id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
115	F(1, 424) = 8.19, p< .005	icism in Japan is likely to be mediated by cultural rules of public display. Further, the effect of situation culture lends further support to the hypothesis that the meanings of self-relevant social situations in the respective cultures vary quite systematically in respect to their potential to afford either self-enhancing (in the United States) or self-critical (in Japan) meanings.Gender effectsAs in Study 1, the main effects for respondent gender and situation gender both proved significant, F(1, 424) = 8.19, p< .005, and F(1, 424) = 18.73, p< .0001, respectively. Thus male respondents showed a stronger self-enhancing tendency than did the female respondents, and male-made situations were more conducive to self-enhancement than were female-made situations. Thus, as might be predicted by the collective constructionist analysis, there was a correspondence between the effect of respondent gender and the effect of situation gender. Women were more prone to self-criticism (or less prone t	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
177	t(52) = -1.54, p = .13	dition was 0.42 Â± 1.96(.15) = .13â€“.71, where 1.96 is the cutoff value for a 95% confidence interval and .15 is the standard error of the gender difference. For the control condition, the 95% confidence interval was 0.13 Â± 1.96(.09) = â^'.05â€“.31. Because these confidence intervals do indeed overlap, we can conclude that the gender difference is not different across the two conditions (p < .05). As in the previous study, there were no gender differences in perception of Boggle performance, t(52) = â^'1.54, p = .13, Î· p2 = .04 (MMen = 3.21, SD = 0.83; MWomen = 2.85, SD = 0.93). Men did perform better than women this time (MMen = 9.38, SD = 5.80; MWomen = 7.02, SD = 3.50), t(57) = 3.56, p = .06, Î· p2 = .06. In this study, there was no significant correlation between perceived and actual performance for either men (r = .17, p = .41) or women (r = .02, p = .94). Because there were gender differences in actual Boggle performance, it is important to control for performance in the e	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
44	2(1) = 0.74, p = .39	.002, two-choice binomial, OR = 3.71; among 4-year-olds: 30 of 42 favored AmÃ©lie, p < .008, two-choice binomial, OR = 2.5. All 4-year-olds chose to give two cookies to AmÃ©lie and one to HÃ©lÃ¨ne, and none decided to give all three cookies to AmÃ©lie. Among the 3-year-olds, 22 gave two cookies to AmÃ©lie and one to HÃ©lÃ¨ne, and only four gave all three cookies to AmÃ©lie. In line with Experiment 1, distributions were influenced neither by age group, Ï‡ 2(1) = 0.21, p = .65, nor child's sex, Ï‡ 2(1) = 0.74, p = .39. We also analyzed separately the behavior of the 44 children who had been egalitarian in their initial distribution. When these children were encouraged to give the third cookie, 30 children favored the greater contributor (p < .03, two-choice binomial, OR = 2.14), with no difference between the age groups, Ï‡ 2(1) = 0.74, p = .79. Finally, we analyzed children's justifications following the same procedure as in Experiment 1 and found that a minority of children provided co	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
167	F(1, 76) = 2.09, ns	en (as illustrated in Figures 4 and 5). Conversely, when men and women feel equally confident about the domain being evaluated, the gender differences should not emerge. Thus, our finding the men and women in Study 2 to report similar levels of confidence in their case-analysis performance before they received negative feedback, Ms = 5.09 and 5.31 for men and women, respectively, F(1, 76) = 0.625, ns, and after they received negative feedback, Ms = 4.23 and 4.76 for men and women, respectively, F(1, 76) = 2.09, ns, may explain why no gender differences were observed in that study. In summary, our findings suggest that although Blacks and Whites may differ in their response to negative feedback and selection procedures, men and women in each racial group may differ in their responses as well. Furthermore, these differential reactions may be due, at least in part, to the individuals' feelings of confidence with regard to the domain being evaluated.These studies are not without limitations	3	1	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
118	F(1, 72) = 1.37, ns	tion, the two mood groups did not differ in anger, F(1, 72) = 0.21, ns, and there were no significant gender differences, F(1, 72) = 2.58, ns, or interaction effects, F(1, 75) = 0.25, ns.Following the mood induction, the results were as predicted, with the main effect for mood condition highly significant, F(1, 72) = 70.84, p< .0001; participants in the anger group reported higher anger (M= 5.75) than those in the neutral group (M= 3.09). The main effect for gender did not reach significance, F(1, 72) = 1.37, ns, but the Mood Condition Ã— Gender interaction was marginally significant, F(1, 72) = 3.82, p< .05. The means for this analysis are presented in Table 3. Similar to Experiment 2, the mood induction effects appear to have had the strongest effects for women; women in the neutral group reported the least anger, whereas women in the anger group reported the most anger. However, unlike Experiment 2, men and women were both significantly more angry in the anger condition than the ne	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
11	t(263) = 1.93, p < .06	remely similar to the in-group and different from the out-group. Turning now to the measure of agentic self-construal, the main effect of sex, F(1, 264) = 40.18, p < .001, indicates that male participants (M = 2.87, SD = 1.16) rated themselves higher on this dimension than female participants (M = 2.08, SD = 0.90). There was no main effect of condition, but the interaction was significant, F(2, 264) = 3.02, p = .05. As predicted, there was little gender difference in the intragroup condition, t(263) = 1.93, p < .06. In the control condition, the gender difference was reliable, t(264) = â^'3.81, p < .001, and in the intergroup condition, the gender difference was strong, with male participants (M = 3.03, SD = 1.28) rating themselves more highly than female participants (M = 1.83, SD = 0.86) on this dimension, t(263) = â^'5.12, p < .001. Gender accounted for 24% of the variance in the ratings in the intergroup condition. However, in contrast to the results obtained on the relational d	2	2	2	1

Unclear

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
66	F(1, 192) = 81.46, p < .001	observed between state self-objectification and self-surveillance, r(98) = .60, p < .001, and self-surveillance and body shame, r(98) = .28, p < .01; however, state-self-objectification and body shame were not significantly correlated, r(98) = â^'.16, p = .11. Mean Scores (and Standard Deviations) for State Self-Objectification, Self-Surveillance, and Body Shame in Experiment 1State self-objectificationAs expected, there was a significant effect of participant ~~sex on state~~ self-objectification, F(1, 192) = 81.46, p < .001, Î· p2 = .30, such that women (M = 6.86, SD = 11.62) reported higher scores than did men (M = â^'8.04, SD = 13.59). Sexism exposure also exerted a significant main effect, F(3, 192) = 9.35, p < .001, Î· p2 = .13. Of greatest interest to the present research, however, was the interaction between participant sex and exposure to sexism, F(3, 192) = 4.06, p < .01, Î· p2 = .06. As predicted, women who were exposed to benevolent sexism exhibited more state self-objectifica	3	2	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
132	F(1, 70) = 10.7, p < .01	he anticipation phase (i.e., 81.4 bpm vs. 80.8 bpm), or during the speaking phase (i.e., 94.0 bpm vs. 91.0 bpm). Among women, there were no effects for conditions during the listening phase (avg. HR = 75.9 bpm), anticipation phase (avg. HR = 79.6 bpm), or speaking phase (avg. HR = 94.5 bpm). Post hoc comparisons of sex differences in HR during each phase revealed a significant result only during the speaking phase; women displayed greater HR reactivity compared with men (94.5 bpm vs. 90.3 bpm), F(1, 70) = 10.7, p < .01. Thus, although overall the HR results did not support predictions, there was some support for the predicted effect of contingency on men's HR and some evidence that women reacted to speaking with greater HR elevations than did men. Speech AnalysesA 3 Ã— 2 (Conditions Ã— Sex) ANOVA of average loudness and duration of the speech sample produced several significant effects. A significant main effect for condition on loudness, F(2, 68) = 6.12, p < .004, indicated that subjec	3	2	2	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
135	2(1, N = 23) = 0.78, ns	r hypothesis about boss desirability in our rating measure, the forced choice boss preferences fell into the predicted pattern. When participants were asked whom they preferred as a boss, the choice of the female manager was significantly less frequent than the choice of the male manager in the no information condition, ï‡ 2(1, N = 23) = 4.26, p < .01. However, when managers were thought to have children, frequencies of choices between male and female managers did not differ from one another, ï‡ 2(1, N = 23) = 0.78, ns. DiscussionThe results were consistent with those of the first two studies. In the absence of information about parental status, successful female managers were viewed far more negatively than identically described male managers. However, as hypothesized, information that the successful female manager was a mother, which created perceptions of her as a communal person, eliminated the negativity directed at her. These data therefore lend additional support to the idea that	3	1	1	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
175	F(1, 195) = 3.31, p = .071	with life-threatening illnesses, (d) give money to a charity booth at the mall that purchases holiday gifts for poor families, and (e) buy dinner for a homeless family who approach them when they are leaving a restaurant with a group of friends. ResultsTo examine the specific hypotheses of the study, we performed a series of a priori lower order interactions and planned contrasts.BenevolenceConsistent with predictions, a three-way interaction emerged among Sex, Motivation, and Benevolence Type, F(1, 195) = 3.31, p = .071, Î· 2= .017 (see Figure 4). As in the first two studies, women in the romantic condition were more helpful in volunteer situations than women in the control condition, F(1, 94) = 4.57, p = .035, Î· 2= .046. Women were also more helpful than men across conditions, F(1, 195) = 11.81, p = .001, Î· 2 = .057, and a romantic desire again had no influence on men's helpfulness (p = .75). Figure 4. The influence of romantic motives on men's and women's benevolence depending on	2	2	2	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
36	‡2(1, N = 416) = 29.93, p < .001	ous SectionNext Section Results Association between sex and jealousy type In a large-sample study, Buss et al. (1992) found an association between sex and type of jealousy, and the present study replicated this finding: More men than women endorsed sexual infidelity as more distressing than emotional infidelity (men: 53.5%; women: 24.3%), and more women than men endorsed emotional infidelity as more distressing than sexual infidelity (women: 75.7%; men: 46.5%). This difference was significant, Ï‡2(1, N = 416) = 29.93, p < .001. Association between sex and attachment style We also examined whether there were sex differences in attachment style. Previous studies using self-report and interview measures have found significant sex differences in the distribution of attachment typesâ€"typically in the dismissing category: Men are more likely than women to endorse dismissing attachment (Adams, Sheldon-Keller, & West, 1995; Bakermans-Kranenburg & van IJzendoorn, 2009; Brennan, Shaver,	3	2	3	1

Disagree upon discussion

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
137	F(2, 1915) = 4.30, p< .014	on a correlation coefficient. The lower skewness of the peer nomination measure makes it a better variable for parametric analysis and suggests that it discriminates better among low range and mid-range values of aggression. As a result, peer-nominated aggression is the criterion variable in most analyses. The mean scores on peer-nominated aggression are plotted as a function of gender and grade in Figure 1.As expected, an analysis of variance revealed a significant Gender Ã— Grade interaction, F(2, 1915) = 4.30, p< .014, a main effect for gender with boys more aggressive, F(1, 1915) = 141.3, p< .001, a main effect for grade with older children more aggressive, F(2, 1921) = 18.1, p< .001. As Figure 1reveals, the Gender Ã— Grade interaction is caused by boys increasing more in aggression from first to second grade than girls. These effects for gender and grade were present within all three ethnic groups. Figure 1. Mean peer-nominated aggression scores as a function of gender and grade Ag	2	2	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
37	t(26) = 8.10, p< .001	Table 2shows the means averaged across the two sessions. Children's Choices of Toy to Keep, by Sex and Patient-Control Status Sex Difference and CAH Patient-Control Comparisons on Child Game Participantion Questionnaire (CGPQ)Not surprisingly, sex differences on the composite measures were large. At both sessions, the mean of control boys was significantly higher than that of control girls: at Session 1, .35 versus â^'.83, d= 3.0, t(24) = 6.85, p< .001; at Session 2, .42 versus â^'.86, d= 3.2, t(26) = 8.10, p< .001. On playmate preference, there was little overlap between control boys and girls (see Figure 2).The boys who scored within the range of girls were very young, and young children do not show strong same-sex playmate preferences (Hartup, 1983; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1987). Figure 2. Scores of control boys and girls on playmate preference task: 0 indicates complete preference for girls; 13 indicates complete preference for boys. Circles represent individual boys; triangles rep	2	2	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
65	t(172) = 2.96, p = .004	AT task in the â€œI likeâ€ block (M = 607 ms, SD = 59) versus the â€œI don't likeâ€ block (M = 638 ms, SD = 56), t(173) = â^'7.71, p < .001, d = 0.70. As in Studies 1â€"3, the strength of participants' implicit preference for physical attractiveness (calculated as in Studies 1â€"3) did not significantly correlate with their explicit preferences, r(172) = .03, p = .710. As expected, men reported a greater explicit preference for physical attractiveness than women, Mmen = 7.72, Mwomen = 7.20, t(172) = 2.96, p = .004. As in Studies 1â€"3, men and women did not significantly differ in their implicit preferences, Mmen = 35.5, Mwomen = 25.6, t(172) = 1.24, p = .217. Predictive validity of explicit and implicit preferences on speed-dater evaluationsWe first examined whether participants' explicit and implicit preferences for physical attractiveness moderated the extent to which their subjective judgment of each speed-dating partner's attractiveness (standardized to M = 0, SD = 1) predicted	2	2	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
59	F(113, 262) = 8.57, p < .001	reasons for participation, the mean number of fun hours was generally greater than the mean number of expediency hours, which in turn was greater than the number of pressure hours. Figure 1. Hours spent in different activities: Total hours, and hours associated with particular reasons for participation Descriptive StatisticsMeans and standard deviations for all variables in this study are presented by gender in Table 2. A one-way MANOVA revealed significant gender differences, Wilks's Î› = .74, F(113, 262) = 8.57, p < .001. Follow-up univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs) showed that, compared with boys, girls had lower scores on sports hours and delinquency; they had higher scores on arts hours, grades, and classroom competence as well as on internalizing symptoms. Simple correlations among all variables are depicted in Table 3. Descriptive Data for All Variables Separated by Gender Simple Correlations by Gender Clinically Significant Internalizing SymptomsParallel to the strategy us	3	2	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
99	F(5, 1896) = 0.29, p = .92	ion of use at each month for both men and women. Figure 1. Proportion of use across months of active phase illustrated for men and women.As illustrated in Figure 1, it appears that nearly the same percentage of men and women used cocaine through the treatment phase. Mirroring the analysis of Mulvaney et al. (1999), a gender by time interaction was included in the model. This interaction tested whether the proportion of men and women users differed over time. The interaction was not significant, F(5, 1896) = 0.29, p = .92, confirming the apparent similarity in the proportion of users during a given month for men and women illustrated in Figure 1. Do Transition Rates Differ Across Gender?: MMM Analyses Focusing on Differences in Oscillations Between Men and Women During the 6 Months of Active TreatmentThe above analysis indicates that the same percentage of men and women are using cocaine, but it does not indicate whether the same men and same women are consistently using or consistently	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
153	F(1, 115) = 6.55, p < .05	ungest children would claim similar high rates of controllability for both dreams and imagination, whereas older children and adults would increasingly claim that imagination is controllable but that dreams are not. A 4 (age) Ã— 2 (sex) Ã— 2 (condition: dream vs. imagination) ANOVA revealed, as expected, a significant main effect of condition, F(1, 115) = 59.42, p < .01, and a significant interaction of age and condition, F(3, 115) = 5.49 p < .01. A significant interaction of sex and condition, F(1, 115) = 6.55, p < .05, was also found. Inspection of the group means in Table 1 suggests the following interpretations. First, the Sex Ã— Condition interaction appears to reflect similar beliefs in the controllability of imagination among male and female participants but stronger endorsement of the controllability of dreams among female participants. The Age Ã— Condition interaction reflects two processes: an increase in beliefs about the controllability of imagination between ages 5 and 8 an		3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
125	r(4687)= .11, p <.01	groups. 3 We chose to include participants who met the criteria foranother diagnosis, with the exception of bipolar disorder. Becausecomorbidity tends to be the rule rather than the exception, we believedlimiting our analysis to participants who only experienced pure majordepression would decrease the generalizability and utility of thefindings. 4 Variations in degrees of freedom across analyses are theresult of missing data. 5 Not surprisingly, there was a relationship betweengender and CES-D, r(4687)=.11, p <.01, such thatwomen had higher CES-D scores than men. However, gender wasunrelated to ethnic or racial group, Ï‡2(3, N =4,700) = 2.67, p=.44. Age was also related to CES-D scores, r(4687) = â^'.09, p <.01, such that younger participants hadhigher CES-D scores than older participants. In addition,age was related to group membership, F(3,4690) = 18.76, p<.01, such that Black (M =35.41) and Hispanic participants (M =39.28) were younger than White (M =43.38) and American Indian par	3	2	2	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
35	F(1, 33) = 6.93, p < .05	members provided a performance measure of substantive, task-relevant contributions. The sex of model effects (center panel of Figure 1) were generally similar to those for talking times. Women and men contributed equal numbers of suggestions in both the all-female and all-male authority conditions, contrast F s(1, 33) = 0.57 and 0.04 (both ns). Men contributed more suggestions than did women in one of the mixed authority conditions (reversed commercials followed by male experimenter), contrast F(1, 33) = 6.93, p < .05, but not the other, contrast F(1, 33) = 0.37, ns). The content data showed that the women's talking times represented substantive task contributions, not merely social-emotional support of the men's ideas. The content data showed no significant sex of subject main effect (Table 2). Men did not contribute more substantive content suggestions than women did, on the average over all conditions. In summary, the performance data partly supported the hypothesis: Men and women	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
139	F(1, 61) = 4.11, p< .05	tests showed the following: (a) The covariate was normally distributed, with similar mean and standard deviation within cells, (b) there was homogeneity of regression coefficients, and (c) the relationship between the dependent measure and the covariate was linear. To control for effects of individual differences in pay during the previous co-op term, the participantsâ€™ own hourly wage was used as a covariate.The analysis revealed a significant Gender Ã— Income-Experience Salience interaction, F(1, 61) = 4.11, p< .05 (see Table 3).Overall, women paid themselves significantly less (M= $4.94) than did men (M= $6.50), F(1, 61) = 6.20, p< .02, but women's lower self-payment occurred only when their recent pay experience was not made salient. Pairwise comparisons by means of the ScheffÃ© procedure showed that when participants were reminded of their recent pay experience, there were no significant gender differences in self-pay (for women: $5.56; for men: $5.96; ns).However, when pay hist	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
142	F(1, 64) = 118.24, p < .001	tudents were required to read the two cases and assess perceptions regarding the gender orientation and level of difficulty of the tasks using items measured on a 7-point scale. We analyzed the responses using a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) on the factors Gender (of the respondent), Order (of the presentation of the cases), and Case Type (MOT, FOT). The analysis supported the claim that these two cases differed significantly on this measure of gender orientation, F(1, 64) = 118.24, p < .001. Specifically, results for items assessing whether men or women would be perceived as the expert (1 = primarily men, 7 = primarily women) indicated that men were perceived as more experienced and knowledgeable regarding the MOT (M = 2.57, SD = 1.20), whereas women were perceived as more experienced and knowledgeable regarding the issues in the FOT (M = 5.78, SD = 1.14). The results supported the face validity of these two cases regarding their gender orientation. We	2	2	2	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
160	F (1, 52) = 9.76, p<0.003	Participants rated the romantic partner's face as eliciting higher feelings of pleasantness, arousal, and dominance than the same-gender parent's face (valence (F (1, 52) = 11.90, p<0.001; p2 = .186); arousal (F (1, 52) = 11. 02, p<0.002; p2 = .175); dominance (F (1, 52) = 6. 66, p<0.02; p2 = .113)). Significant main effects of gender were also found for the valence and arousal scales. Women rated their father's and romantic partner's faces as eliciting higher feelings of pleasantness than men (F (1, 52) = 9.76, p<0.003; p2 = .158), but men rated both faces as eliciting higher feelings of arousal than women (F (1, 52) = 4.29, p<0.04; p2 = .076).DiscussionThese results indicate that, for both men and women, viewing loved, familiar faces inhibits paradigmatic defense reactions, such as the eye-blink startle reflex. They also replicate previous findings of peripheral electrophysiological responses shown by women in reaction to loved, familiar faces [30], [31] and extend the same findings t	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
16	2(1, N = 108) = 3.48, ns	nts in the previous 12 months. Data on the frequency of the 11 methods of SMB queried in the FASM are presented in Table 1. No participants endorsed using any methods of self-mutilation other than those listed in Table 1. Frequency of Each Method of Self-Mutilative BehaviorSelf-mutilators were more likely to be female (74.2%) than male (25.8%); however, these rates were consistent with the gender breakdown of this sample, and there was no significant gender difference for the presence of SMB, Ï‡ 2(1, N = 108) = 3.48, ns. Most individuals began engaging in SMB in early adolescence, although some reported doing so during childhood (age of onset in years: M = 12.8, SD = 2.1, Mdn = 13.0, Mode = 13.0, range = 6â€“17). There were no significant age, gender, or ethnic differences for frequency, methods, or age of onset. Functions of SMBCFASeveral fit index values can be used to determine goodness-of-fit of confirmatory structural equation models, including nonsignificant Ï‡ 2, incremental fit	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
12	F(1, 84) = 15.97, p < .001	st performance information, F(6, 164) = 3.59, p < .002, as well as a significant interaction between them, F(6, 164) = 2.26, p < .05. Univariate ANOVAs and intercell contrasts were conducted to test our hypotheses. All intercell contrasts were conducted using Fisher's LSDs, with the significance level set at p < .05. Table 3 presents the relevant means and standard deviations. Means (and Standard Deviations) for Study 3CompetenceAn ANOVA yielded a significant main effect for both sex of target, F(1, 84) = 15.97, p < .001, Î· 2 = .161, and past performance information, F(2, 84) = 8.74, p < .001, Î· 2 = .174. The Sex of Target Ã— Past Performance Information interaction was also significant, F(2, 84) = 3.81, p < .05, Î· 2 = .084. Intercell contrasts, testing our specific hypotheses, were highly supportive of our predictions. As expected, women were rated as significantly less competent than their male teammates in the vague performance information condition but not in the specific perform	3	3	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
90	F(1,94) = .038, p = .85	s found across all test puzzles (+SE), as a function of priming condition (high-performance-goal vs. neutral), for Experiment 1 in Bargh et al. (2001), Experiment 1, and Experiment 2.(SE was not reported in Bargh et al., 2001).doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0072467.g001In fact, if anything, participants tended towards locating fewer words in the high-performance-goal priming condition (M = 17.81, SD = 3.97) than in the neutral condition (M = 19.36, SD = 3.58). There was also no main effect of gender, F(1,94) = .038, p = .85, nor an interaction of gender with condition, F(1,94) = 2.92, p = .09. (Bargh et al. also did not find a significant effect of gender or an interaction with gender.) The results also were scored using a more lenient scoring system, giving credit if the intended target was missed, but a shorter overlapping target word was found that was consistent with the theme of the puzzle. Again, the results showed no main effect for priming condition (nor were the means in the correct	3	1	3	1

id	Raw	sentences500	chjh	jmw	mva	disagree
95	2(1) = 9.2, p < .01	ationThe bottom section of Table 4 displays the coefficients predicting advances in steps toward separation. Relationship satisfaction was the only significant predictor for husbands, suggesting that when husbands were less satisfied, relative to their average satisfaction, they took more steps toward separation. For women, however, higher relationship satisfaction at a particular point in time did not go along with a progression toward dissolution, and this gender difference was significant, ï‡ 2(1) = 9.2, p < .01. Only fluctuations in women's IM component were significantly associated with steps toward separation, suggesting that at times when they reported higher IM than on average, they were less likely to take steps toward separation, gender difference significant: ï‡ 2(1) = 4.3, p < .05. Overall, the results provide support for Hypothesis 3a and partial support for Hypothesis 3b. Long-term prediction of separation and divorceTo examine long-term associations between commitment sco	3	2	3	1