

Correlates and Consequences of Misjudging Romantic Partners' Work and Family Priorities

by

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A thesis

presented to the University of Waterloo

in fulfillment of the

thesis requirement for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Psychology

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2023

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The following served on the Examining Committee for this thesis. The decision of the Examining Committee is by majority vote.

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### **Author's Declaration**

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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## Abstract

Women still complete the preponderance of unpaid domestic labour, even when employed full-time. Conversely, despite lessening pressures on men to provide financially, men have not seen a commensurate uptick in domestic work. I propose that inaccurate interpersonal perceptions between men and women are a key mechanism driving these uneven changes to gender roles. I mega-analytically analyzed the work and family goals of 435 mixed-gender romantic couples in Canada, then calculated women's and men's inaccuracies when appraising their partners' goals. On average, women wanted more egalitarian romantic relationships than men, a gap compounded by men underestimating their partners' desire for egalitarianism. Further, men (especially those who saw their partners as highly feminine) simultaneously overestimated their partners' orientation toward family goals (over career goals) and their career intensity. Women also misperceived their partners, but here expectations were fairly low: Women underestimated their partners' family goals and career intensity. Turning to long-term outcomes, modest evidence emerged that people with inaccurate partners experienced lower relationship well-being within the next two years. Perceiving partners as being generally poor at perspective-taking (distinct from their actual inaccuracy) was the most powerful predictor of both relationship dissolution and worsened relationship well-being. These findings clarify common misperceptions between romantic partners and illuminate the consequences of having—or perceiving you have—a partner who does not understand your work and family goals.

*Keywords:* Interpersonal accuracy, close relationships, gender roles, stereotyping, goals

## Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to everyone who helped me complete my PhD.

First and foremost, I extend my deepest appreciation to my supervisor, Hilary Bergsieker. Her unwavering support, guidance, and generosity have been invaluable throughout not only this dissertation but all my academic projects—and my life. Hilary, I can honestly say I don't know where I would be without you. You will always be family to me. Thank you.

I am indebted to so many collaborators from my time in graduate school. Special thanks to Steve Spencer for reminding me never to lose sight of the forest for the trees, and to Toni Schmader for teaching me how to navigate multiple collaborations while still prioritizing my own goals. To my committee members—Abby, Richard, Christine, and Jessica—I greatly appreciate the time and care you spent on helping to improve this work. To Christine Purdon and Elizabeth Kalles: thank you for your guidance on the initial stages of my dissertation work. And to all my collaborators, project teams, and research assistants, you have greatly enriched the quality of my work. I am so thankful for our wonderfully collaborative field!

To my friends, I wouldn't have made it this far without you. Special thanks to Emma Green for helping me find not only what kind of research I want to do, but, more than anything—to focus on what kind of researcher I want to be. I'll also be forever grateful to Rachel Moline for always bringing me back to the “human impact” of research: focusing on practical benefits and our role in the community at large.

To my family, your unconditional love and encouragement have been my rock. Mom, thank you for teaching me the importance of anticipating others' needs and the value of offering support without having to be asked—and for stepping so fiercely into the beautiful role of “Gramzie”! To my fearless sister Liz, I deeply admire the balance you have found between creative thinking and systematic precision—and thank you for teaching me that the most important questions are sometimes the ones we ask ourselves. To Bert and Adrian: I will always cherish the time we were able to have together. I hope I can continue your amazing legacy of kindness and passion.

Lastly, to my husband Noah. Your selfless support and endless understanding are hard to put into words. I am so grateful for you. Thank you for putting your career on hold so that I could pursue my dream career. Thank you for taking care of our wonderful, loving, and unbelievably brilliant little baby. I feel so lucky to have found an amazing balance between work and family—and that is all because of you. Thank you.

Thank you all for being an integral part of this journey. Your support has made this achievement possible. We did it!

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## Chapter 1: Literature Review

“What is a woman's place in this modern world? [...] I rebel against this question, though so many of my peers ask it. The inherent bias in the inquiry seems invisible to so many of them.”

- Brandon Sanderson, *Words of Radiance*

The gender revolution has vastly improved women’s economic, political, and social freedom. Yet new (and more subtle) gender inequities have emerged. Despite women’s increased engagement with the labour force, women are still expected to fulfill their traditional role within the home (Hochschild & Machung, 1990, 2012). I propose that inaccurate perceptions of romantic partners’ goals are a key mechanism reinforcing these dual expectations of women.

### Great Expectations of Women

Women still shoulder the preponderance of household and childcare responsibilities (Perry-Jenkins & Gerstel, 2020), even in couples where both partners have intense professional careers (Biernat & Wortman, 1991). Women’s unequal share of domestic labour increases after marriage to a male partner and having children (Chao, 2021; Davis et al., 2007), and when elders or other kin require additional care (Patterson & Margolis, 2019). Beyond directly performing the majority of visible labour in the home, women are also expected to invisibly “captain the household” (Ciciolla & Luthar, 2019), by organizing everyone else’s (perhaps meager) responsibilities and using interpersonal skills to enhance household harmony (Damingler, 2019). Most importantly, vital knowledge primarily kept by women—doctor’s appointments, allergies, car seat expiration dates—carry high stakes and high personal responsibility.

Women’s additional domestic responsibilities rest on a backdrop of ever-increasing demands in the domain of paid labour. Women have dramatically increased their participation in the workforce over past decades (Statistics Canada, 2022b), despite ongoing salary discrimination: Even in 2021-2022, women in Canada and the United States received about 15% lower compensation than comparably employed men (Aragão, 2023; Statistics Canada, 2022a). This gender pay gap only widens further after having children (Budig & England, 2001). As women have moved into the workforce, they have marginally reduced their time spent on domestic tasks, although they still complete the lion’s share (Shockley & Shen, 2016) and often

sacrifice their leisure time in service of competing time demands (Dush et al., 2018). Technological advancements have eliminated a small proportion of domestic tasks (Cowan, 1976), and men have picked up a little more domestic work, although this increase is mostly found in stereotypically “masculine” tasks (Perry-Jenkins & Gerstel, 2020). Importantly, this uptick in men’s time spent on domestic duties has not been commensurate with women’s large increase in paid labour time (and relatively little reduction in domestic duties). Nor are men contributing to the home (Perry-Jenkins & Gerstel, 2020) or to childcare (Yavorsky et al., 2015) anywhere close to on par with women. In sum, women’s time and talents are truly stretched thin.

Turning to very recent history: The COVID-19 lockdowns ironically reignited gendered roles in the home. Women’s unpaid domestic labour *increased* while most men and women were working from home (Power, 2020) despite no change in working hours. Initial reports also indicate that this uptick in gendered roles in the home may be here to stay (World Economic Forum, 2023). What have we learned from this naturalistic experiment? Hyper-modern “flexible work policies” may benefit men’s work-life balance yet reinforce traditional roles in the home. How then can we best proceed into this next era of women’s liberation?

### **Levels of Analysis for Gender Inequities**

What is the solution to “the second shift”? Policies may yield some small benefits: As seen in many OECD countries, child-friendly policies (e.g., free childcare) can reduce the amount of unpaid domestic labour overall, largely benefitting mothers (Nandi et al., 2018). Reserving 4 weeks of parental leave for father’s exclusive use also seems to slightly reconfigure gender dynamics: After Norway implemented this policy, men were more likely to contribute to household labour long-term (Kotsadam & Finseraas, 2011), perhaps as relational patterns set during this formative time carried forward. Yet policies of this nature rarely directly address the inherently gendered forces socializing women to perform domestic work (despite other responsibilities). For example, women high in socioeconomic status are typically less bound to “captaining” the home, but this relief often entails outsourcing low-paying domestic tasks to other women (Glenn, 2010). Marginalized women (often, women of colour) end up filling most of the low-pay domestic service jobs (Nilliasca, 2011), while also performing unpaid domestic

work in their own homes. In this way, gender inequities trickle down the socioeconomic classes, compounding upon women already at the margins of the social safety net.

I propose that further attention must be given to lower-level processes at the level of close interpersonal relationships. Here, I focus on the most numerically prevalent relationship type in contemporary Canadian society: romantic dyads comprising a woman and a man<sup>1</sup>. Despite noteworthy diversity of sexual orientation and gender expression (Statistics Canada, 2022c), 57% of all adults in Canada are currently in male-female romantic couples (Statistics Canada, 2016). Further, these male-female relationships are a unique interpersonal dynamic in which the societal forces differentially affecting women versus men are on full display. Pervasive benevolent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996) and heteronormativity (Jackson, 2006) combine to reinforce the narrative that women and men belong in romantic relationships together to fulfill distinct—yet complementary—social roles (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Stereotypes regarding men and women then reflect these observed social roles (Eagly & Steffen, 1984), and the conflicting versus congruent nature of these gender stereotypes can be easily observed within male-female dyads. I therefore focus on romantic relationships between men and women; see the Discussion for extensions regarding other forms of romantic (and non-romantic) relationships.

Traditional male-female romantic relationships involve an explicitly gendered division of labour, wherein the male partner is responsible for “breadwinning” and the female partner is responsible for “bottle warming” (Croft et al., 2020). In theory, if both partners consensually agree to this relationship dynamic, they will be presumably satisfied with the prevailing gender roles: the male partner bringing in the income and the female partner taking care of the home. Although this example is perhaps a caricature of the actual lived experiences of those in such relationships—historically, working class stay-at-home wives often pursued part-time and flexible income streams in addition to their full slate of domestic duties (Boris & Daniels, 1989)—it represents one arrangement in which the division of labour is explicit and agreed-upon in advance, as well as at least *potentially* equitable in terms of labour hours.

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<sup>1</sup> Throughout, I use “woman”/“female” and “man”/“male” to refer to self-identified gender, not sex.



That said, the majority of young men and women in male-female relationships expect an egalitarian partnership (Miller & Carlson, 2016), which has been the case since at least the 1990s (Cotter et al., 2011). Despite these ideals, a traditional division of labour often emerges at home, even among dual-earner couples (Shockley & Shen, 2016). On an abstract—or perhaps, *identity*—level, many young adults ostensibly want to uphold gender equity. And indeed, in the domain of paid labour, women and men are often held to similar standards. Yet amid the minutiae of household management, gender inequality begins to take root. In this way, the lived realities of egalitarianism seem to ironically benefit the male partner, despite being framed as a tool of women’s liberation. But was this dynamic the goal?

### **Interdependence of Goals and of Partners**

The long-term work and family goals of romantic partners are shaped by two interrelated axes of interdependence. The *intrapersonal* dimension pertains to how individuals prioritize their various personal goals (e.g., work versus family goals). The *interpersonal* dimension concerns the relations between partners’ goals (e.g., her goals versus his goals). Both dimensions guided the measures I used to assess romantic couples’ work versus family goals.

### ***Intrapersonal Goal Interdependence***

Individuals typically have multiple goals at any given time, yet resource limitations (e.g., time, energy, money) necessitate goal prioritization (Neal et al., 2017). But goals are not always in conflict—goals may facilitate one another (Riediger & Freund, 2004) and “multifinal” actions may serve multiple goals (Köpetz et al., 2011).

How are work and family goals related? Scholars note the (perhaps rare) existence of “positive spillover” effects between work and family domains (Wiese & Salmela-Aro, 2008), with work and family goals enriching one another (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Yet a well-supported meta-analysis shows that work and family goals are commonly experienced as conflicting or even zero-sum—by both women and men (Shockley et al., 2017). This work-family goal conflict is associated with worse well-being (Neto et al., 2018). That said, in the case of either goal conflict or congruity, the pursuit of work and family goals are immutably linked.

As I hypothesize greater work-family goal conflict (than congruity), I use a measure of family orientation that explicitly taps the prioritization of family goals over career goals. This novel measure of willingness to make family-over-career sacrifices reflects the common lived reality that these two goals cannot be simultaneously and equally addressed. Recognizing the more variable reasons one might pursue career goals (rather than intrinsic motivation), the measure of career intensity is simple and descriptive: working hours, salary, time spent on travel.

### ***Interpersonal Goal Interdependence***

Goals are not merely set and pursued within individuals—social relationships profoundly shape our goals (and vice versa). Merely inferring another person’s goal from their behaviour may inspire that goal in oneself (Aarts et al., 2004), and thinking about a close other can activate a goal you associate with them (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2003). Turning to romantic relationships, partners (vs. other close contacts) play a central role in supporting or hindering important life goals (Kvitkovičová et al., 2017), and partner support is a critical antecedent to goal success (Berli et al., 2018). Accordingly, having a goal-supportive partner is linked with greater relationship and life satisfaction (Overall et al., 2010). However, goal interdependence can also backfire. When groups work toward a joint goal, social loafing often occurs (Latané et al., 1979), and even imagining how your romantic partner might further your goals can decrease your personal goal-related efforts (Fitzsimons & Finkel, 2011). As such, the social dimension of goal pursuit is important to consider.

Turning to theoretical models, close relationships are defined by *goals* becoming interdependent (Holmes, 2002; Rusbult & Van Lange, 2008). In other words, as our lives become more intertwined with close others, these new interpersonal pressures push and pull upon our own goal pursuit. Per the SABI framework of goal interdependence (Holmes, 2002), our goal pursuit is shaped both by our appraisals of our partner’s goals and our assessment of the interdependence of the situation. First, we appraise our partner’s goals—do they want the same thing, or something different? Second, we appraise the extent to which our partner factors into our goal pursuit—would pursuing this goal affect them?

The transactive goal dynamics framework takes one step further to define interdependent groups as one internally regulating unit, and delineate additional goal orientations and means of goal support (Fitzsimons et al., 2015). Goals are loosely classified as self-oriented, partner-oriented, or group-oriented, with these categories becoming less clear as groups become more interdependent. Further, support is defined as either *direct* or *indirect*. Within romantic couples, direct support of partner goals looks like providing resources (instrumental, emotional, or otherwise) which are immediately relevant to that partner's goal. For example, if Amy is applying for a new job, her partner Ben might provide feedback on her application. Layering on the intrapersonal interdependence of goals, we see indirect support: Aiding a partner's goal via channeling resources toward a different goal. This might look like Ben indirectly helping Amy by doing more domestic labour, freeing up the time Amy can spend on her interview preparation.

Turning to real-life examples, the more intense a husband's career, the less time he typically spends on childcare—meaning his wife increases her time spent caring for children, therefore also indirectly supporting his career (Biernat & Wortman, 1991). This effect extends into forecasts: Women who expect their male partners to shoulder less of the caregiving responsibilities pre-emptively seek less intense careers (to facilitate being the primary caregiver; Croft et al., 2019). At a more dyadic level, dual-earner partners strategize together to minimize the stressors that each of their jobs place upon the family unit (Becker & Moen, 1999).

These axes of interdependence in romantic relationships are reflected in my two dyad-level measurements of work and family priorities. Dyadic domestic labour sharing is the proportion of domestic labour each partner is forecasted to complete. Dyadic career prioritization is a sliding scale of prioritization from her career to his career. In both cases, responses are zero-sum—it is naturally impossible for both partners to do all the domestic labour or for both partners to have their careers fully prioritized over the other person's. The final measure of work and family prioritization I discuss here taps individuals' desire for egalitarianism in their romantic relationship. This measure touches upon both goal and relationship interdependence, examining the extent to which women and men want a relationship wherein they both equally share family versus career goals and responsibilities.

## **Inaccurate Interpersonal Perceptions**

Yet taking a step back, we see that baked into any number of theoretical accounts of productive goal-sharing is first *accurately* perceiving our partner's goals. Work on nonconscious mimicry (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999) and automatic goal contagion (Aarts et al., 2004) suggest that goal uptake need not be preceded by conscious awareness of partner's goals—but it is logically more probable you will support your partners' goals if you know (on some level) what those goals are.

Also, accurate detection of goals is an inherently bidirectional process. Optimally, the goal-setter has high expressive accuracy (i.e., they clearly communicate their goals) and the goal perceiver has high perceptive accuracy (i.e., they accurately appraise their partner's goals), as described in the social accuracy model of interpersonal perception (Biesanz, 2010). Turning to dyadic studies, these two forms of accuracy (expressive vs. perceptive) are necessarily collapsed (Ickes et al., 1990; Kenny, 2019). Although I ground accuracy within interpersonal perceptions (e.g., how accurately does Ben perceive Amy's goals), each person's accuracy reflects emergent properties of their dyad.

### ***Defining Accuracy***

Interpersonal appraisals are accurate if they match the defined “truth criterion”. In behavioural work, the truth criterion is whatever people actually do (e.g., Gilbert et al., 1998). But when researchers seek finer measures of what participants think, feel, believe, or hope, defining the truth criterion becomes more complex. Accuracy in my work pertains to the detection of a partner's goals and priorities, in contrast to domains such as trait, nonverbal, or empathic accuracy (e.g., Kenny, 2019), where some ostensibly “external” yet still interpersonal metric might be generated. For my dissertation work, as with most other dyadic studies using survey measures, the closest estimate of the truth is what the target of judgement self-reported (Cronbach, 1955; Kenny, 2019). See the Discussion for further consideration of what constitutes truth in this domain.

Even after defining the truth criterion, there are multiple ways of computing (or approximating) accuracy. The most relevant theme in foundational interpersonal accuracy research concerns “true” accuracy versus interpersonal judgments which simply *appear* to be accurate. Indeed, leading accuracy scholar David Kenny (e.g., Kenny, 2019) points to the perhaps common experience of accurately appraising a target by using stereotypes or prototypes. Given the “kernel of truth” (Mccauley & Stitt, 1978) in many stereotypes, in addition to simply using good sound logic and base rates, it is possible to make accurate interpersonal assessments through perhaps circuitous means.

The first major theoretical framework of “true” accuracy arose in 1955 (Cronbach, 1955). Prior to this article, social perception research largely focused on the *who* of accuracy: who are effective judges of others? Yet this article brought to light the several different ways in which “true” accuracy ability can be incorrectly computed—and most importantly, distinct mechanisms that give rise to the appearance of accuracy (e.g., judgments which match the target’s truth criterion, but arise due to stereotypes or other heuristics). The Social Relations Model (or “SRM”) furthered this line of reasoning by clarifying the various factors (related to perceivers, targets, and dyads) which influence interpersonal appraisals (Kenny & La Voie, 1984), giving rise to several testable hypotheses regarding the genesis of (in)accurate judgments. Finally, the most contemporaneous of the specialized accuracy models discussed here is the truth and bias model (West & Kenny, 2011): a dyadic application of the SRM. This methodological approach once again tries to capture “true” accuracy, although in a simpler fashion: Accuracy is computed as the continuous relationship between appraisals of partners and the self-report of that specific partner, after controlling for a form of interpersonal bias (e.g., assumptions of similarity).

However, I propose that for the lived experiences of everyday individuals, “true” accuracy does not “truly” matter. Put more simply: If your partner can accurately determine what you understand to be your own goals—does it matter *how* they got to their accurate interpersonal appraisal? Rather than focusing on the mechanisms underlying interpersonal assessments, my focus is on the actual behaviours: Are you helping your romantic partner achieve their goals? As such, I use highly face-valid and simplistic forms of accuracy, agnostic to the mechanisms by

which that interpersonal judgment arose. See Chapter 4 for my definitions of accuracy, and Appendix C for parallel analyses of another definition of accuracy (the truth and bias model).

### **What Shapes Perceptions of Partner's Work and Family Goals?**

Appraisals of partner's work and family goals may be systematically swayed by several mechanisms. First, I expected gender stereotypes to skew perceptions of partners. Although stereotypes tend to colour appraisals of outgroup members and acquaintances more than appraisals of friends and family (Neuberg & Fiske, 1987), effects of gender stereotypes are hard to shake, even in the closest of relationships. These stereotypes fundamentally shape our perceptions: Perceivers endorsing gender stereotypes are especially prone to overestimating gender differences (Hall & Carter, 1999). I hypothesized that when inaccuracies occur, they would most often be in the direction of gender stereotypes, especially regarding domestic work. Specifically, I expected that men overestimate their female partners' orientation toward traditionally feminine tasks (e.g., childcare, domestic work) and women underestimate their male partners' reported willingness to do the same. Yet given that expectations regarding paid work have changed much more in recent years (than those for unpaid domestic work), I hypothesized a smaller, yet still present, gender stereotyping effect regarding appraisals of partners' careers. Additionally, as women's social roles have changed much more substantially than men's (Croft et al., 2015), I anticipated that appraisals of female partners might be somewhat less affected by gender stereotypes than appraisals of male partners.

Turning to attributes of perceivers, I hypothesized that women would be more accurate than men. Girls and women (more so than boys and men) are socialized to value interpersonal empathy (Jordan et al., 1983). Unsurprisingly, women outperform men on tests of empathic accuracy, largely due to women's stronger motivation to be accurate (not innately gendered ability; Klein & Hodges, 2001). Further, per meta-analytic review, even very subtle motivation to be accurate (e.g., indicating accuracy will be evaluated) can encourage women to improve the accuracy of their interpersonal appraisals (Ickes et al., 2000). My program of research certainly made clear that accuracy would be evaluated—going so far as to explicitly ask participants to rate their own accuracy (as well as their partner's). I expected that these gendered pressures on

women's "soft skills" would translate into objectively better interpersonal accuracy when perceiving their romantic partner's goals.

Second, I connect with literatures on relational power, or one's relative ability to achieve goals regardless of interpersonal pressures (Galinsky et al., 2008)<sup>2</sup>. Within dyads, the higher-power partner's goals tend to be prioritized, with the lower-power partner's goals slowly sublimated within their new "joint goals" (Laurin et al., 2016). This sublimation likely leads to the higher-power partner having a less accurate assessment of their partner's true priorities. Greater relational power is indeed typically associated with increased anchoring on one's own perspective (e.g., assuming your partner thinks similarly to you) and reduced perspective-taking ability (Galinsky et al., 2006). Further, women are more often lower in relational power within male-female dyads (romantic or otherwise; Bentley et al., 2007; Blair et al., 2001), and I suspect that this accrued experience of being in a position of lower power translates into women developing higher accuracy over time (as also theorized by Love & Davis, 2014).

More simplistically, I expected that those who endorse sexist beliefs underestimate the extent to which their partner wants an egalitarian relationship dynamic (as this error would be an internally consistent expectation with their own gender beliefs). Similarly, insofar as one appraises their partner as feminine, I expected their judgments to be more affected by stereotypes of femininity (e.g., orientation toward family and other domestic goals). All these hypotheses regarding the antecedents of interpersonal inaccuracy are tested in Chapter 5.

### **Outcomes of Goal Inaccuracy**

Interpersonal expectations, regardless of their content, are a crucial lens through which we interpret our experiences. Indeed, our initial expectations of our partners critically shape our later recollection of our partner's actual behaviours (Joel et al., 2023). What happens then when critically important work and family expectations are violated (as they often are in putatively egalitarian romantic dyads)? Longitudinal perinatal work elegantly shows the effects of inaccurate expectations within romantic relationships (Biehle & Mickelson, 2012): In this study,

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<sup>2</sup> For further exploration of relational power in romantic dyads, see Study 2, Appendix B.

new mothers typically overestimated the amount of time their male partners would contribute to childcare and then had higher depression and lower relationship satisfaction. Conversely, new fathers tended to underestimate the amount of time their female partners would engage in childcare, and these subsequently exceeded expectations were associated with less depression and higher relationship satisfaction. Women who espouse gender traditional beliefs also suffer worse well-being when their male partners do *more* childcare than they expected (Goldberg & Perry-Jenkins, 2004). Most importantly: Violated expectations are more related to individual and relationship outcomes than actual divisions of domestic labour (Biehle & Mickelson, 2012).

On the other side of this interpersonal dynamic is the experience of being accurately or inaccurately perceived. Unsurprisingly, having a partner who accurately perceives and supports your goals is a marker of improved individual health and relationship satisfaction (Overall et al., 2010). Furthermore, being accurately perceived by one's relationship partner predicts positive relationship outcomes—even when accuracy leads to an unflattering appraisal (Swann et al., 1994). Scholars additionally point to the suffocating effects of having a partner with overly high expectations for oneself (Finkel et al., 2014). For example, career-oriented women whose male romantic partners nonetheless expect women to perform the preponderance of domestic labour suffer poorer health outcomes (vs. career-oriented women in relationships wherein domestic labour is more evenly shared; Eek & Axmon, 2015).

But what of the difference between having an objectively accurate partner versus simply *thinking* they are accurate? Perceiving one's partner as being highly attuned to one's goals is a key predictor of relationship well-being (Reis & Gable, 2015) as is thinking one's partner has generally strong perspective-taking skills (Goldstein et al., 2014; Segrin et al., 2009). Further, prior work shows that women are *perceived* to be more interpersonally accurate than men (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983) or even their male partners (Long & Andrews, 1990). As such, meta-perceptions of partner accuracy are relevant and meaningful constructs.

This dissertation empirically tests for different outcomes between objective and subjective appraisals of partners' accuracy. On one hand, the transactive goal dynamics theoretical framework posits that relationship dissolution results when the goal-sharing system



does not afford sufficient benefits (Fitzsimons et al., 2015)—for example, in a case where partners are inaccurately supporting one another’s goals. However, it is perhaps the *assumption* that the system is failing that results in relationship dissolution, rather than actual failures of goal achievement. Related research indicates it is perhaps the subjective evaluation of one’s partner as instrumental (toward one’s goals) that is most proximally related to relationship outcomes (Fitzsimons & Shah, 2008). In other words, perhaps merely thinking you are in a weak goal-sharing system is enough to exit it.

In Chapter 7, I test the hypothesis that partners’ objective inaccuracy is negatively related to individual and relationship well-being (including relationship status) within the next two years. I further analyze associations between partners’ objective and subjective inaccuracy and the possibility that perceptions of partners’ inaccuracy may equally (or even more powerfully!) predict key relationship outcomes.

### **Overview of Key Analyses**

First, I discuss women’s and men’s work and family priorities. I then define key metrics of inaccuracy and examine how they vary by reporter gender. Finally, I trace how partners’ inaccuracies affect relationship dissolution, as well as individual and relationship well-being.

## **Chapter 2: Methods and Analytic Approach**

This dissertation presents three dyadic studies conducted within a broader program of research (for non-dyadic pilot studies see Cyr, 2018). As results are analyzed mega-analytically (see Analytic Approach), I summarize key study procedures and measures. For individual study materials, see Appendix A.

### **Participants**

Across the three studies, participants were primarily recruited from the University of Waterloo Department of Psychology participant pool. However, supplementary recruitment efforts were used to diversify samples (e.g., sign-up forms posted on campus, recruitment emails sent to STEM classes). Although a few romantic partners were recruited independently (through separate sign-ups), most direct recruits brought their partners into the study. As such, the partner-recruited participants tended to have a more diverse educational background (e.g., less likely to be attending the university). All participants were offered partial course credit or monetary remuneration.

All individuals regardless of gender were able to complete these studies. But to understand how highly gendered social pressures influence the interpersonal dynamics and goals of male-female romantic dyads, I analyzed only the couples composed of one self-identified man and one self-identified woman. Note that although participants reported their gender (“What is your gender?”), the response options reflected terms that are now more commonly used to refer to sex (“male” / “female”). Sexual orientation and sex assigned at birth were not collected.

Study 1 was fully online. Of the 394 surveys completed by analyzable dyads, 16 did not include key measures and were excluded. The final Study 1 sample was 378 participants (189 dyads). Study 2 and Study 3 Time 1 were conducted in the lab, with participants attending in dyads but completing key measures in separate rooms (except interactive portions not analyzed here; see Appendix B). In total, 160 eligible participants (80 dyads) completed Study 2, and 332 eligible participants (166 dyads) completed Study 3 Time 1, with no post-collection exclusions. Study 3 had two online follow-up surveys, with 207 participants completing Time 2

(approximately 1 year later; 56% women; 77 complete dyads) and 153 participants completing Time 3 (approximately 2 years later; 57% women; 47 complete dyads). Participants were invited to complete both follow-up surveys for Study 3 regardless of their partner's completion status (or their relationship status).

### ***Demographic and Background Information***

Participants were on average 20 years old (over 80% between 18-22 years, range = 15-50 years), and most identified their racial background as White (49%), East Asian (25%) or South Asian (17%). Unsurprisingly, most students from the University of Waterloo hailed from the Faculty of Arts (36%), with the remainder in Science (24%), Health (15%), Mathematics (11%), Engineering (10%), or Environment (4%). Almost half of participants (47%) reported not having a religious affiliation, with 34% identifying as Christian and the remaining religious groups each comprising less than 10% of the sample. See Appendix A for full demographics.

On average, couples had been dating for just under 2 years ( $M = 1.88$ ). Couples were also fairly committed: Fully 71% of participants indicated that they would “likely” or “very likely” still be with their current romantic partner in 10-15 years.

### **Procedures**

Beyond demographic/background measures, I focus on the materials that (a) indicate future work/family priorities, or (b) were hypothesized to be associated with one's own work/family priorities or the inaccurate detection of partners' work/family priorities, or (c) were hypothesized to be outcomes of partners' inaccuracy.

Measure collection order varied somewhat across studies, but generally followed this sequence: educational background (e.g., major), basic relationship information (length, satisfaction/commitment), mental health, career intensity, condition-based materials (for Studies 2 & 3; see Appendix B for null findings), dyadic domestic labour, dyadic career prioritization, family-over-career willingness, relationship well-being, desire for egalitarianism, background (e.g., gender, religion), femininity, sexism. The two follow-up surveys for Study 3 began with an additional question regarding breakup.

Further, although the focus of this dissertation is on correlational effects (within participants and across dyad members), Studies 2 and 3 had experimental designs. However, neither experiment consistently predicted key measures or accuracy. See Appendix B for experimental protocols, specific condition-based hypotheses, and a summary of the null findings.

Below, the measures are grouped into functional categories: work/family priorities (used to compute objective inaccuracy), subjective appraisals of inaccuracy, and secondary measures. Measures inserted the first name of participants' partners as needed (except for three Study 1 participants who reported it was "very unlikely" they would still be with their romantic partner in 10-15 years; their prompts referred to "your partner"). For readability, I use Amy as the participant's name and Ben as the partner's name. See Appendix A for full measure details across studies, with scale reliabilities in Table 15.

### **Work/Family Priority Measures**

These work and family prioritization variables were collected twice per participant: a *self-report*, then an appraisal of their partner's response to that same measure (a *partner appraisal*). For partner appraisals, participants were asked "Now predict what Ben thinks...".

#### ***Desire for Egalitarianism (Studies 2 & 3)***

Participants reported their desire for three relationship dynamics in 10 to 15 years: "An *egalitarian* partnership, with each of our careers equally prioritized and each of us equally contributing to household/childcare duties", "A *traditional* partnership, with the male partner's career prioritized and the female partner contributing more to household/childcare duties", and "A *counter-traditional* partnership, with the female partner's career prioritized and the male partner contributing more to household/childcare duties" [italics added for emphasis]. Each option was rated from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*absolutely*). Participants then appraised their partner on these same items (e.g., "To what extent does Ben want..."). These self-reports and partner appraisals were added about halfway through Study 2 collection (hence the smaller cell sizes).

Despite initial expectations, the traditional and counter-traditional items (assessed in Studies 2 and 3) were positively correlated,  $r = .21, p < .001$ . As such, although most participants

strongly preferred egalitarianism, participants perhaps cared little for whose career was prioritized / who took on more domestic care duties if egalitarianism was not possible. To create a measure of desire for egalitarianism versus other options, I averaged together reverse-coded desire for counter-traditionalism and traditionalism, then averaged this metric with desire for egalitarianism.

### ***Dyadic Domestic Labour (Studies 1-3)***

Participants envisioned their lives in 10-15 years and then predicted which partner was more likely to perform twelve household tasks and twelve childcare tasks (only asked for the 88% of participants who reported expecting 1+ children in 10-15 years). Household tasks were evenly divided into female-stereotypic (e.g., cleaning, doing laundry) and male-stereotypic (e.g., household repairs, taking out the trash). Childcare tasks were divided into eight female-stereotypic (e.g., night-time soothing, scheduling appointments) and four male-stereotypic (e.g., coaching sports teams, playing / socializing outdoors) tasks. All tasks were reported using a scale from 1 (*always you*) to 5 (*always Ben*) but were recoded with higher values indicating a gender-stereotypic distribution of labour (e.g., Amy doing the cleaning, Ben coaching sports teams) and lower values indicating a counter-stereotypic distribution of labour (e.g., Ben doing the cleaning, Amy coaching sports teams), then averaged together. All three studies included self-report versions of this measure; partner appraisals were introduced in Study 3.

### ***Dyadic Career Prioritization (Studies 1-3)***

Prospecting 10-15 years in the future, participants reported whose career within the dyad would be prioritized, from 1 (*definitely mine*) to 5 (*definitely Ben's*). This item was recoded making higher values in line with traditional relationship dynamics (e.g., Ben's career prioritized) and lower values indicating a counter-stereotypic future (e.g., Amy's career prioritized). Partner appraisals were introduced in Study 3.

### ***Family-Over-Career Willingness (Studies 1-3)***

Participants predicted their willingness to make 10 family-over-career sacrifices (e.g., “Take time off from work to look after sick children or family members”; “Miss a family member’s birthday due to work travel” reverse-coded) in 10 to 15 years, from 1 (*extremely unwilling*) to 7 (*extremely willing*). Next, participants completed partner appraisals for these same measures (“Please predict how willing Ben would realistically be to...”).

### ***Career Intensity (Studies 1-3)***

A composite tapping predicted career intensity in 10 to 15 years was created by averaging three items: hours worked per week rated from 1 (*much less than 40*) to 5 (*much more than 40*), income rated from 1 (<\$50,000) to 5 (>\$125,000), and nights of work travel per year rated from 1 (*0 nights*) to 5 (*more than 14 nights*). Partner careers were appraised using the same metrics.

## *Dyadic Assessment of Work/Family Priorities*

As each of these work/family priority variables was captured as a self-report and a partner appraisal, there are several potential comparisons within dyads. Figure 1 depicts my key analytic frames. First are gender differences: what was the average difference between women and men? Second are two forms of similarity: the actual similarity of her goals versus his goals, and how similar they assume they are to each other. Finally, and most importantly, is the extent to which women and men can accurately appraise their partner's work/family priorities<sup>3</sup>.

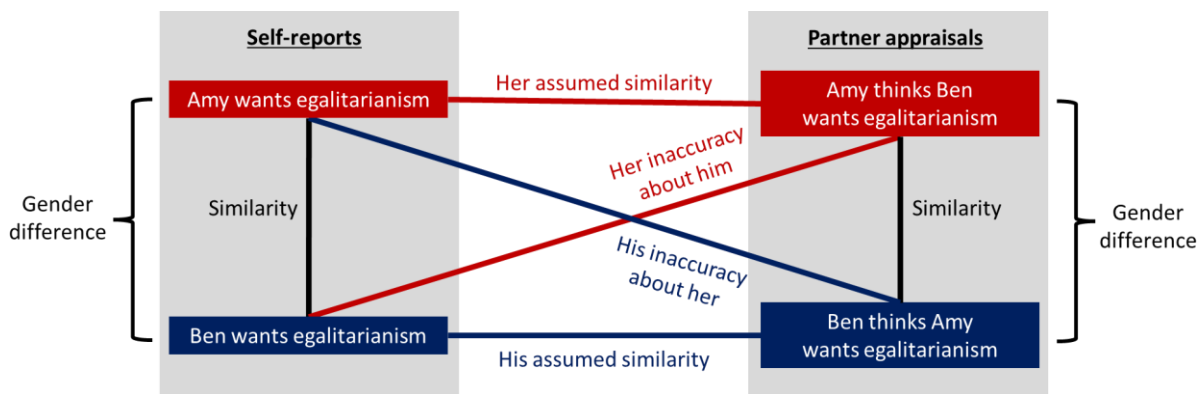


Figure 1. Key variable comparisons across and within dyads.

Note. "Amy" is used as the female partner's name, and "Ben" is used as the male partner's name.

## **Subjective Assessments of Inaccuracy**

### *General Subjective Inaccuracy (Study 3)*

A meta-perceptual measure of generalized perspective-taking ability captured perceptions of one's own ability ("How well do the following items describe your behaviour and actions with Ben?") and appraisals of one's partner ("...Ben's behaviour and actions with you?"). Ten items were adapted from the Self-Dyadic Perspective-Taking Scale (Long, 1990), for example: "I am good at understanding Ben's problems / Ben is good at understanding my problems"<sup>4</sup>. Items

<sup>3</sup> Inaccuracy here is a calculated objective metric.

<sup>4</sup> Three items from the original scale were additionally included in the partner-report version of the scale at Time 1, but these items were removed by Time 2 and not analyzed.

were responded to using a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), reverse-coded as appropriate to create a measure of *inaccuracy* (with higher values indicating more inaccurate).

### ***Specific Subjective Inaccuracy (Study 3)***

Participants were first instructed to specifically consider their (in)accuracy on the prior measures: “How much will your report about Ben match with what he personally reported? How much will his report about you match what you said?”. As such, this measure pertains to the items in this specific study and is much more narrowly focused than the prior measure of general interpersonal perceptiveness. One question probed the participant’s ability (“How accurately do you think you perceived Ben’s goals/priorities?”) and one their partner’s ability (“How accurately do you think Ben perceived your goals/priorities?”). Both measures were on a scale from 1 (*not at all accurately*) to 5 (*extremely accurately*), again reverse-coded such that higher values indicate more inaccurate.

### **Secondary Measures**

The following variables were measured to test their relation to work/family priorities.

#### ***Trait Femininity***

**Bem Sex Role Inventory (Studies 1 & 2).** To gauge personality traits, Study 1 and Study 2 used items from the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1981). Participants were asked to rate “How often are the following traits true of you?” for 5 stereotypically feminine traits (e.g., *warm*) and 5 stereotypically masculine traits (e.g., *assertive*) on a scale from 1 (*almost never true*) to 5 (*almost always true*). They then appraised their partner’s personality (“Please rate Ben’s personality: How often are the following traits true of Ben?”). Composites were made by averaging together the feminine traits and the reverse-scored masculine traits. As such, lower values indicate masculinity, and higher values indicate femininity.

**Bosson & Michniewicz (B & M) Gender Dichotomization Scale (Study 3).** Study 3 assessed participants’ traits with a revised measure (Bosson & Michniewicz, 2013) that balances the positivity of traits across two gender-stereotypic dimensions. Twenty traits were assessed for



the self and appraised for the partner, using a scale from 1 (*almost never true*) to 5 (*almost always true*). As with the Bem trait femininity scale, trait femininity was computed by averaging together feminine traits (e.g., *affectionate, nagging*) with reverse-scored masculine traits (e.g., *assertive, egotistical*).

### ***Sexism***

**Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Studies 1-3).** Participants rated their agreement with six items from the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996), with three items on hostile sexism (e.g., “Women seek power by gaining control over men”) and three on benevolent sexism (e.g., “Men should sacrifice to provide for women”). Ratings were from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Separate composites were made for each form of sexism.

### ***Individual Well-Being***

**Mental Health (Studies 2 & 3).** Mental health was assessed starting in Study 2, using the short form of the Mental Health Continuum (e.g., “Please answer the following questions about how you have been feeling during the past month...Happy”; Lamers et al., 2011) with an additional single item assessing self-esteem (“...That you have high self-esteem”). In Study 3, four reverse-coded items were added to this measure (e.g., “...Unable to sleep well”), three of which reflect more somatic forms of well-being. Participants reported frequencies within the past month from 1 (*never*) to 6 (*every day*).

### ***Relationship Well-Being***

**Likelihood of Relationship Persistence (Studies 1-3).** Participants responded to “What is the likelihood that you and Ben will still be in a romantic relationship together in 10 to 15 years?” from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 5 (*very likely*).

**Relationship Satisfaction (Studies 2 & 3).** Participants rated “How [satisfied are you with / committed are you to] your relationship with Ben?” on a scale from 1 (*very dissatisfied / not committed*) to 5 (*very satisfied / very committed*). These two self-report items were averaged together.

**Relationship Scales Composite (Studies 2 & 3).** This fuller inventory of relationship well-being used 13 items from the interpersonal qualities (“Ben is kind and affectionate”; Murray et al., 2000), unconditional regard (“Ben loves and accepts me unconditionally”; Murray et al., 2002), relationship security (“I am confident Ben will always want to stay in our relationship”; Murray et al., 2005) and perspectives of the future (“In the future, Ben will consider ending our relationship”; reverse-coded; Murray et al., 2002) scales. Participants responded from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

**Inclusion of Other in Self (IOS; Study 3).** A single-item graphic assessed the degree of self-other overlap (Aron et al., 1992): seven panels, each with two circles labeled “Self” and “Other.” In the left-most panel, the two circles just barely touch, and in the right-most panel, the two circles almost completely overlap (with incremental intermediates). Participants selected the panel that “best describes how you currently feel in your relationship with Ben”.

**Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Study 3).** Participants reported their level of agreement with their partner on 18 items adapted from the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976), intended to assess a wide range of potentially diagnostic points of (dis)agreement within romantic couples. For example, participants assessed—from 1 (*always disagree*) to 6 (*always agree*)—their “philosophy of life”, “making major decisions” and “vacation time / trips.”

### **Overall Analytic Approach**

Unless noted otherwise, models are multi-level. Participants were nested within dyads, using a heterogeneous compound symmetry (CSH) covariance structure, which allows estimated error terms to differ. Gender was used as the distinguishing factor within dyads.

Where possible, models are examined mega-analytically. Mega-analysis (or “integrative analysis”; Curran & Hussong, 2009) pools participant data across recruited samples, and uses random effects to account for sample-level error variance (Costafreda, 2009). This form of analysis is advantageous over separately analyzing (similar) datasets as it maximizes statistical power. As many hypothesized effects in this program of research hinge on interaction terms—necessarily demanding increased statistical power (Da Silva Frost & Ledgerwood, 2020)—

pooling cell sizes was particularly helpful. Mega-analysis is also advantageous over meta-analysis as it directly tests the raw data, rather than potentially losing granularity by extracting sample-level summary statistics prior to analysis (Eisenhauer, 2021). Aside from the statistical benefits, mega-analysis also allows for more streamlined discussion of results—focusing more on reliable overall effects and less on study-level minutiae (or redundancies). As such, the bulk of the discussed results are presented mega-analytically.

Subscripts denote which studies are included in models; for example,  $t_{1,2,3}$  denotes a mega-analytic model including data from all three studies, but  $t_3$  indicates a model using only Study 3. All models except longitudinal analyses (see Chapter 7) use only the Time 1 data from Study 3, to avoid double (or triple) counting Study 3 participants. Key means and correlations are additionally provided on a study-by-study (and timepoint) basis in the Appendices.

Gender effects-coding pertains to the gender of the *source* of the report (-1 = female reporter and 1 = male reporter). This coding means that a positive coefficient for a gender difference on a self-report variable indicates men scored higher than women. Conversely, on a partner appraisal variable, a positive sign means that female partners are seen (by men) as higher on that measure than male partners (are seen by women). Continuous variables were winsorized to within  $\pm 3$  SDs from their gender group's grand mean. Eight out of the ten key work/family priority variables (five self-report and five appraisals of partners) were winsorized (maximum 1.2% cases winsorized).

### Chapter 3: Work/Family Priorities

Before turning to my key hypotheses regarding accuracy, I first examined how women and men prioritize work versus family goals. I use two analytic frames to analyze work/family priorities within romantic relationships: similarity of partners, and differences by gender. Of course, these frames are interrelated (e.g., insofar as partners are similar, mean gender differences will be necessarily reduced). Yet these two methods answer distinct questions regarding male and female partners' work/family priorities (see hypotheses in each subsection).

I analyze within-dyad similarity by correlating her report to his report. As these are within-dyad comparisons, the cell size is the number of dyads wherein both partners completed that measure. Note that because dyads were male-female (i.e., they are distinguishable dyads), within-dyad correlations are more appropriate than intraclass coefficients (which are better suited for *indistinguishable* dyads, as in such models designating either person as A or B to compute an AB correlation would be entirely arbitrary).

Gender differences are examined using the standard multi-level model described in the Analytic Approach, with participants nested within dyads (and dyads within Studies), and reporter gender effects-coded (-1 = women; 1 = men). See Table 1 for within-dyad work/family priority similarity and gender differences. See Figure 2 for distributions within each gender. Turn to Appendices D and E for full results by study and timepoint.

#### **Desire for Egalitarianism**

I expected that romantic partners would be fairly aligned in their desire for egalitarianism, given widespread within-dyad alignment (Acitelli et al., 2001; Kalmijn, 1998; Mare, 1991). Models pertaining to gender differences were more exploratory.

Overall, as expected, there was a positive relationship between her desire for egalitarianism and his desire for egalitarianism,  $r_{2,3}(221) = .41, p_{2,3} < .001$ . Similarly, if he was perceived (by her) as desiring egalitarianism, it was likely that she was also perceived (by him) as desiring egalitarianism,  $r_{2,3}(221) = .37, p_{2,3} < .001$ .

Women (vs. men) self-reported a greater desire for egalitarianism in their relationship,  $t_{2,3}(220.00) = 4.15$ ,  $p_{2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{2,3} = -0.28$ . Yet subjective appraisals of *partners'* desire for egalitarianism did not differ by gender,  $t_{2,3}(220.03) = 1.66$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .098$ ,  $d_{2,3} = -0.11$ .

### **Dyad Level: Domestic Labour & Career Prioritization**

As with desire for egalitarianism, I expected couples to be fairly assorted on their forecasts regarding domestic labour and career prioritization within the dyad, and gender differences were more exploratory.

Couples tended to report similar forecasts regarding how domestic labour would be divided within the couple,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = .55$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , and whose career would be prioritized,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = .44$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . Appraisals of partners' forecasts were similar within dyads as well, for domestic labour,  $r_3(166) = .46$ ,  $p_3 < .001$ , and career prioritization,  $r_3(166) = .48$ ,  $p_3 < .001$ .

Although women (relative to men) reported a greater desire for egalitarianism, when turning to realistic forecasting, women reported that their partnership would be more stereotypic: her doing more domestic labour,  $t_{1,2,3}(432.82) = 4.28$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = -0.21$ , and his career prioritized over hers,  $t_{1,2,3}(433.89) = 2.43$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .016$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = -0.12$ . These two dyad-level variables have a meaningful scale midpoint (indicating perfectly equal domestic labour sharing and career prioritization), which I tested against by rescaling the dependent measures. Dyadic domestic labour forecasts were significantly above the midpoint (indicating gender traditionalism) per self-reports made by women,  $b_{1,2,3} = 0.44$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(433.94) = 33.35$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , and men,  $b_{1,2,3} = 0.39$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(432.13) = 30.40$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . Similarly, the male partner's career was predicted to be prioritized over the female partner's career, per women's self-reports,  $b_{1,2,3} = 0.23$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.02) = 5.45$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , and men's self-reports,  $b_{1,2,3} = 0.12$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.11) = 2.88$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .004$ . Despite these gender differences in self-reported degree of dyadic gender-stereotypicality, partner appraisals did not differ by gender,  $t_{3S} < 1$ .

### **Individual Level: Family-Over-Career Willingness and Career Intensity**

For the two individual-level variables, the interpretation of the relationship between similarity and gender differences changes, as a negative correlation (i.e., dissimilarity) between

her report and his report on either measure could still indicate *agreement*. For example: perhaps Amy and Ben agree that they will have a gender traditional relationship, in that Amy will be responsible for domestic matters and Ben will be responsible for financial matters. In such a scenario, although Amy and Ben's self-reports would be negatively correlated, they would still agree regarding their relationship dynamic. As such, for these two individual level variables, I expected *dissimilarity* at the level of the dyad.

I further expected that women and men would report (and be appraised as) strongly following their proscribed social roles (Eagly & Steffen, 1984): women (vs. men) more willing to choose family goals over career goals, and men (vs. women) seeking more intense careers. Further, given raising expectations regarding women's career engagement, I expected a smaller gender effect for career intensity than the family-over-career willingness.

Contrary to expectations, there was marginally significant evidence of similarity in self-reported willingness to sacrifice career goals for the sake of family goals,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = .09$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .055$ , and a weakly positive relationship between her self-reported career intensity and his self-reported career intensity,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = .10$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .045$ . Turning to appraisals of partners, we see evidence of the hypothesized dissimilarity effect: modest complementarity regarding perceptions of his versus her willingness to choose family over career,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = -.10$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .046$ . However, perceptions of partners' careers were positively associated,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = .31$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , such that if he thought she would have an intense career, she thought he would as well.

Overall, the gender differences affirmed the hypothesized social roles. Women (vs. men), reported more willingness to choose family over career,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.09) = 2.48$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .014$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = -0.12$ , and that they were seeking less intense careers,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.02) = 8.06$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = 0.39$ . Female partners (vs. male partners) were also seen as more likely to choose family over career,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.08) = 10.29$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = 0.49$ , and seeking less intense careers,  $t_{1,2,3}(432.78) = 4.32$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = -0.21$ .

**Table 1***Within-Dyad Similarity and Differences by Gender for Work/Family Priorities*

Measure	Dyads	Corr. <i>r</i>	Participant gender		Gender differences	
			Women <i>M (SE)</i>	Men <i>M (SE)</i>	<i>b (SE)</i>	<i>d</i>
<b>Self-reported work/family priorities</b>						
Desire for egalitarianism <sup>2,3</sup>	221	.41***	4.34 (.04)	4.13 (.05)	-0.11 (.03)***	-0.28
Dyadic domestic labour <sup>1,2,3</sup>	434	.55***	3.44 (.01)	3.39 (.01)	-0.03 (.01)***	-0.21
Dyadic career prioritization <sup>1,2,3</sup>	434	.44***	3.23 (.04)	3.12 (.04)	-0.06 (.02)*	-0.12
Family-over-career willingness <sup>1,2,3</sup>	434	.09†	4.30 (.04)	4.17 (.04)	-0.07 (.03)*	-0.12
Career intensity <sup>1,2,3</sup>	435	.10*	2.96 (.03)	3.34 (.04)	0.19 (.02)***	0.39
<b>Appraisals of partners' work/family priorities</b>						
Desire for egalitarianism <sup>2,3</sup>	221	.37***	4.21 (.05)	4.12 (.05)	-0.05 (.03)†	-0.11
Dyadic domestic labour <sup>3</sup>	166	.46***	3.43 (.02)	3.44 (.02)	0.01 (.01)	0.05
Dyadic career prioritization <sup>3</sup>	166	.48***	3.12 (.07)	3.14 (.07)	0.01 (.04)	0.02
Family-over-career willingness <sup>1,2,3</sup>	433	-.10*	3.82 (.04)	4.46 (.04)	0.32 (.03)***	0.49
Career intensity <sup>1,2,3</sup>	435	.31***	3.23 (.04)	3.06 (.04)	-0.10 (.02)***	-0.22

*Note.* Superscripts next to measure names indicate included studies. “Corr.” indicates the correlation between her report and his report, within dyads. For gender differences, gender was effects-coded (-1 = women’s reports; 1 = men’s reports).

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*  $p < .05$ . †  $p < .1$ .

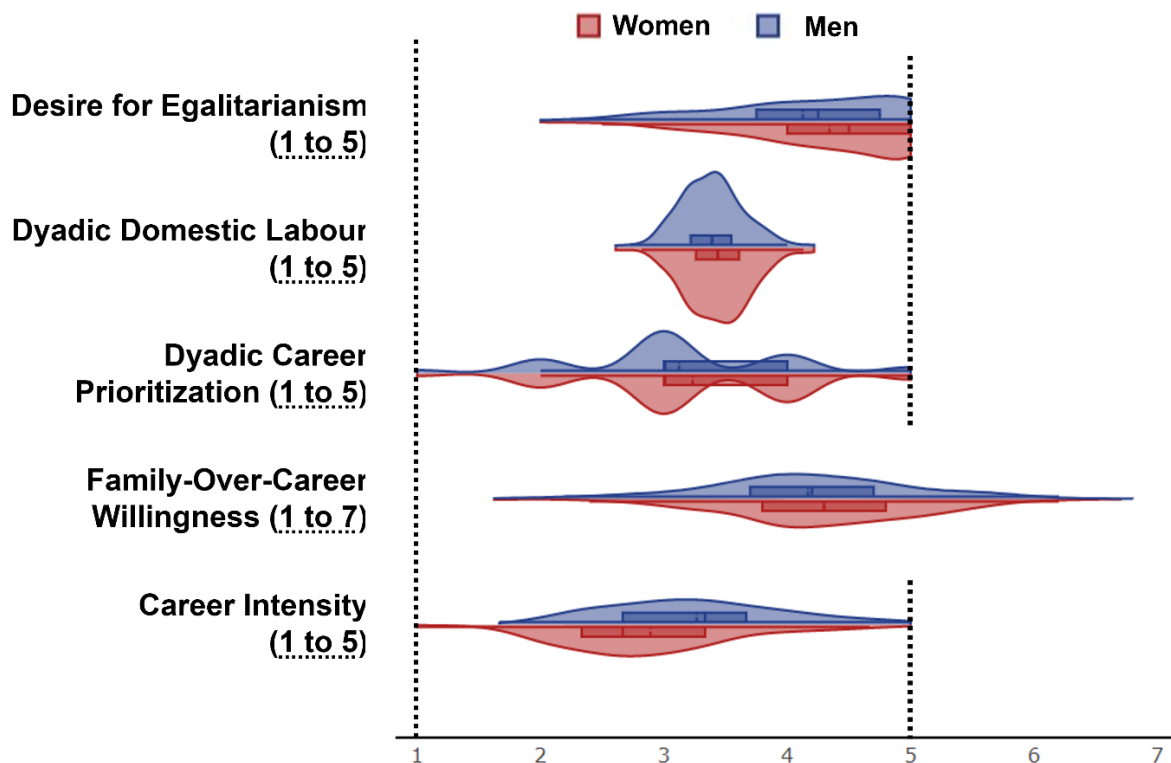


Figure 2: Gender differences on self-reported work/family priority variables.

Note: Dashed lines indicate scale boundaries.

### Assumed Similarity

Beyond actual similarity, how much do men and women *think* they are similar to their romantic partner? These models compare each person's self-report to their appraisal of their partner. As with the prior models of actual similarity, I expected positive relationships between, for example, her self-report and her appraisal about his desire for egalitarianism, domestic labour, and career prioritization. Yet for the individual level work/family priorities (family-over-career willingness, career intensity), I expected women and men to instead assume a degree of dissimilarity with their partner, reflecting a gender traditional dynamic (e.g., his career intensity inversely related to hers). These questions were again tested using bivariate correlations (separately within women and men). See Table 2 for key results.



Both women and men assumed significant similarity between themselves and their partner, across all measures,  $r_s > .20$ ,  $p_s < .001$ . However, notably, the effects for the individual level measures were less than half the size of the three other measures—perhaps reflecting that some women and men assumed individual level similarity (Ben has an intense career and assumed Amy will as well) and some assumed agreement on the overall relational dynamic (Ben has an intense career and assumed Amy will not).

**Table 2**

*Assumed Similarity: Correlating Self-Report and Appraisals of Partner for Focal Variables*

	Reporter gender		Difference
	Women	Men	
	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>z</i>
<b>Work/family priorities</b>			
Desire for egalitarianism	.67***	.80***	3.01**
Dyadic domestic labour	.84***	.87***	1.01
Dyadic career prioritization	.75***	.79***	0.89
Family-over-career	.20***	.22***	0.31
Career intensity	.39***	.37***	0.34

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

### **Interrelating Self-Reported Work/Family Priorities**

I now turn to how women versus men consider the intrapersonal relations between these different work versus family goals. In general, I expected internally cogent reports within participants. For example, I expected that those who desired egalitarian relationships would forecast a less stereotypic distribution of domestic labour and a less stereotypic prioritization of careers within the dyad. Further, I expected that prioritizing family goals (over career goals) would be associated with less intense careers. To examine these questions, I used bivariate correlations between self-reported work/family priorities for women and for men (separately). See full effects in Table 3.

As expected, the more women desired egalitarianism, the less stereotypic they forecasted their relationship to be in terms of domestic labour,  $r_{2,3}(221) = -.17$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .013$ , and career prioritization,  $r_{2,3}(221) = -.19$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .005$ —and the latter measures correlated positively,

$r_{1,2,3}(435) = .22, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . In contrast, men's desire for egalitarianism was unrelated to their expectations regarding the dyad's domestic labour,  $r_{2,3}(221) = -.10, p_{2,3} = .150$ , and career prioritization,  $r_{2,3}(221) = .02, p_{2,3} = .818$ , although their forecasts regarding domestic labour and career prioritization correlated positively (as expected),  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = .21, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . Interestingly, desire for egalitarianism was not related to men's or women's personal family-over-career sacrifice willingness or career intensity,  $|r|s < .06, ps > .356$ .

Further, as hypothesized, family-over-career willingness and career intensity were negatively related, for both men,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = -.35, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , and women,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = -.36, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . These individual level variables were generally related to the dyad level variables in the expected directions. For women, family (over career) goals were associated with stereotypicality at the level of the dyad: her doing more of the domestic labour,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = .19, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , and less prioritization of her career (relative to his),  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = .29, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . But women's self-reported career intensity was associated with a (relatively) less stereotypic dyadic dynamic, for domestic labour,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = -.13, p_{1,2,3} = .009$ , and career prioritization,  $r_{1,2,3}(435) = -.38, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . For men, the inverse relationships emerged (as expected). Men's self-reported family-over-career willingness was negatively related to dyad stereotypicality, per dyadic domestic labour,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = -.20, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , and career prioritization,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = -.33, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ . Although men's career intensity was not significantly related to their forecasts regarding domestic labour sharing,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = .06, p_{1,2,3} = .216$ , the more intense men's careers, the more they assumed their career would be prioritized,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = .30, p_{1,2,3} < .001$ .

**Table 3***Interrelating Self-Reported Work/Family Priorities Among Women and Men*

	<b>Self-reported work/family priorities</b>				
	Desire for egalitarianism	Dyadic domestic labour	Dyadic career prioritization	Family-over-career willingness	Career intensity
<b>Self-reported work/family priorities</b>					
Desire for egalitarianism		-.10	.02	.06	.01
Dyadic domestic labour	-.17*		.21***	-.20***	.06
Dyadic career prioritization	-.19**	.22***		-.33***	.30***
Family-over-career willingness	-.05	.19***	.29***		-.35***
Career intensity	-.03	-.13***	-.38***	-.36***	

*Note.* Women's results are below the diagonal and men's results are above the diagonal.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$

**Relating Self-Reported Work/Family Priorities and Secondary Measures**

I now turn to how self-reported work/family priorities align with key secondary measures. I expected self-reported femininity to be associated with more female stereotypic responses regarding the individual level variables, and sexism to be associated with more gender traditional responses on the dyad level variables. The individual and relationship well-being models were more exploratory and are included to frame the later longitudinal models. I focus here on consistent patterns of significant and marginal effects. See Table 4 for detailed findings.

***Individual Well-Being***

Associations between work/family priorities and individual well-being were rather sparse. For women, mental health was associated with a less stereotypic forecasted division of domestic labour,  $r_{2,3}(246) = -.17$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .007$ . No other significant or marginal effects emerged.

***Relationship Well-Being***

Relationship well-being was clearly associated with greater willingness to choose family goals over career goals. All six indicators of relationship well-being (five survey measures plus relationship length) were positively and significantly associated with women's family-over

career willingness,  $r_s > .17$ ,  $p_s < .030$ , and positively (but not always significantly) associated with men's family-over-career willingness,  $r_s > .08$ ,  $p_s < .110$ . Similarly, all indicators of relationship well-being were negatively associated with women's planned career intensity,  $r_s < -.10$ ,  $p_s < .182$ . Five of six relationship well-being indicators were negatively associated with men's career intensity, although weakly (only two reached marginal significance).

Relationship satisfaction and dyadic adjustment were associated with women's desire for egalitarianism  $r_s > .17$ ,  $p_s < .025$ . Similarly, men with stronger relationship satisfaction, dyadic adjustment, and composite relationship measures also reported higher desire for egalitarianism,  $r_s > .12$ ,  $p_s < .079$ .

The associations between relationship well-being and dyad level work/family priorities (dyadic domestic labour, career prioritization) were even less consistent. There was weak evidence that the stronger women's relationship well-being, the less stereotypic she envisions their domestic labour sharing will be (with five out of six correlations in the negative direction), and the stronger men's relationship well-being, the less stereotypic he envisions their career prioritization to be (with five out of six correlations in the negative direction). Note however, that all these correlations were small, and these two patterns are fairly speculative.

**Self-Reported Femininity.** As hypothesized, women who reported being more feminine (regardless of the scale used across studies—Bem or Bosson & Michniewicz) were more willing to prioritize family over career,  $r_s > .26$ ,  $p_s < .001$ , and expected less intense careers,  $r_s < -.12$ ,  $p_s < .08$ . The same pattern of effects was true for men, although weaker; family-over-career willingness  $r_s > .22$ ,  $p_s < .004$  and career intensity  $r_s < -.11$ ,  $p_s < .093$ .

Further, women's self-reported femininity (per the Bosson & Michniewicz scale only) was associated with more stereotypic expectations regarding the dyad's domestic labour,  $r_3(165) = .17$ ,  $p_3 = .028$ , and career prioritization,  $r_3(165) = .14$ ,  $p_3 = .073$ . For men, this association turned negative, with more feminine men expecting *less* stereotypicality at the level of the dyad (for three out of four models),  $r_s < -.15$ ,  $p_s < .059$ . Desire for egalitarianism was never associated with femininity,  $p_s > .302$ , regardless of gender.

**Sexism.** For women, as expected, sexism (regardless of subtype—hostile or benevolent) was associated with lower desire for egalitarianism,  $r_{2,3S} < -.17$ ,  $p_{2,3S} < .011$ . Further, although women’s sexism was associated with expecting to do more of the domestic labour,  $r_{1,2,3S} > .10$ ,  $p_{1,2,3S} < .096$ , there were no relationships with women’s dyadic career prioritization forecasts,  $p_{1,2,3S} > .397$ . For men, benevolent sexism was associated with lower desire for egalitarianism in their relationship,  $r_{2,3}(221) = -.16$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .018$ , but no other effects for men’s benevolent sexism emerged,  $p_{1,2,3S} > .129$ . Men higher in hostile sexism had substantially lower desire for egalitarianism,  $r_{2,3}(221) = -.22$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .001$ , higher expectations regarding how much domestic labour his female partner would do,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = .14$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .003$ , stronger expectations his career would be prioritized,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = .13$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .007$ , and lower willingness to put family goals ahead of career goals,  $r_{1,2,3}(434) = -.12$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .013$ . However, men’s hostile sexism appeared to be relational in nature, as it was not related to career aspirations,  $p_{1,2,3} = .568$ .

**Table 4**

*Correlations between Secondary Measures and Work/Family Priorities, for Women and Men*

	Desire for egalitarianism		Dyadic domestic labour		Dyadic career prioritization		Family-over-career willingness		Career intensity	
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M
<b>Individual well-being</b>										
Mental health	-.01	-.06	-.17**	.07	.05	.10	.10	-.01	-.04	.07
<b>Relationship well-being</b>										
Relationship length	.03	-.07	.07	.10*	.03	.04	.19***	.08	-.14**	-.08
Rel. persistence	.00	.03	-.04	-.01	.11*	-.09*	.31***	.30***	-.19***	-.08†
Rel. satisfaction	.19**	.12†	-.02	.03	.07	-.12†	.26***	.18**	-.25***	-.05
Rel. scales composite	.10	.18**	-.12†	.02	-.02	-.02	.23***	.18**	-.14*	-.11†
IOS	-.02	-.04	-.08	-.12	.00	-.01	.17*	.14†	-.10	-.10
DAS	.25**	.18*	-.02	-.11	.11	-.12	.36***	.17*	-.25***	.04
<b>Self-reported femininity &amp; sexism</b>										
Femininity (Bem)	-.14	.00	.10	-.20***	.08	-.20**	.26***	.38***	-.12†	-.11†
Femininity (B & M)	.04	.01	.17*	-.15†	.14†	-.07	.27***	.22**	-.14†	-.13†
Benevolent sexism	-.24***	-.16*	.10*	.07	.01	-.04	.08†	.04	.03	.04
Hostile sexism	-.17*	-.22**	.08†	.14**	.04	.13**	.06	-.12*	.02	.03

*Note.* “W” results are from women, “M” results are from men. “Rel.” indicates “relationship”.

“B & M” indicates “Bosson and Michniewicz”.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; †  $p < .1$

## Chapter 4: Defining Inaccuracy

I analyze several objective measures and subjective appraisals of women's and men's inaccuracy when perceiving their romantic partners' goals. I cover three categories of inaccuracy: undirected subjective inaccuracy, undirected objective inaccuracy, and directed objective inaccuracy. The two forms of undirected inaccuracy are used to address questions like "who is [seen as] inaccurate?" and directed inaccuracy is used to answer questions like "what directions are inaccuracies in?". See Table 5 for an overview of these definitions of inaccuracy.

### Subjective Assessments of Inaccuracy

Subjective assessments were survey measures (see Chapter 2), reverse-coded such that higher values indicate more inaccuracy. Study 3 assessed two domains of subjective inaccuracy (each as both self-reports and appraisals of partners): estimates of *general* ability to perspective-take (e.g., self-report: "I sometimes try to understand Ben better by imagining how things look from his perspective"), and estimates of inaccuracy for *specific* study measures (e.g., partner appraisal: "Throughout this series of questions, you reported on your goals/priorities and your perceptions of Ben's goals/priorities... How accurately do you think Ben perceived your goals/priorities?"). As such, there are four measures of subjective inaccuracy per participant (eight per dyad). Although these general and specific measures both tap dimensions of subjective inaccuracy, they were relatively distinct, with self-reports (general vs. specific) correlating only  $r_3 = .20$ , as with appraisals of partners,  $r_3 = .20$ .

### Objective Measurements of Inaccuracy

To compute objective indicators of inaccuracy, I made "prediction error" difference scores by taking appraisals of partners and subtracting what their partner self-reported (the truth criterion) for each of the five work/family priority variables. Undirected objective inaccuracy is the absolute value of the difference score (quantifying the magnitude of inaccuracy, as with the subjective inaccuracy measure), and directed objective inaccuracy is the raw difference score (testing over- versus underestimation). For both forms of objective inaccuracy, perfect accuracy results in a score of 0. As such, tests against 0 (such as the intercept test) are highly informative,

indicating whether appraisals of partners’ work/family priorities significantly differ from accuracy (in absolute terms or in a positive vs. negative direction, respectively).

**Table 5**

*Types of Inaccuracy*

	<b>Undirected subjective inaccuracy</b>	<b>Undirected objective inaccuracy</b>	<b>Directed objective inaccuracy</b>
<b>Definition</b>	Reverse coded survey measures assessing perceived inaccuracy. Self-report and appraisal of partner.	Computed by taking the absolute value of the difference between appraisal of partner and that partner’s self-report.	Computed as the difference between appraisal of partner and that partner’s self-report.
<b>Scoring</b>	<i>Larger values = more inaccuracy</i>	<i>0 = accuracy, &gt;0 = inaccuracy</i>	<i>0 = accuracy, &lt;0 = underestimation, &gt;0 = overestimation</i>
<b>Subtypes</b>	Surveyed for each individual: 1. General: self-report 2. General: appraisal of partner 3. Specific: self-report 4. Specific: appraisal of partner	Calculated for each individual: 1. Desire for egalitarianism 2. Dyadic domestic labour 3. Dyadic career prioritization 4. Family-over-career willingness 5. Career intensity	Calculated for each individual: 1. Desire for egalitarianism 2. Dyadic domestic labour 3. Dyadic career prioritization 4. Family-over-career willingness 5. Career intensity

**Detectability of Inaccuracies: Undirected Subjective Versus Undirected Objective**

On a more meta-perceptual level, how accurate are these subjective assessments of undirected inaccuracy? I compare self-reported inaccuracy to one’s objective undirected inaccuracy, then appraisals of partners’ inaccuracy to partners’ objective undirected inaccuracy. These are two distinct comparisons, despite all participants being both “actors” and “partners”: the first set of comparisons provides insight into the extent to which Amy is aware of her own inaccuracy, and the second set on the extent to which Amy is aware of *Ben’s* inaccuracy. This latter relation receives further attention in Chapter 7 (Outcomes of Partners’ Inaccuracy).

Positive relationships are expected: the higher the subjective assessments of inaccuracy, the higher objective inaccuracy should be. I further hypothesized that the specific subjective

measure (vs. the general measure) would be more related to objective inaccuracy, given it directly pertains to the survey measures. These bivariate correlational models (estimated separately for women and men) contain data only from Time 1, describing initial inaccuracy levels (see Table 6). I again focus on overall patterns of significant and marginal effects.

**Insight into own inaccuracy.** Overall, women and men had very poor insight into their own inaccuracy, with not a single statistically significant correlation between subjectively assessed inaccuracy and objective inaccuracy. Of the marginally significant relationships, two (out of five) were in the negative direction, both for women's self-assessed specific inaccuracy.

**Insight into partners' inaccuracy.** Partners' objective inaccuracy in gauging one's own desire for egalitarianism was detectable: see the three significant and positive relationships between appraisals of partner's subjective inaccuracy and their objective desire for egalitarianism inaccuracy (out of four tests),  $r_3s > .16$ ,  $p_3s < .045$ . Women also seemed to detect when men misjudged their family-over-career willingness or career intensity, however, this awareness of men's misjudgments was only reflected in general (not specific) assessments of men's inaccuracy: see effects for family-over-career willingness,  $r_3(166) = .21$ ,  $p_3 = .007$ , and career intensity,  $r_3(166) = .19$ ,  $p_3 = .016$ . Overall, it appeared the general (subjective) measure was more diagnostic of partners' objective inaccuracy, and that desire for egalitarianism inaccuracy was the most detectable.



**Table 6***Correlations Between Subjective Perceptions of Inaccuracy and Objective Inaccuracy*

Subjective assessments of undirected inaccuracy	<b>Objective undirected inaccuracy of target</b>				
	Desire for egalitarianism	Dyadic domestic labour	Dyadic career prioritization	Family-over- career willingness	Career intensity
	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>
<b>Women's self-reported inaccuracy</b>					
General	.11	.15 <sup>†</sup>	.00	-.08	-.08
Specific	.12	-.02	-.15 <sup>†</sup>	-.15 <sup>†</sup>	.09
<b>Men's self-reported inaccuracy</b>					
General	.11	.00	.07	-.07	.13 <sup>†</sup>
Specific	.04	.11	.14 <sup>†</sup>	.00	-.02
<b>Women's appraisals of men's inaccuracy</b>					
General	.13	.02	.06	.21 <sup>**</sup>	.19 <sup>*</sup>
Specific	.20 <sup>*</sup>	.01	.06	.10	-.09
<b>Men's appraisals of women's inaccuracy</b>					
General	.22 <sup>**</sup>	.21 <sup>**</sup>	.01	.01	-.11
Specific	.16 <sup>*</sup>	-.05	-.03	-.14 <sup>†</sup>	-.07

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ . <sup>†</sup>  $p < .1$ .

## Chapter 5: Inaccuracy by Gender

Are women or men more accurate? Given work on relational dynamics, such that those lower in relational power have higher interpersonal accuracy (Galinsky et al., 2006; Laurin et al., 2016), I expected that women would be more accurate than men, and that women would also be *perceived* as more accurate than men. To test for overall gender differences in inaccuracy, I used undirected subjective inaccuracy and undirected objective inaccuracy (see Table 7). These two forms of inaccuracy are comparable as they are both agnostic to directionality of misjudgements.

### Undirected Subjective Inaccuracy

Self-reported inaccuracy did not differ by gender, for either of the subjective survey measures (general or specific),  $p_{3s} > .390$ . Unlike self-reported inaccuracy, appraisals of partners' inaccuracy did differ by gender—but in the opposite direction for the general versus specific measures. For the specific partner appraisal measure, the hypothesized effect emerged: female partners seen as more accurately determining what their partner reported on the study survey,  $t_3(165.00) = 2.78$ ,  $p_3 = .006$ ,  $d_3 = -0.22$ . Conversely, male partners were seen as better able to perspective-take in general,  $t_3(165.00) = 3.35$ ,  $p_3 < .001$ ,  $d_3 = 0.26$ .

### Undirected Objective Inaccuracy

Undirected objective inaccuracy was calculated for each of the five work/family priorities. Overall, women and men tended to be comparably accurate. Women and men were equivalently accurate when appraising their partner's desire for egalitarianism, dyadic career prioritization, and career intensity,  $ps > .798$ . Although gender differences in undirected objective inaccuracy emerged for appraisals of partners' responses regarding dyadic domestic labour (marginally),  $t_3(165.00) = 1.76$ ,  $p_3 = .080$ ,  $d_3 = 0.14$ , and family-over-career willingness,  $t_{1,2,3}(432.97) = 2.81$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .005$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = -0.14$ , these effects were of equivalent size yet opposite directions—and most importantly, women and men were significantly inaccurate across all five models of objective inaccuracy,  $ps < .001$ . See Figure 3 for distributions within each gender.

**Table 7***Gender Differences in Subjective and Objective Inaccuracy (Undirected)*

	<b>Gender differences</b>		<b>Women's inaccuracy (vs. 0)</b>	<b>Men's inaccuracy (vs. 0)</b>
	<i>b (SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>b (SE)</i>	<i>b (SE)</i>
<b>Undirected subjective inaccuracy</b>				
General				
Self-reported inaccuracy	0.03 (0.04)	0.06		
Appraisal of partners' inaccuracy <sup>a</sup>	0.14 (0.04) <sup>***</sup>	0.26		
Specific				
Self-reported inaccuracy	-0.04 (0.04)	-0.07		
Appraisal of partners' inaccuracy <sup>a</sup>	-0.12 (0.04) <sup>**</sup>	-0.22		
<b>Undirected objective inaccuracy</b>				
Desire for egalitarianism	0.00 (0.02)	-0.01	0.63 (0.04) <sup>***</sup>	0.62 (0.04) <sup>***</sup>
Dyadic domestic labour	0.01 (0.01) <sup>†</sup>	0.14	0.21 (0.01) <sup>***</sup>	0.24 (0.01) <sup>***</sup>
Dyadic career prioritization	-0.01 (0.03)	-0.02	0.66 (0.05) <sup>***</sup>	0.65 (0.05) <sup>***</sup>
Family-over-career	-0.04 (0.02) <sup>**</sup>	-0.14	0.74 (0.03) <sup>***</sup>	0.65 (0.02) <sup>***</sup>
Career intensity	0.00 (0.02)	-0.01	0.60 (0.02) <sup>***</sup>	0.59 (0.03) <sup>***</sup>

*Note.* Objective inaccuracy simple effects are given for each gender, to display intercept differences from 0 (i.e., women's and men's inaccuracy).

<sup>a</sup> Effects-coding is for reporter, not target, gender. As such, there is an expected sign flip on appraisals of partners.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . †  $p < .1$ .

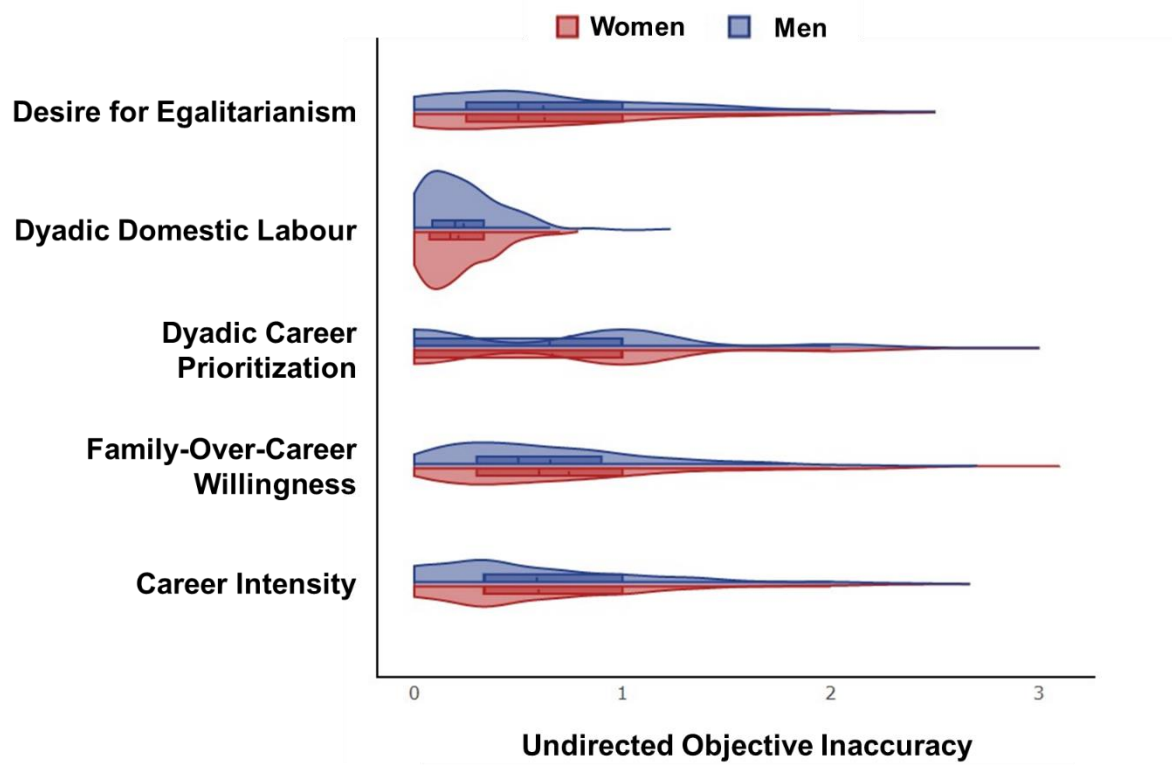


Figure 3: Gender differences on undirected objective inaccuracy.

## Chapter 6: Directionality of Inaccuracies

When inaccuracies occur, in what direction do they fall? I now address the directionality of perceptual errors when appraising romantic partners. I expected inaccuracies regarding the individual level work/family priorities (family-over-career willingness, career intensity) to be drawn toward gender stereotypes. In other words, when Amy made inaccurate reports about Ben, I suspected that her inaccuracies would lean toward stereotypes about men. However, given that there is less clarity regarding which gender is *perceived* to prefer traditional (vs. egalitarian) relationship dynamics, those tests of gender differences were more exploratory. See Table 8 and Figure 4 for distributions.

Inaccuracy regarding partners' desire for egalitarianism differed by gender,  $t_{2,3}(222.07) = 3.20$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .002$ ,  $d_{2,3} = -0.22$ . Men significantly underestimated their female partner's desire for egalitarianism,  $b_{2,3} = -0.23$ ,  $t_{2,3}(220.06) = 4.29$ ,  $p_{2,3} < .001$ , but women were accurate,  $b_{2,3} = 0.09$ ,  $t_{2,3}(220.07) = 1.52$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .130$ . Further, both women and men could accurately detect their partner's domestic labour and career prioritization forecasts,  $t_{3s} < 1$ .

Differences by gender also emerged for family-over-career willingness inaccuracy,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.72) = 7.56$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = 0.36$ , as well as career intensity inaccuracy,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.61) = 2.92$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .004$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = 0.14$ . Men stereotyped female partners as more willing to choose family over career,  $b_{1,2,3} = 0.16$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(433.67) = 4.19$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , but also simultaneously seeking a more intense career (vs. women's self-reports),  $b_{1,2,3} = 0.10$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(432.45) = 2.70$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .007$ . Conversely, women stereotyped male partners as less willing to choose family over career,  $b_{1,2,3} = -0.34$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(433.16) = 8.08$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , yet seeking *less* intense careers (vs. men's self-reports),  $b_{1,2,3} = -0.07$ ,  $t_{1,2,3}(434.01) = 1.97$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .050$ .

**Table 8**

*Directional Inaccuracies when Appraising Partners' Work/Family Priorities, by Gender*

	Gender differences		Women's inaccuracy (vs. 0)	Men's inaccuracy (vs. 0)
	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )	<i>d</i>	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )
<b>Directed objective inaccuracy</b>				
Desire for egalitarianism	-0.16 (0.05)**	-0.22	0.09 (0.06)	-0.23 (0.05)***
Dyadic domestic labour	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.05	0.01 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.02)
Dyadic career prioritization	-0.05 (0.06)	-0.06	0.04 (0.07)	-0.06 (0.07)
Family-over-career	0.25 (0.03)***	0.36	-0.34 (0.04)***	0.16 (0.04)***
Career intensity	0.09 (0.03)**	0.14	-0.07 (0.04)†	0.10 (0.04)**

*Note.* For completeness, directional inaccuracy (tested as an intercept difference from 0) is reported for each gender. Negative effects for directed inaccuracy indicate underestimating partners' self-reported responses; positive effects indicate overestimations.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . †  $p < .1$ .

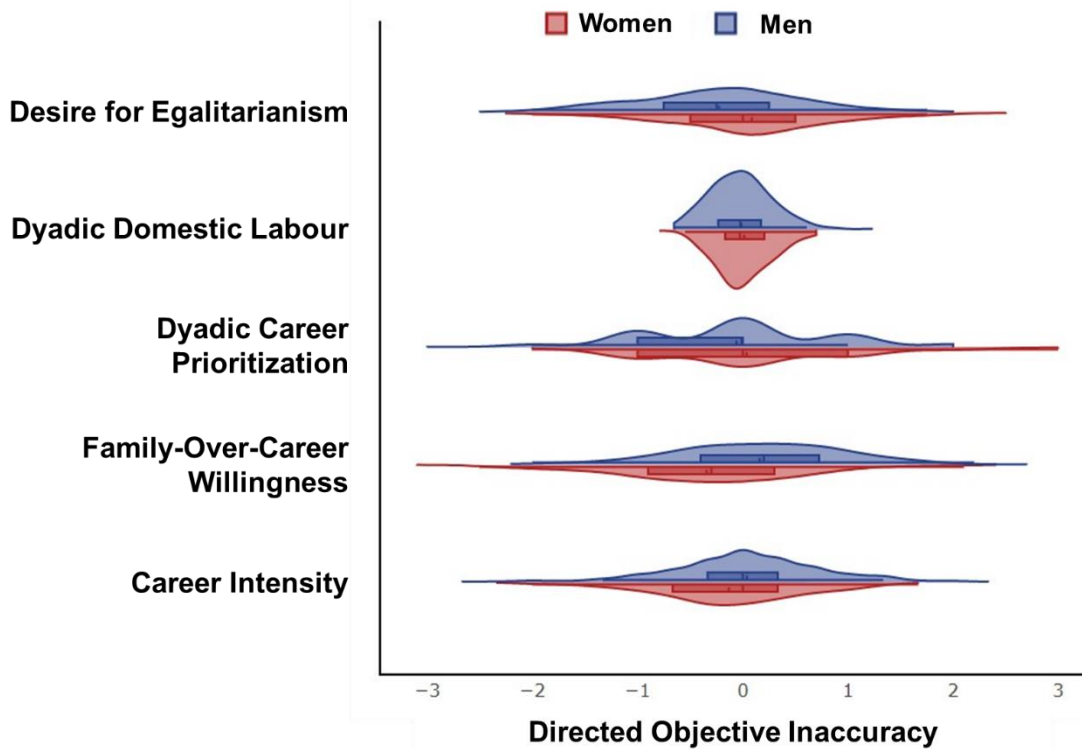


Figure 4: Gender differences on directed objective inaccuracy.

## **Correlates of Directed Inaccuracies**

I expected that perceiving one's partner as highly feminine as well as self-reported sexism might draw forth specific directed inaccuracies. These models use the directed form of objective inaccuracy, given my directional hypotheses (see specific subsections). Partner femininity was appraised using different scales across studies (Bem in Study 1 & Study 2, Bosson & Michniewicz in Study 3). Fixed effects include gender, the moderator, and the interaction term. Moderators are rescaled to  $\pm 1$  SD from the mean as needed.

### ***Gender Differences: Perceived Partner Femininity and Self-Reported Sexism***

Before getting to the extent to which perceived partner femininity and self-reported sexism intersect with accuracy, I discuss basic gender differences. I expected women (vs. men) to self-report higher femininity and to be seen by their partners as more feminine. And indeed, regardless of the measure used to assess femininity (Bem vs. Bosson & Michniewicz), women self-reported greater personal femininity than did men,  $t_{1,2}(268.40) = 2.99$ ,  $p_{1,2} = .003$ ,  $d_{1,2} = -0.18$  and  $t_3(165.27) = 7.99$ ,  $p_3 < .001$ ,  $d_3 = -0.62$ , and female partners were consistently seen as more feminine than male partners,  $t_{1,2}(268.43) = 2.26$ ,  $p_{1,2} = .024$ ,  $d_{1,2} = 0.14$  and  $t_3(165.41) = 8.69$ ,  $p_3 < .001$ ,  $d_3 = 0.68$ . Note the effects sizes for the newer femininity scale are much larger.

I also expected men to report higher sexism than women. Men (vs. women) self-reported greater benevolent sexism,  $t_{1,2,3}(433.17) = 7.54$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = 0.36$ , and, to a somewhat lesser extent, greater hostile sexism,  $t_{1,2,3}(433.06) = 3.84$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ ,  $d_{1,2,3} = 0.18$ . These two forms of sexism were significantly related,  $r_{1,2,3}(868) = .54$ .

### ***Perceived Femininity of Partner and Inaccuracy***

I expected that appraising a partner as feminine would be associated with misjudgments in the direction of gender stereotypes about women, somewhat attenuated regarding male partners. Given strong stereotypes regarding the individual level work/family priority variables, I expected effects for partner femininity on these variables, but models pertaining to egalitarianism and the two dyad level work/family priorities were more exploratory. Full results are in Table 9.

**Egalitarianism and dyad level work/family variables.** Perceptions of partner femininity were not associated with inaccuracies regarding partners' desire for egalitarianism, forecasted dyadic domestic labour sharing, or dyadic career prioritization,  $ps > .140$ .

**Individual level variables.** The Bem version of perceived partner femininity marginally interacted with gender in the model regarding family-over-career willingness,  $b_{1,2} = 0.13$ ,  $t_{1,2}(509.10) = 1.85$ ,  $p_{1,2} = .065$ , with women's simple effect non-significant,  $t_{1,2} < 1$ . Conversely, men's family-over-career inaccuracies were associated with their perceptions of their partner's femininity,  $b_{1,2} = 0.20$ ,  $t_{1,2}(265.88) = 2.09$ ,  $p_{1,2} = .037$ : As expected, men who saw their partners as more feminine tended to overestimate her willingness to choose family over career,  $b_{1,2} = 0.25$ ,  $t_{1,2}(277.06) = 3.77$ ,  $p_{1,2} < .001$ , yet men who saw their female partners as less feminine were accurate in their assessment of her family orientation,  $t_{1,2} < 1$ . However, when the Bosson & Michniewicz version of the partner femininity scale was used, no effects emerged for family-over-career inaccuracy,  $p_{3s} > .140$ .

Perceived partner femininity (Bem version) also significantly predicted career intensity inaccuracies,  $b_{1,2} = 0.19$ ,  $t_{1,2}(460.53) = 2.80$ ,  $p_{1,2} = .005$ : those seeing their partner (regardless of gender) as more feminine curiously tended to overestimate the intensity of their partner's career,  $b_{1,2} = 0.16$ ,  $t_{1,2}(368.97) = 3.47$ ,  $p_{1,2} < .001$ , with accuracy emerging among those who see their partners as less feminine,  $t_{1,2} < 1$ . Once again, the Bosson & Michniewicz version of partner femininity was unrelated,  $t_{3s} < 1$ .

These analyses indicate that stereotypes of femininity may be in flux. First, the (ostensibly better calibrated) Bosson & Michniewicz femininity measure did not intersect with inaccuracies when appraising partners' family-over-career willingness nor career intensity. Second, when using the older Bem scale (wherein femininity is confounded with trait positivity), I see mixed alignment with female stereotypes. Most critically, men who saw their female partners as less feminine accurately appraised her priorities—but men who saw their partners as more feminine overestimated her family-over-career willingness *and* her career intensity.



### *Sexism and Inaccuracy*

I hypothesized that sexism would be associated with underestimating partners' desire for egalitarianism, as well as overestimating the stereotypicality of partners' domestic labour and career prioritization forecasts. Further, I expected that sexism would be associated with stereotypic misjudgments on the individual level variables (e.g., underestimating women's career intensity). I did not have specific hypotheses regarding the distinction between hostile and benevolent sexism. Full results are in Table 9.

Hostile sexism interacted with gender to predict desire for egalitarianism directed inaccuracy,  $b_{2,3} = -0.07$ ,  $t_{2,3}(381.55) = 2.37$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .018$ . Women's level of hostile sexism was marginally associated with their inaccuracy,  $b_{2,3} = 0.07$ ,  $t_{2,3}(224.66) = 1.78$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .076$ : Women lower in hostile sexism were accurate,  $t_{2,3} < 1$  but women higher in hostile sexism unexpectedly overestimated how much their partner desired egalitarianism in their romantic relationship,  $b_{2,3} = 0.20$ ,  $t_{2,3}(262.26) = 2.41$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .017$ . Men's hostile sexism was also marginally associated with egalitarianism error,  $b_{2,3} = -0.07$ ,  $t_{2,3}(225.54) = 1.82$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .070$ , with men's effects in line with hypotheses (reversed from women's): Men higher in hostile sexism tended to underestimate how much their partner desired egalitarianism,  $b_{2,3} = -0.33$ ,  $t_{2,3}(264.11) = 4.24$ ,  $p_{2,3} < .001$ , and men lower in hostile sexism were closer to accuracy,  $b_{2,3} = -0.14$ ,  $t_{2,3}(262.76) = 2.03$ ,  $p_{2,3} = .043$ . Benevolent sexism was unrelated to egalitarianism inaccuracies,  $t_{2,3s} < 1$ .

Regarding dyadic domestic labour distribution, a marginal interaction between benevolent sexism and gender emerged,  $b_3 = -0.02$ ,  $t_3(256.90) = 1.83$ ,  $p_3 = .068$ . Women's benevolent sexism was irrelevant,  $b_3 = 0.01$ ,  $t_3(173.16) = 1.04$ ,  $p_3 = .298$ , but men's marginally mattered,  $b_3 = -0.03$ ,  $t_3(174.01) = 1.83$ ,  $p_3 = .069$ . Higher benevolent sexism among men was associated with descriptively overestimating their female partner's desire for a stereotypic division of domestic labour,  $b_3 = -0.05$ ,  $t_3(219.22) = 1.62$ ,  $p_3 = .106$ . Men lower in benevolent sexism were accurate on this measure,  $t_3 < 1$ , and hostile sexism never intersected with domestic labour prediction error,  $t_{3s} < 1$ . Neither form of sexism was associated with inaccuracies regarding partners' career prioritization forecasts, family-over-career sacrifice willingness, or career intensity,  $ps > .112$ .

Taken together, sexism only glancingly intersected with misjudgments regarding partners' work/family priorities. However, two effects painted a consistent pattern. Men higher in sexism anticipated more traditional relationships: underestimating partners' desire for egalitarianism and overestimating how much domestic labour their partner plans to do.

**Table 9**

*Directed Inaccuracy by Appraisals of Partners' Femininity and Self-Reported Sexism*

Model	Parameter	Form of directed inaccuracy				
		Desire for egalitarianism	Dyadic domestic labour	Dyadic career prioritization	Family-over-career willingness	Career intensity
	Moderator in model	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> )
<b>Moderator</b>						
1	Appraised partner femininity (Bem)	0.08 (0.12)	— —	— —	0.07 (0.07)	0.19** (0.07)
2	Appraised partner femininity (B & M)	-0.02 (0.12)	0.02 (0.04)	-0.18 (0.14)	0.21 (0.13)	0.12 (0.13)
3	Benevolent sexism	0.02 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.04 (0.03)	0.00 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.02)
4	Hostile sexism	0.00 (0.03)	0.00 (0.01)	0.02 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.02)
<b>Gender x moderator</b>						
1	Appraised partner femininity (Bem)	0.06 (0.13)	— —	— —	0.13 <sup>†</sup> (0.07)	-0.04 (0.07)
2	Appraised partner femininity (B & M)	0.11 (0.12)	0.05 (0.04)	0.17 (0.13)	-0.14 (0.13)	0.01 (0.13)
3	Benevolent sexism	0.01 (0.03)	-0.02 <sup>†</sup> (0.01)	0.00 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)
4	Hostile sexism	-0.07* (0.03)	0.00 (0.01)	0.05 (0.04)	0.03 (0.02)	-0.02 (0.02)

*Note.* "B & M" indicates "Bosson and Michniewicz". Moderators were tested in separate models.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ . <sup>†</sup>  $p < .1$ .

**Relating Forms of Directed Inaccuracy**

I now turn to the relations between directed inaccuracies. I expected that insofar as inaccuracies emerged from a consistent (and perhaps inaccurate) mental representation of their

partner, erroneous perceptions would directionally align with one another. I discuss two key sets of hypotheses, but the remaining comparisons were more exploratory. I again used bivariate correlations, tested separately within men and women (see Table 10).

**Desire for egalitarianism and dyad level dynamics.** Overall, there was mixed support for my hypothesis that underestimating partners' desire for egalitarianism would be associated with overestimating the traditionalism of their partner's dyad-level forecasts. Desire for egalitarianism directed inaccuracy was not related to women's or men's inaccuracies regarding partners' domestic labour forecasts,  $p_{3s} > .114$ . However, the expected negative relationship emerged between desire for egalitarianism and career prioritization directed inaccuracies, for both women,  $r_3(166) = -.19$ ,  $p_3 = .012$ , and men,  $r_3(166) = -.22$ ,  $p_3 = .004$ . The two inaccuracies based on dyad level work/family priorities (domestic labour, career prioritization), were unrelated among women,  $r_3(166) = .09$ ,  $p_3 = .243$ , although, as expected, positively related among men,  $r_3(166) = .15$ ,  $p_3 = .054$ .

**Family-over-career willingness and career intensity.** Further, I expected an inverted relationship between family-over-career willingness and career intensity errors; if Ben overestimated Amy's family orientation, I expected him to underestimate her career intensity. However, given that women are more often expected to "do it all", I expected less of a relationship between errors made about female partners, and a stronger (negative) relationship regarding male partners. As hypothesized, overestimating partners' family-over-career willingness was associated with underestimating partners' career intensity, for both women,  $r_{1,2,3}(433) = -.17$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} < .001$ , and men,  $r_{1,2,3}(431) = -.10$ ,  $p_{1,2,3} = .040$ .

**Table 10***Correlations Between Forms of Directed Objective Inaccuracy by Gender*

	<b>Directed objective inaccuracy</b>				
	Desire for egalitarianism	Dyadic domestic labour	Dyadic career prioritization	Family-over-career willingness	Career intensity
<b>Directed objective inaccuracy</b>					
Desire for egalitarianism		-0.05	-0.22**	-0.07	0.08
Dyadic domestic labour	-0.12		0.15 <sup>†</sup>	0.20*	0.04
Dyadic career prioritization	-0.19*	0.09		0.21**	-0.05
Family-over-career willingness	0.17**	-0.08	-0.18*		-0.10*
Career intensity	-0.08	0.07	0.10	-0.17***	

*Note.* Women's results are below the diagonal, and men's results are above the diagonal.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ . <sup>†</sup>  $p < .1$ .

## **Chapter 7: Outcomes of Partners' Inaccuracy**

This chapter traces the downstream consequences—after one year, and then after two years—of inaccurately perceiving partners' goals. I hypothesized that interpersonal misjudgments within romantic relationships would lead to relationship dissolution, as well as worsening individual and relationship well-being. Further, I expected that *thinking* your partner is inaccurate would additionally bear forth negative consequences.

As my predictions regarding inaccuracy and downstream consequences were largely agnostic to the directionality of errors, this chapter focuses on undirected forms of inaccuracy. I use the undirected form of objective inaccuracy (for each of the five work/family priorities), and the undirected subjective appraisals of partners' inaccuracy (general & specific). These analyses use the longitudinal data from Study 3.

### **Similarity of Her and His Inaccuracy**

The mean-level gender differences across the forms of undirected inaccuracy were described in Chapter 5. Further, partners tended to be fairly aligned on inaccuracy (see Table 11); for example, if she struggled to discern his desire for egalitarianism, he tended to misjudge hers as well. Within-dyad correlations were somewhat lower for career intensity (marginally significant) and the specific form of appraised partner inaccuracy (non-significant).

**Table 11***Correlations Between Her and His Initial Inaccuracy*

Form of inaccuracy	Dyadic correlation <i>r</i>
<b>Undirected objective inaccuracy</b>	
Desire for egalitarianism	.53***
Dyadic domestic labour	.50***
Dyadic career prioritization	.35***
Family-over-career willingness	.32***
Career intensity	.15 <sup>†</sup>
<b>Undirected subjective inaccuracy</b>	
General appraisal of partners' inaccuracy	.31***
Specific appraisal of partners' inaccuracy	.12

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . <sup>†</sup>  $p < .1$ .

**Relationship Persistence**

I now turn to which couples were still together after 1 year and 2 years (following the initial in-person session). As relationship persistence (-1 = *broken up*; 1 = *still together*) is a level 2 variable, these models use one case per dyad. Importantly, women and men could complete the Time 2 and 3 surveys regardless of their partner's completion status, meaning that relationship persistence was often reported by only one dyad member. At Time 2, 22% of women reported a breakup, and 26% of men. At Time 3, 36% of women reported a breakup, and 29% of women. If either dyad member reported breaking up, their dyad was recorded as dissolved. I averaged together her inaccuracy score with his inaccuracy score (for each of the seven measures of inaccuracy), creating seven level 2 predictor metrics of the inaccuracy of the couple (see Table 11 for relations between his and her inaccuracy). Models are basic OLS regression.

I predicted that inaccuracy regarding partners would be associated with relationship dissolution. However, the overall pattern of evidence suggests it is unlikely that partners' objective inaccuracy is related to relationship dissolution, with mixed positive and negative effects (although none were statistically significant) between the dyad's initial inaccuracy and later relationship status. Conversely, of the models using initial subjective appraisals of partners'

inaccuracy, all four formed a consistent negative pattern: The more men and women thought their partner was inaccurate at Time 1, the less likely they were to be together later (particularly, by Time 3). Specifically, initial appraisals of partners' general inaccuracy were associated with a significantly lower chance of still being together at Time 3,  $b_3 = -0.30$ ,  $t_3(104) = 2.31$ ,  $p_3 = .023$ , with a parallel (but marginal) effect regarding partners' goal-specific inaccuracy,  $b_3 = -0.26$ ,  $t_3(104) = 1.70$ ,  $p_3 = .092$ .

**Table 12**

*Dyad-Level Inaccuracy and Later Relationship Status*

	<b>Together at time 2</b>	<b>Together at time 3</b>
Average undirected inaccuracy within dyad	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> ) <sup><i>p</i></sup>	<i>b</i> ( <i>SE</i> ) <sup><i>p</i></sup>
<b>Objective inaccuracy (L2)</b>		
Desire for egalitarianism	-0.08(0.11)	-0.07(0.13)
Dyadic domestic labour	-0.20(0.51)	-0.87(0.59)
Dyadic career prioritization	0.08(0.16)	0.37(0.20) <sup>†</sup>
Family-over-career willingness	0.11(0.19)	0.13(0.21)
Career intensity	-0.22(0.22)	0.06(0.28)
<b>Subjective inaccuracy (L2)</b>		
General appraisals of partners' inaccuracy	-0.15(0.11)	-0.30(0.13) <sup>*</sup>
Specific appraisals of partners' inaccuracy	-0.04(0.12)	-0.26(0.15) <sup>†</sup>

\*  $p < .05$ . †  $p < .1$ .

**Individual and Relationship Well-Being**

I hypothesized that having a partner who is unable to accurately determine your goals would lead to lower mental health and relationship well-being over time. Further, I hypothesized that the effects of *perceived* inaccuracy might be stronger than those for *actual* inaccuracy: In other words, insofar as Amy thinks Ben cannot detect her work/family priorities she will become less happy and satisfied with their relationship over time.

The following models regress Time 2 and Time 3 outcomes onto each Time 1 measure of partners' (objective or subjective) inaccuracy. There are only "partner effects" in these models, without any "actor effects" (Cook & Kenny, 2005), as I did not have hypotheses regarding how

personal inaccuracies would affect one's own mental health or relationship well-being. Each model covaries for Time 1 baseline measurements (of individual and relationship well-being). Only intact couples are analyzed, to measure changes within the same relationship over time. See Table 13 for key results, and Appendix F for supplementary models examining partners' objective directed inaccuracy. Given the large number of models, I focus on consistent patterns of significant and marginal effects.

### ***Partners' Objective Inaccuracy***

Overall, most main effects of partner inaccuracy (95% of all significant or marginal main effects) were in the expected direction: a negative association between initial partner inaccuracy and later individual and relationship well-being. This supports my hypothesis that partners' inaccuracies lead to worse outcomes. The instances of gender moderation painted a slightly more nuanced picture of how partners' inaccuracies differentially affect women versus men. Male partners' inaccuracies regarding women's family-over-career willingness had particularly negative effects, as did female partners' inaccuracies regarding men's career intensity.

**Partners' desire for egalitarianism inaccuracy.** Overall, partners' inaccuracy regarding one's own desire for egalitarianism was consistently associated with worse outcomes for the self. The main effects of partners' inaccuracy were all negative, and three were either statistically significant or marginal; see effects for the relationship composite (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.09$ ,  $t_3(126.25) = 1.82$ ,  $p_3 = .072$ , dyadic adjustment (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.07$ ,  $t_3(120.08) = 1.84$ ,  $p_3 = .069$ , and relationship satisfaction (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.09$ ,  $t_3(92.97) = 2.11$ ,  $p_3 = .037$ .

Turning to variation by gender, two instances of moderation emerged, but they were in opposite directions. The effect of partner's desire for egalitarianism inaccuracy varied by gender for inclusion of other in self (Time 2),  $b_3 = 0.16$ ,  $t_3(85.18) = 2.27$ ,  $p_3 = .026$ , and perceived likelihood of persistence (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.11$ ,  $t_3(49.96) = 1.77$ ,  $p_3 = .082$ . For women, having an inaccurate partner was associated with worse inclusion of other in self (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.19$ ,  $t_3(86.93) = 1.70$ ,  $p_3 = .092$ , but predicted likelihood of relationship persistence (Time 3) was not affected,  $t_3 < 1$ . Conversely, for men, having an inaccurate partner didn't affect inclusion of other



in self (Time 2),  $b_3 = 0.13$ ,  $t_3(65.35) = 1.21$ ,  $p_3 = .230$ , but perceived likelihood of relationship persistence was negatively related (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.21$ ,  $t_3(49.22) = 1.85$ ,  $p_3 = .071$ .

**Partners' dyadic domestic labour inaccuracy.** Again, partners' inaccuracy (here, based on one's forecasted dyadic domestic labour) was consistently associated with worse outcomes. All main effects (except one) were negative, and the following were significant or marginal: predicted likelihood of relationship persistence (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.71$ ,  $t_3(119.88) = 1.95$ ,  $p_3 = .053$ , mental health (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.81$ ,  $t_3(76.64) = 1.88$ ,  $p_3 = .064$ , the relationship scales composite (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.96$ ,  $t_3(79.31) = 2.03$ ,  $p_3 = .045$ , and inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = -1.84$ ,  $t_3(81.24) = 2.00$ ,  $p_3 = .049$ . Of note regarding this form of partners' inaccuracy is that meaningful effects tended to emerge in Time 3—perhaps indicating that dyadic domestic labour inaccuracy takes longer to affect individual or relationship outcomes. Further, the effect of partners' inaccuracy (on this measure) never varied by gender,  $p_3s > .150$ .

**Partners' dyadic career prioritization inaccuracy.** In terms of main effects, there was weak evidence of partners' dyadic career prioritization inaccuracy affecting one's later outcomes, with a single marginal effect—for the relationship scales composite (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.14$ ,  $t_3(138.92) = 1.80$ ,  $p_3 = .074$ . Of the remaining non-significant main effects, some were positive and some were negative, perhaps reflecting that partners' inaccuracy on this measure has idiosyncratic effects on one's own experiences.

There were four instances of gender moderation for this form of partners' inaccuracy, and all were in a consistent direction: Female partners' inaccuracy had more of an effect (on men's outcomes) than the male partners' inaccuracy (had on women's outcomes). There were significant or marginal interaction terms in the models pertaining to dyadic adjustment (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.14$ ,  $t_3(127.93) = 2.31$ ,  $p_3 = .023$  and dyadic adjustment (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.15$ ,  $t_3(67.70) = 2.36$ ,  $p_3 = .021$ , the relationship composite (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.23$ ,  $t_3(91.53) = 2.36$ ,  $p_3 = .021$ , and inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.48$ ,  $t_3(77.95) = 2.39$ ,  $p_3 = .019$ .

For men, the simple effect of partners' inaccuracy was consistently negative, although only two were marginal or significant; men's simple effects for dyadic adjustment (Time 2),  $b_3 =$

-0.16,  $t_3(63.33) = 1.88$ ,  $p_3 = .064$ , and the relationship scales composite (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.38$ ,  $t_3(46.27) = 2.57$ ,  $p_3 = .013$ . For women, having a partner who cannot accurately discern her forecasted domestic labour distribution may be associated with somewhat improved outcomes, as seen with inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.80$ ,  $t_3(42.98) = 2.65$ ,  $p_3 = .011$ , and dyadic adjustment (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.15$ ,  $t_3(49.02) = 1.75$ ,  $p_3 = .086$ . However, for the other two investigated simple effects for women, there was no relationship between partners' inaccuracy and her later outcomes,  $p_{3s} > .183$ .

**Partners' family-over-career willingness inaccuracy.** Once again, every main effect of partners' inaccuracy (here, pertaining to one's own family-over-career willingness) indicated negative downstream consequences. These negative main effects were significant or marginal: relationship satisfaction (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.11$ ,  $t_3(152.07) = 1.78$ ,  $p_3 = .076$ , inclusion of other in self (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.36$ ,  $t_3(141.51) = 2.14$ ,  $p_3 = .034$  and inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.49$ ,  $t_3(70.09) = 2.01$ ,  $p_3 = .049$ .

Further, almost all interaction terms (and all terms wherein  $ts > 1$ ) indicated a consistent pattern of gender effects, although only three were marginal or significant: predicted relationship persistence (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.23$ ,  $t_3(65.99) = 1.81$ ,  $p_3 = .075$ , relationship satisfaction (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.19$ ,  $t_3(60.59) = 2.74$ ,  $p_3 = .008$ , and the relationship scales composite (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.24$ ,  $t_3(71.85) = 2.15$ ,  $p_3 = .035$ . For women, their (male) partner's inaccuracy negatively affected their relationship well-being at Time 3, per women's later predictions of relationship persistence (trending),  $b_3 = -0.29$ ,  $t_3(53.85) = 1.67$ ,  $p_3 = .101$ , relationship satisfaction,  $b_3 = -0.26$ ,  $t_3(53.12) = 2.39$ ,  $p_3 = .020$ , and relationship scales composite,  $b_3 = -0.28$ ,  $t_3(50.07) = 1.70$ ,  $p_3 = .095$ . But for men, their partner's inaccuracy had no effect,  $p_{3s} > .249$ .

**Partners' career intensity inaccuracy.** There was little evidence of partners' career intensity inaccuracy affecting later outcomes, with only one mention-worthy main effect—the relation between partners' inaccuracy and one's own mental health (Time 2) was in the predicted negative direction,  $b_3 = -0.16$ ,  $t_3(120.81) = 1.67$ ,  $p_3 = .098$ .

That said, the effect of partners' career intensity inaccuracy was moderated by gender twice (and all interaction terms with  $t_s > 1$  were in a consistent direction). Gender moderated partners' career intensity inaccuracy in the models regarding one's own predicted likelihood of relationship persistence (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.23$ ,  $t_3(127.75) = 1.95$ ,  $p_3 = .054$ , and inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.57$ ,  $t_3(84.48) = 2.05$ ,  $p_3 = .044$ . In both cases, male partners' inaccuracy did not affect women's outcomes,  $t_{3s} < 1$ . Yet there was mild evidence that female partners' misjudgments regarding men's career intensity negatively affected men's relationship well-being; see his reports regarding their relationship's persistence (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.36$ ,  $t_3(67.87) = 1.88$ ,  $p_3 = .064$ , and inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.73$ ,  $t_3(42.70) = 1.97$ ,  $p_3 = .055$ .

### ***Subjective Appraisals of Partners' Inaccuracy***

As expected, perceiving one's partner as inaccurate was associated with worse individual and relationship outcomes—although this was especially true regarding perceiving one's partner as being generally inaccurate (vs. specifically inaccurate regarding the surveyed work/family priorities). Women's outcomes (vs. men's) were particularly affected when they saw their partner as generally inaccurate. Findings for the specific (vs. general) appraisal of partner inaccuracy indicate the need for further study.

**General inaccuracy.** There was highly consistent evidence that initially perceiving one's partner as generally inaccurate (e.g., unable to perspective-take) was associated with poorer individual and relationship outcomes at Time 2 and Time 3. Every main effect of partners' general inaccuracy was negative, with eight out of twelve significant or marginal: see models of relationship satisfaction at Time 2,  $b_3 = -0.11$ ,  $t_3(151.02) = 2.66$ ,  $p_3 = .009$  and Time 3,  $b_3 = -0.16$ ,  $t_3(95.51) = 2.94$ ,  $p_3 = .004$ , the relationship scales composite (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.15$ ,  $t_3(133.34) = 2.30$ ,  $p_3 = .023$ , inclusion of other in self (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.19$ ,  $t_3(140.52) = 1.76$ ,  $p_3 = .081$ , dyadic adjustment (Time 2),  $b_3 = -0.21$ ,  $t_3(136.43) = 3.71$ ,  $p_3 < .001$ , mental health (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.15$ ,  $t_3(95.48) = 1.78$ ,  $p_3 = .078$ , and predicted relationship persistence (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.23$ ,  $t_3(103.70) = 2.35$ ,  $p_3 = .021$ .

Turning to gender moderation, the relationship scales composite (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.22$ ,  $t_3(93.44) = 2.77$ ,  $p_3 = .007$ , and inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.32$ ,  $t_3(74.28) = 1.87$ ,  $p_3 = .065$ , models had notable interaction terms (and they were in the same direction). Women who saw their partners as less accurate (in general) tended to have worse outcomes: per the relationship scales composite (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.33$ ,  $t_3(55.74) = 2.59$ ,  $p_3 = .012$ , and inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = -0.53$ ,  $t_3(43.12) = 1.88$ ,  $p_3 = .066$ . But men's outcomes were not related to their appraisals of their partner's general inaccuracy,  $t_3s < 1$ .

**Specific inaccuracy.** This inaccuracy indicator was unusual in that appraisals of partners' specific inaccuracy (regarding the surveyed work/family priorities) had a mixed relationship with later outcomes. Appraising one's partner as specifically inaccurate was associated with worse mental health at Time 2 (marginally),  $b_3 = -0.09$ ,  $t_3(110.18) = 1.81$ ,  $p_3 = .073$ , and worse relationship satisfaction at Time 3,  $b_3 = -0.11$ ,  $t_3(65.74) = 2.30$ ,  $p_3 = .025$ . However, there was a significant positive relationship with inclusion of other in self (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.31$ ,  $t_3(81.65) = 2.00$ ,  $p_3 = .049$ , and the remaining non-significant main effects were both positive and negative. This assortment of findings is reminiscent of those for dyadic career prioritization inaccuracy—perhaps indicating that seeing one's partner as specifically inaccurate within the bounds of the study has idiosyncratic associations with later outcomes.

There was a single noteworthy interaction term, for the relationship scales composite (Time 3),  $b_3 = 0.14$ ,  $t_3(94.57) = 1.87$ ,  $p_3 = .064$ . Women's subjective appraisals of their partner's specific inaccuracy were irrelevant,  $t_3 < 1$ , but men who saw their partners as inaccurate (regarding their specific work/family priorities) later reported better relationship health, per the relationship scales composite,  $b_3 = 0.23$ ,  $t_3(48.00) = 2.00$ ,  $p_3 = .051$ . This reversal of the expected negative effect again affirms that appraisals of partners' specific inaccuracy require more study.

**Table 13**

*Partners' Inaccuracy and One's Own Individual and Relationship Well-being*

	Mental health		Likelihood of rel. persist.		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship composite		Inclusion of other in self		Dyadic adjustment	
	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3
	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>
<b>Undirected objective inaccuracy of partner</b>												
<b>Desire for egalitarianism</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.02 (0.06)	-0.03 (0.05)	-0.10 (0.07)	-0.05 (0.03)	-0.09* (0.04)	-0.09† (0.05)	-0.01 (0.06)	-0.03 (0.08)	-0.04 (0.12)	-0.07† (0.04)	0.00 (0.04)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.01 (0.04)	-0.06 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.05)	-0.11† (0.06)	-0.01 (0.03)	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.04 (0.05)	0.16* (0.07)	0.03 (0.11)	0.00 (0.04)	-0.05 (0.04)
<b>Dyadic domestic labour</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.15 (0.31)	-0.81† (0.43)	-0.71† (0.36)	-0.25 (0.59)	-0.21 (0.22)	0.28 (0.31)	-0.03 (0.34)	-0.96* (0.47)	-0.62 (0.63)	-1.84* (0.92)	-0.34 (0.28)	-0.27 (0.32)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	-0.16 (0.27)	-0.63 (0.42)	-0.42 (0.34)	-0.17 (0.55)	-0.17 (0.20)	0.33 (0.28)	0.32 (0.30)	-0.51 (0.44)	-0.74 (0.56)	-0.69 (0.87)	-0.36 (0.27)	-0.42 (0.29)
<b>Dyadic career prioritization</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.03 (0.07)	-0.06 (0.10)	0.00 (0.09)	0.16 (0.12)	-0.02 (0.05)	0.09 (0.07)	-0.14† (0.08)	-0.15 (0.10)	-0.20 (0.14)	0.31 (0.21)	-0.02 (0.06)	0.00 (0.07)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.01 (0.07)	-0.04 (0.10)	0.00 (0.08)	-0.13 (0.11)	0.06 (0.05)	-0.04 (0.07)	0.03 (0.07)	-0.23* (0.10)	0.02 (0.13)	-0.48* (0.20)	-0.14* (0.06)	-0.15* (0.06)
<b>Family-over-career willingness</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.02 (0.09)	0.00 (0.12)	-0.15 (0.10)	-0.05 (0.14)	-0.11† (0.06)	-0.07 (0.08)	-0.11 (0.09)	-0.04 (0.12)	-0.36* (0.17)	-0.49* (0.25)	-0.09 (0.08)	-0.14 (0.09)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	-0.02 (0.08)	-0.07 (0.11)	0.13 (0.10)	0.23† (0.13)	0.07 (0.06)	0.19** (0.07)	0.12 (0.08)	0.24* (0.11)	-0.03 (0.15)	0.34 (0.24)	-0.04 (0.07)	0.01 (0.07)
<b>Career intensity</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.16† (0.09)	0.09 (0.13)	-0.13 (0.12)	0.14 (0.16)	0.00 (0.07)	0.12 (0.09)	-0.05 (0.10)	-0.06 (0.14)	-0.12 (0.18)	-0.16 (0.28)	-0.06 (0.09)	0.03 (0.09)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	-0.14 (0.10)	0.02 (0.13)	-0.23† (0.12)	-0.22 (0.16)	-0.02 (0.07)	-0.09 (0.10)	-0.01 (0.10)	-0.17 (0.14)	0.16 (0.19)	-0.57* (0.28)	-0.02 (0.09)	0.03 (0.09)

	Mental health		Likelihood of rel. persist.		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship composite		Inclusion of other in self		Dyadic adjustment	
	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3
	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>
<b>Undirected subjective appraisals of partners' inaccuracy</b>												
<b>General appraisal</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.07 (0.06)	-0.15 <sup>†</sup> (0.08)	-0.08 (0.07)	-0.23* (0.10)	-0.11** (0.04)	-0.16** (0.06)	-0.15* (0.07)	-0.11 (0.09)	-0.19 <sup>†</sup> (0.11)	-0.21 (0.18)	-0.21*** (0.06)	-0.06 (0.06)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.06 (0.05)	-0.04 (0.08)	0.02 (0.06)	0.07 (0.09)	0.03 (0.04)	0.01 (0.05)	0.07 (0.05)	0.22** (0.08)	-0.10 (0.10)	0.32 <sup>†</sup> (0.17)	0.02 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.05)
<b>Specific appraisal</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.09 <sup>†</sup> (0.05)	-0.02 (0.07)	0.03 (0.06)	-0.01 (0.09)	-0.04 (0.04)	-0.11* (0.05)	-0.06 (0.06)	0.10 (0.08)	0.12 (0.10)	0.31* (0.15)	-0.04 (0.05)	-0.04 (0.05)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.05 (0.05)	-0.06 (0.07)	-0.03 (0.06)	-0.01 (0.09)	0.01 (0.04)	0.00 (0.05)	0.00 (0.05)	0.14 <sup>†</sup> (0.07)	-0.08 (0.10)	0.14 (0.15)	0.00 (0.05)	0.07 (0.05)

Note. "Likelihood of rel. persist." indicates "predicted likelihood of relationship persisting".

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ . <sup>†</sup>  $p < .1$ .

## Chapter 8: General Discussion

My program of research was motivated by the need to understand how young adult women and men in romantic relationships prioritize work and family goals—as well as the consequences of inaccurately perceiving partners’ goals. I mega-analytically analyzed the work and family goals of 435 male-female romantic couples, culminating in models tracing partners’ inaccuracies (and perceptions of their inaccuracies) to relationship outcomes two years later.

Women (vs. men) were more interested in an egalitarian relationship yet expected a more gender traditional lived reality (with her doing more domestic labour and his career prioritized over hers). As I hypothesized, there was consistent evidence of gender role typing regarding family-over-career sacrifice willingness and career intensity, with women (vs. men) channeled toward family pursuits and men (vs. women) toward careers. Turning to directional inaccuracies when appraising partners’ goals, men tended to underestimate their female partner’s desire for egalitarianism. Men also overestimated their female partners’ willingness to put family goals ahead of career goals, yet simultaneously overestimated partners’ career intensity. Conversely, women had fairly low expectations of their male partners, underestimating both their prioritization of family goals and career intensity.

Contrary to my predictions, women and men were overall equivalently accurate when appraising partners’ goals, although as predicted, women were *seen* as more able to accurately determine their partner’s work and family priorities. Objective inaccuracy in perceiving each other’s goals was not directly related to breakup, but having a partner who was unable to accurately determine one’s work and family goals was modestly linked to lower relationship well-being (in one to two years). Several negative outcomes—including relationship dissolution—were most likely among those who thought their partner was low in general accuracy ability.

### Women Hope for Egalitarianism Yet Expect Traditionalism

“Hoping for the best, prepared for the worst, and unsurprised by anything in between.”

— Maya Angelou, *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings*

Women reported strongly desiring egalitarianism in their romantic relationship. Despite this preference, when forecasting their future relationship dynamic, women *expected* gender traditionalism, namely, that they would be doing most of the domestic labour and that their male partner's career would be prioritized. Although a negative relationship emerged between women's desire for egalitarianism and the stereotypicality of their forecasted dynamic, these correlations were small. Why this discrepancy between women's desires and what they realistically expect of the future?

One mechanism may be that women were able to accurately discern their partner's (lower) desire for egalitarianism: on average, men were slightly less interested in egalitarianism. Insofar as women recognized that their male partners were less likely to pursue egalitarianism in their romantic relationship, perhaps women assumed their aspirations would fall apart once the realities of the future bore down upon them. Another related mechanism is suggested via men underestimating how much their female partners want an egalitarian relationship—instead assuming their female partner matched their own lower level of desire (per high levels of assumed similarity). Further, women (and men) were at least somewhat aware of whether partners misjudged their desire for egalitarianism (as evidenced by partners' objective inaccuracy regarding one's own desire for egalitarianism correlating positively with subjective inaccuracy appraisals). It may be that although women wanted egalitarianism, they *knew* their male partners were unaware of their desires and therefore adjusted their expectations toward having a more gender traditional dynamic with him.

What happens when individuals begin to seriously doubt the likelihood of living a (desired) egalitarian romantic relationship? Women, more and more, are defaulting to single life (Statistics Canada, 2016). Men, perhaps ironically, lean into gender traditionalism—when egalitarianism fails in their relationship, men assume that their careers will be prioritized over their female partner's (Gerson, 2011), just as women expect men to do.



## Expecting Women to “Lean In” Yet Men to “Lean Out”

“While women have spent the past few decades being encouraged to reach for the masculine ideal of success, being told they can become anything their hearts desire in the professional realm, they have not been relieved of any of the emotional labor that waits for them when they return home.”

— Gemma Hartley, *Fed Up*

Turning to directional inaccuracies when appraising partners’ individual pursuits (family-over-career willingness and career intensity), I documented opposing patterns across these two measures of work/family priorities. Namely, errors regarding family-over-career willingness sacrifices aligned with gender stereotypes (men overestimated women’s willingness to put family ahead of career goals, and women underestimated men’s willingness to do the same). Yet errors regarding career intensity ran counter to gender stereotypes: Men expected their female partners to have more intense careers (vs. women’s self-reports) and women expected their male partners to have *less* intense careers (vs. men’s self-reports).

Taken together, men seemed to place their female partners on a pedestal, overestimating her likelihood of “leaning in” by achieving a high-intensity career (Sandberg, 2013) yet also prioritizing family goals. This was especially true among men who saw their female partners as especially feminine (per the Bem Sex Roles Inventory; Bem, 1981). However, as scholars have noted (Slaughter, 2012), such expectations collide with inherent trade-offs between deprioritizing workplace commitments (in service of family needs) yet achieving a high-powered career. It is unclear exactly *how* these men expect their female partners to juggle all these competing demands—but it is plausible that beyond just thinking that “women are wonderful” (a perception shrinking in egalitarian societies; Krys et al., 2018), men are accurate in that women often *do* simultaneously juggle family and career goals. These findings further intersect with work showing that although men’s earnings are inversely related to their contributions at home, even when women (rarely) outearn their male partners they still contribute the majority of domestic labour (Bittman et al., 2003). In other words, although men’s time might be seen as finite, women’s time is perhaps viewed as an ever-expanding resource that fulfills the demands placed

upon her. It also seems plausible that women are, on some level, aware of their partner's misjudgments; women's appraisals of their partner's generalized perspective-taking ability were associated with his actual ability to determine her family-over-career sacrifice willingness and career intensity.

Conversely, women had fairly low expectations of their male partners on these work/family dimensions, underestimating his prioritization of family goals (vs. career goals) yet no (plausibly commensurate) overestimation as to his career intensity. Women may be anticipating that men's time is more often consumed by a "third category" comprising activities outside domestic work and paid labour, known as the gender leisure gap: Men have more leisure time than women and often engage in leisure activities rather than pitching in while women perform additional unpaid domestic labour (Bianchi et al., 2006; Dush et al., 2018). This time gap only increases over the length of a relationship, with a large decrease in men's domestic contributions (with a particularly precipitous drop after the "honeymoon phase") regardless of either partners' changing work hours or income (Grunow et al., 2012). Further, men seemed generally unaware of their partner's (low) expectations of them: Men's perceptions of their partner's perspective-taking ability were not consistently related to women's objective inaccuracy on these two individual-level work/family measures. Are women not communicating their low expectations of their male partners, or are men unable to see the signals put forth by their female partners? As noted previously, disentangling expressive accuracy from perceptive accuracy (Biesanz, 2010) is not possible within dyadic studies, but future work could use an extended design (e.g., round robin) to examine these research questions.

### **The Death Knell: Thinking Your Partner Doesn't Understand You**

"They ended as all great passions do end—by a misunderstanding."

—Honoré de Balzac, *A Passion in the Desert*

Overall, there was a lack of support for my hypothesis that women would be more accurate than men—and women and men self-reported comparable accuracy (per the general and specific subjective measures). Yet turning to subjective appraisals of *partners'* accuracy, we do

see gender differences: Men were appraised as having stronger generalized interpersonal accuracy (the general measure) and women were appraised as more accurately determining their partner's work/family priorities (the specific measure).

Overall, the most consistent predictor of poor individual and relationship outcomes was seeing one's partner as having low generalized interpersonal accuracy (e.g., "Ben usually does not understand the full meaning of what I am saying to him"). Partners who saw each other as low in general accuracy ability were significantly more likely to break up—with associated worse mental health and relationship well-being. These effects are especially remarkable when considered in the context of all the other intrapersonal and interpersonal pressures pushing upon these relationships over the intervening two years. As seen in prior work (Reis & Gable, 2015; Reis & Shaver, 1988), thinking your partner misperceives you is truly a critical predictor of your long-term outcomes.

### ***Why Is General Inaccuracy Worse Than Specific Inaccuracy?***

General appraisals of partners' inaccuracy carried greater explanatory power than specific appraisals (i.e., meta-cognitive predictions of how well my partner appraised my work/family priorities within the context of the study). Importantly, although initial appraisals of partners' *specific* inaccuracy were aligned in the expected direction with later relationship dissolution—there were mixed findings regarding individual and relationship well-being outcomes.

One mechanism for this discrepancy between general and specific appraisals of partners' inaccuracy is hinted at by the relations between objective and subjective inaccuracy. Namely, of the ten models comparing partners' general appraised inaccuracy and objective inaccuracy, nine were in the hypothesized direction (of which four were statistically significant). In other words, partners appraised as generally good at perspective-taking truly were more accurate: Partners' objective accuracy was "detectable" via the general appraisal of their ability to perspective-take.

Conversely, of the ten models comparing appraisals of partners' specific inaccuracy (regarding one's own work and family goals), only five were in the hypothesized direction. Relations between objective inaccuracy and specific inaccuracy appraisals get even more thorny

when examining each gender separately: Women were (fairly) consistently able to detect their male partners' objective inaccuracy, yet there was weak potential evidence of *reversal* for men's detection of their female partners' objective inaccuracy. Although all these correlations are small (and rarely approach statistical significance), they suggest that the general measure of partners' inaccuracy is a truer indicator of any actual goal-sharing that may be taking place. This pattern is especially surprising given that the specific measure of partners' inaccuracy was more topically relevant, explicitly asking about accuracy regarding the work/family priorities probed within the study (and used to calculate objective measures of inaccuracy).

What then do specific appraisals of partners' inaccuracy represent? Further research is needed to disentangle how participants responded to this measure. It may be that better meta-perceptual measures are needed to guide participants toward accurately appraising their partner's various forms of accuracy. Alternately, perhaps the specific measure of inaccuracy functioned more as a concrete "state" measure capturing the dyad's specific relationship dynamic that day, and that the general measure of perspective-taking inaccuracy was more of an abstract "trait" measure (pertaining to their dynamic more broadly). As such, future research could track these various forms of appraised accuracy across different interpersonal situations and goal domains.

### ***Why Is Subjectively Appraised Inaccuracy Worse Than Objective Inaccuracy?***

Surprisingly, partners' objective inaccuracy regarding each other's goals did not predict later relationship dissolution. However, evidence emerged that partners' objective inaccuracy may carry costs for one's own individual and relationship well-being one and (especially) two years later. In comparing the explanatory power of objective inaccuracy and subjective general inaccuracy on later individual and relationship outcomes, two key patterns emerged.

First, the generalized subjective inaccuracy measure carries greater explanatory power overall, with seven out of 12 (58%) main effects marginally or statistically significant and in the predicted negative direction (note also that *all* main effects were in the predicted direction). Objective inaccuracy instead had 11 of 60 (18%) main effects marginally or significantly in the predicted negative direction. This set of findings casts doubt on the hypothesized direct effects of

partners' goal support on relationship outcomes (Fitzsimons et al., 2015), indicating that perhaps *perceiving* is much more important than *receiving* accurate appraisals, insofar as accuracy translates into goal support. Indeed, drawing on the social support literature, we see that perceived and received support are distinct but interrelated constructs (per meta-analysis: modestly correlated,  $r = .23$ ) and that perceptions of social support more often correlate with health benefits (Haber et al., 2007). This pattern mirrors findings in network science that perceived social integration predicts health and well-being better than actual social integration (Leschak & Eisenberger, 2019). Models of responsiveness point to a potential mechanism: *perceptions* of partners' goal-supportive behaviours are the most proximal antecedent of relationship well-being (Reis & Gable, 2015)—suggesting that being accurate may only be helpful insofar as it is accurately perceived. For goal detection accuracy, perceptions may matter more than reality.

Second, I found more instances of gender moderation of partners' objective inaccuracy than subjective inaccuracy. In other words, men's and women's objective inaccuracies have different effects on their relationship partners (with the effects of partners' subjective inaccuracy varying little across genders). For example, men's inaccuracy regarding family-over-career willingness and women's inaccuracy regarding career intensity were particularly correlated with negative outcomes for their respective partners. Future work should disentangle why some forms of objective inaccuracy are more impactful than others.

### **Relating Similarity and Accuracy**

Overall, women and men in romantic couples tended to be similar in terms of their work/family priorities, generally agreeing on the extent to which they wanted an egalitarian relationship, how they would divide domestic chores, whose career would be prioritized, and reporting similar individual levels of prioritizing family goals (vs. career goals) and career intensities (see Chapter 3). This level of within-dyad similarity was unsurprising, given broad evidence of similarity or “matching” leading to attraction (Byrne, 1997) within successful romantic partnerships (Acitelli et al., 2001; Kalmijn, 1998; Mare, 1991).

Although the key focus of this dissertation is on the extent to which we can accurately determine our romantic partner's work/family priorities, assumptions of similarity can be an inadvertent antecedent of interpersonal accuracy. First, if you are similar to your partner and default to your own response when appraising them (i.e., assume similarity), your response will be accurate. Considering Amy and Ben: if Amy is unsure of what Ben really thinks, she may default to her own response when appraising him. Insofar as Amy and Ben are similar, Amy's response will be accurate. And indeed, women and men in my sample consistently assumed their partner had similar work/family priorities to themselves, all  $ps < .001$  (see Chapter 3).

### ***The Truth and Bias Model***

One methodological avenue to disentangle assumed similarity from accuracy is the truth and bias model (West & Kenny, 2011), which separately tests for the influence of the truth (i.e., your partner's self-report) and the influence of bias (i.e., your own self-report) when examining appraisals of partners. However, the truth and bias model tests for the influences of these two forces simultaneously, rather than as a stepwise or mediational mechanism. Additional work could examine the extent to which assumed similarity of goals is a meta-cognitive antecedent to accurately perceiving and supporting each other's goals.

Despite the advantages of accounting for assumed similarity, the questions answerable within that methodological system are distinct from those addressed via the "difference score" method used in this dissertation. Specifically, the metric of accuracy under the truth and bias model is akin to a sample-level correlation: the "slope" of a bivariate relationship created by comparing appraisals of partners to those partners' self-reports (while accounting for assumed similarity). As such, it provides no individual-level or dyad-level metric of accuracy to be extracted and used as a predictor in subsequent models (e.g., to predict relationship dissolution). The closest parallel to the inaccuracy metric used in this dissertation is the intercept term from the truth and bias model, which represents the mean-level difference between all reports about partners and all reports about the self—approximately equal to the *average* of all directed inaccuracies. See Appendix C for further examination of the truth and bias model.

## **Gender and Violated Expectations**

Many other features of relationships may be influenced by partners inaccurately gauging each other's work and family goals. Future work could examine how women's and men's misjudgments regarding their romantic partners set up differing reactions when those inaccurate expectations are inevitably violated. Men may become aware that their expectations are not in line with reality once his female partner does not fulfill his (enormous!) expectations regarding simultaneously prioritizing family over career yet having an intense work life. Conversely, the expectancy violation for women regarding their male partners might be a pleasant surprise of exceeded expectations. (Of course, expectations may be violated in the other direction—the partner overshooting even very high expectations or undershooting very low expectations—but not only are such possibilities logically less likely to occur, but I am also working from the position that self-reports are generally true to life).

High expectations for female partners may place women in a precarious position. Perhaps most vividly, these results align with data regarding caregiving after severe medical illness, such as cancer: A wife's illness is significantly more associated with likelihood of divorce than a husband's illness (Carlsen et al., 2007; Glantz et al., 2009; Karraker & Latham, 2015). Could this gender gap partially arise because of differing expectations? Insofar as men expect women to put into the relationship (emotionally, financially) even more than women are willing to give, women's chronic illness represents a critical juncture at which men's expectations are severely violated (as she is unable to contribute to the family or bring in income). This discrepancy may be further exacerbated if women's expectations regarding their husband's caregiving increase because of her illness, placing him into a role that perhaps chafes his identity or lifestyle. Conversely, as women tend to underestimate men's reported willingness to complete domestic work (and women are more accustomed to caregiving), his chronic illness may represent less of an expectancy violation.

Conversely, low expectations set for male partners may afford some perks for men, especially fathers. For example, when mothers and fathers perform the same parenting activity with their children, fathers are judged more positively than mothers (Coe, 2013; Kobrynowicz &

Biernat, 1997). Perhaps as men are expected to be less engaged in parenting, they are “given more credit” and have their parenting skills validated, even when meeting or exceeding relatively low expectations. Although perhaps condescending at times, these double standards likely rise from a desire to encourage men’s entry into the domestic sphere—or buffer men against their fears of having their masculinity challenged by other men (Vandello & Bosson, 2013). Further, some feminist scholars somewhat cynically note the role of “weaponized incompetence”: poorly performing a domestic task to reduce other’s requests that you’ll do it again in the future (Yeomans, 2022). It may be that failing to correct women’s low expectations of men increases the time men can choose to spend on other pursuits, such as paid labour or leisure (Dush et al., 2018). But at the extreme end, very low expectations of fathers may lead to maternal gatekeeping (Allen & Hawkins, 1999); a self-perpetuating cycle wherein the mother takes on the preponderance of childcare, but doing so ironically delays his ability to learn the very parenting skills he needs to develop. Through these multiple mechanisms, small initial choices on his part to retreat from the domestic sphere may compound over time.

### **Relationship Dynamics Other than Male-Female Romantic Dyads**

Turning to romantic relationships other than those between a man and a woman, relatively less literature addresses household and childcare divisions of labour. What research exists indicates that same-gender couples tend to divide childcare more evenly than mixed-gender couples (Farr & Patterson, 2013), with lesbian couples particularly egalitarian in their division of unpaid labour (Kelly & Hauck, 2015). Further, the lower-income partner tends to do more housework and childcare, particularly “feminine” tasks such as laundry and dishwashing (Goldberg et al., 2012), an effect also seen among male-female couples, as women typically underearn their male partners. However, the experience of constructing and experiencing gender by means of female- and male-stereotypic roles within a romantic relationship is a nuanced topic. For one example, research with transmen shows that they may reflexively retreat from female-stereotypic labour as a way of “doing gender” and reinforcing their male gender identity (Pfeffer, 2010). Indeed, “doing gender” in this manner extends more broadly, with men who feel



undermined at work (Arrighi & Maume Jr, 2000) or by their female partner's higher earnings (Bittman et al., 2003) contributing less to female-typed domestic labour in the home.

And further, beyond romantic relationships, what of roommates or non-romantic family dyads? Gendered roles likely transcend romantic relationships to permeate other household dynamics. For example, extending from work showing that women tend to elderly and sick kin at much higher rates than their male counterparts (Patterson & Margolis, 2019) and that female schoolchildren are expected to do more household chores, especially when mothers work outside the home (Lam et al., 2016), we can see that this expectation that women perform unpaid domestic work (while pursuing gainful employment) is not exclusive to romantic couples.

### **Who Is Correct in the End?**

This sample largely comprised young adults—often, undergraduate students still in the midst of considering their career and what relationship dynamic they would like to ultimately pursue. Although this age-related limitation constrains questions related to moderating by life stage (e.g., cohabitation, marriage, having children, becoming fully entrenched in a career), it allows for insight into the critical *planning* stage.

Accordingly, it is also entirely possible that appraisals of partners may end up being more accurate than self-reports. Namely, although this work (as with most other survey assessments of accuracy) centres self-reports as “true,” that assumption can reasonably be questioned, especially regarding forecasts of the future. Indeed, other work shows that women and men's forecasts regarding their potential future selves tend to be more gender-differentiated than their current selves (Brown & Diekmann, 2010). Without following these men and women for 10-15 years, I cannot test how their relationship dynamics and work/family priorities unfold.

Two key mechanisms could lead to partner appraisals being more accurate forecasts of the future. First, partners may know us better than we know ourselves—related work shows that close others are about equally able to predict our behaviours as we are ourselves (Vazire & Mehl, 2008). Second, partners may slowly exert their own influence on our goals and priorities over time, slowly drawing our futures closer and closer to what they desire or expect. Given the

unequal exertion of relational power (Laurin et al., 2016), it is perhaps likely that the higher power individual has a more accurate forecast of their future than their lower power partner.

Indeed, the relationship well-being boosts resulting from partners' accurate detection (and presumably, support of) one's own work/family goals may "close the loop," so to speak: closer relationships are associated (unsurprisingly) with improved accuracy (Thomas & Fletcher, 2004). Similarly, higher relationship satisfaction is associated with improved goal pursuit and self-regulation more broadly (Hofmann et al., 2015). As such, couples may experience a positive feedback loop of more productive interdependent goal pursuit and higher relationship well-being (Joel et al., 2023), affording accruing benefits over time.

## **Conclusion**

This work demonstrates the importance of accurately perceiving romantic partners' work and family goals. Although young adult women and men were fairly accurate overall, men overestimated the likelihood of their female partners seeking intense careers while also strongly prioritizing family goals. Women conversely underestimated their male partners' family goals and career intensity. Looking ahead two years, even minute discrepancies between perceptions of partners' goals and their actual goals were associated with lower relationship well-being. Finally, *perceiving* partners as poor at perspective-taking was particularly associated with relationship dissolution (and lower relationship well-being). This program of research suggests that women and men may dynamically approach and retreat from romantic relationships that do not (or appear to not) serve their work and family goals.

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## Appendix A: Demographics & Materials

**Table 14**

*Demographics*

		<b>Study 1</b>	<b>Study 2</b>	<b>Study 3 Time 1</b>	<b>Study 3 Time 2</b>	<b>Study 3 Time 3</b>
Participants		378	160	332	207	153
Age: M (SD)		20.42 (3.44)	20.33 (2.35)	20.21 (2.16)	-	-
Relationship Length: <i>M (SD)</i>		24.82 (34.12)	23.58 (20.83)	19.64 (17.53)	29.67 (17.86)	40.63 (20.73)
Gender	Women	189 (50%)	80 (50%)	166 (50%)	115 (56%)	87 (57%)
	Men	189 (50%)	80 (50%)	166 (50%)	91 (44%)	66 (43%)
Partnered	Yes	378 (100%)	160 (100%)	332 (100%)	156 (76%)	103 (67%)
	No	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	48 (24%)	50 (33%)
Faculty	Arts	117 (31%)	47 (29%)	102 (31%)	47 (23%)	26 (17%)
	Health	34 (9%)	31 (19%)	49 (15%)	27 (13%)	16 (10%)
	Environment	15 (4%)	5 (3%)	6 (2%)	2 (1%)	2 (1%)
	Engineering	44 (12%)	8 (5%)	24 (7%)	7 (3%)	3 (2%)
	Mathematics	50 (13%)	7 (4%)	22 (7%)	9 (4%)	5 (3%)
	Science	89 (24%)	29 (18%)	60 (18%)	33 (16%)	18 (12%)
Religion	Christianity	128 (34%)	57 (36%)	114 (34%)	-	-
	Judaism	4 (1%)	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	-	-
	Islam	22 (6%)	16 (10%)	21 (6%)	-	-
	Buddhism	18 (5%)	4 (3%)	8 (2%)	-	-
	Hinduism	17 (4%)	10 (6%)	18 (5%)	-	-
	No affiliation	189 (50%)	71 (44%)	144 (43%)	-	-
Race/ ethnicity	White or Caucasian	186 (49%)	79 (49%)	160 (48%)	-	-
	Black or African	4 (1%)	0 (0%)	7 (2%)	-	-
	Hispanic or Latino	3 (1%)	5 (3%)	8 (2%)	-	-
	East Asian	111 (29%)	30 (19%)	77 (23%)	-	-
	South Asian	57 (15%)	34 (21%)	54 (16%)	-	-
	Indigenous	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (<1%)	-	-
	Middle Eastern	9 (2%)	5 (3%)	8 (2%)	-	-
	Other	8 (2%)	7 (4%)	17 (5%)	-	-
Father's education	No/some high school	32 (8%)	12 (8%)	22 (7%)	-	-
	High school	70 (19%)	32 (20%)	65 (20%)	-	-
	College/university	157 (42%)	65 (41%)	131 (39%)	-	-
	Graduate degree	63 (17%)	31 (19%)	67 (20%)	-	-
Mother's education	No/some high school	25 (7%)	9 (6%)	13 (4%)	-	-
	High school	86 (23%)	36 (23%)	66 (20%)	-	-
	College/university	198 (52%)	81 (51%)	165 (50%)	-	-
	Graduate degree	50 (13%)	25 (16%)	66 (20%)	-	-

**Table 15**

*Key Measures*

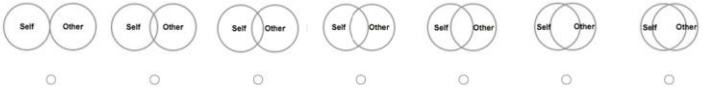
<b>Measure</b>	<b>Items</b>
<p><b>Desire for Egalitarianism</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports 1-3; partner appraisals S2 &amp; S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (not at all) to 5 (absolutely)</p>	<p>Looking ahead 10 to 15 years, to what extent [do you / does Ben] want:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An egalitarian partnership, with each of our careers equally prioritized and each of us equally contributing to household/childcare duties</li> </ul> <p><i>Reverse-coded and averaged together:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A traditional partnership, with the male partner’s career prioritized and the female partner contributing more to household/childcare duties</li> <li>• A counter-traditional partnership, with the female partner’s career prioritized and the male partner contributing more to household/childcare duties</li> </ul>
<p><b>Dyadic Domestic Labour</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S1-S3; partner appraisals S3  <i>Scale:</i> Recoded as 1 (always counter-stereotypic partner) to 5 (always stereotypic partner)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .62; partner appraisals = .60</p>	<p>In 10 to 15 years, who [do you / does Ben] think will usually do the following [household / childcare-related] tasks?</p> <p><i>Female-stereotypic household tasks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Buying groceries; Cleaning; Doing laundry; Doing the dishes; Preparing meals; Social event planning</li> </ul> <p><i>Male-stereotypic household tasks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Doing taxes; Electronics / computer upkeep; Household repairs; Managing bill payments; Taking out the trash; Vehicle maintenance</li> </ul> <p><i>Female-stereotypic childcare tasks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bathing / changing diapers; Buying clothing; Enforcing house rules; Feeding / preparing meals; Feeding / preparing meals; Going to parent-teacher meetings; Night-time soothing / feeding; Night-time soothing / feeding; Playing / socializing indoors; Scheduling appointments</li> </ul> <p><i>Male-stereotypic childcare tasks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coaching sports teams; Driving to school / activities; Helping with homework; Playing / socializing outdoors</li> </ul>
<p><b>Dyadic Career Prioritization</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S1-S3; partner appraisals S3  <i>Scale:</i> Recoded as 1 (definitely her career) to 5 (definitely his career)</p>	<p>In 10 to 15 years, whose career—yours or Ben’s—[do you / does Ben] expect to take priority?          (For example, if the two of you needed to move to advance one person's career, whose career would it more likely be?)</p>

Measure	Items
<p><b>Family-Over-Career Sacrifice Willingness</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports and partner appraisals S1-S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (extremely unwilling) to 7 (extremely willing)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .70; partner appraisals = .76</p>	<p>Please predict how willing [you / Ben] would realistically be to do the following 10 to 15 years from now:</p> <p><i>Family-over-career willingness</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be identified primarily as a homemaker rather than a professional</li> <li>• Submit a work project late to celebrate an anniversary</li> <li>• Take more parental leave than is advantageous for [your / his] career</li> <li>• Take time off from work to look after sick children or family members</li> <li>• Work only part-time to accommodate [Ben's / your] career</li> </ul> <p><i>Career-over-family willingness (reverse-coded):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be away from home 4 or more consecutive weeks for work (e.g., for training)</li> <li>• Miss a child's recital due to a work commitment</li> <li>• Miss a family member's birthday due to work travel</li> <li>• Move your family to pursue [your / his] career in a different city/province/country</li> <li>• Work overtime on evenings and weekends</li> </ul>
<p><b>Career Intensity</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports and partner appraisals S1-S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 to 5 (various)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .48, partner appraisals = .42</p>	<p>Per week, how many hours do you expect [you / Ben] will work?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1 (Much less than 40 hours); 2 (Somewhat less than 40 hours); 3 (About 40 hours); 4 (Somewhat more than 40 hours); 5 (Much more than 40 hours)</li> </ul> <p>Per year, what income do you expect [you / Ben] will make?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1 (Less than \$50,000); 2 (\$50,000 to \$74,999); 3 (\$75,000 to \$99,999); 4 (\$100,000 to \$125,000); 5 (More than \$125,000)</li> </ul> <p>Per year, how many times do you expect [you / Ben] will travel overnight for work-related reasons?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1 (0 nights); 2 (1-3 nights); 3 (4-7 nights); 4 (8-14 nights); 5 (More than 14 nights)</li> </ul>

Measure	Items
<p><b>General Accuracy Ability</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports and partner appraisals S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .81, partner appraisals = .86</p>	<p>How well do the following items describe [your behaviour and actions with Ben / Ben's behaviour and actions with you?]  <i>Self-report version:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Before criticizing Ben, I try to imagine how I would feel in his place.</li> <li>• Even if Ben has difficulty in saying something, I usually understand how Ben feels</li> <li>• I am able to sense or realize what Ben is feeling</li> <li>• I am good at understanding Ben's problems</li> <li>• I am rarely able to appreciate exactly how the things Ben experiences feels to him (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• I sometimes try to understand Ben better by imagining how things look from his perspective</li> <li>• I try to look at Ben's side of a disagreement before I make a decision</li> <li>• I usually do not understand the full meaning of what Ben is saying to me (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• I very often seem to know how Ben feels.</li> <li>• In my relationship with Ben I believe that there are two sides to every question, and I try to look and think about both sides</li> </ul> <p><i>Partner appraisal version:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Before criticizing me, Ben tries to imagine how he would feel in my place</li> <li>• Even if I have difficulty in saying something, Ben usually understands how I feel</li> <li>• Ben is able to sense or realize what I am feeling</li> <li>• Ben is good at understanding my problems</li> <li>• Ben is rarely able to appreciate exactly how the things I experience feel to me (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• Ben sometimes tries to understand me better by imagining how things look from my perspective</li> <li>• Ben tries to look at my side of a disagreement before he makes a decision</li> <li>• Ben usually does not understand the full meaning of what I am saying to him (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• Ben very often seems to know how I feel</li> <li>• In Ben's relationship with me, he believes that there are two sides to every question, and tries to look and think about both sides</li> </ul>

Measure	Items
<p><b>Specific Accuracy Ability</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports and partner appraisals S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (not at all accurately) to 5 (extremely accurately)</p>	<p>Throughout this series of questions, you reported on your goals/priorities and your perceptions of Ben's goals/priorities. Ben completed the same set of questions. Next, you will predict how closely aligned these reports were: How much will your report about Ben match with what they personally reported? How much will their report about you match what you said?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How accurately do you think you perceived Ben's goals/priorities?</li> <li>• How accurately do you think Ben perceived your goals/priorities?</li> </ul>
<p><b>Femininity: Bem Scale</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports and partner appraisals S1 &amp; S2  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (almost never true) to 5 (almost always true)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .73; partner appraisals = .76</p>	<p>Please rate [your / Ben's] personality: How often are the following traits true of [you / Ben]?</p> <p><i>Feminine traits:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Affectionate; Compassionate; Gentle; Tender; Warm</li> </ul> <p><i>Masculine traits (reverse-coded):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aggressive; Assertive; Dominant; Forceful; Independent;</li> </ul>
<p><b>Femininity: Bosson &amp; Michniewicz Scale</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports and partner appraisals S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (almost never true) to 5 (almost always true)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .67; partner appraisals = .63</p>	<p>How often are the following traits true of [you / Ben]?</p> <p><i>Feminine traits:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Affectionate; Complaining; Dependent; Graceful; Moody; Nagging; Sensitive; Sympathetic; Warm; Worrying</li> </ul> <p><i>Masculine traits (reverse-coded):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Assertive; Capable; Egotistical; Independent; Loud; Rationale; Rowdy; Rude; Show-off; Stable</li> </ul>
<p><b>Sexism</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S1-S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports &gt; .68</p>	<p>Please rate your agreement with the following statements using the options below.</p> <p><i>Benevolent sexism:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Men should sacrifice to provide for women</li> <li>• No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman</li> <li>• Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste</li> </ul> <p><i>Hostile sexism:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women are too easily offended</li> <li>• Women fail to appreciate all men do for them</li> <li>• Women seek power by gaining control over men</li> </ul>

Measure	Items
<p><b>Mental Health</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S2-S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (never) to 7 (every day)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .89</p>	<p>How have you been feeling during the past month?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confident to think or express your own ideas and opinions</li> <li>• Good at managing the responsibilities of your daily life</li> <li>• Happy</li> <li>• Interested in life</li> <li>• Low in appetite (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• Satisfied with life</li> <li>• Socially isolated (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• That our society is a good place, or is becoming a better place, for all people</li> <li>• That people are basically good</li> <li>• That the way our society works makes sense to you</li> <li>• That you belonged to a community (like a social group, or your neighbourhood)</li> <li>• That you had experiences that challenged you to grow and become a better person</li> <li>• That you had something important to contribute to society</li> <li>• That you had warm and trusting relationships with others</li> <li>• That you have high self esteem</li> <li>• That you liked most parts of your personality</li> <li>• That your life has a sense of direction or meaning to it</li> <li>• Tired or fatigued (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• Unable to sleep well (reverse-coded)</li> </ul>
<p><b>Likelihood of Relationship Persistence</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S1-S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely)</p>	<p>What is the likelihood that you and Ben will still be in a romantic relationship together in 10 to 15 years?</p>
<p><b>Relationship Satisfaction</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S1-S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 to 5 (various)</p>	<p>How satisfied are you with your relationship with Ben?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1 (Very dissatisfied); 2 (Dissatisfied); 3 (Neutral); 4 (Satisfied); 5 (Very satisfied)</li> </ul> <p>How committed are you to your relationship with Ben?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1 (Not committed); 2 (A little committed); 3 (Somewhat committed); 4 (Committed); 5 (Very committed)</li> </ul>

Measure	Items
<p><b>Relationship Scales Composite</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S2 &amp; S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .84</p>	<p>Please respond to the following questions regarding Ben.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ben feels extremely attached to me.</li> <li>• Ben is critical and judgmental (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• Ben is kind and affectionate</li> <li>• Ben is thoughtless (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• Ben is understanding</li> <li>• Ben is very tolerant and accepting of my faults</li> <li>• Ben loves and accepts me unconditionally</li> <li>• Ben regards me as very important in their life</li> <li>• I am confident Ben will always want to look beyond my faults and see the best in me</li> <li>• I am confident Ben will always want to stay in our relationship.</li> <li>• In the future, Ben will compliment or praise some aspect of my personality</li> <li>• In the future, Ben will consider ending our relationship (reverse-coded)</li> <li>• In the future, Ben will forgive me if I disappoint him</li> </ul>
<p><b>Inclusion of Other in Self</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 to 7</p>	<p>Please select the picture below that best describes how you currently feel in your relationship with Ben.</p>  <p style="text-align: center;">○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</p>

Measure	Items
<p><b>Dyadic Adjustment</b>  <i>Studies:</i> Self-reports S3  <i>Scale:</i> 1 (always disagree) to 6 (always agree)  <i>Alphas:</i> Self-reports = .90</p>	<p>Most people have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and Ben for each item on the following list.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aims, goals, and things believed important</li> <li>• Amount of time spent together</li> <li>• Career decisions</li> <li>• Conventionality (correct or proper behaviour)</li> <li>• Decisions about children</li> <li>• Demonstrations of affection</li> <li>• Education / academic pursuits</li> <li>• Handling of finances</li> <li>• Household tasks</li> <li>• Leisure time interests and activities</li> <li>• Making major decisions</li> <li>• Philosophy of life</li> <li>• Recreation / fitness</li> <li>• Relationships with friends</li> <li>• Relationships with parents or family members</li> <li>• Religious matters</li> <li>• Sex relations / physical intimacy</li> <li>• Vacation time / trips</li> </ul>
<p><b>Full Materials</b></p>	<p>Study 1:  <a href="https://dropbox.com/s/55poytkz8n7llcg/GC3_Qualtrics_Final.pdf?dl=1">dropbox.com/s/55poytkz8n7llcg/GC3_Qualtrics_Final.pdf?dl=1</a></p> <p>Study 2:  <a href="https://dropbox.com/s/d6mhhecm5f9dqnx/DA1_Qualtrics.pdf?dl=1">dropbox.com/s/d6mhhecm5f9dqnx/DA1_Qualtrics.pdf?dl=1</a></p> <p>Study 3:  <a href="https://dropbox.com/s/k6ag9brxza4ywgm/DA2_Qualtrics.pdf?dl=1">dropbox.com/s/k6ag9brxza4ywgm/DA2_Qualtrics.pdf?dl=1</a></p>

*Note.* Child-care tasks only asked of participants who reported expecting to have children.



## **Appendix B: Experimental Conditions**

As noted in the main Methods, Study 2 and Study 3 each had random assignment to experimental conditions. However, these conditions rarely associated with core variables or accuracy. For completeness, these experimental conditions are described here, along with a summary of the (largely null) findings. All models use the same random-effects structure described in the main Results, with participants nested within dyads (and separate models for Study 2 and Study 3). For both Study 2 and Study 3, prior to any condition-based materials, participants first completed an initial set of measures on individual computers in separate rooms (see Appendix A for measure order).

### **Study 2 Experimental Conditions**

Study 2 contained two independent condition assignments. Participants (not dyads) were assigned to one of two construal-level conditions (high vs. low construal). Dyads were assigned to a tie-breaker condition, wherein either the male or female partner was assigned higher power.

#### ***Construal Level***

At the time, I was very interested in how splitting tasks could insidiously lead to women completing more household labour overall. More specifically, perhaps some couples are “task-sharers” (Amy does 50% of Task 1 and Task 2, Ben does 50% of Task 1 and Task 2) versus “task-splitters” (Amy does 100% of Task 1 and 0% of Task 2, Ben does 0% of Task 1 and 100% of Task 2). I hypothesized that both sets of people would think of themselves as egalitarians, but the means through which they operationalized egalitarianism in their romantic relationship would determine whether they enacted/retained egalitarian distributions of labour, or slid toward inequality (e.g., women working the “second shift”).

I thought that truly equitable task-splitting might be the means by which couples could stick to their ideological goals and reduce their monitoring burden / emotional labour (e.g., did Amy really take out 50% of the trash?). But I was skeptical that task-splitting was realistically ever done equitably, as I suspected tasks would fall along gender-stereotypic lines and there are

more tasks in the home (and associated with childcare!) that are stereotyped as feminine. More than that, I was concerned that the invisible labour associated with task-sharing would likely largely fall on women, so even if the tasks were shared 50/50, I couldn't account for the added hidden labour. Further, testing this discrepancy between reported ideals and actual labour would take an extremely complex and long design, so I instead tried using a construal level manipulation to move *predictions* around (at least in the short term). Ideally, I hypothesized that those with a more abstract framework would tend to predict task-sharing and that those with a more concrete framework would tend to predict task-splitting.

### ***Tiebreakers***

I drew upon negotiation literatures to predict that relational power in romantic relationships might lead to the partner with higher relational power making less accurate judgements about their partner. Relational power is more often concentrated in the male partner in male-female relationships (Bentley et al., 2007), and men and women typically report that this power differential leads to men's goals being prioritized (Blair et al., 2001). Even further, chronic power differentials often lead to the lower-power individual adopting the higher-power individuals' goals, supplanting their own (Laurin et al., 2016).

I randomly assigned either the male or female partner as the higher power "tiebreaker" to make final determinations as to their joint responses when disagreements arose (there was no control power condition). I hypothesized that male partners would be more accurate in their perceptions of their female partners when in the "female power" condition, but tests of women's accuracy across conditions were more exploratory.

### ***Procedure***

After the pre-measures, participants—still in their individual lab rooms—were randomly assigned to high or low construal. Instructions embedded within their survey window guided them through either a "bottom up" (high construal) or "top down" (low construal) thought exercise wherein they traced the cause of one of their key life goals either up toward *why* they want to achieve that goal or *how* they would do so, respectively (Freitas et al., 2004). To

reinforce this construal level assignment, participants then additionally completed a Kimchi Palmer task (Kimchi & Palmer, 1982): identifying either the overall shape (high construal) or individual shapes (low construal) of a composite image.

After each participants' construal level assignment, they returned to the joint lab room. The research assistant flipped a coin to randomly assign the role of "tiebreaker", and the dyad was informed that "if you disagree about something, defer to the opinion of the tiebreaker." The dyad then jointly completed a series of measures on the sole computer, none of which are analyzed here. After returning to their individual rooms, participants immediately completed a manipulation check for the construal level condition assignment; an adaptation of the Behavior Identification Form (Vallacher & Wegner, 1989). All remaining measures then followed.

### ***Results***

**Construal level.** The Behavior Identification Form manipulation check revealed failure of assignment, with no differences by condition,  $t < 1$ , or condition by gender,  $t < 1$ .

**Tiebreaker gender.** Primary hypotheses regarding the assigned tiebreaker (i.e., who was in the position of high power) pertained to accuracy. However, tiebreaker status was never associated with objective inaccuracy,  $ps > .107$ .

### **Study 3 Experimental Conditions**

The conditions used in Study 3 were inspired by past work demonstrating the potential backfiring effects of empathy goals (versus learning goals) in interracial dyads, with empathy goals sometimes ironically leading to less accurate perspective-taking (Vorauer & Sasaki, 2012; Vorauer & Sucharyna, 2013). Conversely, learning goals were shown to afford interpersonal accuracy benefits.

### ***Procedure***

After the pre-measures, participants proceeded to the joint laboratory room. Dyads were either encouraged to have learning goals, empathy goals, or were given no information pertaining to specific goals (an empty control). Learning goals were intended to increase active

listening to one’s partner—attending carefully to what they are communicating and absorbing that information without judgment. Empathy goals involved immersing oneself into the emotions of one’s partner. I expected that learning goals would be associated with the strongest accuracy, and empathy goals with the least.

At the beginning of the interactive activity, the research assistant informed participants that the next task would be a conversational activity and handed them a (condition-matched) sheet highlighting “some effective strategies for a valuable conversation”, ostensibly based on past research. The research assistant verbally relayed the same information coded on the sheet. Those in the empty control condition received no sheet nor any verbal information regarding conversational strategies. See Table 16 for a summary.

**Table 16**

*Summary of Study 3 Condition-Based Materials*

<b>Learning Goals</b>	<b>Empathy Goals</b>
Closely look at and listen to what your partner does and says, with the <b>intention of learning as much as you can</b> about your partner’s thoughts.	Carefully consider what your partner is feeling and experiencing, with <b>the intention of empathizing with them</b> as much as you can.
Try not to get caught up in your own feelings; instead try to <b>remain open-minded and attentive</b> .	Try to <b>immerse yourself in your partner’s emotions</b> —let yourself experience everything that they are feeling.
<b>Stay focused on your partner</b> , rather than comparing them to other people or to yourself.	<b>Draw on past experiences with people like your partner</b> to help you interpret your partner’s feelings.
Do your best to express your thoughts clearly, directly, and openly — <b>people often overestimate how well close others can understand them</b> .	Go with your initial intuitions when expressing yourself — <b>people can accurately read others’ emotions more often than not</b> .

The sheet with their condition-matched conversational strategies remained prominently displayed on their desk for the remainder of the interactive session. To crystallize the conversational strategies presented to the dyad, they then had a semi-structured conversation

through which they could practice their assigned strategies. First, the research assistant told the participants that they would be discussing their future goals with their romantic partner, “while learning more about each other” (learning goals) or “while emotionally connecting with each other” (empathy goals), or no additional information (control). Participants then took turns picking pairs of goals and discussing which of those two goals they considered more important. Next, participants were given a large chart with categories representing a variety of daily activities (e.g., sleeping, working, doing housework) and used poker chips to report how they predicted spending their time in an average day—as a couple—in 10 to 15 years. Finally, they used differently coloured poker chips to split up their joint time into her time and his time (i.e., if they had initially predicted they would sleep 15 hours per day as a couple, they then needed to divide those 15 hours across her sleeping time and his sleeping time). Shortly before splitting the time predictions, the research assistant drew their attention to the conversational strategies sheet and reminded them of their goals: “Remember to learn as much as you can about your partner by trying to be observant and open-minded during this activity” (learning goals), or “Remember to empathize with your partner by trying to immerse yourself in their emotions and experience during this activity” (empathy goals), or nothing (control). After the interactive session, participants returned to their separate rooms to complete the remaining measures. The follow-up surveys (after approximately 1 and 2 years) did not make mention of their condition assignment.

## ***Results***

My primary hypotheses regarding the Study 3 conditions pertained to accuracy: expecting accuracy to be highest in the learning goals condition and lowest in the empathy condition. I used two dummy-coded predictor variables to assess the differences between the control condition and the learning and empathy goals conditions, respectively. Gender and the interaction terms with gender were also included in the fixed effects.

Family-over-career directed inaccuracy varied by the interaction of gender and learning goals (vs. control),  $b = 0.13$ ,  $t(163.00) = 2.21$ ,  $p = .029$ , as well as marginally by the interaction term between gender and empathy goals (vs. control),  $b = 0.10$ ,  $t(163.00) = 1.69$ ,  $p = .092$ . However, in looking at the simple effects of condition on inaccuracy within each gender, none of

the effects were significant,  $ps > .112$ . Further, neither the learning goals nor the empathy goals conditions significantly differed from control regarding desire for egalitarianism, domestic labour, or career prioritization inaccuracies,  $ps > .274$ .

## Appendix C: Truth and Bias Modelling

I next provide parallel analyses of inaccuracy using the truth and bias model (West & Kenny, 2011). This model allows for the partitioning of two distinct forces upon appraisals of partners, parameters termed *truth* and *bias*, in addition to an interpretable intercept (for omnibus models) representing *directional error*. However, it does not provide individual measures of inaccuracy (necessary to tracing downstream consequences of partners' inaccuracy)—much how a correlational analysis does not provide individual-by-individual correlation coefficients.

### Components of the Truth and Bias Model

As with all truth and bias models, the grand mean of the truth criterion (self-reports) was used to centre the three core variables in the model; (1) the appraisal of the partner (dependent measure), (2) the self-report (predictor: the bias force) and (3) the self-report *made by the partner* (predictor: the truth force). Each of the predictors is therefore referenced against the truth criterion (making the 0-point equal exact accuracy in the omnibus model).

The first term, the intercept, represents *directional error* of appraisals about romantic partners (termed “directional bias” in the original paper; West & Kenny, 2011); it is the difference between appraisals of partners and the grand mean of self-reports. Directional error is not necessarily dyadic, as it can be computed in non-dyadic samples—asking men and women about themselves and their partners (even if their partners do not complete the survey), as in my Masters work (Cyr, 2018). Directional error is identical to directional inaccuracy in an overall model, as the mean of directed inaccuracies equals the mean of partner appraisals minus the mean of self-reports. However, when decomposing directional error by gender, some erroneous gender effects arise as all parameters are centred on the *grand mean* of self-reports. For example, in a model examining women's directional error, the intercept would equal women's appraisals about their male partners minus the mean of all self-reports (men's and women's), meaning the intercept is no longer compared against a 0 representing true accuracy. As such, I do not report separate intercepts for women and men.

The second term represents the influence of the *truth force*. This parameter of the model assesses the extent to which Amy’s appraisal of Ben is related to his own self-report (the truth criterion). Positive slopes for this parameter indicate a form of accuracy: an overall positive relationship between partner appraisals and what that partner self-reported. Conversely, a negative coefficient for the truth force slope would indicate systematic inaccuracy.

The third term represents the influence of the *bias force*—for example, assumed similarity (see Chapter 3). For example, if Amy desires egalitarianism, she may assume Ben does as well. However, as described more fully in the main text, I hypothesized that women and men would assume *dissimilarity* on the individual-level metrics. In other words, it seemed plausible that insofar as Amy reported strong personal willingness to choose family over career, she might assume Ben is less willing to do so.

Additionally, I moderated the truth force and the bias force by gender. Although the additional two interaction terms that would “complete” this model (truth  $\times$  bias, gender  $\times$  truth  $\times$  bias) are mathematically viable, they are not part of the truth and bias analytic framework (West & Kenny, 2011) and I did not have hypotheses regarding these terms, so I did not include them. Further, I decompose all gender effects (except the gender main effect; see previous note regarding simple intercepts), regardless of the significance of interaction terms, to parallel the analyses reported in the main Results.

### **Analytic Approach**

As in prior multi-level models, participants were nested within dyads (and dyads within Studies) using a heterogeneous compound symmetry (CSH) covariance structure. Gender of the reporter was again effects-coded (-1= female; 1 = male). All continuous variables were centred on the grand mean of the truth criterion (self-reports).



## Results

### *Truth Force: Correlational Analog to Prediction Error Accuracy*

The truth force parameter is a correlational analog to inaccuracy. In comparing across the main and ancillary models, recall that objective inaccuracies result from difference scores between appraisals of partners and self-reports, and conversely, the truth force parameter represents the (positive or negative) slope of the relationship between appraisals of partners and self-reports.

Overall, as in the main Results, there was little evidence that women and men differed in the accuracy of their partner appraisals—per a lack of gender moderation of the truth force parameter in four out of five models. Dyadic domestic labour accuracy did differ by reporter gender,  $b_3 = -0.10$ ,  $t_3(258.78) = 3.00$ ,  $p_3 = .003$ , with women accurately discerning their partner's reported dyadic domestic labour distribution,  $b_3 = 0.20$ ,  $t_3(163.00) = 3.59$ ,  $p_3 < .001$ , but men unable to accurately appraise their female partner's report,  $t_3 < 1$ . Other than that single simple effect, all other models indicated women and men can accurately discern their partners' goals.

### *Bias Force: Analog to Assumed Similarity*

The bias force parameter is largely parallel to the assumed similarity measures shown previously. Unsurprisingly, the bias force was consistently significant, indicating widespread assumed similarity. Although there was one instance of gender moderation of the bias force (once again for dyadic domestic labour,  $b_3 = 0.08$ ,  $t_3(267.25) = 2.25$ ,  $p_3 = .025$ ), the key take-away is that both women and men tended to assume their partner has similar work/family priorities similarly to themselves.

**Table 17***Truth and Bias Model Parameters*

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Model</b>				
	<b>Desire for egalitarianism</b> <i>b(SE)</i>	<b>Dyadic domestic labour</b> <i>b(SE)</i>	<b>Dyadic career prioritization</b> <i>b(SE)</i>	<b>Family-over- career willingness</b> <i>b(SE)</i>	<b>Career intensity</b> <i>b(SE)</i>
Intercept	-0.06(0.03)*	0.00(0.01)	-0.01(0.03)	-0.10(0.02)***	0.03(0.02)
Gender effect	0.02(0.02)	0.03(0.01)**	0.04(0.03)	0.29(0.03)***	-0.07(0.02)**
Truth force	0.12(0.04)**	0.09(0.04)**	0.17(0.04)***	0.52(0.03)***	0.51(0.03)***
Truth force x gender	0.01(0.04)	-0.10(0.03)**	-0.02(0.04)	0.02(0.03)	0.04(0.03)
Truth: <i>women's reports</i>	0.11(0.05)*	0.20(0.06)***	0.19(0.05)***	0.50(0.04)***	0.47(0.04)***
Truth: <i>men's reports</i>	0.13(0.05)*	-0.01(0.04)	0.15(0.05)**	0.54(0.04)***	0.55(0.05)***
Bias force	0.75(0.04)***	0.87(0.04)***	0.65(0.04)***	0.14(0.03)***	0.35(0.03)***
Bias force x gender	0.03(0.04)	0.08(0.03)*	0.01(0.04)	0.00(0.03)	-0.03(0.03)
Bias: <i>women's reports</i>	0.71(0.06)***	0.79(0.05)***	0.64(0.05)***	0.14(0.05)**	0.37(0.04)***
Bias: <i>men's reports</i>	0.78(0.05)***	0.95(0.05)***	0.66(0.05)***	0.14(0.04)***	0.32(0.04)***

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ .

## Appendix D: Supplementary Models of Within-Dyad Similarity

**Table 18**

*Within-Dyad Similarity, by Study and Timepoint*

	Within-dyad similarity									
	Study 1		Study 2		Study 3 Time 1		Study 3 Time 2		Study 3 Time 3	
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>
<b>Self-reported work/family priorities</b>										
Desire for egalitarianism			110	.39***	332	.37***	148	.12	93	.15
Dyadic domestic labour	376	.57***	160	.55***	332	.49***	118	.65***	74	.49***
Dyadic career prioritization	376	.45***	160	.36***	332	.46***	144	.44***	92	.57***
Family-over-career willingness	376	.13*	160	.13	332	.02	118	.13	74	.20†
Career intensity	378	.10*	160	-.06	332	-.10†	148	.01	92	-.14
<b>Appraisals of partner's work/family priorities</b>										
Desire for egalitarianism			110	.53***	332	.31***	119	.27**	74	.33**
Dyadic domestic labour					332	.45***	118	.50***	74	.71***
Dyadic career intensity					332	.48***	118	.55***	74	.59***
Family-over-career willingness	374	-.13**	160	-.35***	332	-.21***	118	-.02	74	-.01
Career intensity	375	.26***	160	.07	332	.19***	120	.22*	74	.01
<b>Individual well-being</b>										
Mental health			160	.30***	332	.23***	150	.22**	92	.10
<b>Relationship well-being</b>										
Likelihood of relationship persist.	378	.63***	160	.50***	332	.52***	152	.78***	92	.84***
Self-reported relationship satis.			160	.48***	332	.21***	152	.55***	92	.68***
Relationship scales composite			160	.38***	332	.42***	114	.46***	74	.33**
IOS					330	.39***	116	.45***	74	.23*
DAS					332	.39***	144	.35***	92	.52***
<b>Perceived perspective-taking</b>										
Self-reported general accuracy					332	.26***	144	.24**	92	.34***
Appr. partner's general accuracy					332	.28***	143	.51***	92	.39***
Self-reported specific accuracy					332	.14**	118	.13	74	.24*
Appr. partner's specific accuracy					332	.10†	118	.13	74	.23*
<b>Trait femininity</b>										
Self-reported femininity (Bem)	376	-.17***	160	-.02						
Appr. partner's femininity (Bem)	375	.04	160	.13†						
Self-reported femininity (B & M)					330	-.23***				
Appr. partner's femininity (B & M)					330	-.23***				
<b>Sexism</b>										
Benevolent sexism	376	.24***	160	-.13	330	.28***	142	.04	92	-.03
Hostile sexism	376	.18***	160	.30***	330	.25***	142	.04	92	.08

*Note.* “Satis.” indicates “satisfaction”. “Appr.” indicates “appraisals”. “B & M” indicates “Bosson and Michniewicz”.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ . †  $p < .1$

## Appendix E: Supplementary Models of Gender Differences

**Table 19**

*Gender Differences within Each Study and Timepoint*

	Study 1			Study 2			Study 3 Time 1			Study 3 Time 2			Study 3 Time 3		
	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.
	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>
<b>Self-reported work/family priorities</b>															
Desire for egalitarianism				4.32	4.23	-0.12	4.35	4.09	-0.33***	4.22	4.03	-0.20†	4.19	4.07	-0.11
				(0.09)	(0.10)		(0.05)	(0.06)		(0.07)	(0.08)		(0.08)	(0.10)	
Dyadic domestic labour	3.43	3.38	-0.19**	3.44	3.36	-0.37**	3.46	3.41	-0.16*	3.41	3.36	-0.25†	3.42	3.39	-0.15
	(0.02)	(0.02)		(0.03)	(0.03)		(0.02)	(0.02)		(0.02)	(0.03)		(0.03)	(0.04)	
Dyadic career intensity	3.27	3.21	-0.06	3.23	3.00	-0.23*	3.20	3.08	-0.12	3.11	3.17	0.05	3.29	3.16	-0.13
	(0.06)	(0.06)		(0.10)	(0.10)		(0.07)	(0.07)		(0.09)	(0.11)		(0.10)	(0.10)	
Family-over-career willingness	4.33	4.15	-0.17*	4.26	4.17	-0.08	4.28	4.18	-0.08	4.35	4.24	-0.09	4.47	4.59	0.08
	(0.06)	(0.06)		(0.08)	(0.09)		(0.06)	(0.07)		(0.10)	(0.12)		(0.14)	(0.14)	
Career intensity	2.87	3.28	0.45***	3.20	3.65	0.40***	2.94	3.27	0.32***	2.85	3.17	0.29**	2.88	3.05	0.13
	(0.05)	(0.05)		(0.08)	(0.10)		(0.06)	(0.05)		(0.07)	(0.08)		(0.09)	(0.09)	
<b>Appraisals of partner's work/family priorities</b>															
Desire for egalitarianism				4.18	4.16	-0.03	4.22	4.10	-0.14†	4.24	4.15	-0.10	4.06	4.14	0.09
				(0.10)	(0.11)		(0.06)	(0.06)		(0.07)	(0.09)		(0.10)	(0.11)	
Dyadic domestic labour							3.43	3.44	0.05	3.41	3.37	-0.11	3.37	3.43	0.33*
							(0.02)	(0.02)		(0.03)	(0.04)		(0.03)	(0.04)	
Dyadic career intensity							3.12	3.14	0.02	3.25	3.18	-0.07	2.99	3.36	0.47**
							(0.07)	(0.07)		(0.11)	(0.11)		(0.13)	(0.10)	
Family-over-career willingness	3.83	4.45	0.53***	3.76	4.51	0.58***	3.85	4.44	0.43***	3.79	4.38	0.42***	4.06	4.63	0.36**
	(0.06)	(0.06)		(0.10)	(0.09)		(0.07)	(0.07)		(0.10)	(0.12)		(0.14)	(0.15)	
Career intensity	3.17	2.84	-0.39***	3.89	3.69	-0.15	3.09	3.00	-0.10	3.03	2.84	-0.20†	3.08	2.85	-0.22†
	(0.05)	(0.06)		(0.11)	(0.11)		(0.05)	(0.05)		(0.08)	(0.08)		(0.10)	(0.09)	
<b>Individual well-being</b>															
Mental health				4.15	4.21	0.06	4.37	4.52	0.17*	4.09	4.21	0.12	4.08	4.06	-0.02
				(0.10)	(0.11)		(0.06)	(0.05)		(0.07)	(0.09)		(0.08)	(0.11)	
<b>Relationship well-being</b>															
Likelihood of rel. persistence	4.14	4.19	0.06	4.03	3.94	-0.10	4.13	4.07	-0.07	3.59	3.59	0.01	3.24	3.19	-0.06
	(0.06)	(0.07)		(0.11)	(0.10)		(0.07)	(0.07)		(0.13)	(0.13)		(0.17)	(0.17)	
Self-reported rel. satisfaction				4.72	4.65	-0.16	4.77	4.74	-0.05	4.50	4.43	-0.13	4.39	4.27	-0.23†
				(0.05)	(0.06)		(0.03)	(0.03)		(0.06)	(0.06)		(0.07)	(0.07)	

	Study 1			Study 2			Study 3 Time 1			Study 3 Time 2			Study 3 Time 3		
	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.	Women	Men	Diff.
	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>M(SE)</i>	<i>d</i>
Rel. scales composite				6.02 (0.09)	5.76 (0.08)	-0.31**	6.11 (0.05)	6.00 (0.05)	-0.16*	6.06 (0.09)	5.91 (0.09)	-0.17	6.23 (0.10)	5.88 (0.10)	-0.43**
IOS							5.26 (0.10)	5.45 (0.09)	0.14†	5.45 (0.13)	5.52 (0.14)	0.05	5.34 (0.19)	5.61 (0.18)	0.17
DAS							4.76 (0.05)	4.65 (0.05)	-0.15†	4.66 (0.07)	4.47 (0.07)	-0.24*	4.48 (0.08)	4.41 (0.08)	-0.12
<b>Perceived accuracy<sup>a</sup></b>															
Self-reported general accuracy							5.50 (0.07)	5.45 (0.06)	-0.06	5.45 (0.09)	5.25 (0.09)	-0.18†	5.30 (0.10)	5.26 (0.11)	-0.04
Appr. partner's general accuracy							5.52 (0.07)	5.24 (0.07)	-0.26***	5.06 (0.11)	4.80 (0.11)	-0.23*	4.94 (0.14)	4.76 (0.14)	-0.13
Self-reported specific accuracy							2.90 (0.07)	2.98 (0.06)	0.07	3.03 (0.09)	3.13 (0.12)	0.08	3.26 (0.12)	3.29 (0.14)	0.02
Appr. partner's specific accuracy							2.90 (0.07)	3.14 (0.07)	0.22**	3.18 (0.09)	3.39 (0.11)	0.18	3.39 (0.11)	3.37 (0.11)	-0.02
<b>Trait femininity</b>															
Self-reported femininity (Bem)	3.51 (0.03)	3.38 (0.04)	-0.18*	3.58 (0.06)	3.45 (0.05)	-0.19†									
Appr. partner's femininity (Bem)	3.57 (0.04)	3.72 (0.04)	0.22**	3.77 (0.06)	3.74 (0.06)	-0.06									
Self-reported femininity (B & M)							3.04 (0.02)	3.33 (0.02)	-0.62***						
Appr. partner's femininity (B & M)							3.29 (0.03)	3.00 (0.02)	0.68***						
<b>Sexism</b>															
Benevolent sexism	2.92 (0.10)	3.49 (0.10)	0.35***	2.91 (0.15)	3.57 (0.15)	0.34**	2.50 (0.09)	3.04 (0.09)	0.41***	2.43 (0.10)	2.96 (0.12)	0.36***	2.48 (0.13)	2.81 (0.14)	0.20†
Hostile sexism	2.76 (0.10)	3.23 (0.10)	0.26***	2.90 (0.16)	2.83 (0.13)	-0.04	2.34 (0.08)	2.60 (0.08)	0.20*	2.34 (0.10)	2.73 (0.12)	0.27*	2.24 (0.12)	2.51 (0.13)	0.17

Note. "Rel." indicates "relationship". "Appr." indicates "appraisals". "B & M" indicates "Bosson and Michniewicz".

<sup>a</sup> These are the raw, not reverse-coded, measures.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ . †  $p < .1$ .

**Appendix F: Supplementary Models of Partner's Directed Inaccuracy and Outcomes**

**Table 20**

*Partners' Directed Inaccuracy and One's Own Individual and Relationship Well-being*

	Mental health		Likelihood of rel. persist.		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship composite		Inclusion of other in self		Dyadic adjustment	
	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3	T2	T3
	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>	<i>b(SE)</i>
<b>Directed objective inaccuracy of partner</b>												
<b>Desire for egalitarianism</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	0.00	-0.08	-0.11 <sup>†</sup>	-0.09	-0.03	-0.07	-0.09 <sup>†</sup>	0.02	-0.03	0.23	0.05	-0.07 <sup>†</sup>
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.15)	(0.05)	(0.04)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.07	-0.03	-0.03	0.04	-0.03	0.05	-0.06	0.05	-0.26 <sup>*</sup>	0.04	0.05	-0.01
	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.11)	(0.16)	(0.05)	(0.06)
<b>Dyadic domestic labour</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	-0.20	-0.48 <sup>†</sup>	0.18	0.29	0.12	0.17	-0.08	0.25	0.45	-0.07	0.11	-0.23
	(0.15)	(0.25)	(0.19)	(0.30)	(0.11)	(0.16)	(0.16)	(0.26)	(0.30)	(0.54)	(0.15)	(0.16)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	-0.16	0.12	0.00	-0.10	0.06	-0.04	0.27	0.33	0.02	-0.24	-0.20	-0.12
	(0.18)	(0.26)	(0.22)	(0.35)	(0.13)	(0.19)	(0.20)	(0.30)	(0.37)	(0.59)	(0.16)	(0.20)
<b>Dyadic career prioritization</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	0.08 <sup>†</sup>	0.05	0.10 <sup>†</sup>	0.08	0.04	0.02	0.09 <sup>†</sup>	0.08	0.07	-0.01	0.00	0.00
	(0.04)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.08)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.14)	(0.04)	(0.04)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.08	0.04	0.09	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.14 <sup>*</sup>	0.05	0.14	-0.06	-0.03	-0.02
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.15)	(0.05)	(0.05)
<b>Family-over-career willingness</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	0.03	0.06	-0.02	0.01	0.03	-0.03	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.03	0.06	0.03
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.14)	(0.04)	(0.04)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.00	0.05	-0.15 <sup>*</sup>	-0.13	-0.02	-0.11 <sup>†</sup>	-0.03	-0.17 <sup>*</sup>	-0.02	-0.21	0.04	0.00
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.15)	(0.05)	(0.06)
<b>Career intensity</b>												
Partner's inaccuracy	0.08	0.07	0.12 <sup>†</sup>	0.07	0.02	-0.05	0.01	0.03	0.14	0.14	0.03	0.00
	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.12)	(0.18)	(0.06)	(0.05)
Gender x partner's inaccuracy	0.03	-0.07	0.09	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.10	0.16 <sup>†</sup>	-0.08	0.20	-0.01	0.00
	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.11)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.13)	(0.19)	(0.06)	(0.06)

*Note.* “Likelihood of rel. persist.” indicates “predicted likelihood of relationship persisting”.  
\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < .05$ . †  $p < .1$ .