



The Desire for Power and Romantic Commitment in LGBTQ Relationships

Virgil Zeigler-Hill¹, Dallas LaCross¹

[1] *Department of Psychology, Oakland University, Rochester, MI, USA.*

Interpersona, 2023, Vol. 17(2), 197–212, <https://doi.org/10.5964/ijpr.7989>

Received: 2021-12-17 • **Accepted:** 2022-04-11 • **Published (VoR):** 2023-12-07

Corresponding Author: Virgil Zeigler-Hill, Department of Psychology, Oakland University, 654 Pioneer Dr., Rochester, MI 48309-4482, USA. E-mail: zeiglerh@oakland.edu

Abstract

The present study concerned the connection between the desire for power and romantic commitment in LGBTQ relationships as well as the roles that indicators of relationship functioning (e.g., relationship satisfaction) and perceptions of power played in this association. These associations were examined in community members ($N = 113$) involved in an LGBTQ romantic relationship. The desire for power had a negative association with romantic commitment that was mediated by perceptions of the relationship and moderated by perceived power. Similar to the results of previous studies concerning heterosexual relationships, these results suggest that issues surrounding the desire for power may be intimately connected with romantic commitment in LGBTQ relationships.

Keywords

power, romantic, relationship satisfaction, commitment

The term *power* refers to the ability of an individual to influence other people or control resources (e.g., Cheng et al., 2013; Simpson et al., 2015; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Considerable research has examined issues surrounding power in heterosexual relationships (see Agnew & Harman, 2019, for a review), and some studies have begun to consider the implications that the *desire for power* may have for the functioning of these relationships (e.g., Traeder & Zeigler-Hill, 2020). In contrast, the role that power may play in lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer (LGBTQ) romantic relationships has received little empirical attention. Our goal for the present study was to consider whether the extent to which an individual who is involved in an LGBTQ relationship desires additional power in that relationship was associated with their commitment as well as the possibility that



this association would be mediated by perceptions of the relationship (i.e., relationship satisfaction, investment, and quality of alternatives) or moderated by perceptions of power.

Power exists within romantic relationships as a dynamic process between partners (e.g., Simpson et al., 2015). That is, power within a romantic relationship is specific to that particular context and may have little connection to the power that an individual wields in other domains. For example, a janitor who spends their days feeling somewhat powerless at work may exert a tremendous amount of power in their interactions with their romantic partner when they return home each evening. Issues surrounding power have been shown to permeate nearly every aspect of romantic relationships and play fundamental roles in the dynamics surrounding these relationships (e.g., Agnew & Harman, 2019). The ability of individuals who are involved in romantic relationships to accomplish many of their goals will almost inevitably depend to some degree on the cooperation of their romantic partners because their lives are often so profoundly entwined (Overall et al., 2016). Power has important implications in romantic relationships because it is often expressed through domination of the decision-making process (Cromwell & Olson, 1975; Minieri et al., 2014), which may involve a range of issues, including financial decisions (e.g., Vogler, 1998), the division of labor within the household (e.g., Wong, 2012), and sexual behavior (e.g., Menger et al., 2015; Pulerwitz et al., 2000). In addition, power has implications for other aspects of romantic relationships, including the likelihood of intimate partner violence (e.g., Choi & Ting, 2008; Overall et al., 2016), communication patterns between partners (e.g., Dunbar & Bernhold, 2019; Solomon & Roloff, 2019), the frequency and intensity of romantic conflict (e.g., Overall et al., 2011), and the likelihood of infidelity (e.g., Berman & Frazier, 2005).

Gender is entwined with the power dynamics of heterosexual romantic relationships (Felmlee, 1994; Gray-Little & Burks, 1983; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997). Heterosexual individuals from Western cultures often report having a clear preference for a relatively equal balance of power in their relationships (e.g., Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997), and there has been consistent support for the various benefits that are associated with involvement in power-balanced relationships including greater intimacy and stability (e.g., Centers et al., 1971; Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Galliher et al., 1999; Peplau & Campbell, 1989; cf. Gray-Little, 1982). Despite these expressed preferences for the equitable sharing of power in heterosexual romantic relationships, women still tend to have less power in these relationships than men (Felmlee, 1994; Gray-Little & Burks, 1983; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997). One explanation for this pattern is that prescriptive gender roles may create power imbalances that favor men in heterosexual relationships (e.g., Anderson & Umberson, 2001; Eagly et al., 2000; Rudman & Kilianski, 2000). These power imbalances may be exacerbated by socioeconomic conditions (e.g., income disparities between men and women) that increase the likelihood that women may be at least somewhat dependent

upon their male partners for financial security (e.g., Barnett, 2000; Rusbult & Martz, 1995).

People in relationships with unequal distributions of power may want additional power if they think their partner has more power. Being at a power disadvantage is often undesirable because it reduces the likelihood that individuals will be able to behave in accordance with their own preferences (Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003). Therefore, it is not surprising that people who think they have relatively little power tend to report less favorable views of these relationships (Caldwell & Peplau, 1984) and are more likely than other individuals to experience a range of adverse outcomes that include mental health issues (Filson et al., 2010) and intimate partner violence (Bentley et al., 2007).

Issues surrounding power are strongly associated with how people view their relationships (see Simpson et al., 2019, for a review). For example, individuals who are dissatisfied with their level of power in a relationship tend to have negative views of that relationship (e.g., Traeder & Zeigler-Hill, 2020). A prominent approach for conceptualizing romantic relationship functioning is the Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980, 1983). The basic idea at the core of the Investment Model is that individuals will be more committed to their current romantic relationships (i.e., feelings of psychological attachment to a relationship as well as the intention to continue in the relationship; Rusbult et al., 2006) if they consider the relationship to be satisfying, believe they have a substantial investment in the relationship, and perceive a lack of desirable alternative romantic partners (see Rusbult et al., 1998, for an extended discussion). There has been considerable empirical support for the Investment Model in diverse couples over the decades (e.g., married couples, dating couples; see Le & Agnew, 2003, for a review).

LGBTQ romantic relationships have begun to receive greater empirical attention during recent years (e.g., Peplau & Fingerhut, 2007). For example, recent studies have focused on issues such as the factors surrounding relationship satisfaction in LGBTQ relationships (e.g., Lampis et al., 2021; Sommantico et al., 2019, 2020, 2021). Despite stereotypes that often portray LGBTQ relationships as being less stable or less satisfying than heterosexual relationships, research often reveals considerable similarities between LGBTQ relationships and heterosexual relationships (e.g., Balsam et al., 2008; Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Kurdek, 1998, 2004). In addition, basic support for the Investment Model has been found in LGBTQ relationships such that relationship satisfaction, investment, and quality of alternative partners predict romantic commitment in a similar fashion to heterosexual relationships (e.g., Barrantes et al., 2017; Greene & Britton, 2015). However, it should be noted that the Investment Model is often somewhat weaker in predicting the stability of LGBTQ relationships compared to heterosexual relationships. This may be due to factors such as the additional stressors experienced by individuals who are involved in LGBTQ relationships (e.g., Barrantes et al., 2017; Beals et al., 2002; Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Greene & Britton, 2015).

Although LGBTQ relationships have been receiving more empirical attention during recent years, the role that power plays in these relationships has received only limited attention (e.g., Kubicek et al., 2015). LGBTQ relationships are especially interesting with regard to power because decisions are often less reliant on biological sex or gender roles compared with heterosexual couples (Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Peplau & Fingerhut, 2007; Pollitt et al., 2018). Individuals involved in LGBTQ relationships often report a strong preference for equal power in their relationships, even though many of these couples fail to achieve this balance (Peplau & Fingerhut, 2007). For example, partners who earn less money or have less prestigious jobs often hold less power in LGBTQ relationships (e.g., Hall et al., 2017; Pollitt et al., 2018). Despite power discrepancies being at least somewhat common between LGBTQ partners, those relationships characterized by relatively equal levels of power are often more satisfying and stable than relationships with an uneven balance of power (see Peplau & Spalding, 2000, for a review).

The goal of the present study was to consider the role that power plays in LGBTQ romantic relationships. This research was intended to replicate and extend recent studies that have examined similar issues in heterosexual relationships (Traeder & Zeigler-Hill, 2020). That is, we were interested in examining whether the pattern of results reported by Traeder and Zeigler-Hill (2020) for heterosexual individuals would emerge for individuals involved in LGBTQ romantic relationships. This is important because relatively little research has considered the role that power dynamics play in LGBTQ relationships. As a result, the present study closely follows the aims, hypotheses, methodology, and measures employed by Traeder and Zeigler-Hill (2020), but focuses on individuals who are involved in LGBTQ romantic relationships. Similar to the results reported by Traeder and Zeigler-Hill (2020), we anticipated that people who wanted more power in their relationship would be less committed to continuing that relationship (Hypothesis 1). In addition, we believed that wanting more power would be indirectly associated with romantic commitment through perceptions of the relationship (e.g., relationship satisfaction; Hypothesis 2). Finally, we thought that perceptions of power may moderate the association that the desire for additional power had with commitment (Hypothesis 3).

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were 143 community members from the United States who were recruited using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and self-identified as being currently involved in an LGBTQ romantic relationship for at least three months. Data were excluded for 30 participants due to the following reasons: having more than 10% missing data ($n = 8$), failing two or more attention-check items ($n = 6$), being a univariate outlier ($n = 13$) or a multivariate outlier ($n = 1$), and having invariant response patterns ($n = 2$). We

also screened the data using the inter-item standard deviation, but we did not exclude any participants for this reason. There were 113 participants (68 cisgender women, 40 cisgender men, and 5 transgender/gender diverse individuals) in our final sample and they had a mean age of 31.16 years ($SD = 8.97$, range = 18–61 years). The racial/ethnic backgrounds of the final participants were 66% White, 10% Black/African American, 9% Hispanic, 4% Asian, and 11% other. Our sample included individuals who were dating (35%), cohabitating (34%), married (26%), and engaged (6%) with the mean length of these relationships being 3.96 years ($SD = 4.43$, range = 3 months–21 years). The majority of our participants (70%) reported having a romantic partner who shared their own gender identity (e.g., a cisgender female participant who described her romantic partner as also being a cisgender female), whereas the remaining participants reported having a romantic partner with a gender identity that differed from their own (e.g., a cisgender female participant who described her romantic partner as being a transgender person, a genderqueer person, or a gender non-conforming person).

Measures

Desire for Power

We measured the extent to which participants would like to have more power in their romantic relationships with a modified version of the Desire for Power Scale (Williams et al., 2017). The modifications consisted of minor changes to each item so that it focused on power in romantic relationships.

Perceived Power

We used the Relationship Power Inventory (Farrell et al., 2015) to measure how much power participants believe they hold in their romantic relationship.

Romantic Relationship Functioning

We used the Investment Model Scale (Rusbult et al., 1998) to capture four aspects of romantic relationship functioning: *relationship satisfaction*, *investment*, *quality of alternatives*, and *romantic commitment*.

Results

Zero-order correlations and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1. There was no correlation between the desire for power and perceived power. However, the desire for power had large negative correlations with relationship satisfaction and romantic commitment as well as a small negative correlation with investment, whereas it had a medium positive correlation with the quality of alternatives. Perceived power had a

small positive correlation with relationship satisfaction, but it was not correlated with investment, the quality of alternatives, or romantic commitment.

Table 1

Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Desire for Power	—					
2. Perceived Power	-.18	—				
3. Relationship Satisfaction	-.54**	.23*	—			
4. Investment	-.20*	.03	.19*	—		
5. Quality of Alternatives	.46**	.18	-.34**	-.09	—	
6. Romantic Commitment	-.51**	.02	.56**	.42**	-.53**	—
Cronbach's Alpha	0.87	0.73	0.91	0.73	0.85	0.86
<i>M</i>	2.54	4.17	6.40	6.05	3.29	7.06
<i>SD</i>	1.38	0.67	1.60	1.36	2.04	1.13

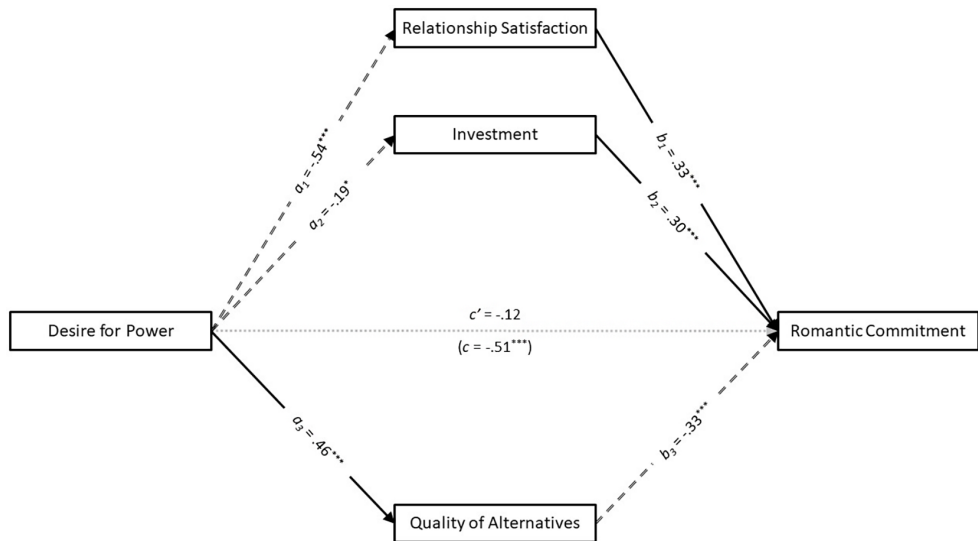
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .001$.

Parallel Multiple Mediation

We conducted a parallel multiple mediation analysis to examine whether the desire for power had indirect associations with romantic commitment through relationship satisfaction, investment, and quality of alternatives. The results of this analysis are presented in Figure 1. The desire for power had a large negative association with relationship satisfaction ($a_1 = -0.54$, $t = -6.70$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-0.70, -0.38], $f^2 = .40$) and a small negative association with investment ($a_2 = -0.19$, $t = -2.09$, $p = .039$, 95% CI [-0.38, -0.01], $f^2 = .04$), whereas it had a medium positive association with quality of alternatives ($a_3 = 0.46$, $t = 5.49$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.30, 0.63], $f^2 = .27$). In turn, relationship satisfaction ($b_1 = 0.33$, $t = 4.20$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.17, 0.48], $f^2 = .17$) and investment ($b_2 = 0.30$, $t = 4.54$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.17, 0.43], $f^2 = .19$) had medium positive associations with romantic commitment, whereas quality of alternatives had a medium negative association with romantic commitment ($b_3 = -0.33$, $t = -4.52$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-0.48, -0.19], $f^2 = .19$). Tests of mediation revealed negative indirect associations between the desire for power and romantic commitment through relationship satisfaction ($a_1b_1 = -0.18$, $z = -3.53$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-0.30, -0.07]), investment ($a_2b_2 = -0.06$, $z = -2.06$, $p = .020$, 95% CI [-0.13, -0.01]), and quality of alternatives ($a_3b_3 = -0.15$, $z = -3.46$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-0.24, -0.08]).

Figure 1

The Results of the Parallel Multiple Mediation Analysis



Moderated Mediation

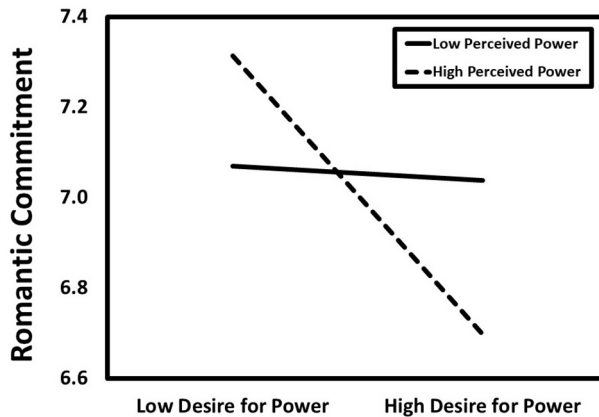
We supplemented our parallel mediation analysis with a moderated mediation analysis to examine whether perceived power moderated the indirect associations that the desire for power had with commitment. Results indicated that perceived power did not moderate the associations that the desire for power had with relationship satisfaction ($\beta = 0.13$, $t = 1.78$, $p = .078$, 95% CI [-0.01, 0.27], $f^2 = .03$), investment ($\beta = -0.06$, $t = -0.66$, $p = .514$, 95% CI [-0.22, 0.11], $f^2 = .00$), or quality of alternatives ($\beta = -0.05$, $t = -0.73$, $p = .467$, 95% CI [-0.20, 0.09], $f^2 = .00$). Perceived power did not moderate the negative indirect associations that the desire for power had with romantic commitment through relationship satisfaction ($\beta = 0.05$, 95% CI [-0.01, 0.12]), investment ($\beta = -0.02$, 95% CI [-0.07, 0.04]), or quality of alternatives ($\beta = 0.02$, 95% CI [-0.05, 0.07]).

Although perceived power did not moderate the *indirect* associations that the desire for power had with romantic commitment, it did moderate the *direct* association that the desire for power had with romantic commitment ($\beta = -0.13$, $t = -2.22$, $p = .029$, 95% CI [-0.25, -0.01], $f^2 = .05$; see Figure 2). We conducted simple slopes tests which showed a small negative association between the desire for power and romantic commitment for individuals with high levels of perceived power ($\beta = -0.27$, $t = -2.57$, $p = .012$, 95% CI [-0.48, -0.06], $f^2 = .06$) but not for individuals with low levels of perceived power ($\beta = -0.01$, $t = -0.14$, $p = .889$, 95% CI [-0.21, 0.18], $f^2 = .00$). This pattern shows that the most extreme levels of romantic commitment were reported by those who felt

relatively powerful such that they reported the highest levels of romantic commitment when they had little desire for additional power in their relationship but the lowest levels of romantic commitment when they wanted additional power. In contrast, individuals with low levels of perceived power reported moderate levels of romantic commitment regardless of their desire for additional power.

Figure 2

An Illustration of the Desire for Power \times Perceived Power Interaction for Romantic Commitment



Note. Solid black arrows = positive associations; Dashed black arrows = negative associations; Dotted grey arrows = no association.

Discussion

The present research considered the connection between the desire for power and romantic commitment in LGBTQ romantic relationships. We found support for Hypothesis 1 such that there was a negative zero-order correlation between the desire for power and romantic commitment that was large in magnitude. That is, individuals who wanted more power in their relationships tended to be less committed than other individuals. This pattern was similar to the results for individuals involved in heterosexual relationships that were reported by Traeder and Zeigler-Hill (2020).

We also found support for Hypothesis 2 such that the desire for power was found to be negatively associated with romantic commitment through relationship satisfaction, investment, and quality of alternatives. These results are similar to those found for heterosexual individuals (Traeder & Zeigler-Hill, 2020). However, investment was a weaker mediator than either relationship satisfaction or quality of alternatives. This pattern suggests that the link between the desire for power and romantic commitment in LGBTQ relationships may be primarily due to those who want more power feeling dissatisfied

with their relationships or finding other potential partners to be desirable rather than minimizing their investment in the current relationship.

We did not find support for Hypothesis 3 which involved perceived power moderating the indirect association that the desire for power had with romantic commitment. However, perceived power did moderate the direct association between the desire for power and romantic commitment. More specifically, wanting more power was negatively associated with commitment for individuals with high levels of perceived power, but not for those with low levels of perceived power. This pattern revealed that people with high levels of perceived power who had little desire for additional power tended to be the most committed to their relationships, whereas those people who had high levels of power but still found themselves wanting additional power reported the least commitment. In contrast, people who considered themselves to have relatively little power in their relationships reported moderate levels of commitment regardless of whether they wanted additional power. This pattern suggests that wanting additional power may be especially important for understanding how committed LGBTQ individuals are to their relationships when they believe themselves to already hold a lot of power within the relationship.

These results build on what is known about the role that issues surrounding power play in LGBTQ relationships. More specifically, the desire for power emerged as an important factor for understanding the extent to which LGBTQ individuals are committed to their romantic relationships. These results were similar in many ways to those observed for individuals involved in heterosexual relationships (Traeder & Zeigler-Hill, 2020). The similar associations between the desire for power and romantic commitment for individuals involved in either LGBTQ or heterosexual relationships suggest that frustration with the balance of power in a relationship may be detrimental for romantic commitment in a wide variety of romantic contexts. These results continue to build on those of previous studies showing considerable similarities between LGBTQ relationships and heterosexual relationships (e.g., Peplau & Fingerhut, 2007).

The desire for power may have implications for LGBTQ romantic relationships beyond its association with romantic commitment. For example, individuals in heterosexual relationships who are dissatisfied with their levels of power are more likely than others to engage in psychological and physical abuse (e.g., Rogers et al., 2005). Future research needs to consider whether similar patterns emerge in LGBTQ relationships. This is an important issue because intimate partner violence in LGBTQ relationships has additional complexities beyond what is often found in heterosexual relationships. For example, the experience of intimate partner violence is sometimes discounted in LGBTQ relationships since these situations may not involve violence between a man and a woman (Brown, 2008). Gaining a better understanding of the way that power functions in LGBTQ relationships may allow these individuals to be more proactive in their efforts to build more satisfying and stable relationships while reducing the likelihood of negative experiences

such as intimate partner violence (see [Greene & Britton, 2015](#), for an extended discussion).

The present results may also have clinical implications for those involved in LGBTQ relationships. Issues surrounding the struggle for power are believed to play important roles in many of the conflicts experienced by romantic couples (e.g., [Greenberg & Goldman, 2008](#); [Overall et al., 2016](#)). For example, a disagreement between romantic partners concerning a particular financial decision may actually reflect underlying issues pertaining to the power dynamics within the relationship. It is possible that these issues may sometimes be even more difficult to navigate for individuals who are involved in LGBTQ relationships because they are less likely to use biological sex or gender roles to resolve conflicts regarding the distribution of power ([Falbo & Peplau, 1980](#); [Peplau & Fingerhut, 2007](#); [Pollitt et al., 2018](#)). It would be beneficial for future research to examine whether helping LGBTQ couples develop strategies for navigating power-related conflicts would promote positive relationship outcomes (e.g., greater commitment).

This study had various limitations. The first limitation is that we only collected self-report data which may have allowed socially desirable response tendencies to influence our results. For example, some individuals may have avoided acknowledging their desire for power or providing honest evaluations of their current relationships. Some people may not have had a great deal of insight into their desire for power or romantic commitment. Therefore, future research should include approaches that go beyond reliance on self-reports. One possibility would be to utilize strategies such as dyadic reports in which both members of the romantic relationship report on their own experiences (e.g., their desire for power) and their perceptions of the partner's experience (e.g., their perception of the partner's desire for power).

The second limitation is that we relied on cross-sectional data, which precludes us from establishing a particular causal sequence between our variables. For example, a lack of romantic commitment may actually lead people to want more power in their relationship (e.g., those who are not committed may recognize that they have an advantage over their partner and seek to exploit the situation by seizing additional power). Future research should use experimental designs that attempt to manipulate the desire for power or longitudinal designs in which the desire for power and romantic commitment are repeatedly assessed in order to track their associations over a prolonged period of time in order to better understand the potential causal links between wanting more power in a relationship and being committed to that relationship.

The third limitation is that we relied on a convenience sample of participants who were willing to participate in this research in exchange for a small amount of financial compensation. Our use of convenience sampling is an important issue because the present results may not generalize to the broader LGBTQ population. Future research should attempt to replicate these results using other strategies for recruiting participants beyond reliance on convenience sampling. One possibility would be to engage

in community-based participatory research which attempts to establish partnerships between researchers and various stakeholders (e.g., community members, organizational representatives) because this may encourage participation from a more diverse and representative sample of participants who are engaged in LGBTQ romantic relationships. The fourth limitation is that the final sample consisted of only 113 individuals. Future studies concerning the role of power in LGBTQ romantic relationships would benefit from utilizing larger samples that included an even more demographically diverse group of individuals (e.g., age, racial/ethnic background, relationship length). The fifth limitation is that we were unable to verify whether our participants were actually currently engaged in an LGBTQ relationship. As a consequence, there is a possibility that some of the participants may have been dishonest in order to gain access to the small amount of financial compensation that was offered for their participation (e.g., a heterosexual individual may have claimed to be involved in an LGBTQ relationship so they could be paid for participating in the study).

Conclusion

We examined the connection between the desire for power and romantic commitment in LGBTQ relationships. Our results showed that wanting more power was negatively associated with romantic commitment through perceptions of the relationship. In addition, the association between wanting more power and romantic commitment was moderated by perceived power such that the negative association between the desire for power and romantic commitment emerged for those who believed they had a lot of power in their relationship but not for those who thought they lacked power. These results suggest that issues surrounding power are important for gaining additional insights into LGBTQ romantic relationships.

Funding: The authors have no funding to report.

Acknowledgments: The authors have no additional (i.e., non-financial) support to report.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

References

- Agnew, C. R., & Harman, J. J. (2019). *Power in close relationships: Advances in personal relationships*. Cambridge University Press.
- Anderson, K. L., & Umberson, D. (2001). Gendering violence: Masculinity and power in men's accounts of domestic violence. *Gender and Society, 15*(3), 358–380.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/089124301015003003>

- Balsam, K. F., Beauchaine, T. P., Rothblum, E. D., & Solomon, S. E. (2008). Three-year follow-up of same-sex couples who had civil unions in Vermont, same-sex couples not in civil unions, and heterosexual married couples. *Developmental Psychology, 44*(1), 102–116. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.44.1.102>
- Barnett, O. W. (2000). Why battered women do not leave, Part 1: External inhibiting factors within society. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse, 1*(4), 343–372. <https://doi.org/10.1177/152483800001004003>
- Barrantes, R. J., Eaton, A. A., Veldhuis, C. B., & Hughes, T. L. (2017). The role of minority stressors in lesbian relationship commitment and persistence over time. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity, 4*(2), 205–217. <https://doi.org/10.1037/sgd0000221>
- Beals, K. P., Impett, E. A., & Peplau, L. A. (2002). Lesbians in love: Why some relationships endure and others end. *Journal of Lesbian Studies, 6*(1), 53–63. https://doi.org/10.1300/J155v06n01_06
- Bentley, C. G., Galliher, R. V., & Ferguson, T. J. (2007). Associations among aspects of interpersonal power and relationship functioning in adolescent romantic couples. *Sex Roles, 57*(7-8), 483–495. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-007-9280-7>
- Berman, M. I., & Frazier, P. A. (2005). Relationship power and betrayal experience as predictors of reactions to infidelity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31*(12), 1617–1627. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167205277209>
- Brown, C. (2008). Gender-role implications on same-sex intimate partner abuse. *Journal of Family Violence, 23*(6), 457–462. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-008-9172-9>
- Caldwell, M. A., & Peplau, L. A. (1984). The balance of power in lesbian relationships. *Sex Roles, 10*, 587–599. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00287267>
- Centers, R., Raven, B. H., & Rodrigues, A. (1971). Conjugal power structure: A reexamination. *American Sociological Review, 36*, 264–278. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2094043>
- Cheng, J. T., Tracy, J. L., Foulsham, T., Kingstone, A., & Henrich, J. (2013). Two ways to the top: Evidence that dominance and prestige are distinct yet viable avenues to social rank and influence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 104*(1), 103–125. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030398>
- Choi, S. Y., & Ting, K. F. (2008). Wife beating in South Africa: An imbalance theory of resources and power. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(6), 834–852. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260507313951>
- Cromwell, R. E., & Olson, D. (1975). *Power in families*. Wiley.
- Duffy, S. M., & Rusbult, C. E. (1986). Satisfaction and commitment in homosexual and heterosexual relationships. *Journal of Homosexuality, 12*(2), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1300/J082v12n02_01
- Dunbar, N. E., & Bernhold, Q. (2019). Interpersonal power and nonverbal communication. In C. R. Agnew & J. J. Harman (Eds.), *Power in close relationships: Advances in personal relationships* (pp. 261–278). Cambridge University Press.
- Eagly, A. H., Wood, W., & Diekmann, A. B. (2000). Social role theory of sex differences and similarities: A current appraisal. In T. Eckes & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The development of social psychology of gender* (pp. 123–174). Erlbaum.

- Falbo, T., & Peplau, L. A. (1980). Power strategies in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(4), 618–628. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.38.4.618>
- Farrell, A. K., Simpson, J. A., & Rothman, A. J. (2015). The Relationship Power Inventory: Development and validation. *Personal Relationships*, 22(3), 387–413. <https://doi.org/10.1111/pere.12072>
- Felmlee, D. H. (1994). Who's on top? Power in romantic relationships. *Sex Roles*, 31(5/6), 275–295. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01544589>
- Filson, J., Ulloa, E., Runfola, C., & Hokoda, A. (2010). Does powerlessness explain the relationship between intimate partner violence and depression? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 25(3), 400–415. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260509334401>
- Galinsky, A. D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Magee, J. C. (2003). From power to action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(3), 453–466. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.3.453>
- Galliher, R. V., Rostosky, S. S., Welsh, D. P., & Kawaguchi, M. C. (1999). Power and psychological well-being in late adolescent romantic relationships. *Sex Roles*, 40(9/10), 689–710. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1018804617443>
- Gray-Little, B. (1982). Marital quality and power processes among Black couples. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 44, 633–646. <https://doi.org/10.2307/351585>
- Gray-Little, B., & Burks, N. (1983). Power and satisfaction in marriage: A review and critique. *Psychological Bulletin*, 93(3), 513–538. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.93.3.513>
- Greenberg, L. S., & Goldman, R. N. (2008). *Emotion-focused couples therapy: The dynamics of emotion, love, and power*. American Psychological Association.
- Greene, D. C., & Britton, P. J. (2015). Predicting relationship commitment in gay men: Contributions of vicarious shame and internalized homophobia to the investment model. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, 16(1), 78–87. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034988>
- Hall, C. D., Goldenberg, T., Andes, K., Finneran, C., & Stephenson, R. (2017). Financial imbalance, gender roles, and conflict among male-male couples. *Journal of Relationships Research*, 8, Article e2. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jrr.2017.2>
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, 110(2), 265–284. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.110.2.265>
- Kubicek, K., McNeeley, M., & Collins, S. (2015). “Same-sex relationships in a straight world”: Individual and societal influences on power and control in young men’s relationships. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 30(1), 83–109. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514532527>
- Kurdek, L. A. (1998). Relationship outcomes and their predictors: Longitudinal evidence from heterosexual married, gay cohabiting, and lesbian cohabiting couples. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 60(3), 553–568. <https://doi.org/10.2307/353528>
- Kurdek, L. A. (2004). Are gay and lesbian cohabiting couples really different from heterosexual married couples? *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 66(4), 880–900. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-2445.2004.00060.x>

- Lampis, J., De Simone, S., & Belous, C. K. (2021). Relationship satisfaction, social support, and psychological well-being in a sample of Italian lesbian and gay individuals. *Journal of GLBT Family Studies*, 17(1), 49–62. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1550428X.2020.1724844>
- Le, B., & Agnew, C. R. (2003). Commitment and its theorized determinants: A meta-analysis of the investment model. *Personal Relationships*, 10(1), 37–57. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6811.00035>
- Menger, L. M., Kaufman, M. R., Harman, J. J., Tsang, S. W., & Shrestha, D. K. (2015). Unveiling the silence: Women's sexual health and experiences in Nepal. *Culture, Health, and Sexuality*, 17(3), 359–373. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13691058.2014.937462>
- Minieri, A. M., Staton-Tindall, M., Leukefeld, C., Clarke, J. G., Surratt, H. L., & Frisman, L. K. (2014). Relationship power as a mediator of intimate partner violence and mental health issues among incarcerated, substance-using women. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 58(3), 303–319. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X12472017>
- Overall, N. C., Hammond, M. D., McNulty, J. K., & Finkel, E. J. (2016). When power shapes interpersonal behavior: Low relationship power predicts men's aggressive responses to low situational power. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 111(2), 195–217. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspi0000059>
- Overall, N. C., Sibley, C. G., & Tan, R. (2011). The costs and benefits of sexism: Resistance to influence during relationship conflict. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 101(2), 271–290. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022727>
- Peplau, L. A., & Campbell, S. M. (1989). Power in dating and marriage. In J. Freeman (Ed.), *Women: A feminist perspective* (4th ed., pp. 121–137). Mayfield Publishing.
- Peplau, L. A., & Fingerhut, A. W. (2007). The close relationships of lesbians and gay men. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 405–424. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.58.110405.085701>
- Peplau, L. A., & Spalding, L. R. (2000). The close relationships of lesbians, gay men, and bisexuals. In C. Hendrick & S. S. Hendrick (Eds.), *Close relationships: A sourcebook* (pp. 449–474). Sage.
- Pollitt, A. M., Robinson, B. A., & Umberson, D. (2018). Gender conformity, perceptions of shared power, and marital quality in same-and different-sex marriages. *Gender and Society*, 32(1), 109–131. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243217742110>
- Pulerwitz, J., Gortmaker, S. L., & De Jong, W. (2000). Measuring sexual relationship power in HIV/STD research. *Sex Roles*, 42(7/8), 637–660. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007051506972>
- Rogers, W. S., Bidwell, J., & Wilson, L. (2005). Perceptions of and satisfaction with relationship power, sex, and attachment styles: A couples level analysis. *Journal of Family Violence*, 20(4), 241–251. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-005-5988-8>
- Rudman, L. A., & Kilianski, S. E. (2000). Implicit and explicit attitudes toward female authority. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(11), 1315–1328. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167200263001>
- Rusbult, C. E. (1980). Commitment and satisfaction in romantic associations: A test of the investment model. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 16(2), 172–186. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031\(80\)90007-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(80)90007-4)

- Rusbult, C. E. (1983). A longitudinal test of the investment model: The development (and deterioration) of satisfaction and commitment in heterosexual involvements. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *45*(1), 101–117. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.45.1.101>
- Rusbult, C. E., Coolsen, M. K., Kirchner, J. L., & Clarke, J. A. (2006). Commitment. In A. L. Vangelisti & D. Perlman (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of personal relationships* (pp. 615–635). Cambridge University Press.
- Rusbult, C. E., & Martz, J. M. (1995). Remaining in an abusive relationship: An investment model analysis of nonvoluntary dependence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *21*(6), 558–571. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167295216002>
- Rusbult, C. E., Martz, J. M., & Agnew, C. (1998). The Investment Model Scale: Measuring commitment level, satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. *Personal Relationships*, *5*(4), 357–387. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6811.1998.tb00177.x>
- Simpson, J. A., Farrell, A. K., Orina, M. M., & Rothman, A. J. (2015). Power and social influence in relationships. In M. Mikulincer & P. Shaver (Eds.), *APA handbook of personality and social psychology: Interpersonal relations* (Vol. 3, pp. 393–420). American Psychological Association.
- Simpson, J. A., Farrell, A. K., & Rothman, A. J. (2019). The dyadic power-social influence model: Extensions and future directions. In C. R. Agnew & J. J. Harman (Eds.), *Power in close relationships: Advances in personal relationships* (pp. 86–101). Cambridge University Press.
- Solomon, D. H., & Roloff, M. E. (2019). Power and interpersonal communication. In C. R. Agnew & J. J. Harman (Eds.), *Power in close relationships: Advances in personal relationships* (pp. 241–260). Cambridge University Press.
- Sommantico, M., Donizzetti, A. R., Parrello, S., & De Rosa, B. (2019). Gay and lesbian couples' relationship quality: Italian validation of the Gay and Lesbian Relationship Satisfaction Scale (GLRSS). *Journal of Gay and Lesbian Mental Health*, *23*(3), 326–348. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19359705.2019.1621231>
- Sommantico, M., Iorio, I., Lacatena, M., & Parrello, S. (2021). Adult attachment, differentiation of self, and relationship satisfaction in lesbians and gay men. *Contemporary Family Therapy*, *43*(2), 154–164. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10591-020-09563-5>
- Sommantico, M., Parrello, S., & De Rosa, B. (2020). Lesbian and gay relationship satisfaction among Italians: Adult attachment, social support, and internalized stigma. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, *49*(5), 1811–1822. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-020-01736-5>
- Sprecher, S., & Felmlee, D. (1997). The balance of power in romantic heterosexual couples over time from “his” and “her” perspectives. *Sex Roles*, *37*(5/6), 361–379. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1025601423031>
- Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. Wiley.
- Traeder, C. K., & Zeigler-Hill, V. (2020). The desire for power and perceptions of heterosexual romantic relationships: The moderating roles of perceived power and gender. *Sex Roles*, *82*(1–2), 66–80. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-019-01037-9>
- Vogler, C. (1998). Money in the household: Some underlying issues of power. *Sociological Review*, *46*(4), 687–713. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-954X.00136>

- Williams, M. J., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Guillory, L. E. (2017). Sexual aggression when power is new: Effects of acute high power on chronically low-power individuals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *112*(2), 201–223. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspi0000068>
- Wong, D. (2012). Doing gender, doing culture: Division of domestic labour among lesbians in Hong Kong. *Women's Studies International Forum*, *35*(4), 266–275. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2012.04.003>