

## The Dyadic Power-Social Influence Model

### *Extensions and Future Directions*

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Imagine a couple, Johnny and Tara, both of whom love each other and are in a happy, committed relationship. Johnny is a strikingly attractive man with a lot of resources and many potential dating options if he chose to pursue them. Tara is similarly attractive, but has fewer resources and more limited options for possible alternative partners. According to traditional conceptualizations of power (see Galinsky, Rucker, & Magee, 2015; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003), Johnny has greater power in the relationship than Tara does. Consistent with his level of power, Johnny usually gets his way when he and Tara make decisions on issues that are important to him, but Tara still makes a good percentage of the decisions in their relationship, and Johnny occasionally steps back to let Tara “get her away” when certain decisions need to be made.

Why doesn't Johnny make most or all of the decisions in their relationship? Why does he defer to Tara when certain decisions are made, and even make no attempt to influence her at times? The reasons center on the critical fact that, unlike strangers or individuals in highly structured roles (e.g., coworkers), Johnny and Tara are voluntarily involved in a close relationship in which power and the use of influence strategies and tactics must be enacted in an appropriate and judicious way in order for both of them to remain happy and for their relationship to remain stable. Models of power within close relationships, therefore, are likely to be different than those developed for other types of relationships.

In this chapter, we overview the dyadic power-social influence model (DPSIM; Simpson et al., 2015), which suggests how the use of different influence strategies/tactics, situated within the unique power dynamics that exist between relationship partners, should be related to different types of personal and relational outcomes. We also highlight some of the situational factors that may affect the use of certain influence strategies/tactics by relationship partners who have higher versus lower power and then discuss recent dyadic power studies that have tested predictions relevant to the DPSIM model. We conclude by pointing out several promising directions in which future research on power in close relationships might head.

THE DYADIC POWER-SOCIAL INFLUENCE MODEL

Prior theories of power (e.g., French & Raven, 1959; Huston, 1983; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) suggest how and why the traits or characteristics of each partner in a relationship should be related to certain power bases that each partner holds, how these power bases should be associated with the use of specific influence strategies and tactics, and how the use of these strategies/tactics might affect personal or relational outcomes in each partner. The dyadic power-social influence model (DPSIM), which is shown in Figure 5.1, leverages constructs and principles from these prior theories and integrates them into a process model that specifies some of the individual (partner) and relationship (dyadic) traits or characteristics that should affect each partner’s potential power bases, influence strategies/tactics, and ultimate personal or relationship outcomes.

Consistent with prior definitions (Galinsky et al., 2008; Huston, 1983; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), we define power as: (a) the ability or capacity to change another person’s thoughts, feelings, and/or behavior so they align with one’s own desired preferences, and (b) the ability or capacity to resist influence attempts imposed by another person. This definition is more expansive than some earlier definitions of power because it suggests that power involves not only the ability or capacity to change the thoughts, feelings, and/or behavior of another person, but also the ability to *resist* their counter-influence attempts (see Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

THE MODEL

According to the DPSIM, which situates power within a dyadic framework, four sets of constructs are critical to understanding power and influence in close relationships (see Figure 5.1). They include the characteristics of each partner (the boxes labeled “Person A’s Characteristics” and “Person B’s

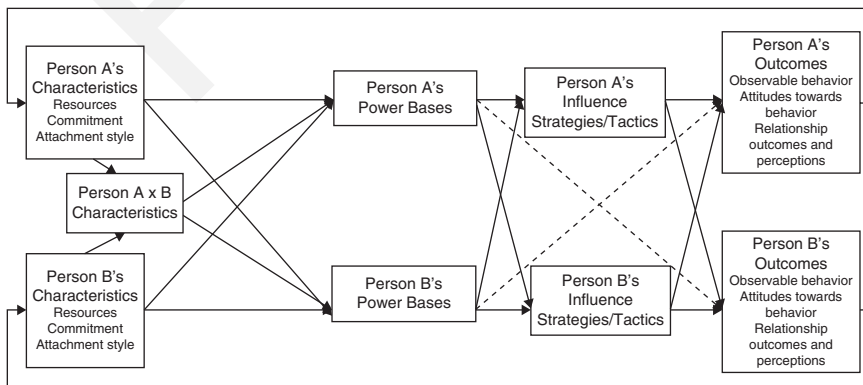


FIGURE 5.1 The dyadic power-social influence model

Source: Simpson et al. (2015)

Characteristics”), the type of power each partner potentially has and can use (the boxes labeled “Person A’s Power Bases” and “Person B’s Power Bases”), the type of influence strategies/tactics each partner can deploy (the boxes labeled “Person A’s Influence Strategies/Tactics” and “Person B’s Influence Strategies/Tactics”), and the outcomes each partner experiences following influence attempts (the boxes labeled “Person A’s Outcomes” and “Person B’s Outcomes”). Some of the key traits or characteristics are likely to be each partner’s personal attributes (i.e., his/her attractiveness, status/resources, warmth/trustworthiness; Fletcher et al., 1999), each partner’s personality traits (e.g., his/her standing on the Big 5 traits; McCrea & Costa, 1987), and each partner’s general orientation to relationships (e.g., his/her attachment orientation [Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016]; communal vs exchange orientation [Clark & Mills, 1979]). The core power bases include French and Raven’s (1959) six bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, expert, referent, and informational. The primary influence strategies (and their underlying tactics) are organized along two dimensions (Overall et al., 2009): direct vs indirect tactics (e.g., being explicit, overt, and direct vs being passive or covert when trying to resolve issues or induce change in a partner) and positive vs negative tactics (e.g., using tactics that elicit positive vs negative affect). The primary outcomes include the degree to which an influence attempt changes the targeted attitudes and/or behavior of each partner, along with his/her personal outcomes (e.g., positive well-being, depressive symptoms, anxiety) or relational outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, trust; Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000).

The parallel lines running from left to right in the center of the model in Figure 5.1 depict possible actor effects (i.e., how an actor’s characteristics affect his/her own access to power bases, use of specific influence strategies/tactics, and personal or relational outcomes, statistically controlling for the *partner’s* characteristics). The non-parallel lines running from left to right represent possible partner effects (i.e., how the partner’s characteristics affect the actor’s access to power bases, use of specific influence strategies/tactics, and personal or relational outcomes, statistically controlling for the *actor’s* characteristics). It is necessary to control for partner and actor effects in order to isolate the unique effect that actor traits/characteristics have on the actor’s outcomes (above and beyond the impact of those of their partner) as well as the unique effect that partner traits/characteristics have on the actor’s outcomes (above and beyond the impact of those of the actor). Without such statistical modeling, actor and partner effects are potentially confounded due to shared variance.

According to the DPSIM, each partner’s personal characteristics can affect his/her ability or capacity to utilize certain power bases in the relationship. If, for example, Person A enters the relationship with many resources (Blood & Wolfe, 1960) or very good alternatives to the current relationship (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), she or he should be able to leverage more bases (sources) of power

to influence his or her partner in pursuit of the outcomes he or she wants when most relationships decisions are made. The personal characteristics of each individual's *partner*, however, may also impact the individual's ability or capacity to use power bases within the relationship. If, for instance, Person B enters the relationship with few resources or poor relationship alternatives, she or he should have fewer and weaker sources of power from which to influence his or her partner. Consequently, s/he is less likely to obtain the decision outcomes that s/he prefers in most –but not necessarily all – decision domains. This should especially be true if Person A has many more resources or much better alternatives *relative to his/her partner*. This “within-dyad” variable is represented by the box labeled “Person A x B Characteristics” in Figure 5.1, which represents the statistical interaction of the two partners' characteristics on a given variable. Additional Person A x Person B interactions could reflect the size of the discrepancy between partners' personal values, their personality trait scores, or other salient characteristics. Within-dyad variables can also include relationship-specific rules or norms that partners develop and follow, such as which partner is responsible for making decisions in a given domain (e.g., paying the bills, deciding where to go on vacation).

These actor and partner characteristics should determine what power bases each individual can draw upon when they are in power-relevant situations. For example, having considerable knowledge about an issue could lead individuals to rely on expert power as their primary power base; individuals with high-quality alternatives to the relationship might use coercive power, with the threat of leaving their partner being a potential punishment. As the decision-making process unfolds, individuals should use influence strategies and tactics tied to their key power bases in order to persuade their partners most effectively. Actors (individuals) with high expertise should use rational reasoning and facts to frame cogent arguments; in contrast, actors who have coercive power should draw on coercive tactics, implying threats if they do not get their way. Depending on the process and outcomes of these discussions, actors should feel more or less positively about themselves and their relationship.

To illustrate these dynamics, let's return to our hypothetical couple, Johnny and Tara. Johnny entered the relationship having more money than Tara and being a very good “catch” according to Tara. As a result, Johnny should be able to utilize different power bases (e.g., reward power, coercive power, legitimate power) to frame better, more convincing, or stronger influence messages that typically allow him to “get his way” in most decision-making discussions with Tara. Given Johnny's comparatively greater resources and ability to find good alternative partners, Tara should have fewer and weaker power bases from which to generate persuasive influence appeals in the relationship. In many decision-making domains (especially those important to Johnny), Tara may not be able to offer sufficiently enticing rewards to get Johnny to go along with

her preferences, she should find it more difficult to punish him when he fails to do what she wants, it should be more difficult to appeal to his commitment to their relationship when trying to persuade him, and tactics that rely on logic and reasoning are likely to be less effective. Tara, in other words, should be less able to “act” on her personal characteristics and preferences because Johnny’s characteristics and preferences restrict what she can say, do, and ultimately accomplish in most relationship-based decisions. When decisions are very important to Tara, however, she should enact direct and positive influence strategies/tactics, which may have minimal or mixed success.

There should be situations, however, when Johnny does *not* need to exert any direct influence on Tara in order to get his way because she has learned to anticipate and automatically defer to his preferences before an influence attempt needs to be made. Two of the partner effect pathways in Figure 5.1 have dashed non-parallel lines that run from the boxes labeled “Person A’s Power Bases” to “Person B’s Outcomes” and from those labeled “Person B’s Power Bases” to “Person A’s Outcomes.” These pathways indicate that partners who have greater general or domain-specific power might, at times, be able to obtain the outcomes they want without needing to use direct influence strategies or tactics. This nuanced point highlights an important fact about power and influence in close relationships: The more powerful individual in a relationship often may not need to use influence tactics to persuade his or her less powerful partner because, over time, the less powerful partner either acquiesces or eventually changes his or her opinions to be in line with the more powerful partner. Although most couples display this self-other merger as their relationship develops (see Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992), power asymmetries may lead the “joint self” to resemble the high power partner more than the low power partner. Low power partners might acquiesce in order to please their more powerful partners, avert conflicts, maintain the relationship, or avoid being exposed to direct, negative influence attempts. In relationships in which one partner holds considerably more power than the other and has little regard for the low power partner, the association between power and influence attempts might actually be negative (Huston, 1983).

The personal and relational outcomes that both partners experience following influence attempts are likely to depend on several factors, including: (a) how important the issue and decision outcome is to each partner, (b) the degree to which each partner got what s/he wanted, (c) how much each partner resisted influence attempts, and (d) the extent to which each partner used negative influence strategies or tactics. These factors are likely to impact each partner’s mood and self-perceptions (e.g., self-esteem, self-efficacy) as well as each partner’s relationship perceptions (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, trust). If, for example, Johnny has used many power bases and strong influence tactics to convince Tara to give into his preferences on an important issue for him, he is likely to feel positive, efficacious, and pleased with Tara for letting him have his way. In contrast, Tara might feel less efficacious and more depressed,

blaming Johnny and/or their relationship for generating these negative outcomes. In these situations, taking the needs and motives of *both* partners into account may be essential to predict how each partner thinks, feels, and behaves (e.g., Overall et al., 2016).

### Physical and Social Environment and Feedback Loops

Although not explicitly delineated in Figure 5.1, the DPSIM assumes that each partner is embedded within a physical and social environment that can affect the personal characteristics he or she brings into the relationship (Huston, 1983). For example, the physical environment in which an individual has grown up or currently lives may affect the financial and social resources one currently has or could develop in the future (Blood & Wolfe, 1960). In addition, the past and/or present social environment could shape the orientation an individual adopts to relationships, such as whether he or she is securely or insecurely attached or has a communal or an exchange orientation to relationships. These factors, in other words, may “set up” the personal characteristics that each partner brings to the current relationship, which could in turn influence the power bases, influence strategies/tactics, and personal or relational outcomes of each partner.

Over time, each partner’s personal and relational outcomes may circle back and change his or her personal characteristics (the solid lines in Figure 5.1 that run from the boxes labeled “Person A’s Outcomes” to “Person A’s Characteristics” and from “Person B’s Outcomes” to “Person B’s Characteristics”). Indeed, the DPSIM assumes that certain outcomes of the power/influence process should change certain characteristics of partners. Individuals who get their way on a specific issue may begin to perceive they have relatively more power in that domain than their partner does, which could lead individuals to take charge of future decisions in that domain.

Shifts in the balance of power within a relationship might also produce changes in partner characteristics. If, for example, the overall level of power in Tara and Johnny’s relationship becomes more equitable over time as Tara develops more areas of domain-specific power and she continues to provide Johnny with unique rewards and good outcomes (such as by allowing Johnny to get his way most of the time with little effort by him; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), Johnny should become more satisfied with the relationship and more committed to Tara. This, in turn, should increase one or more of Tara’s power bases and, therefore, the effectiveness of the influence strategies/tactics she can use to achieve more of her own personal goals in the future.

### Situational Effects

The DPSIM model suggests that the dyad member who has more desirable characteristics should, on average, have more power bases to draw upon, be able to enact stronger influence strategies/tactics, resist influence attempts

from the partner, get his/her way more often, and experience better personal and relational outcomes. However, there are situational factors that should govern when and how both high and low power partners within a relationship use the power they possess. As we discuss below, some of the key situational factors that might affect the general processes outlined in the DPSIM include certain features of the relationship and the issue under consideration.

To date, research on power has relied on designs using a specific type of “relationship,” in which power roles are primed or assigned between strangers who meet only in the lab and never see one another again (see Galinsky et al., 2015, for a review). Because these “relationships” are superficial and transient, more powerful individuals have nothing to lose by using strategies and tactics that support the forceful pursuit of whatever they want. When power has been studied in ongoing relationships, individuals are often coworkers or members of structured organizations such as fraternities (e.g., Akinola & Mendes, 2014; Anderson, Langner, & Keltner, 2001). These groups have explicitly defined and recognized hierarchies, and structural power differences that tend to be rather stable are the norm in these settings. In contrast, most individuals in many parts of the world want egalitarian romantic relationships (Caldwell & Peplau, 1984; Galliher et al., 1999; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997). Thus, when power differences do exist between partners in close relationships, they are less likely to be openly acknowledged or explicitly defined. As relationship partners grow closer and become more interdependent, the ways in which power is used and its potential consequences should deviate even more from the typical patterns that have been documented between strangers or coworkers.

More specifically, as relationships are characterized by increased closeness, greater commitment, and/or a communal orientation, there should be a reduced likelihood that the more powerful partner in a relationship directly pursues whatever he or she desires in all situations. One of the most important consequences of commitment is *transformation of motivation*, which occurs when individuals choose to refocus on what is best for their partner and the relationship rather than on what is best just for them (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994). Transformation of motivation allows people to reset their priorities and, in doing so, attenuates the need to use power to achieve self-focused goals. People are now more likely to sacrifice for the partner or put aside one’s own plans or goals for important relationship plans or goals (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). Feelings of closeness also lead individuals to view the partner as part of themselves, motivating individuals to treat their partner as they treat themselves (Aron et al., 1992). Adopting a communal orientation leads individuals to be less concerned with maintaining their own self-interest and, instead, offer benefits to their partner freely, without concerns about whether they will receive equivalent benefits in the immediate future (Clark & Mills, 1979).

Considered together, these relationship features should lead the more powerful partner in a relationship to view his/her partner’s desires and

well-being as perhaps equally important to his/her own. This change in perception should motivate higher power partners to act in ways that make their lower power partner feel supported and happy rather than taken advantage of or overpowered. For example, if Johnny feels very close and committed to Tara despite being the relatively more desirable partner, he should use more positive influence tactics rather than coercing her into going along with him. He may also be more inclined to go along with what Tara wants in order to keep her happy. As a relationship develops and grows, partners are likely to identify new couple-based goals (e.g., buying a house, starting a family), leading them to merge many of their personal goals with those held by their partner (Aron et al., 1992). Over time, this transformation should render the more powerful partner in the relationship somewhat less powerful because what is good for Johnny is now also good for Tara as he becomes more dependent on her.

However, the extent to which Johnny is willing to lessen his use of power should also depend on the specific issue at hand. Depending on what is being decided, Johnny can leverage one or more of his potential power bases to frame more impactful influence appeals that offer Tara desirable rewards for going along with what he wants, threaten to punish her if she does not do what he wants, call upon her deep “commitment to the relationship” to see things his way, or use logic and reasoning to convince Tara to change her opinion or behavior. When certain decisions are important to Johnny and Tara is likely to comply, he should use direct and positive influence strategies/tactics. When Tara is reluctant to agree with or comply on issues that are important to Johnny, he may resort to using direct and negative influence strategies/tactics. And when decisions are less consequential to Johnny or when Tara needs less of a “push” to comply, he may use indirect strategies/tactics framed in a more positive fashion, given that such strategies are less likely to destabilize the relationship (Overall et al., 2009).

Relationship power is typically conceptualized as a general, global feature of the relationship in which one partner is thought to have more or less power than the other. However, power can also be situated within a given domain (e.g., finances, parenting), reflecting difference in expertise or the development of relational norms (see Farrell, Simpson, & Rothman, 2015). For example, Tara and Johnny might develop a relationship norm in which Tara makes the decisions in certain domains (e.g., childrearing), perhaps due to her expertise relative to Johnny, societal norms regarding mothers, or also to ensure that each partner has a role in making certain decisions so the relationship remains somewhat balanced and operates more smoothly. Johnny may have more power in the relationship overall, but Tara may get her way in “her” decision domains, which may mitigate any adverse reaction she might have to the overall power difference in the relationship. Imbalances in power across specific domains often may not be problematic in most relationships as long as the overall balance remains fairly equal. Indeed, as relationships develop, the less



powerful partner may gradually assume more domain-specific power, which may eventually increase his/her general power in the relationship over time. This process might be reinforced by other family members such as children, who may regularly turn to the partner with greater domain-specific power for information, advice, or approval, gradually expanding the less powerful partner's overall power.

Another way in which power may vary is in the *type* of power held by different partners. Farrell et al. (2015) draw an important distinction between outcome power (i.e., which partner formally makes a given decision) and process power (i.e., which partner sets up or frames potential decision options). Partners who have less overall power in a relationship typically should have less outcome power, but they might hold considerable process power by doing behind-the-scenes planning, information gathering, and staging before the couple has a conversation about a relationship-relevant decision. Tara, for instance, might not necessarily be able to decide where she and Johnny go on vacation, especially if Johnny believes he should have greater say in this decision domain, but she can gather information and lay out options that would result in choosing a vacation destination that she would like. The use of process power by less powerful relationship partners may sometimes be the best way for them to gain some say in certain decisions. If enacted well, the use of process power may not only keep the more powerful partner happy, but also keep the relationship running more smoothly.

Developing domain-specific power structures takes both time and trust. Thus, the way in which power is established and enacted is likely to vary across different stages of relationship development. During the early fledgling relationship stage, partners must establish a power structure in the relationship that satisfies both of them in light of what each one brings to the relationship. As a result, the enactment of influence attempts and the emerging power dynamics in the relationship should be salient and important to both partners. During this early stage, partners may also adopt more of an "exchange orientation" toward most decisions, regardless of the specific decision-making domain or their areas of expertise, by exploring, talking about, and making many decisions together.

Once relationships become more established, the key challenge shifts to maintaining equilibrium and stability in the established power structure. During this established stage, relationship roles and expectations become more solidified, the trust that both partners have in one another should be higher, and power-relevant processes should proceed fairly automatically (unless one or both partners is unhappy with the current balance of power in the relationship).

Changes do, however, come to all relationships, resulting in new decision-making domains being introduced or removed, such as moving in together, having children, or retiring. During such transitional periods, the key

challenges are to redistribute and rebalance the power structure in the relationship as roles change and decision-making domains shift. Power processes should once again become salient, and decision making should once again become more controlled, systematic, and effortful as partners renegotiate new roles, expectations, and issues in their relationship, particularly regarding decision-making domains that could be “taken over” by their partners. During this stage, partners are likely to revert back to more of an exchange orientation as they negotiate and gain (or re-divide) control over new or revised tasks. Partners are also likely to engage in more information processing until new relationship norms and roles have been agreed upon and become stable.

In sum, the more powerful partner within a close relationship will not always employ the greater power that he or she holds when all relationship-relevant decisions are made. Rather, the content of specific issues and their importance to each partner, as well as the stage and unique features of the relationship, should have a strong impact on how and how much each relationship partner attempts to get his or her way when power-relevant issues arise.

#### RECENT RESEARCH ON POWER AND SOCIAL INFLUENCE IN RELATIONSHIPS

When the DPSIM was first introduced, we canvassed the existing empirical literature relevant to our model in great depth (see Simpson et al., 2015). A few power-in-relationship studies have been conducted since that chapter was completed. The findings of these new studies largely support various tenets or assumptions of the model. Smith and Mackie’s (2016) RICOR model, for example, similarly suggests that individuals are frequently influenced by their partners without partners necessarily engaging in purposeful or explicit influence attempts.

A few studies have found that more powerful partners tend to control outcomes on important issues. Laurin et al. (2016), for instance, have found that low power partners in relationships tend to prioritize their partners’ goals and take them on as their own, and Righetti et al. (2015) have confirmed that partners who are more powerful in relationships are less likely to make sacrifices for their low power partners. In terms of individual and relationship outcomes, Kuehn, Chen, and Gordon (2015) have shown that having more power in the relationship protects these individuals from the negative effects of their partner’s hostility, such as experiencing negative emotion or drops in self-esteem. Similarly, Brick and colleagues (2017) find that greater brand compatibility (e.g., both partners liking the same brand of soda or cars) predicts greater life satisfaction, but only for individuals who hold relatively less power in the relationship. Worley and Samp (2016), however, report that individuals are willing to bring up complaints about their partners in more egalitarian relationships, perhaps because they perceive their complaints as less severe or

expect more positive outcomes from discussions about them with their partners. These findings suggest that relationships with more equal power might usually result in better outcomes for both partners.

In additional work, Karremans and Smith (2010) report that having greater power in the relationship facilitates forgiving the lower power partner, especially in highly committed relationships, emphasizing both the importance of power differences for relationship outcomes and how relationship factors change the way power is enacted. Across four social interaction studies, Overall et al. (2016) have recently found that males (but not females) tend to behave in a more direct, negative manner (more aggressively) when they have less general power in the relationship and are discussing a topic on which they have less power than their female partner (i.e., when men have low situational power). The psychological mechanism ostensibly driving this robust effect appears to be perceived threat to masculinity in these low power men. This research is illuminating because, as discussed above, it considers the unique needs and motives of certain individuals to pinpoint the set of conditions under which such men behave negatively toward their higher-power female partners.

Some of the thinking underlying the research reviewed above flows from Finkel's (2014) I<sup>3</sup> model. The I<sup>3</sup> model hypothesizes that aggression should be most likely to occur when certain impelling factors (e.g., having low relationship power), instigating factors (e.g., having low power in a given situation), and inhibiting factors (e.g., having poor self-regulation) exist simultaneously. This constellation of factors should result in negative personal and relational outcomes, most likely for both relationship partners. As applied to power dynamics in close relationships, this framework still could benefit from a stronger dyadic focus in which actor and partner variables *both* play roles as impelling, instigating, and/or inhibiting factors. For example, high levels of aggression may also be witnessed when high power partners (perhaps only men) who are not committed to or invested in their relationships receive negative/direct reactions from their low power partners. These types of models, which incorporate key features of actors and their partners, are needed to identify the specific sets of conditions under which different kinds of influence strategies and tactics are enacted within close relationships.

#### FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

There are several important directions in which future research on power and social influence within relationships might head. To begin with, many of the pathways in the DPSIM are based on theoretical propositions or preliminary empirical findings. For example, we do not know whether or how partners "trade-off" the personal characteristics they bring to their relationship (such as attractiveness, status, resources, or warmth), or how these trade-offs affect

the power structure and influence dynamics in relationships over time. We also know little about what happens when the characteristics of one or both partners change across a relationship, and how this might alter the power bases or influence strategies/tactics that each partner uses. In addition, little is known about whether, when, or how each of French and Raven's (1959) power bases translate into the use of specific influence strategies/tactics, especially in longstanding relationships in which the repeated use of certain tactics (e.g., coercion, reward) may become less effective as partners take on more domain-specific decision-making roles and become more interdependent. We also know almost nothing about when and why the more powerful partner in a relationship decides to use certain power bases instead of others, and how more powerful partners "intermix" the use of different influence strategies or tactics over time in order to generate the most attitude or behavior change in their less powerful partners with fewest negative ramifications.

Very little is also known about whether or how the use of certain influence strategies/tactics (e.g., direct/positive tactics, indirect/negative tactics) affects the personal and relational well-being of both the partner being influenced and the partner who is engaging in an influence attempt. This is especially true regarding the long-term effects associated with the persistent use of direct/negative and indirect/positive influence tactics. Moreover, little if any work has investigated how the outcomes of repeated influence attempts reverberate back to change either partner's personal or relational features, such as their personality traits or general relationship orientations. We also need to know more about how Person A  $\times$  Person B characteristics, such as large discrepancies between partners on certain personal characteristics and the emergence of unique relationship norms and rules, affect access to different power bases and the enactment of specific influence strategies/tactics.

In addition, little if any research to date has focused on relationship stages and how they shape power dynamics in relationships. Future research should observe multiple couple interactions and gather each partner's reports of power dynamics in different decision-making domains at different relationship stages to determine the validity of our hypotheses regarding the stage-related effects of salience, automaticity, differentiation, and communal vs exchange orientations. This developmental relationship perspective could also be applied to other features of relationships, and it might clarify how the progression of close relationships in earlier stages influences later outcomes, such as relationship dissolution, stability, or infidelity.

As discussed earlier, the balance of power within a relationship can change if one or both partners lose or acquire certain valued characteristics (e.g., money, social status), if partners become highly interdependent over time, or if the lower power partner finds ways to provide the higher power partner with valuable or unique rewards and outcomes. Almost nothing is known about how these important processes unfold as relationships develop.

To what extent, for example, are high and low power relationship partners aware of such shifts? How do they negotiate them? How do shifts in the balance of power affect established norms and expectations in relationships? And under what conditions do they result in dissolution?

Furthermore, existing research on the consequences of having and lacking power has primarily focused on psychosocial outcomes (see Simpson et al., 2015). Relationship power, however, may not only affect our minds; it may impact our bodies, as well. Indeed, Peters et al. (2016) have recently found that individuals put in a submissive role relative to their current romantic partner prior to a discussion show decreased testosterone levels, particularly for women, when their partners want to control the relationship. Future research should examine the physiological correlates of relationship power. Lacking power may be an ongoing stressor, especially if the high power partner in the relationship routinely employs negative influence tactics, which increase biological stress responses (Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 1993; Miller et al., 1999) and can lead to deleterious health outcomes (Farrell & Simpson, 2017).

Relationship power may also impact health through its regulation of health behaviors. Many studies have shown that power status predicts relationship-based health behaviors such as condom use (Kogan et al., 2013; Lilleston et al., 2015; VanderDrift et al., 2013). Cornelius et al. (2016), however, have shown that individuals are more influenced by their partners' behavior if the partner has greater relationship power over behaviors that are not inherently dyadic, including alcohol and marijuana use. Future work should continue to examine connections between power differences within relationships and health outcomes to better inform health interventions (see, for example, Huelsnitz, Rothman, & Simpson, 2018).

In closing, power is one of the most fundamental concepts not only in psychology and relationship science, but within the social and behavioral sciences (Russell, 1938). Although it can be challenging to measure and test, power needs to be studied more, especially using dyadic frameworks. We hope that the DPSIM and our speculations about power dynamics in relationships will stimulate further interest in and research on power and social influence within close relationships.

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