusions as to which variable causes a change in which variable cannot be made definitively. These findings may not be generalizable to populations outside of Turkey. Chen et al. (2009) attest that gender-role and sexist attitudes may differ from country to country and from culture to culture. In their study examining power-related gender-role ideology and ambivalent sexism differences on both variables were identified among participants from the US and China. Moreover, this study was conducted with a sample of heterosexual married couples, and the implications of the findings are, therefore, limited to this demographic.

Secondly, social desirability bias may come into play considering the personal nature of the questions about the relationship processes and social/political views of individuals. Moreover, the effects of variables related to out-group prejudice may be underestimated because discrepancies between individuals' expressed views and their behavior may take place (Fiske, 2004, in Chen et al., 2009).

Interestingly, the results of this study indicated significant direct and indirect effects for men's dyadic adjustment, but not for women's dyadic adjustment. Although social dominance orientation did not affect women's dyadic adjustment, sexism did. This suggests that even if social dominance orientation is not a contributing factor in women's dyadic adjustment, the factors of the social system still play a role in women's close relationships. Additionally, social dominance orientation was not related to dyadic adjustment via relationship power for either men or women. However, although relationship power may not play a significant role in this indirect relationship, it may play a role if operationalized differently (e.g. in terms of interpersonal dominance and control as in Lennon et al., 2013).

Finally, the sample size in this study may be considered relatively small, even though studies that tackled similar research questions with dyadic data conducted their analyses with a similar sample size (Lennon et al., 2013; Overall et al., 2011; Schwarzwald et al., 2008). However, conducted a study addressing these links with a larger sample size may shed light on the magnitude of the effects and provide more power.

5.4 Future Research

The relationships between the main variables in this study should be examined using a longitudinal design. Although some of the links between social dominance orientation, relationship power, ambivalent sexism, and dyadic adjustment are statistically significant, they are not causal.

The research topic tackled in this study could also benefit from a larger sample size and the increase in power that this would bring. A qualitative study may also be conducted to better understand the relationship between social views and personal relationship processes. Particularly interesting would be the examination of power in relationships. A qualitative study may provide the necessary insight into how married individuals view power in their relationships with regards to the socio-political attitudes and ways in which they define it.

On the subject of relationship power, social dominance orientation was not related to relationship power in the operational definition that was chosen in this study, possibly because power in its definition by Cromwell and Olson (1975) is more akin to Gottman et al.'s (1998) concept of accepting a partner's influence. If defined more in terms of control and interpersonal dominance in the relationship as implemented by Lennon et al. (2013), the relationship between relationship power and social dominance orientation is likely to be significant.

Future studies may also examine the relationship between relationship power, marital expectation, and ambivalent sexism. This study implies that at least for women, the significance of the influence of benevolent sexism may be due to gender-role related marital expectations, however, no definitive conclusions can be drawn without examining this relationship.

5.5 Conclusion

In summary, direct links between social dominance orientation and dyadic adjustment have been discovered in the basic APIM model. Each ambivalent sexism mediation model showed one negative statistically significant indirect effect. Both models indicated a predictor of men's dyadic adjustment.

Although the mediation model with relationship power did not reveal any statistically significant results, suggestions for future research and ways to improve the current study's design were discussed.

The results indicate the significance of considering the influences of the larger society in the form the socio-political attitudes and worldviews in marital outcomes. This study provides comprehensive clues for CFT practitioners when assessing the relationship dynamics of a married heterosexual couple. In short, these findings help tie the social and political with the personal. Moreover, these links were studied on an interactional, circular, or dyadic basis which adds on to the existing understanding of how partners influence one another in close relationships.

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent

Projenin Adı: Sosyal baskınlık yönelimi, ilişkideki güç ve çift uyumu arasındaki ilişki: aktör-partner etkilerinin incelenmesi

Proje yürütücüsünün adı ve iletişim bilgileri:

Aysoltan Ymamgulyyeva

Özyeğin Üniversitesi

Nişantepe Mah. Orman Sok.

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Projenin amacı: Çalışmanın amacı sosyal konuların romantik ilişkideki süreçlere etkilerini anlamaktır.

Süreç: Sizden internet üzerinden yollanan link aracılığı ile paylaşılan anket sorularına cevap vermeniz istenmektedir. Anketleri doldururken eşinizden bağımsız olarak doldurmanız önemlidir. Anketleri doldurmanız yaklaşık 15-20 dakikanızı alacaktır.

Gizlilik: Sizden edinilen bilgiler tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Gizliliğinizi korumak için anketlerinizde isimleriniz yer almayacak ve bilgileriniz istatistik programlara bir numara atanarak girilecektir. Verilerin kaydedildiği dosyalar sadece araştırma ekibinin ulaşımı olan ve şifreleri bilgisayarlarda saklanacaktır. Sizlerden elde edilen bilgiler bireysel değil, grup halinde yani genellenmiş sonuçlar olarak değerlendirilecektir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacaktır. Sizden elde edilen tüm bilgiler gizli tutulacak, araştırma yayınlandığında da kimlik bilgilerinizin gizliliği korunacaktır.

Gönüllü Katılım: Bu projeye katılım tamamen gönüllülük temelindedir.

Soruların hiçbiri aile mahremiyetinize veya size zarar verici nitelikte değildir. Ancak herhangi bir sebepten projeden çekilmek istediğinizde projeden ayrılmakta ve daha önce alınmış verileri de geri almakta her zaman özgürsünüz. Katılımı reddetmek herhangi bir zarara yol açmayacaktır. Araştırma sırasında veya sonrasında herhangi bir sorunuz olursa lütfen yukarıda verdiğimiz iletişim bilgilerinden bize ulaşınız.

Araştırma katılımı teşviği: Araştırma projesine sağladığınız katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz, 100 TL değerinde D&R hediye kartı çekilişine katılabilmek için e-mail adresinizi bir sonraki sayfada girebilirsiniz. Çekiliş, e-mail adresini giren tüm katılımcılara açıktır ve araştırma projesinden çekilmek istediğinizde çekiliş katılımınız bundan etkilenmeyecektir. Veri toplama dönemin bitiminden sonra çekilişe katılanlar arasında rastgele bir numara seçilecek ve numarası seçilen kişi e-posta yoluyla bilgilendirilecektir. Çekiliş tarihinden itibaren 14 gün içinde bu kişiye ulaşılamazsa, ödül, rastgele seçilen ikinci kişiye verilir ve kazanan kişi belirlenene kadar devam eder. Ödül kazanma ihtimali yaklaşık olarak % 0.5 – 1 aralığında olacaktır. Ödül, hediye kartı olarak verilecektir ve nakit paraya çevrilemez. Çekilişe girerken verdiğiniz e-posta adresiniz, çekiliş ödülü kazandığınız durumda sizinle iletişime geçmek amacıyla toplanır. Verdiğiniz iletişim bilgileri gizli tutulacak ve ödül kazanıldıktan sonra silinecektir.

Bu formda anlatılan araştırmanın etik yönleriyle ve/veya araştırma detaylarıyla ilgili sorularınız, sorunlarınız veya önerileriniz varsa lütfen Özyeğin Üniversitesi Etik Kurulu ile (216) 564 9512 no'lutelefondan temasa geçiniz.

Yukarıda sözü geçen “Sosyal baskınlık yönelimi, ilişkideki güç ve çift uyumu arasındaki ilişki: aktör-partner etkilerinin incelenmesi” isimli araştırma

projesinin detaylarını okudum ve bu proje ile ilgili sorularım cevaplandı. Bu çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmak istiyorsanız aşağıdaki ">>" butonuna basınız.



APPENDIX B

Demographic Information Form

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek

2. Yaşınız: _____

3. En son bitirdiğiniz okul aşağıdakilerden hangisidir?

İlkokul

Ortaokul

Lise

Yüksek Okul (2 yıllık)

Üniversite (4 yıllık)

Yüksek Lisans

Doktora

4. Toplam kaç yıl okula gittiniz? _____

5. Mesleğiniz: _____

6. Çalışma Durumunuz:

Çalışıyorum

Çalışmıyorum

Diğer (lütfen açıklayınız): _____

7. Evli misiniz?

Evet

Hayır

8. Ne zaman evlendiniz? _____ ay _____ yıl

9. Birlikte yaşıyor musunuz?

Evet

Hayır

10. Ne kadar süredir birlikte yaşıyorsunuz? ____ ay ____ yıl

11. Sizin ortalama toplam aylık kişisel geliriniz aşağıdakilerden hangisine en yakındır?

850 TL ve altı

851 TL – 1500 TL

1501 TL – 3000TL

3001 TL – 5000 TL

5001 TL – 7500 TL

7501 TL ve üstü

12. Ailenizin ortalama toplam aylık geliri aşağıdakilerden hangisine en yakındır?

850 TL ve altı

851 TL – 1500 TL

1501 TL – 3000TL

3001 TL – 5000 TL

5001 TL – 7500 TL

7501 TL ve üstü

13. Çocuğunuz var mı?

Evet

Hayır

a. Varsa kaç tane? _____

b. Yaşları nedir? _____

14. Kiminle yaşıyorsunuz?

Eşimle

Eşimle ve çocuklarımla

Annem, babam, eşim ve çocuklarımla

- Eşimin ailesi, eşim ve çocuklarımla
- Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz): _____



APPENDIX C

Table 14

Social Dominance Orientation Scale

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum							Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Siz ne dersanız deyin, bazı gruplar diğerlerinden daha değerlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. Bütün gruplara yaşamda eşit şans verilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. Üstün gruplar daha alt düzeyden gruplara egemen olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. Hiçbir grup toplumda baskın olmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. Eğer belirli gruplar yerlerinde dursalardı daha az sorunumuz olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. Belirli grupların en üstte diğer grupların en altta olması belki iyi bir şeydir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Sosyal eşitlik toplumsal hedefimiz olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. Bazen diğer gruplar oldukları yerde tutulmalıdırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. Eğer bütün gruplar eşit olabilseydi iyi olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. Grupların eşitliği idealimiz olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. Grubunuzun istediğini elde edebilmesi için bazen diğer gruplara karşı güç kullanmak gereklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. Farklı grupların koşullarını eşitlemek için elimizden geleni yapmalıyız.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. Düşük statülü gruplar yerlerinde kalmalıdırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. Farklı gruplara eşit davransaydık şimdi daha az sorunumuz olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15. Gelirleri daha eşit hale getirmek için elimizden geleni yapmalıyız.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16. Yaşamda ilerlemek için bazen başka grupları çığneyip geçmek gereklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

APPENDIX D

Table 15

Relationship Power Scale

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Eşim fikirlerimi önemsememe eğilimindedir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Eşim beni dinlemez.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Evliliğimle ilgili bir problem hakkında konuşmak istediğimde, eşim bunu sık sık reddeder.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Eşim konuşmalarımızda üste çıkma eğilimindedir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bir konuda anlayamadığımızda, eşim bana karşı soğuk davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Evlilik sorunlarımızla ilgili görüşlerimi eşime rahatça anlatabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Eşim, ailemizi etkileyecek kararlar alırken önce benimle konuşmaya yanaşmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Eşim ve ben ortak bir çözüm üzerinde anlaşmıyınca kadar sorunlar üzerinde konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Parasal konularda son sözü söyleyen genellikle eşim olur.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Sanki eşim beni kontrol altına almaya çalışıyormuş gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Çocuklar konusunda, son sözü söyleyen genellikle eşimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Öyle görünüyor ki, evliliğimizde eşimin yaptıkları sık sık yanına kar kalırken, ben en küçük şeyin bile hesabını vermek zorunda kalıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Sanki eşimin istediklerini yapmaktan başka seçeneğim yokmuş gibi hissediyorum	1	2	3	4	5
14. Eşim evliliğimizde benden daha etkilidir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Evliliğimizde anlaşmazlıklar ortaya çıktığında genellikle eşimin dediği olur.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

Table 16

Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale

	Hiçbir zaman anlaşamayız	Nadiren anlaşırız	Bazen anlaşırız	Oldukça sık anlaşırız	Çoğu zaman anlaşırız		
1	Dini konular						
2	Muhabbet-sevgi gösterme						
3	Temel kararların alınması						
4	Cinsel yaşam						
5	Geleneksellik						
6	Mesleki kararlar						
			Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Oldukça sık	Çoğu zaman
7	İlişkinizi bitirmeyi ne sıklıkta tartışırsınız?						
8	Eşinizle ne sıklıkla münakaşa edersiniz?						
9	Evlendiğiniz için pişmanlık duyar mısınız?						
10	Ne sıklıkla birbirinizin sinirlenmesine neden olursunuz?						
11	Siz ve eşiniz ev dışı etkinliklerinizin ne kadarına birlikte katılırsınız?						
12	Ne sıklıkla teşvik edici fikir alışverişinde bulunursunuz?						
13	Ne sıklıkla bir iş üzerinde birlikte çalışırsınız?						
14	Ne sıklıkla bir şeyi sakince tartışırsınız?						

APPENDIX F

Table 17

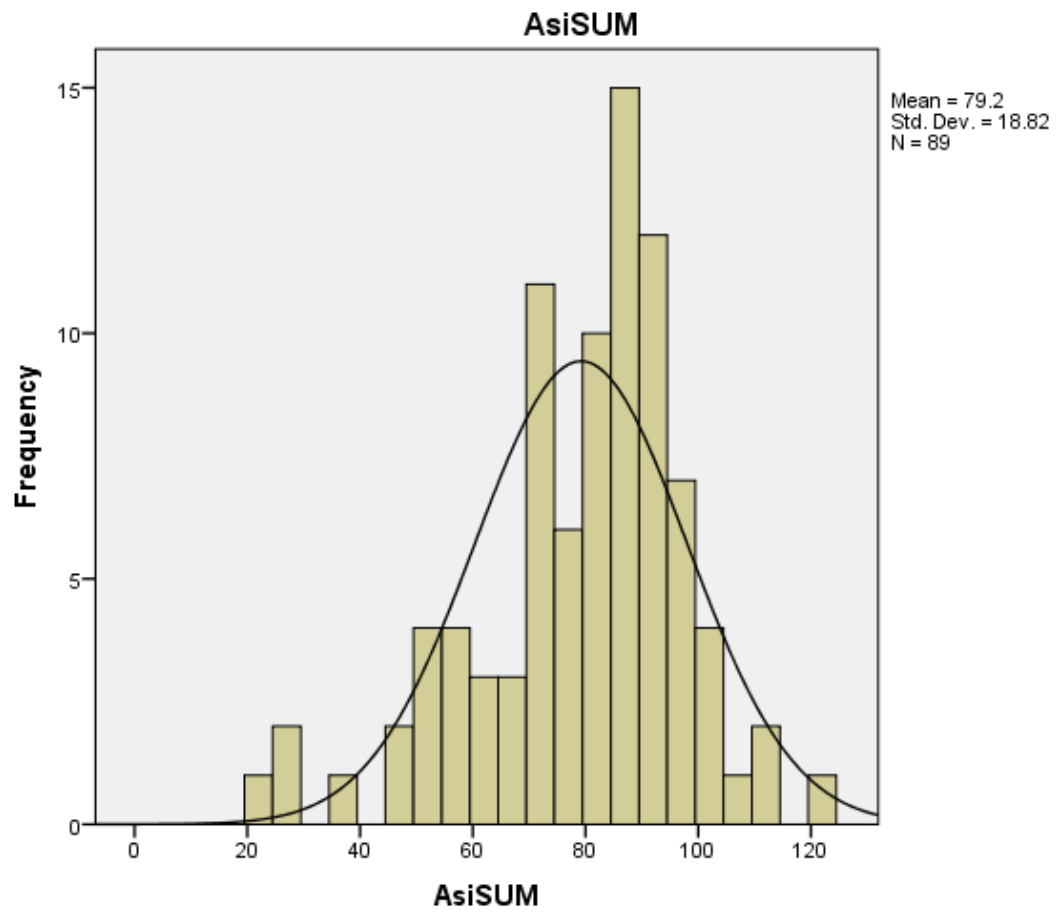
Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

		Hiç Katılmıyorum	Oldukça katılmıyorum	Birazcık Katılmıyorum	Birazcık Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Çok Katılıyorum
1.	Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Gerçekte birçok kadın "eşitlik" arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.						
3.	Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır.						
4.	Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.						
5.	Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar.						
6.	Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.						
7.	Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler.						
8.	Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir.						
9.	Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.						
10.	Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.						
11.	Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindedirler.						
12.	Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.						
13.	Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler.						
14.	Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.						

15.	Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.						
16.	Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınır.						
17.	İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.						
18.	Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.						
19.	Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.						
20.	Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.						
21.	Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar.						
22.	Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.						

APPENDIX G

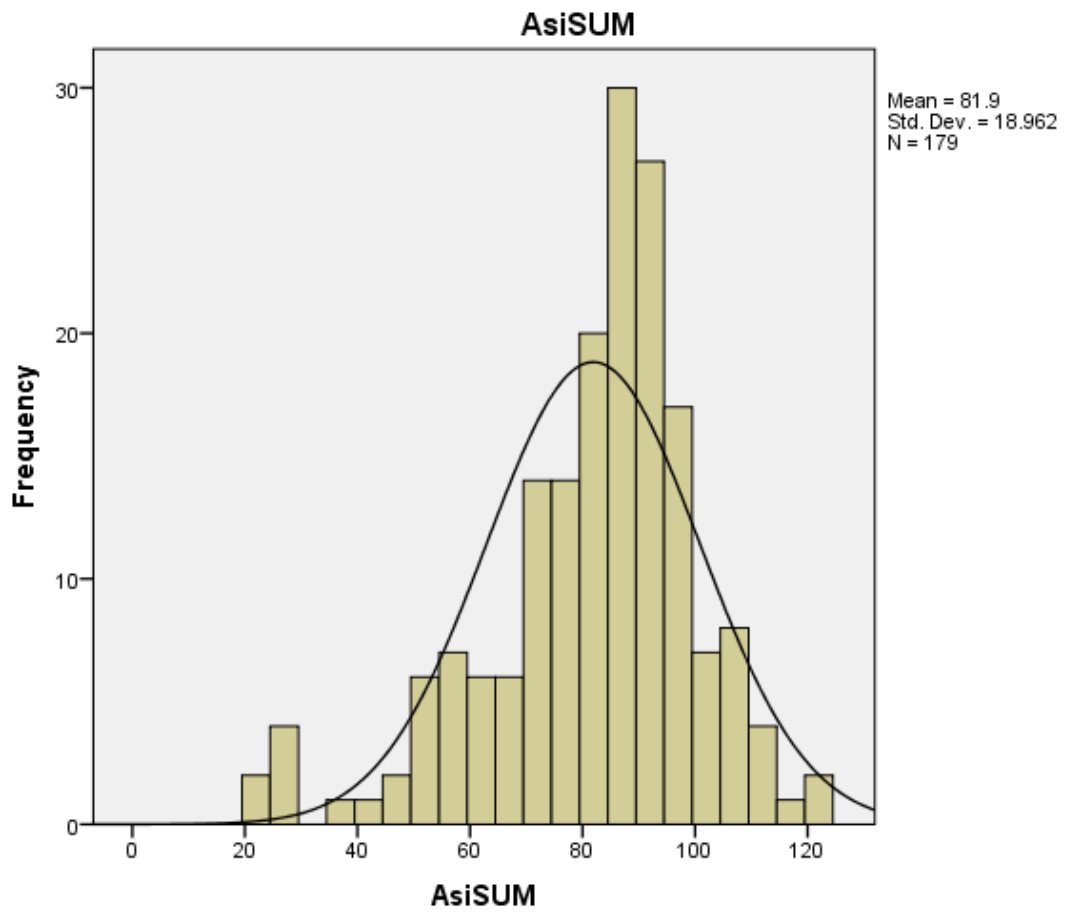
Figure 9

Men Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) Histogram

APPENDIX H

Figure 10

All Participants Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) Histogram



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