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Problem Solving Communication and Interpersonal Power Among Latino Adolescent Couples

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PROBLEM SOLVING COMMUNICATION AND INTERPERSONAL POWER

AMONG LATINO ADOLESCENT COUPLES

by

Annel Cordero

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ABSTRACT

Problem Solving Communication and Interpersonal Power Among

Latino Adolescent Couples

by

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Few studies exist that examine Latino romantic relationships; even fewer assess

interpersonal power among romantically involved Latino adolescent couples. This

observational study investigated interaction, negotiation of power, and communication

styles of Latino adolescents in current romantic relationships. Twenty-nine participating

couples (ages 14-21) were recruited from a small Rocky Mountain community; all

identified as being of Latino decent. Couples were digitally videotaped during problem

solving conversations and completed a video recall procedure administered directly

following the recording. The Quality of Relationship Inventory (QRI) was completed by

all couple members as a measure of their overall relationship quality. In addition to this,

the Global Assessment Scale (GAS), which measured feelings of honesty, being attacked,

misunderstood, and conversation control was administered to each couple member after

videotaping. The video recall procedure captured positive and negative aspects of

interaction, negotiation of power, and skillfulness in problem solving. Power dynamics

for each conversation were also rated by an outside observer on dominance through talking and dominance through not listening scale. Overall, these couples rated their relationship quality positively and viewed their own and partner's behavior positively as well. Low levels of dominance through talking and dominance through not listening were observed to be used by couple members as a means to handle conflict during the conversation. The majority of the couples were observed to be mutually engaged in the conversations and appear to have good problem solving skills. However, higher ratings of power inequity by both couple members and observers were linked to lower overall relationship quality, with differing patterns of correlation for male and female couple members.

(94 pages)

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Numerous observational studies have been conducted to examine communication and negotiation of power among married European American couples. These studies have indicated that there is a strong link between satisfaction in the relationship and communication among couple members, and they have found that communication behaviors can reliably distinguish between distressed and nondistressed couples (Rehman & Holtzworth-Monroe, 2007). Additionally, the manner in which power is negotiated among couples may contribute to the level of distress in the relationship. The role of interpersonal power in relationships has been best conceptualized as the ability to affect partner outcomes and to persuade one's partner to do what one wants (Ronfeldt, Kimerling, & Arias, 1998). Among dating couples, the dynamic of power is especially important as interaction processes in young couples may set the foundation for future romantic relationships (Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997). Additionally, Sprecher and Felmlee reported that power is important early in the relationship as the couple learns to negotiate along a continuum of issues ranging from what to do on dates, to the right time to become sexually involved. Furthermore, several studies have found that when individuals perceive that they are unable to make their own choices in a relationship or fear repercussions from a more powerful partner, it is less likely that they will communicate freely or behave in a manner that is consistent with their underlying thoughts and behaviors (Neff & Suizzo, 2006).

Considering culture as a contextual variable in couple dynamics can introduce a

great deal of additional complexity into the relationships among variables of interest (Gudykunst & Mastumoto, 1996). Gudykunst and Mastumoto suggested that individualism and collectivism are particularly important dimensions of cultural variability. Individualism and collectivism have been found to influence communication behavior; in predicting behavior, members of individualistic cultures emphasize and rely on person-based information, whereas members of collectivist cultures emphasize group-based information to predict each other's behavior (Gudykunst & Mastumoto, 1996). Thus, there are general patterns of behavior that may be consistent in both individualistic and collectivist cultures, though these patterns manifest themselves uniquely in each culture. Various collectivist cultures emphasize different cultural constructs as part of their collectivistic tendencies (Gudykunst & Mastumoto, 1996). Cultural constructs most noted in literature on Latino culture include *familismo, personalismo, marianismo, machismo,* and *respeto.* In addition to individual characteristics, these cultural constructs may influence the way in which Latinos interact and negotiate interpersonal power.

According to a census brief issued in May of 2011, the number of Latinos in the United States accounts for over half the population's growth, with an estimated 50.5 million Latino/Hispanics currently residing in the United States (Enis, Vargas, & Albert, 2011). Few studies have been conducted that have shed light on interaction, negotiation of power, and communication styles of Latinos, with even less attention given to adolescent Latinos in dating relationships. Because of this lack of information in the literature, conclusions about and interpretation of adolescent romantic behavior are drawn from research that has been conducted with adults, or with predominantly White

American samples of adolescents. There are many unanswered questions regarding Latino relationships. Is the manner in which power is negotiated among Latinos linked to similar relationship qualities as are found among White American couples? How does imbalance of power and inability to communicate effectively relate to distress in relationships and other negative outcomes for this population? This study will contribute to the knowledge that is available for the understanding of interaction, negotiation of power, and communication styles of Latino adolescents. With the growth of Latinos in the United States comes a need for a variety of services and programs that can meet the needs of the Latino community. There is strong need for services and intervention among Latinos and adolescents experiencing distress in their relationships which require appropriate interventions that are relevant for this population. This study will use existing data from a larger study which examined cultural factors in Latino adolescent romantic relationships to examine the intricacies of communication and problems solving styles of Latino adolescent couples from a small Rocky Mountain city.

Video recordings were taken of Latino adolescent couples as they worked to resolve identified concerns in the relationship. Couple members and trained coders rated the negotiation of interpersonal power during the couples' interactions. Links between couple members' and trained observers' ratings of the conversations and couple members' ratings of global relationship quality were assessed.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review will briefly present and discuss romantic relationships and interpersonal power. First, a summary of adolescent relationships is described in addition to a discussion of the benefits and risks associated with these relationships along with the impact of family and social supports. Second, the review presents information regarding cultural context in order to better understand Latino relationships and the impact of family socialization on the development of Latinos' relationships. Third, the literature review presents a description of interpersonal power in relationships along with a definition of what is currently understood as power from a dominant cultural perspective. Finally, discussion about the role of power in language and in daily communication and culture is presented.

Adolescent Romantic Relationships

The period of adolescence can be categorized into three developmental stages which entail early adolescence (ages 10-13), middle adolescence (ages 14-17), and late adolescence (ages 18 to early 20s); (Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Metzger, 2006). These developmental stages may provide some insight into changes that occur throughout the course of development (e.g., shifts in values, maturity) and that occur within romantic relationships. In younger adolescence, ideas about romantic relationships emphasize physical attractiveness, whereas in later adolescence more emphasis is placed on commitment and intimacy (Arnett, 2001). Commitment typically begins to develop in

emerging adulthood when individuals begin looking more seriously for someone with whom they can have a lifelong loving relationship (Arnett, 2001). Thus, researchers demonstrate how beliefs about what constitutes successful romantic relationships evolve as teens move from middle school to college (Karney, Becketts, Collins, & Shaw, 2006). Furthermore, Smetana and colleagues (2006) asserted that the transition into adolescence is clearly marked by biological changes; whereas, the transition from adolescence to adulthood is less clear and may be more impacted by the culture of one's family. It is important to keep in mind that the above findings were derived utilizing mostly White samples.

Romantic relationships are defined as on-going voluntary interactions which are mutually acknowledged and have discernable characteristics of intensity, such as expression of physical affection and possibly expectation of sexual relations at some point in the relationship. Most adults report having had at least one or more romantic relationships during adolescence (Collins, 2003). The formation of romantic relationships and the selection of future long-term partners were found to be main preoccupations for adolescents and young adults (Sassler, 2010). Romantic and social activities, such as spending time with partners, meeting partner's parents or holding hands, form part of the relationship development sequence for most adolescents (Sassler, 2010).

In the past, these relationships were described as trivial and transitory (Collins, 2003; Collins, Welsh, & Furman, 2009) or awkward and superficial (Furman & Wehner, 1997), and were not thought of as having much significance. However, growing interest

on the subject and research with adolescent populations has helped clarify the significant contributions these early relationships make toward development as individuals mature into adulthood. While keeping in mind that mostly White samples were used, many of these reviews indicated that these relationships are critical to individual social development, well-being, and for developing the capacity to engage in committed adult relationships (Collins, 2003; Collins et al., 2009; Connolly & Johnson, 1996; Furman & Wehner, 1997).

In addition to the benefits of these early relationships, findings have also suggested that adolescents face several challenges when they become romantically interested. According to Furman and Wehner (1997), adolescents first need to determine if they want a romantic relationship or only friendship with the identified individual of interest. They also need to address their sexual desires and sexual identity, and lastly, they need to consider their peers' reactions to their behavior since this may affect their status in the peer group (Furman & Wehner, 1997). Likewise, having a romantic relationship and the positive nature and quality of that relationship are associated with greater self-worth, self-esteem, self-confidence, and social competence; however, adolescents in romantic relationships report that they experience more conflict, mood swings, and an overall more emotional life than those not involved in romantic relationships (Collins et al., 2009).

Consequently, there are risks that some adolescents encounter; especially at risk are those involved in poor quality relationships. The risks these adolescents may encounter include drug and alcohol use, poor emotional health, and poor academic

performance (Collins et al., 2009). Adolescent romantic relationships can serve to meet adolescents' needs for closeness, bonding, and affection, but they can also be a source of distress and anxiety (Arnett, 2001) which may often lead to symptoms of depression due to problems in the relationship or after a romantic break-up (Joyner & Udry, 2000; Monroe, Rohde, Seeley, & Lewinsohn, 1999). A typical source of anxiety noted by Collins and colleagues is anxiety over preserving the relationship, which results in self-silencing behavior in which one or both partners suppress their true thoughts and opinions due to fear of losing their partner and the relationship. Self-silencing is associated with poor communication within the couple, increased depressive symptoms, and ultimately poor quality romantic relationships associated with risks previously mentioned. While the above information is helpful in understanding these relationships, little information is present in helping us understand the importance of cultural context. The above information gives us a general picture of adolescence without answering important questions such as, "Is adolescence universal?" and "Are the major tasks of adolescence the same across cultural context?"

Understanding Latino Relationships in Cultural Context

Social context has been found to play a major role in how the stage of adolescence is culturally and structurally defined. Current research suggests that adolescents who come from cultural contexts where family traditions are stronger (e.g., immigrant adolescents, who have more traditional norms placed on their behavior) have less freedom and autonomy and limited opportunities to develop romantic relationships

with similar aged peers (King & Harris, 2007). King and Harris also noted that parental monitoring may impact the likelihood of adolescents becoming romantically involved. Parental monitoring of adolescent activities was found to play a role in the development of adolescent relationships in that parents who monitored more closely seemed to constrain the development of romantic and sexual relationships with opposite-gender partners, although this was not equal for all adolescents (King & Harris, 2007). Likewise, since adolescents have minimal and limited experience in developing romantic relationships, their expectations of these relationships and behaviors within the relationship may be influenced by their own representations of relationships with their parents (Furman, Simon, Shaffer, & Bouchey, 2002). These mental representations that are developed through years of parent-child interaction may play a significant role in the development of adolescent romantic relationships, in that youth may model their initial romantic encounters after those they have with their parents (Furman et al., 2002).

Arnett (2001) noted that family may play a crucial role in mediating the impact of the above mentioned risks teens face. The period of adolescence requires frequent adjustments between parents and teenagers and although they can be a source of painful conflict, these relationships can also be a source of strength and support as the teen moves towards adulthood, and often it has been found that adolescents will attribute their core moral values to the influence of their parents (Arnett, 2001). Additionally, siblings can be a source of emotional support, and for adolescents from more interdependent cultures (e.g., Latino, African American, Native American) extended family figures can provide important emotional support and potentially positive role modeling (Arnett,

2001). The role of family among Latino adolescents may be particularly important and play a crucial role in the lives and romantic relationships of these youth; close relationships across family contexts may serve as a vehicle for transmission of important cultural values and expectations regarding romantic development and relationship behaviors.

Family Relationships and Social Supports

Adolescent-parent relationships experience significant transformation and adolescents may be particularly challenging during this period in their development; however, active rejection of adult values, teen rebellion, and parental alienation characterize only a small portion of adolescents (Smetana et al., 2006). Romance is believed to be rooted in the family context, which likely plays a crucial role in the subsequent development of romantic relationship skills, more specifically in the family structural histories where children seem to learn about interpersonal exchange among romantic partners (Cavanagh, Crissey, & Raley, 2008; Hare, Miga, & Allan, 2009). Parental involvement and a nurturing environment are predictive of warmth, support, and low hostility toward romantic partners in early adulthood (Collins et al., 2009) and adolescents' attitudes regarding romance are closely related to their feeling of parental support (Cavanagh et al., 2008). Moreover, parental marital histories are closely linked with formation of relationships, expectations, and behaviors of children (Cavanagh et al., 2008) and markers of adjustment which include emotional security, attachment styles and intimacy (Hare et al., 2009). Arnett (2001) noted that adolescents who have secure attachments with parents tend to have closer relationships with romantic partners.

Additionally, parental conflict and marital instability also appear to affect children's romantic relationships indirectly in that conflict and instability may increase the risk for early romantic involvement and decreases skills in conflict resolution and compromise (Cavanagh et al., 2008). Conversely, adolescents who are able to observe and experience a more stable family environment will likely have more positive outcomes (Cavanagh et al., 2008).

**Family as an Agent of Socialization in
Latino Cultures**

According to literature assessing Latino cultural values, many Latinos view family as an important system that offers emotional, financial, and often spiritual support. Extended family members maintain close contact and are often sought out for advice and guidance with personal issues. Latinos are often described as having family-centered values and systems (Santiago-Rivera, Arredondo, & Cooper, 2002) that are characterized by the concept of *familismo*, a preference for being closely connected to family in which interdependence, cohesiveness and cooperation among family members is stressed. This principle stems from a collectivist world view that emphasizes family as the primary source of social support and identity and includes extended family members such as aunts, uncles, cousins, grandparents and often close friends (Raffaelli & Ontai, 2001; Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002). The four main components of *familismo* identified in a familism measure by Lugo Steidel and Contreras (2003), are comprised of family support, family interconnectedness, family honor, and subjugation of self for the family. Family support is described as a belief system which dictates that members of the family

are obligated to be financially and emotionally supportive of one another. Likewise, family interconnectedness dictates that family members are to keep physically and emotionally close to other members of the family ascribing to the hierarchical structure of the family; while familial honor is the belief that the duty of individual family members is to uphold the family name. Finally, subjugation of self for family is a belief that requires persons within the family to be submissive and yield to the family (Lugo Steidel & Contreras 2003).

Another cultural trait commonly noted in Latino culture is that of *personalismo*, also part of a collectivist worldview where emotional investment in the family is an expectation and warmth, friendliness and personal relationships are highly valued (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002). Additionally, this value has also been described as the ability to get along well with others and personal goodness where priority is given to the qualities of positive interpersonal and social skills that will result in mutual dependency and closeness of family members (Cauce & Domenech-Rodriguez, 2002; Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002).

Two other concepts often noted in the literature regarding gender socialization in Latino culture are worth addressing since they often impact views and behaviors surrounding romantic relationships: *marianismo* and *machismo*. A term first created by Stevens (1973) to describe the characteristics associated with behaviors of women and beliefs which taught that women were semi-divine and morally superior to men is referred to as *marianismo*. A subsequent consequence of living up to these expectations results in women taking a more submissiveness and tolerant role in order to comply with

the demands of men, who are described as being the less mature of the two sexes (Stevens). According to Santiago-Rivera and colleagues (2002), *marianismo* comprises a set of characteristics associated with females, which suggests girls grow to be women who honor the model of the Virgin Mary and must be pure, nurturing, virtuous, humble and spiritually stronger than men. This means that young girls must remain virgins until marriage (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002), which may explain why parents are much stricter with girls when it comes to having boyfriends and dating relationships.

The concept of *machismo* has often carried with it a negative connotation. Definitions that currently exist define *machismo*, as an arrogant, sexist, tough, aggressive man who makes all the rules in the family and is viewed as the ultimate authority within the family structure (Stevens, 1973; Vidales, 2010). However, this description of the Latino male has been viewed by Latino psychologists as "anglicized" in its interpretation (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002). According to a Latino definition, *machismo* describes an honorable and responsible man whose duty is to provide, protect, and defend his family. As such, one important component of machismo is being a "good" man as evidenced by loyalty and sense of responsibility to family, friends, and community (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002) Although these values are often attributed to Latinos by lumping them into one homogenous group, in order to avoid over generalization it is important to recognize the diversity that exists within and among the various Latino groups. And it is equally important to understand implications of generational status and how acculturation may influence the extent to which one ascribes to these values (Cauce & Domenech-Rodriguez, 2002).

Romantic Relationships in Latino Cultures

Parents with differing values and expectations from those of mainstream culture, such as ethnic minorities and immigrant families, may find the period of adolescence especially difficult and experience familial conflict as their children become more interested in forming romantic relationships and develop sexually (Raffaelli, 2005). However, it is noted that parental acceptance of mainstream dating style will likely depend on gender and there is a "double standard" for engagement in sexual behavior among males and females in Latino culture (Raffaelli, 2005). Milbrath, Ohlson, and Eyre (2009) noted that the double standard for female virginity is maintained by males; however, neither sex believes it to be important for males to maintain their virginity. Additionally, among Latinas it is found that they are expected to adhere to traditional standards surrounding sexual conduct that is culturally prescribed (Milbrath et al., 2009). Denner and Dunbar (2004) also suggest that gender roles intensify significantly during adolescence for females and there is often a struggle to incorporate traditional gender role expectations with their desires in order to avoid conflict in their relationships. Girls in Denner and Dunbar's study reported that boys had more advantages than girls overall, especially when pertaining to power. However, they expressed the importance of being strong and discussed strategies they utilized to negotiate femininity, which included speaking up about important issues and acting as protectors by policing the behaviors of others. Furthermore, Adams, Coltrane, and Parke (2007) reported that the family is described as a primary site for the transmission of attitudes toward gender. When gender inequality and differences are transmitted, these have been found to have important

implications for children's socialization; for example, in traditional gender arrangements such as those found among some Latino families, girls are often encouraged to be relationship oriented and nurturing in preparation to become future homemakers, whereas boys are often encouraged to be independent, assertive and exhibit all the qualities expected of a future provider for his family (Adams et al., 2007). Since males and females in these families are subject to differing socialization experiences, Latinas are found to often experience stricter dating restrictions and have more limitations placed upon them than do Latinos (Adams et al., 2007).

Given the above noted cultural traits of Latinos, it is hypothesized that in order to maintain harmony and the sense of warmth and closeness in their relationships, as described by *familismo* and *personalismo,* couples will report low levels of conflict when resolving problems and communication. Gender role concepts of *machismo* and *marianismo* may impact the level of power and control among couples in that males may take charge as the dominant partner and display more control over the conversation. However, these Latino adolescents may not adhere strongly to traditional gender roles due to their generational status as most were born in the U.S. This may contribute to more incidences of what would be considered equal decision making in Western majority culture, problem solving, and balance of power, leaving this hypotheses more open. It's important to note that according to Rogelio Díaz-Guerrero (1967), a prominent pioneer of experimental psychology in Mexico, love and power are described as central to the culture. He discusses a type of power that is beneficial for the development of others, community and society (Díaz-Guerrero, 1967).

Interpersonal Power in Romantic Relationships

Power Defined

Throughout the span of several decades researchers have been intrigued with interpersonal power. Several theorists across differing disciplines studied and explained power and the mechanisms by which power functions on a global, societal, and interpersonal level in a variety of ways. French (1956) and French and Raven (1959) examined influence processes in groups and exertion of social influence in working settings, while Cromwell and Olsen (1975) made it possible to assess the differences in *levels* of power (e.g., power bases, power process, power outcomes) in the context of relationships. These, among others, have made significant contributions to the conceptualization of power and influence in close personal relationships.

Classical theory by Waller (1937) examined inequalities in emotional investment and commitment in college dating couples. He noted that exaggeration or feigning serious emotional involvement in the early stages of the relationship on part of one individual invites rapid sentiment formation, encouraging the other to fall in love by pretending he or she has already done so, thus resulting in an interaction in which there is controlling power by the person who is less emotionally invested in the continuation of the relationship. Men have been found to be less emotionally invested in their romantic relationships than women and are more likely to be viewed as the power holder in the relationship (Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997).

Watts (1991) defined power as a force through which collective interests can be realized in that power is consensual and applied with the goal of regulating an

individual's behavior in a way that the common interest of the group is served. According to this view, Watts (1991) then stated that power is not the property of any individual nor is it negotiated interpersonally except insofar as that person is invested with it by virtue of being a member of that regulatory body.

Power and Influence in Relationships

Researchers have examined the relationship between power balance in relationships and marital satisfaction. In an observational study, Whisman and Jacobson (1990) found that married couples in egalitarian relationships report high levels of marital satisfaction whereas those in relationships where one spouse is dominant report low levels of satisfaction. According to Whisman and Jacobson, differential in power becomes most apparent in couples' everyday communication style, which is comprised of two key elements - conversational dominance and conversational support. As couples communicate with each other about their daily activities, two interactional patterns of dominance power strategies emerge that couples use to influence each other: (a) dominance through talking (DT) in which the more powerful spouse uses the majority of the conversation time to talk about the details of his/her day. Additionally, the dominant spouse in this situation does not listen while the nondominant spouse speaks and is quick to redirect the conversation back onto him or herself and little if any information is elicited from the nondominant spouse and (b) dominance through not listening (DL) in which the conversation is controlled by the more disconnected spouse; the dominant spouse disengages from the conversation by demonstrating a lack of interest in what their partner is saying and withholding information by not answering partners' questions or

responding with short answers (Whisman & Jacobson, 1990). Based upon these findings, Whisman and Jacobson developed and examined a new measure of power inequality which they believed would mirror communication rules among spouses found in DT and DL power strategies. In their study, they found, as many other studies have shown, that the greater the power inequality the less satisfaction there was in the relationship. Those with greater power inequality prior to treatment gained the most benefit from treatment (Whisman & Jacobson, 1990).

In a study by Grauerholz (1987), interpersonal factors related to perceived egalitarianism were examined. Among these are trust, commitment, self-or other-orientation, dependency and distribution of power sources. According to Grauerholz , trust provides stability in the relationship by warding off uncertainty and partners who have strong trusting relationships are more likely to perceive their relationship as egalitarian in contrast to couples who are in less trusting relationships. Commitment factors into the relationship in that, as the relationship progresses commitment grows and individuals in the relationship may become more comfortable in equally exercising power (Grauerholz, 1987).

Balance of power in romantic relationships is also important to understand as it may well have implications on the overall quality of the relationship. Sprecher and Felmlee (1997) examined the relationship between gender and perceptions of power balance and found that men more often than women tended to be viewed as having more power. When studying gender and dependency, they found that as Waller (1937) had noted, the partner who viewed him/herself as the least emotionally involved partner also

viewed him/herself as the one with more power in the relationship. On the other hand, the partner who perceived him/herself as more loving may have felt less powerful because of their greater need for the other. In their study on gender and relationship outcomes of power, Sprecher and Felmlee discovered no significant associations between balance of power and relationship outcomes of stability and satisfaction. Additionally, they asserted that it is likely that for many, an imbalance of power in the relationship is does not predict relationship satisfaction nor longevity (Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997).

Balance of power in dating relationships, according to Grauerholz (1987) is also likely to be related to the extent in which individuals are self-oriented or other-oriented. Self-oriented individuals, unlike other-oriented counterparts, are less likely to compromise with partners as they are mainly concerned with controlling their environment, as a result they are more able to exercise power in their relationships and perceive themselves as more powerful. Grauerholz (1987), stated that dependency in relationships is likely related to power and that individuals who believe they have many relational alternatives will perceive themselves as more powerful than individuals who have renounced other relationships, having few relational alternatives. According to Cast (2003) the more highly the individual values the resources the other brings and the less an individual has access to viable alternative relationships, the greater the individual's dependency within the relationship. Finally, distribution of power resources as described in Grauerholz consists of resources such as money, attractiveness, and status which individuals contribute to the relationship, and those who believe that they have contributed more of these resources to the relationship are more likely to perceive

themselves as the more powerful partner.

Grauerholz (1987) found that these factors were positively related to perceived egalitarianism and that individuals in highly committed relationships perceive that they have equal influence on these dimensions compared to those in less committed relationships. Couples in highly trusting relationships and highly other-oriented men reported to be more egalitarian in their decision making. Additionally, the degree of dependency in the relationship was related to perceived power and those that perceived having more relational alternatives were less egalitarian in their decision making (Grauerholz, 1987). These interpersonal values may influence couples perceptions of one another and help explain why individuals perceive their relationships to be egalitarian even when there is evidence to suggest that these relationships are structured along patriarchal lines and it is additionally possible that perceived egalitarianism fosters greater trust, commitment, other-orientation, and dependency thus partners may be more motivated to behave in more egalitarian ways (Grauerholz, 1987). Therefore, it is possible that perceived egalitarianism and the various factors studied by Grauerholz work in cohort to reinforce one another helping to stabilize the relationship.

In a 2003 study by Cast, newly married couples' structural and relationship power of both husbands and wives were examined in order to learn how these affected their ability to control meaning in the situation. Through control of the situation, it has been asserted that individuals work to define the self as a particular type of person which confirms their identity and control meaning of the situation by imposing an identity on others (Cast, 2003). According to Cast, as an individual behaves in ways that confirm

his or her identity, while at the same time requiring that others take on an imposed identity they are in fact acting to maintain control of meaning of the situation. Cast described power and identity behaviors that some individuals utilize so that meanings of a situation are consistent with their own definition of the situation, which included definition of others and self thereby a perceived identity is maintained. Like many other studies, dependency factors into this situation. Individuals who are less dependent in the relationship will be perceived to have more power and an individual's position within this structure of dependency reflects greatly their potential to influence interaction within the relationship (Cast, 2003). Those with more power in the relationship are more able to behave in ways that confirm their identity, more able to impose an identity on their spouses, and more able to resist the identity that the spouse seeks to impose on them (Cast). Again, it's important to keep in mind that these findings were from studies that utilized majority of white samples.

Power: Language, Communication, and Culture

The majority of social interactions require verbal behavior on the part of participants involved. It is therefore, reasonable to conclude that language and communication play an integral part in understanding power and influence. In different spheres of society, command of socially accepted forms of language allows the communicator to access positions of power and influence; and ways in which discourse is structured reveal how power is acquired, negotiated, consolidated, or lost (Watts, 1991). Additionally, in close-knit groups such as families, intimate friendships, and romantic

relationships, power tends to be more covert and is exercised through language use in on-going discourse (Watts, 1991). A main principle stressed by Watts is that language in use cannot ever be "neutral" or objective because it is anchored in and helps determine the individual's perception of social reality. Therefore, there will always be a view point, stance, open or hidden agenda according to which participants will interact verbally. In this view, no discourse can be completely free of power and the exercise of power (Watts, 1991).

As previously noted, communication varies across cultures and culture plays a role in how one behaves and communicates via norms and mores of the specific culture (Gudykunst & Mashtumoto, 1996). According to Gudykunst and Mashtumoto, taking individual characteristics into consideration, the majority of collectivist cultures can be described as interdependent communities that ascribe to a pattern of communication described as "high-context" communication. Individuals using high context communication are expected to speak in a manner that maintains harmony among their in-groups and transmit messages that are contrary to their true feelings. Accordingly, high context communication involves indirect, implicit and ambiguous words when speaking in which most of the information is in the physical context or internalized in the person. Very little is in the explicit transmitted part of the message and when individuals' responses are ambiguous and indirect, they may appear to have little relevance to what another has said. In order to communicate effectively in "high-context," the listener has to successfully infer how what the speaker said is relevant and infer the speaker's intentions accurately (Gudykunst & Mashtumoto, 1996). On the other hand, members of

independent or individualistic communities ascribe to a "low-context" style of communication in which the information is mainly embedded in the transmitted message (Gudykunst & Mashtumoto, 1996). Thus, according to Gudykunst and Mashtumoto, members of individualistic cultures tend to be more direct in communication and are expected to speak in ways that are more consistent with their feelings, demonstrate "openness" and to speak one's mind (e.g., "The door is open," when asking someone to close the door), whereas members from collectivist cultures tend to endorse communication in which indirect communication of intentions are expressed (e.g., "It's cold today").

Summary and Objectives

Current literature and research on Latino adolescent relationships is lacking. Often what is understood about Latino adolescents' romantic relationships comes from studies conducted with mostly White American adolescents and married couples. This lack of information may lead to misunderstanding the communication patterns and negotiation of power among Latino adolescents and may be therefore seen in a negative light. Understanding differences in patterns and interaction styles in the communication of culturally diverse people becomes important when determining whether a particular style of communication, responses, and behavioral interactions during discourse can be attributed to issues of power such as power inequality; or to appropriate cultural norms and mores. The goal of this study is to understand Latino adolescents' communication and the negation of power during videotaped interactions from the perspectives of

boyfriends, girlfriends, and trained observers. In conjunction with this, the goal is to assess links between communication variables (e.g., dominating through talking, dominating through not listening, see Appendix A for a list; along with conflict, and persuasion) and overall relationship quality, which was assessed via self-reports (see Figure 1). The following research questions were generated.

RQ1: What are the communication patterns related to interpersonal power among Latino adolescent couples, during problem solving discussions as observed by couple members themselves and trained observers?
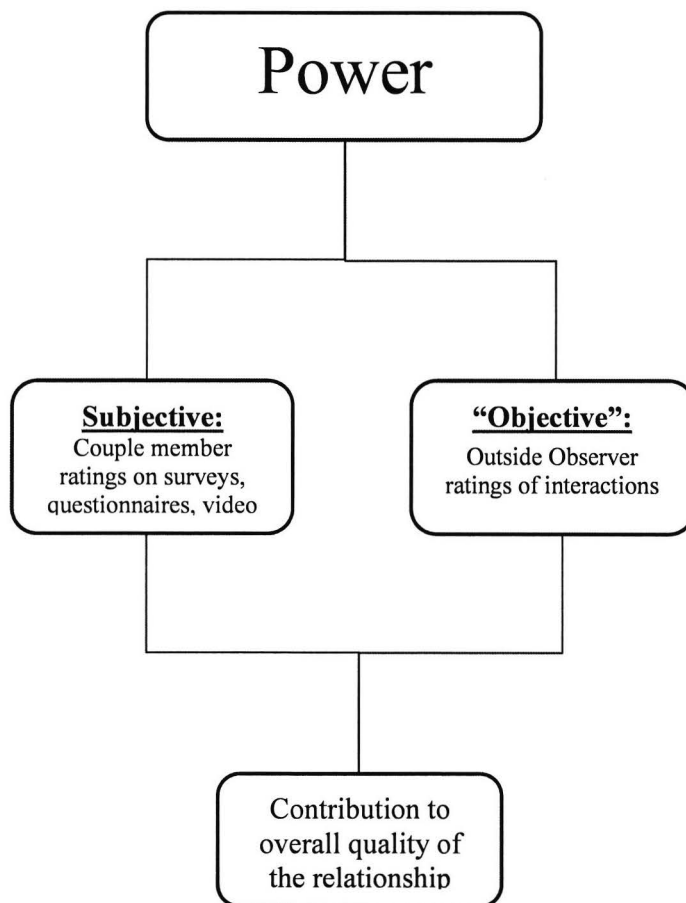
Figure 1. Proposed Model of Power Processes in Romantic Relationships.

RQ1a: How is interpersonal power during problem solving conversations rated by couple members themselves and by trained outside observers?

RQ1b: How are indices of interpersonal power rated by girlfriends, boyfriends, and trained observers related to one another?

RQ2: How are ratings of interpersonal power by couple members and trained observers related to the overall quality of the relationship?

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The current study was part of a larger study that examined cultural and ethnic

identity development processes among Latino youth. This project was funded by a

National Institute of Child Health and Human Development grant (1R03HD050840) to

Renee Galliher, PhD. A correlational design was used to assess relationships among

interpersonal power variables during problem solving conversations and overall self-

reported global relationship quality.

Participants

The participants were 29 couples recruited from two different high schools in a

small Rocky Mountain rural community. Students in these local high schools that

identified themselves as a couple member in a dating relationship, both being of Latino

(Mexican, Guatemalan, Salvadorian, Dominican, Puerto Rican) descent, were invited to

participate in the study. For this particular study bi-racial couples were excluded in order

to avoid complications that may occur in rating partners with culturally different styles of

communication. Participants' ages ranged from 14-21 years of age. Individuals under the

age of 18 were required to have written parental consent in addition to providing written

assent. Each participant was compensated with $30 ($60 per couple).

Demographic Information

Participants completed a demographic information form that assessed age, gender,

race, religious affiliation, educational history and aspirations, employment, parents' marital status, and parents' education and occupation. See Table 1 for demographic information.

Procedures and Observational Data Sources

Twenty-nine couples were recruited from a larger sample of students who completed an online survey study assessing ethnic identity, cultural values, and psychosocial functioning (see larger study 1R03HD050840). Students were presented with information describing the follow up couple study when they completed the online survey. In addition, students were recruited during their school lunch breaks at booths advertising the study (see Appendices B and C for survey advertisement and English/Spanish recruitment letters). Parental consent forms were given to participants that met criteria and who were interested in participating in the study (see Appendices D and E for couples study consent/assent forms). The consent/assent forms were available in both Spanish and English. Participants were asked to bring the forms back signed. At least one couple member (identified as the target adolescent) was required to complete the online survey. The target adolescent was asked to communicate with his or her partner to facilitate processing consent forms and scheduling. Partners could be of any age or ethnicity, but only couples in which both partners identified as Latino are included in this study.

The data collection procedure took approximately 2 hours per couple, and took place either in the university laboratory of the principal investigator or in a school

Table 1

Couple Demographic Information

Variable	Male Mean/n	Female Mean/n
Age		
M	16.41	15.37
SD	1.72	1.21
Min	14	14
Max	21	18
Ethnic background		
Mexican	20	15
Mexican + other Latino	4	4
Mexican + other non-Latino	4	9
Other Latino	1	0
Generational status *missing for most partners*		
1.5/first generation	15	21
Second generation	0	3
Third generation	0	0
Fourth generation or beyond	0	0
Religious affiliation		
Catholic	20	19
Latter-Day Saints	2	3
Protestant	0	1
None	4	3
Other	3	2
Grade in school		
Freshman	5	2
Sophomore	6	5
Junior	4	5
Senior	10	16
Beyond high school age	4	0
Father's educational level		
Graduate/professional degree	0	0
College degree	0	0
Some college	2	3
Technical/trade school	0	0
High school degree	3	3
Less than high school degree	18	21

(table continues)

Variable	Male Mean/n	Female Mean/n
Mother's educational level		
Graduate/professional degree	0	0
College degree	1	3
Some college	2	4
Technical/trade school	0	0
High school degree	9	4
Less than high school degree	15	17
Parent's marital status		
Married	19	15
Widowed	3	7
Never married	5	4
Divorced	2	2

Note: Not all sample sizes add to 29 due to missing data

conference room set aside by the school administrators. Participating couples were provided beverages and snacks throughout the session to maintain concentration and interest. Couples were digitally videotaped having problem-solving conversations during the first hour of participation, and then completed the video-recall procedure on separate laptops during the second hour. While laptops were prepared for transition from the video recording procedure to the video recall procedure, couple members completed the survey measures described above and a brief survey assessing their immediate global reaction to the videotaped interaction (see Appendix F).

Interaction Task

Couples were digitally recorded having three brief conversations. These conversations were adapted from previous work with adolescent couples (Capaldi & Crosby, 1997). Prior to beginning the main activity, a 5-minute warm-up opportunity was provided in which participants were instructed to plan a party, discussing the

location of the party, who to invite, planned activities, what to provide their guests, and whether or not adults would be invited. The two main activities were comprised of 8-minute conversations; each couple member selected items from a common issues checklist (see Appendix G) prior to recording. The checklist included common dating issues, with items as "My partner doesn't like my friends." And "We don't have money to go on dates". Participants were instructed to identify 2-3 issues, including alternate selections in case they were not able to converse on the first topic for the entire eight minutes. If there were not enough applicable issues, or if they chose not to select from the provided topics, individuals could provide their own issues. Couple members could decide for themselves if they wanted to select a more neutral topic, or if they wanted to discuss a more serious or "hot" topic. Couples were instructed to discuss each issue and come up with a solution or solutions. Instructions for each conversation task were automated on a provided laptop so that research assistants could simply start the interaction task and then leave the room. Recorded, standardized instructions were delivered by computer while researchers waited next door.

Following completion of the interaction task, couple members completed a global assessment scale consisting of 11 questions, which were completed by each member of the couple individually, prior to beginning the video recall procedure. Global ratings comprised of honesty, expression of true feelings, feeling attacked, and feeling understood, or who they thought was in control of the conversation, (e.g., "During the conversation to what extent were you holding something back from partner?"). Participants responded to the questions using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Never, 3 =

sometimes, 5 = very often; Appendix F).

Video Recall Ratings

The administration of a video recall procedure directly followed the recording. Couple members provided ratings of their own and their partners' behaviors during the conversations (Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 2004; Welsh & Dickson, 2005; Welsh, Galliher, Kawaguchi, & Rostosky, 1999). Each couple member was asked to watch the two issues conversations twice; once to rate their own behavior and a second time to rate their partner's behavior. Each of the problem-solving conversations was divided into twenty 20-second segments. The computer was programmed to play a segment and then stop the video for the couple member to provide ratings. Then the computer resumed the video for the next 20-second segment. After each segment, participants responded to five statements on the computer, asking them to rate either their own or their partners' thoughts or behavior on five dimensions. Behaviors were selected to capture both positive and negative aspects of the interactions (i.e., connecting behaviors, conflictual behaviors), aspects related to the negotiation of interpersonal power (i.e., giving in to the partner and trying to persuade the partner), and skillfulness in problem solving (i.e., feeling uncomfortable). The ratings were provided on a Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (very much). For the current study, couple members' ratings of trying to persuade, giving in, and conflict were used to broadly capture couple members' subjective experiences of power related behaviors.

Observer Ratings

Two Spanish bilingual female trained coders coded the video tapes using the coding system outlined in Appendix A. Coders met for approximately 10 hours over several meetings, reviewing sample tapes and refining coding procedures until consensus was met. The coding system was developed from the concepts of "dominance through talking" and "dominance through not listening" presented by (Whisman & Jacobson, 1990). Coders met to view video recordings together and took notes watching carefully for instances of behaviors that reflected, dominance through talking, dominance through not listening, and to make note of who was in control of the conversation. Coders then followed up by independently rating the couples' conversations and then meeting to discuss the codes in order to arrive at consensus. After several weeks of training, ten couples (twenty conversations) were independently coded by two coders to assess inter-rater reliability. Intraclass correlation coefficients for the ten couples' conversations were .83 for dominance through talking and .96 for dominance through not listening. Additionally, a Kappa was calculated for the categorization of power/control, which yielded a Kappa of .70.

Survey Measures

Quality of Relationships Inventory

Participants completed the 25-item Quality of Relationships Inventory about their current romantic relationship (QRI; Pierce, 1996; Pierce, Sarason, & Sarason, 1991). The QRI was developed to assess relationship quality across various types of relationships and can be worded to address respondents' perceptions of any specific relationship (see

Appendix H). Overall across various studies the QRI has been repeatedly found to yield high reliability and has been widely used in a variety of settings with various populations, most of which have been predominantly White American samples; additionally, it has been utilized internationally across various countries, it has been translated for use in Japan, and some studies included small samples of Latinos from the U.S. and Mexico (Brackett, Warner, & Bosco, 2005; Campo et al., 2009; Gerson et al., 2008; Loving, 2006; Nakano et al., 2002). The QRI yields three subscales: support, depth, and conflict. The support subscale consists of seven items and measures the extent to which the individual can rely on the target person for help in various circumstances (e.g., "To what extent could you turn to this person for advice about problems"). The conflict subscale contains 12 items that assess feelings of anger and ambivalence toward the partner (e.g., "How often do you need to work hard to avoid conflict with this person?"). The 6-item depth scale includes items such as "How significant is this relationship in your life? All items were answered on a four point Likert-type scale (1= not at all and 4 = very much) and scale scores are calculated as the mean across items. Reliability of each scale for both males and females were obtained for the present sample. Cronbach's alpha for male scales are as follows: support (.841), conflict (.845), and depth (.855); Cronbach's alpha for females scales were: support (.841), conflict (.907), and depth (.818).

Dating and Romantic Relationship History

Participants answered 11 items (see Appendix I) on current and past dating history and behaviors they've engaged in while in their current romantic relationship. Items for this measure were either adapted from previous work with adolescent couples (Rostosky,

Galliher, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 2000) or were developed for the current study. Examples of questions include, "How long have you been dating your current partner?" and "How long did your longest relationship last?" Information from this measure was used to provide basic descriptions of couples' dating relationship history.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all study variables including means and standard deviations and assessment of the assumptions of parametric statistics. Correlational statistics were utilized to identify relationships among couple member ratings, observer ratings, and global relationship quality.

Descriptive Analyses

Relationship History

Descriptive statistics were calculated for various relationship variables (e.g., length of dating, time couples spent with their partners, feelings towards partner). Utilizing the data from the dating history and behaviors questionnaire, males and females reported dating between 9 and 10 months on average (see Table 2) and indicated that they were seriously dating. Females tended to report slightly higher rates of seriously dating with 58.6% compared to 41.4% of males (see Table 3). Males appeared to be more likely to describe the relationship as "engaged" 24.1% of males versus 13.8% of females.

A large portion of couples reported seeing one another and spending time with each other throughout the school day—31% for both males and females. The highest percentages were for couples who saw each other both at school and outside of school, with 41.4 % of males and 44.8% of females indicating this (see Table 4). The majority of partners reported mutual feelings of love for one another (see Table 5), with high percentages of couple members expecting to eventually marry each other (see Table 6).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Length of Dating in Weeks

Factor		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Weeks dating	Male	27	2.00	182.00	36.61	44.02
	Female	28	1.50	182.00	36.21	43.54

Note. Data do not equal to 29 due missing data.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Current Relationship Status

Relationship status		N	Percent
Casually dating	Male	9	31.0
	Female	7	24.1
Seriously dating	Male	12	41.4
	Female	17	58.6
Engaged	Male	7	24.1
	Female	4	13.8
Married	Male	1	3.4
	Female	1	3.4

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Time Spent with Partner During the Week

Time spent with partner		N	Percent
Every day in and out of school	Male	12	41.4
	Female	13	44.8
Every day at school	Male	9	31.0
	Female	9	31.0
2-3 times a week	Male	8	27.6
	Female	7	24.1

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Feelings for Partner

Feelings for partner		N	Percent
Only like each other	Male	10	34.5
	Female	12	41.4
I love my partner, my partner does not love me	Male	3	10.3
	Female	0	0.0
Love each other	Male	16	55.2
	Female	17	58.6

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Duration of Relationship

Duration of relationship		N	Percent
Less than a month	Male	3	10.3
	Female	3	10.3
1-3 months	Male	5	17.2
	Female	8	27.6
3-6 months	Male	1	3.4
	Female	2	6.9
6-12 months	Male	2	6.9
	Female	3	10.3
More than a year	Male	7	24.1
	Female	2	6.9
Expect to Marry	Male	10	34.5
	Female	10	34.5

Note. Missing data for 2 male and 1 females

Interaction and Survey Data

Table 7 presents means and standard deviations for males and females on their own ratings of their interactions and trained observers' ratings of the interaction. Table 8 presents means and standard deviations for couple members' global description of the

Table 7

Male/Female Mean Scores (SD), for Micro-Codes and Observer Interaction Ratings

| | His issue | | | | Her issue | | | |
| | Males' ratings | | Females' ratings | | Males' ratings | | Females' ratings | |
Micro-codes Min.=0 Max=4	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Girlfriend feeling conflictual	1.86	1.24	1.74	1.05	1.79	1.00	1.73	1.06
Girlfriend trying to persuade	1.26	1.13	1.18	1.04	1.43	1.08	1.29	.982
Girlfriend feeling she's giving in	.892	1.07	1.10	1.08	.959	1.10	1.15	1.11
Boyfriend feeling conflictual	2.05	1.24	1.94	1.33	2.03	1.18	1.79	1.15
Boyfriend trying to persuade	1.29	1.04	1.25	1.19	1.42	1.12	1.30	1.04
Boyfriend feeling he's giving in	1.11	1.12	1.12	1.16	1.13	1.08	1.09	1.10
Observers' ratings								
Dominance through talking (Min.=1 Max=5)	1.70	1.09			1.70	1.04		
Dominance through not listening (Min.=1 Max=5)	1.89	1.07			1.79	1.10		

Table 8

Male/Female Mean Scores (SD) for Global Assessment Scale and QRI

| | Male | | Female | |
Scale	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Global codes (Min.=1 Max=5)				
Honesty	4.57	.573	4.36	.780
Feeling attacked/bullied	2.07	1.33	2.14	1.17
Felt misunderstood	2.54	1.17	2.37	1.18
QRI scores (Min.=1 Max=4)				
Support	3.36	.540	3.37	.607
Depth	3.38	.560	3.30	.690
Conflict	2.24	.623	2.20	.662

conversations on the Global Assessment Scale and scores on the QRI. A series of independent samples t tests was conducted to compare male and female mean ratings on all primary study variables. No significant findings for sex differences were found; with t values ranging from .04-1.996; p values ranged from .056-.966.

Bivariate Relationships Among Couple Members' Ratings, Observer Ratings, and QRI Scores

Associations Between Observers' Ratings and Couple Members' Ratings

Table 9 presents correlations between the trained observers' ratings of power inequity (higher scores mean greater use of the designated dominance behavior) and couple members' video recall ratings of their own and their partners' power related behaviors. Generally, correlations between observers' ratings and couple members' ratings were relatively weak and inconsistent. However, correlations were stronger between trained observers' and girlfriends' ratings than between observers' and boyfriends' ratings. When observers rated more dominance behaviors, girlfriends viewed more conflict and persuasion.

Table 10 presents correlations between observers' dominance ratings and couple members' Global Assessment Scale scores. Interestingly, higher ratings of 'dominance through not listening were related to both couple members' experiences of feeling misunderstood. Negative correlations between dominance through not listening and both couple members' ratings of honestly were moderate in size, but not statistically significant due to the small sample size.

Table 9

Bivariate Correlations Between Couple Members' Micro-Codes and Trained Observers'
Ratings of Dominance

Variable	Girlfriend's ratings		Boyfriend's ratings	
	Dominance through talking	Dominance through not listening	Dominance through talking	Dominance through not listening
His issue				
Girlfriend conflict	.338	.397*	..274	.255
Girlfriend trying to persuade	.231	.478*	-.169	..316
Girlfriend giving in	-.126	.120	-.357*	.067
Boyfriend conflict	.380^	.369^	.245	.173
Boyfriend trying to persuade	.133	.415*	-.004	.207
Boyfriend giving in	-.266	.049	-.190	.093
Her issue				
Girlfriend conflict	.281	.317	.193	.324^
Girlfriend trying to persuade	.086	.240	-.311	.208
Girlfriend giving in	-.089	.018	-.365^	.000
Boyfriend conflict	.464*	.420*	.313	.229
Boyfriend trying to persuade	.064	.262	-.145	.170
Boyfriend giving in	-.128	-.004	-.353^	-.019

* $p < 0.05$
^ $p < .10$

Table 11 presents both observer's ratings and couple member's ratings of who

was in control of the conversation during the problem solving portions of the video

activity for each partner, utilizing responses from question 11 of the Global Assessment

Scale (GAS); couple members answered the question "who controlled the conversation?"

by indicating whether it was themselves (male/female) or if they thought they had equal

input. Both couple members and observers were most likely to see the conversations as

Table 10

Bivariate Correlations between Observers' Dominance Ratings and Couple Members' Global Codes

	Male		Female	
Variable	Dominance through talking	Dominance through not listening	Dominance through talking	Dominance through not listening
His issue				
Honesty	.217	-.321^	.116	-.353^
Attacked/bullied	.286	.293	.218	.308
Felt misunderstood	.072	.493**	.126	.573**
Her issue				
Honesty	.194	-.373^	.040	-.400*
Attacked/bullied	.172	.211	.198	.191
Felt misunderstood	.195	.432*	.294	.505**

** $p < 0.01$
* $p < 0.05$
^ $p < .10$

Table 11

Observer's Ratings of Conversation Power/Control and Couple Member's Ratings of Conversation Control

	Male ratings			Female ratings		
Observer ratings	Egalitarian	Female	Male	Egalitarian	Female	Male
His issue						
Egalitarian	15	0	0	13	0	2
Female	3	0	0	3	1	0
Male	5	1	1	3	2	2
Her issue						
Egalitarian	16	0	0	12	2	2
Female	2	0	0	2	0	1
Male	5	1	1	5	1	1

Note. Missing data for 4 males and 3 females.

egalitarian, and for slightly over 50% of the couples described in Table 11, there was agreement between who couple members thought was in control of the conversation and who the observer believed was in control. When there were disagreements between observers and couple members, the most likely scenario was that observers saw the conversation as male dominated, which the couple member viewed it as egalitarian.

Associations Between Interaction
Ratings and QRI Scores

Table 12 presents correlations between observers' dominance ratings and couple members' QRI scores. Higher ratings of 'dominance through not listening' were related to lower overall relationship quality, especially for males (during HIS Issue). However, higher ratings of 'dominance through talking' were unexpectedly related to females' greater overall perceptions of support and depth.

Table 12

Bivariate Correlations Between Observers' Dominance Ratings and Couple Members' Relationship Quality

	Male		Female	
Variable	Dominance through talking	Dominance through not listening	Dominance through talking	Dominance through not listening
His issue				
Support	.075	-.438*	.505**	-.139
Conflict	.278	.147	.026	-.018
Depth	.282	-.344$^\wedge$	.394*	-.387*
Her issue				
Support	-.117	-.286	.274	-.025
Conflict	.231	.108	.050	-.054
Depth	.037	-.183	.238	-.238

$^{**} p < 0.01$
$^* p < 0.05$
$^\wedge p < .10$

Table 13 represents correlations between couple members' three global codes from the interactions and quality of relationship scores. Moderate to large correlations were observed between girlfriends global interaction ratings and their QRI scores, in expected directions. Males' perceptions of being misunderstood were related to more negative QRI scores, especially their girlfriends' QRI scores. And as expected, higher ratings of honesty during the conversations were related to more positive overall relationship functioning.

Correlations between couple member micro-codes and their QRI scores are presented in Table 14. Examination of the patterns in Table 14 suggest that girlfriends' overall perceptions of conflict in the relationship (based on their QRI scores) were most consistently linked to girlfriends' observations of the interaction, more so than their

Table13

Bivariate Correlations Between Couple Member's Global Assessment Scale (Honesty, Attacked/Bullied, and Felt Misunderstood) and Quality of Relationship Scales

Scale	Female			Male		
	Honesty	Attacked bullied	Felt misunderstood	Honesty	Attacked bullied	Felt misunderstood
Female QRI						
Support	.573**	-.430*	-.412*	.425*	-.053	-.454*
Conflict	-.372^	.355^	.498**	-.141	.272	.553*
Depth	.495**	-.426*	-.425*	.414*	.023	-.387*
Male QRI						
Support	.303	-.135	-.392*	.198	.019	-.281
Conflict	-.212	.395*	.555**	-.048	.465*	.542**
Depth	.397*	-.203	-.242	.379*	.055	-.237

** *p* < .01

* *p* < .05

^ *p* < .10

Table14

Bivariate Correlations Between Girlfriend's Micro-Codes and Quality of Relationship Scores

Girlfriend's rating	Female			Male		
	Support	Conflict	Depth	Support	Conflict	Depth
His issue						
Girlfriend conflict	.125	.360^	-.017	.147	.302	.222
Girlfriend trying to persuade	-.040	.436*	-.135	-.046	.351^	.051
Girlfriend giving in	-.587**	-.545**	-.460*	-.272	.350	-.195
Boyfriend conflict	.155	.289	.023	.032	.234	.145
Boyfriend trying to persuade	-.237	.425*	-.313	-.196	.176	-.094
Boyfriend giving in	-.686**	.373^	-.555**	-.363^	.233	-.323
Her issue						
Girlfriend conflict	.039	.404*	-.016	.029	.468*	.247
Girlfriend trying to persuade	.013	.408*	-.011	.063	..335^	.163
Girlfriend giving in	-.401*	.478*	-.249	-.146	.378^	.014
Boyfriend conflict	.116	.302	-.071	-.009	.276	.139
Boyfriend trying to persuade	-.318	.409*	-.408*	-.199	.154	-.152
Boyfriend giving in	-.686**	.478*	-.559**	-.429*	.289	-.417*

** $p < .01$
* $p < .05$
^ $p < .10$

overall experiences of positivity in the relationship (i.e., support and depth scales of the QRI). Additionally, girlfriends' observations of "giving in" during the interaction, the experience of being submissive or "losing" the argument, were most strongly and consistently linked to overall reports of negative relationship quality (i.e., low support and depth, high conflict scores on the QRI). This was true for both males' issues and females' issues, and for both males' QRI scores and females' QRI scores.

Table 15 shows correlations between males' micro-codes and both couple members' QRI scores. In general, correlations between males' ratings and couple members' QRI scores were smaller and less consistent than females' ratings. However, males' ratings of "conflict" and "giving in" during *her* issue were somewhat more consistently related to overall relationship quality, suggesting the salience of girlfriends' selection of relationship problems to be discussed may be more central to overall relationship quality.

Table15

Bivariate Correlations Between Boyfriend's Micro-Codes and Quality of Relationship Scores

Boyfriend's rating	Female			Male		
	Support	Conflict	Depth	Support	Conflict	Depth
His issue						
Girlfriend conflict	-.019	.177	.037	.093	.283	.055
Girlfriend trying to persuade	-.282	.243	-.269	-.271	.331^	-.192
Girlfriend giving in	-.391*	.364^	.342^	-.167	.414*	-.127
Boyfriend conflict	.003	.100	.074	.053	.210	.071
Boyfriend trying to persuade	-.141	.202	-.141	-.164	.264	-.100
Boyfriend giving in	-.223	.246	-.171	-.081	.241	-.013
Her issue						
Girlfriend conflict	-.320	.329^	-.242	-.215	.435*	-.227
Girlfriend trying to persuade	-.289	.184	-.282	-.259	.235	-.217
Girlfriend giving in	-.402*	.369^	-.385*	-.154	.409*	-.144
Boyfriend conflict	.000	.074	.063	-.067	.301	.070
Boyfriend trying to persuade	-.149	.175	-.090	-.175	.346^	-.039
Boyfriend giving in	-.321	.243	-.236	-.154	.350^	-.086

*** $p < .01$
* $p < .05$
^ $p < .10$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Because of the dearth of research examining the relationships of Latino adolescents, an observational study was conducted to examine communication patterns related to interpersonal power in this population. No studies of this type have been published with Latino adolescent couples to date, in which behaviors are observed by both outside observers and couple members that evaluate verbal interactions, behaviors, and perceptions of relationship quality between romantic partners. The goal of this study was to contribute to the understanding of how power is negotiated and a better overall understanding of communication styles for this population. It additionally takes into consideration that to date there is little understanding of how power dynamics play out among Latinos and how these may contribute to relationship quality. Likewise, there is little understanding of how to interpret these communicative behaviors and whether or not the cultural concepts of *familismo, personalismo, machismo*, and *mariansimo* can be invoked to understand the manner in which couples communicate. As such, couples were videotaped having problem-solving conversations in order to examine interaction patterns related to interpersonal power more closely. Each couple was provided the opportunity to discuss an issue that was important and relevant to their specific situation in addition to completing various measures related to their overall quality of relationship. As previously noted, participation in adolescent romantic relationships is a normal process of development contributing to both positive and negative mental health outcomes (e.g., Collins et al., 2009; Sassler, 2010). Additionally, relationships change throughout the

course of development becoming more committed, intimate and caring towards later adolescence and early adulthood (Arnett, 2001; Crissey, 2005).

Characteristics of Latino Adolescent Relationships

In general, these particular couple members perceived themselves to be in relatively intense relationships, reporting strong feelings of love towards their partners; planning for serious and long lasting relationships, and reporting that they are seriously dating or expect to eventually marry their partner as evidenced on their responses in the Dating History Questionnaire. Using a separate sample from the larger study from which these data were drawn, similar findings emerged in a semi-structured interview that examined Latina adolescents' understanding of their cultural beliefs and practices about relationships (Tafoya, Galliher, & Cordero, 2010). Latinas in that qualitative study reported that they viewed their relationships as more intense, more likely to move quickly to serious dating, and highly physically affectionate, relative to the relationships of their White American counterparts. Interestingly, participants in the Tafoya et al. study indicated having stricter dating restrictions for females, or being forbidden to have boyfriends. In this study, for example, a reason why most contact between couples occurred in school as reflected in the data, centered on similar issues. As previously mentioned, many of these couple members noted that they were in a long term relationship possibly resulting in marriage in the future. Perhaps this is a result of emphasis on the importance of family and creating a family for themselves or it may be that for females it is looked down upon to be in multiple relationships throughout their

lifetime and can be possibly seen as not being virtuous and pure (Tafoya et al., 2010). Additionally, most participants in the Tafoya et al. study described aspirations which included wanting to get married and have children and form a family after they obtained their higher education. Speculation can be made about the roles that *familismo, machismo,* and *marianismo* play in these experiences, but without concrete measures of these constructs it is difficult to distinguish from their self reports what influences their values and beliefs regarding gender roles and family.

Characteristics of Problem-Solving Interactions and Overall Relationship Quality

Mean scores on conflict, persuading, and giving in for our couples problem solving interactions ratings were found to be slightly higher than previously reported with other samples utilizing similar methods, that did not include high numbers of Latino participants (Galliher, Enno, & Wright, 2008; Galliher et al., 2004) . However, in general, couples views about their relationship was reflected in how they rated their overall relationship quality; resulting in positive ratings overall. This is found to be consistent with research that has used similar methodology (Welsh et al., 1999; Galliher et al., 2004, 2008). Relationships tend to be characterized favorably when couples perceive high levels of commitment (Grauerholz 1987), the majority of the couple members indicated being in serious dating relationships which can typically be characterized as highly committed relationships. On average during the interaction couples viewed their own behaviors and their partner's behavior positively, reporting low

levels of conflict, giving in and persuading. Similarly, observer ratings indicated that most couples tended to be mutually and reciprocally engaged. Most couples also appeared to manage conflict during the interaction utilizing low levels of dominance either through talking or not listening. Additionally, couples indicated they were honest during the interaction, freely expressing true feelings. In general these couples tended to have good communication and positive problem solving skills. As previously noted, good communication and ability to express one's true feelings are characteristics of nondistressed, positive relationships (Neff & Suizzo, 2006; Rehman & Holtzworth-Monroe, 2007). Lastly, in addition to honesty, other global codes were also positive which has been found to be consistent with other samples.

It's important to note that although the results present an overall positive view of these couple's relationships; the above findings are representative of the average. Instances of intense conflict and power imbalance were observed with several couples. Couples that struggled demonstrated this through their use of verbally abusive language such as name calling, mocking, disengagement, and on one occasion smacking their partner on the shoulder. This suggests that interventions aimed at improving relationship quality are necessary.

In speculating about other possible reasons for overall positive ratings of themselves and partners' interactions, the construct of *personalismo* may be relevant as a driving influence in the behaviors of these couples. As noted in the literature, the construct of *personalismo* places high regard on personal relationships and dictates that one demonstrate warmth, friendliness, and ability to get along with one another in order

to maintain closeness (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002). It is possible that during interactions with one another, couples place high regard on their relationships and as a result made efforts to get along and maintain harmony which resulted in positive relationships for this particular sample. However, in looking at these relationships from a developmental perspective, findings have indicated that couples who have been together approximately nine months or longer tend to be more positive toward one another, less confrontational are better able to resolve disagreements through comprise (Collins, 2003). As previously noted, several couple members indicated being in relationships approximately nine months, some longer. Likewise, Collins also highlighted the role of emotions and cognitions in relationship functioning. Positive emotions are found to intensify when relationship experiences conform to idealized romantic scripts (Collins, 2003). It may also be possible that many of the couples idealized their relationships, resulting in the positive outcomes observed. Finally, age related variations are common in adolescent relationships and may serve as an explanation. Since younger adolescents' tend to place importance on social acceptance and peer approval (Collins, 2003) it may be that the young couples in our study are unwilling to remain in relationships that aren't satisfying or socially popular and were in relationships they viewed as satisfying.

Associations Between Interaction Behaviors and Overall Relationship Quality

Relationships between observer dominance ratings and couple member ratings were relatively weak and inconsistent. Thus, observers' views of power and couple

members' views of power are not perfectly aligned. A case can be made that instead of relying solely on trained observers, it is equally important for researchers to examine participants' own subjective experiences of their conversations. While the perceptions of outside observers are the "gold standard" in evaluating interaction patterns in observational research, it may be that the ratings of participants themselves are stronger predictors of important outcomes in some cases.

Interestingly, coders' ratings were more aligned with female ratings of their own experiences than with male ratings. This may be due in part to the fact that coders for this study were themselves female, who may have tended to view male partners' behaviors and interactions in a similar fashion. This is most evident in the "dominance through not listening" ratings on the part of the outside observer. For example, females tended to be more sensitive to not listening behaviors which were comprised of withdrawing, disengaging and not responding behaviors on the part of the male partner. A similar pattern has been observed in research findings described by Gottman, Coan, Carrere, and Swanson (1998) as *stonewalling*, or listener withdrawal; a behavior most typically associated with men in which they withdraw during the presence of something they perceive to be emotionally negative. It may be likely that the female coders could have picked up on these nuances during the conversations. One possible future suggestion would be to use mixed gendered coders in order to see how a male might view the interactions differently from females. Another possible direction for future research may suggest taking a closer look at gender socialization in order to consider how our experiences and interpretations of our interactions impact ratings. However, in rating

conversation control, most couples were viewed as having equal control of the conversations by both couple members and trained observers. When discrepancies occurred, observers were more likely to see males in control of the conversation.

As expected, associations between observer ratings and couple member's QRI scores indicated that dominance through not listening is indicative of overall poor relationship quality, especially for males. Surprisingly, females' higher ratings of dominance through talking were related to greater perceptions of support and depth. A possible explanation for this may be that when they perceived their partner or themselves as talking throughout the conversation; that dominant behavior was perceived as being highly involved and engaged in the conversation, possibly generating (increased) higher feelings of support and depth.

Negative outcomes for the quality of relationship are apparent when partners perceive themselves as being misunderstood, attacked and bullied; conversely higher honesty is associated with more depth and support and less conflict in the relationship. This goes along with what is found in the literature and makes sense as it is likely partners will experience more negative feelings and perceive the relationship in a more negative light in response to believing that their partner is misunderstanding what they are trying to convey or are attacking them during the conversation. Likewise when perceiving that their partner was being honest and when they perceived themselves as having the ability to be honest with their partner during the conversation, they felt closer and perceived themselves and their partner as being more supportive. Overall, these tended to be somewhat stronger correlations for females than for males, with few

exceptions.

Lastly, female's ratings strongly related to their own overall relationship quality, while males ratings were less consistently and more weakly related to overall relationship quality generally. It is unclear if males evaluate the overall quality of the relationship by other means not captured in this study or if they did not link their problem solving experiences to their global evaluation of the relationship. A future direction for research may be to investigate this further. However, "giving-in" in general tended to yield the most striking results which were associated with negative views of the relationship overall and leading to a bleaker outlook on the status of the couple's relationship. It is likely that the high levels of conflict associated with this variable may be due to perceptions about themselves or the disharmony in the relationship in addition to the discomfort associated with having to openly discussed problems they felt were impacting the relationship. Thinking again about the role of *personalismo* and the influence it may have in the lives of these couples; it can be suggested that because of these strong cultural values and beliefs, these Latino couple members are more sensitive to conflict in the relationship.

Conclusions and Limitations

In closing, this study served to close the gap in understanding Latino adolescent relationships by observing intricate communication styles of romantically involved couples. The observational methods utilized served to help us capture moment by moment interactions, thereby evaluating what those behaviors meant with regards to

power processes and from a cultural perspective. Interestingly, as the communication patterns of our sample were observed, it appeared as if themes of previously mentioned cultural constructs emerged during a majority of the discussions. Although the constructs of *familismo, marianismo, machismo*, were not the focus of this particular study and were not measured, it was interesting to note that issues related to family and male/female roles were chosen for discussion.

Additionally, behaviors associated with an imbalance of power such as those characterized by dominance through not listening or dominance through talking behaviors were found to lead to negative outcomes for couple members. Although the majority of these couple members reported equal control of conversations, when perceiving themselves and partners as being "conflictual" or "giving in" their overall quality of the relationship was perceived negatively. When couple members reported feeling attacked/bullied and misunderstood, similar results in how they viewed the quality of their relationship were found. By targeting and identifying behaviors that are associated with negative outcomes, improvements in communication can be made. Likewise, intervening with distressed couples may help improve the quality of the relationship. It's also important to understand and keep in mind that for this particular population, cultural constructs may be at play in how they perceive power and equality. It is likely that the values and belief systems of the culture may influence how they viewed their problems and were affected by perceived conflict

Researchers are contributing to the realization that adolescence is an important developmental stage and since this period in the life of the individual is one in which

he/she begins to develop the skills needed to engage in committed adult relationships (Collins, 2003; Collins et al., 2009; Connolly & Johnson, 1996; Furman & Wehner, 1997); programs geared at helping adolescents learn to communicate, negotiate and resolve problems effectively may be beneficial, especially for those in distress. It is possible that by intervening early on and equipping these individuals with tools and skills needed in order to maintain healthy, positive relationships there can be minimization of behaviors that interfere with having healthy relationships and that lead to negative outcomes.

There are limitations to the current study. This study was limited to a small sample of Latino couples, focusing on a specific set of Latinos who resided in a small Rocky Mountain city and did not include samples from larger metropolitan areas, possibly resulting in findings that are unique to this context. Additionally, this study required couple members' participation in a problem solving discussion and were videotaped; to date we don't know if requiring them to openly discuss their problems has relevance or if it is culturally congruent.

Additionally, the measures and questionnaires were already in place and had been used prior to this study and it is unclear whether or not these were appropriate instruments for use with the Latino couple samples that participated in this study. However the QRI has been widely used and has been found to yield strong reliability. The QRI was developed with four aims in mind; first, to provide an index of relationship qualities, secondly, to assess multiple aspects of relationships, thirdly, ensure that it can be utilized with a broad range of relationships, and lastly, to be consistent with a

theoretical framework that accounts for the role of specific relationships in social support and other processes (Pierce, 1996). It has been found to be psychometrically sound; however, it appears that it has been mostly utilized with White samples and college samples whose ethnicities were not identified (Pierce, 1996).

Another limitation of this study included the fact that we did not actively measure the constructs of *personalismo, familismo, machismo,* and *marianismo*, leading to speculation about cultural influences on couple behavior. It would have been helpful to have utilized a measure of these constructs when observing and interpreting behaviors seen on video. Also, there might have been issues with the fact that the primary coder was also female, leading to a certain view and interpretation of couple members' behaviors. In future studies it may be more effective to measure and assess cultural constructs more closely in order to understand how this relates to couple behaviors, responses, and relationship outcomes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Observed Behaviors

Observed Behaviors

Dominating Through Talking: Describes behaviors that are utilized by the more powerful partner to control most of the conversation time in order to talk about him or herself (Whisman & Jacobson, 1991). The following dominating through talking behaviors are to be coded:

Interrupting: Dominant partner puts a stop to nondominant partner's conversation; halts the flow of the speaker in order to redirect conversation back to him or herself.

Talking over the other partner: Dominant partner speaks at same time as nondominant partner, speaks louder, dismisses partner's comments

Not eliciting information from partner: Dominant partner does not ask questions of nondominant partner or does not ask for elaboration or details.

Not listening to partner: When non dominant partner speaks dominant partner does not pay attention or redirects conversation back to him or herself

Intrusive body language: Body language that is "in your face"

Dominating Through Not Listening: Describes how the listener, rather than the speaker dominates the conversation by his or her lack of interest in what their partner is saying. Instead of encouraging their partner's self-disclosure; dominant partners appear completely disengaged from the conversation (Whisman & Jacobson, 1990). The following dominating through not listening behaviors are described:

Withholding information: When non-dominant partner is talking, dominant partner does not provide information sought

Not responding to questions: Dominant partner does not respond when nondominant partner asks questions

Short/brief answers: Dominant partner responds with little detail is not elaborate in his or her responses

Disengaging/Dismissing body Language: Eye rolling, pulling back from partner, arm folding, not giving back to partner

Rating Coding system:

Power Variables rated on 1-5 Likert Scale

Dominating through talking

1- Both partners able to express viewpoints and problem solve the situation with no interruptions, both equally ask and answer questions, body language demonstrates active listening is taking place.

2- Partners are able to express viewpoints, few interruptions by one or both partners (2 or less), active listening continues to take place, information is elicited equally.

3- One partner interrupts, talks over, or dismisses the other's opinion several times (3-4 times) over the course of the conversation. Distribution of "talk time" is uneven.

4- One of the partners expresses his/her viewpoints most of the time, frequent interruptions and talking over by one partner. (5 or more)

5- One partner monopolizes the entire time expressing his/her viewpoint leaving little time for the other to share and give input, partner that monopolizes the time frequently interrupts and does not ask for partner input, does not ask questions of the other, does not listen and talks over the majority of the time. Dominant partner may engage in dismissive, insulting, or derogative language or behaviors.

Dominating through not listening

1- Both partners able are engaged, both freely share information with each other as they discuss and problem solve. When questions are ask, both partners elaborate and respond to questions. There is lack of eye rolling, arm folding, etc.

2- Partners freely share information with each other. One or both partners display (2 or less) incidences of disengagement, eye rolling, arm folding, etc.

3- One partner refuses to answer questions/respond, engages in eye rolling, folded arms or other distancing behaviors, or withdraws from conversation during a significant portion of the conversation (3 or more incidences)

4- One partner displays incidences of disengagement and not listening, unwillingness to elaborate most of the time. Frequent eye rolling, backing away, arm folding (e.g., ¼ to ½ of the conversation time).

5- One partner completely withdraws the entire time. He/she withholds information when the other is talking and is unwilling to share and elaborate-choosing to respond with short and brief answers, body language demonstrates disengagement throughout the entire time (backing away, folding arms, rolling eyes when partner speaks).

Appendix B

Survey Advertisement

Complete our Survey and Earn $10

Dr. Renee Galliher, from Utah State University, is trying to learn more about Latino students' opinions about their culture, relationships, and goals. You are invited to participate in our study next Wednesday right after school. Read the attached form carefully with your parents. Bring the signed form to the Writing Lab on Wednesday at 2:30-you can fill out the survey and earn $10 in about 45 minutes.

SNACKS AND DRINKS WILL BE PROVIDED!!

Complete nuestro cuestionario y gane $10

La Dra. Renee Galliher, de la Universidad Estatal de Utah, está esforzándose por aprender sobre las opiniones de los estudiantes latinos de su cultura, relaciones, y metas. Le invitamos a que participe en nuestro estudio este miércoles. Lea con cuidado junto a sus padres la carta adjunta. Tráigala firmada al Writing Lab el miércoles a las 2:30-le tomará como 45 minutos llenar el cuestionario

Appendix C

Recruitment Letters (English and Spanish)

(English)

September 12, 2007

Dear parent:

My name is Renee Galliher and I am a professor at Utah State University. I have asked your son or daughter to participate in a research study being conducted at XXXX High School. We want to learn more about how Latino students think about school, relationships, and their behavior. This will help teachers and counselors who work with Latino teenagers, so that they can help Latino kids to be successful. I'm asking your permission for your student to participate in the study. Please read the enclosed description of the study. If you agree for your teenager to participate, just sign the form and send it back to school with your student. If you have questions, you can contact me at Renee.Galliher@usu.edu or at (435) 797-3391. I speak only a little Spanish, but I can set up a time to answer your questions with a translator.

Thank you.

Renee V. Galliher
Department of Psychology
2810 Old Main Hill
Utah State University
Logan, UT 84322

(Spanish)

12 de septiembre de 2007

Estimado padre:

Mi nombre es Renee Galliher y soy profesora en la Universidad Estatal de Utah. Le he pedido a su hijo/a que participe en un estudio que está llevándose a cabo en la Escuela Superior de XXXXX. Queremos aprender más acerca de cómo los estudiantes latinos piensan sobre su escuela, sus relaciones, y su conducta. Esto ayudará a los maestros y consejeros que trabajan con ellos, a darle mejor apoyo para que su hijo/a tenga éxito. Le pido permiso para que su hijo/a participe en el estudio. Por favor, lea la descripción del estudio que le estoy enviando. Si da permiso a que su hijo/a adolescente participe, firme abajo y envíela de vuelta a la escuela con su hijo/a. Si tiene preguntas, contácteme en Renee.Galliher@usu.edu o llámeme al (435) 797-3391. Hablo un poco de español, pero puedo hacer arreglos con un traductor para contestar mejor sus preguntas.

Gracias,

Renee V. Galliher
Departamento de Psicología
2810 Old Main Hill
Utah State University
Logan, UT 84322

Appendix D

Informed Consent/Assent—English

UtahState
UNIVERSITY.

2810 Old Main Hill
Logan UT 84322-2810
Telephone: (435) 797-1460
Fax: (435) 797-1448

INFORMED CONSENT/ASSENT (Video)
Culture and Development among Latino Adolescents

Introduction/Purpose: Professor Renee Galliher in the Department of Psychology at Utah State University is in charge of this research study. We are asking your teenager to be in the study with his/her boyfriend or girlfriend. We want to learn more about Latino adolescents' romantic relationships. About fifty students will be in this study with their romantic partners.

Procedures: The couple will be videotaped having three short conversations about issues or problems in their relationship. Then, each couple member will watch the tape of their discussion. They will answer questions about their thoughts and feelings during the tape. In addition to watching the tapes, each adolescent will fill out a short questionnaire asking about their feelings and behaviors in their relationship. The study will take about 2 hours. Our research team may also review the tapes later to code the discussions.

Risks: There is minimal risk associated with being in this study. Some people may not want to be videotaped or share personal information. Students will be given privacy during the videotaping. They can also choose not to discuss personal or difficult topics.

Benefits: We hope that your teenager has fun in this study. The information will help us learn more about Latino teenagers' lives and relationships. It will also help teachers, parents, and counselors in their work with teenagers.

Explanation and Offer to Answer Questions: If you have more questions, you can also contact the Primary Investigator, Professor Renee Galliher, at (435)797-3391.

Payment: Couples will be paid $15 per hour ($30 each).

Voluntary Participation and Right to Leave the Study: It is your teenager's choice to be in this study. He or she can refuse or stop at any time.

Confidentiality: The information from this study will be kept private, in agreement with federal and state rules. The videotapes will not be released to anyone outside the research team. All information will be locked in a filing cabinet in a locked room. Your answers and videotapes will only have an ID number and not your name. Data may be used for three years by our research team before it is destroyed.

IRB Approval Statement: The Institutional Review Board for the protection of human

subjects at Utah State University has approved this research. If you have any questions about IRB approval of this study, contact the IRB administrator at (435)797-1821.

Copy of Consent: You have been given two copies of this form. Please sign both copies and keep one for your files.

Investigator Statement: I certify that the research study has been explained to the student and his/her father, mother, or guardian. They understand the nature and purpose, possible risks and benefits associated with participation. Any questions have been answered.

_____

Renee V. Galliher, Ph.D., Principal Investigator

By signing below, you agree to participate.

Youth Assent:

I understand that my parent(s)/guardian is/are aware of this research and have given permission for me to participate. I understand that I decide, even if my parents say yes. No one will be upset if I say no or if I change my mind later and want to stop. I can ask questions now or later. By signing below, I agree to participate.

_____

Signature of Participant   Date

_____

Print Name

Parent Consent:

I have read the above description of the study and I consent for my teenager to participate.

Parent's Signature/Date_____

Print name_____

Appendix E

Informed Consent/Assent—Spanish

UtahState
UNIVERSITY.

2810 Old Main Hill
Logan UT 84322-2810
Telephone: (435) 797-1460
Fax: (435) 797-1448

CONSENTIMIENTO
Cultura y Desarrollo en Adolescentes Latinos

Introducción/propósito: La profesora Reneé Galliher del departamento de psicología de la Un iversidad Estatal de Utah (Utah State University) está a cargo de este estudio. Le hemos pedido a su adolescente que participe en este estudio. Deseamos aprender más sobre las relaciones románticas de los estudiantes latinos. Cerca de 50 estudiantes participarán en este estudio con sus respectivas parejas.

Procedimientos: Se grabará un video de cada pareja teniendo tres conversaciones diferentes acerca de los problemas en su relación. Luego, cada uno de ellos mirará el video y contestará preguntas acerca de los sentimientos y pensamientos que tuvieron durante las conversaciones. Además de ver el video, cada adolescente llenará un cuestionario corto acerca de sus sentimientos y comportamientos en su relación. El estudio tomará como dos horas en completarse. Más tarde, nuestro equipo mirará el video para codificar las conversaciones.

Riesgos: Los riesgos por participar en este proyecto se consideran mínimos. Algunos adolescentes no querrán ser grabados en video o compartir información personal. Se le dará su privacidad a la pareja durante la grabación, y si desean, pueden rehusarse a discutir asuntos sensitivos.

Beneficios: Esperamos que su adolescente se divierta al participar en este estudio. La información que obtengamos nos ayudará a aprender más sobre las vidas y las relaciones de los adolescentes latinos. También ayudará a maestros, a padres, y a consejeros en su trabajo con los adolescentes.

Explicación y oferta para contestar a preguntas: Si usted tiene más preguntas, puede comunicarse con la profesora Renee Galliher, al (435) 797-3391. Ella habla un poco de español, pero le podemos contactar con alguien que hable español muy bien.

Pago: A la pareja se le pagará $15 por hora ($30 cada uno).

Participación voluntaria y derecho de retirarse sin consecuencias: La participación de su adolescente en este estudio es completamente voluntaria. El o ella puede descontinuar su participación en cualquier momento y sin penalidad alguna.

Confidencialidad: La información recopilada en este estudio se mantendrá privada (confidencial) de acuerdo con reglas estatales y federales. Los videos serán observados

solo por el equipo de la Dra. Galliher, y se guardarán bajo llave. Los videos y contestaciones a preguntas se identificarán con un número, y no con su nombre. Los videos y contestaciones se usarán por tres años y luego serán destruidos.

Declaración de la aprobación de IRB: El comité institucional para la protección de participantes humanos (Institutional Review Board) en la Universidad Estatal de Utah ha aprobado esta investigación. Si usted tiene preguntas sobre la aprobación, puede comunicarse con True Rubal-Fox al (435) 797-1821. Ella habla español.

Copia del consentimiento: Le han dado dos copias de la hoja de consentimiento. Por favor firme ambas copias y guarde una para sus archivos.

Declaración del investigador: Certifico que se le ha explicado el estudio al participante y su padre, madre, y/o guardián. El participante entiende la naturaleza y el propósito, los riesgos posibles y los beneficios asociados con la participación en el estudio. Se han contestado las preguntas acerca del estudio.

_____
Reneé V. Galliher, Ph.D., Investigadora Principal

Al firmar abajo, doy mi consentimiento para participar.

Consentimiento del adolescente:

Entiendo que mi padre y/o madre tienen conocimiento de este estudio y que han dado permiso para que yo participe. También entiendo que la decisión final es mía, aún cuando mi padre/madre esté de acuerdo. De no querer participar en el estudio, no tengo que hacerlo. Nadie se molestará si no participo o si cambio de parecer y decido retirarme del estudio depués de haber dicho que sí. Entiendo que puedo hacer preguntas acerca del estudio ahora o luego. Con mi firma abajo, expreso mi aprobación para participar.

_____
Firma del Participante   Fecha

_____

Nombre en letra de molde

Consentimiento del padre/madre:

He leído la descripción del estudio y doy permiso a mi hijo adolescente a que participe.

Firma del padre o madre _____Fecha_____

Nombre en letra de molde_____

Appendix F

Global Assessment Scale (GAS)

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	1	2	3	4	5
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Often	Very Often

	1	2	3	4	5
1. How often do the two of you have a discussion like this?	1	2	3	4	5
2. During the conversation, to what extent were you honest?	1	2	3	4	5
3. During the conversation, to what extent was your partner honest?	1	2	3	4	5
4. During the conversation, to what extent were you hiding something from your partner?	1	2	3	4	5
5. During the conversation, were you able to express your true thoughts and feelings?	1	2	3	4	5
6. During the conversation, do you think your partner understood your point of view?	1	2	3	4	5
7. During the conversation, did you feel attacked or bullied by your partner?	1	2	3	4	5
8. During the conversation, did you withdraw from your partner?	1	2	3	4	5
9. During the conversation, did your partner withdraw from you?	1	2	3	4	5
10. During the conversation, did you feel misunderstood?	1	2	3	4	5

11. Who controlled the conversation?
    a.   Self
    b.   Equal
    c.   Partner

Appendix G

Issues Checklist

Issues Checklist

Common Issues in Relationships

Listed below are some issues that many dating couples disagree about. Please select one issue from the page **OR** write one in the space provided that relates to you and your partner. You will be asked to discuss this issue for eight minutes while your conversation is recorded. At the bottom, write the number of the issue you choose to discuss with your partner along with two alternate issues.

1. We never have enough money or time to do fun things on dates.

2. Sometimes I wish my partner and I could spend more time talking together.

3. My partner doesn't call or show up when s/he says s/he will.

4. My partner and I disagree over how much time we should spend with each other.

5. Sometimes my partner doesn't seem to trust me enough or sometimes I do not trust my partner enough.

6. Sometimes my partner doesn't understand me or sometimes I do not understand my partner.

7. My partner and I disagree over how much affection we should show in public.

8. My partner and I disagree over how committed we are to each other.

9. My partner and I disagree about how much time we should spend with our friends.

10. I don't like my partner's friends or my partner doesn't like mine.

11. My friends do not like my partner or my partner's friends do not like me.

12. My partner sometimes puts me down in front of others.

13. I don't always approve of how my partner dresses/acts around the opposite sex.

14. My partner has a hard time dealing with my ex-boyfriend/girlfriend.

15. We have very different thoughts about religion, politics or other important issues.

16. My partner expects me to be interested in his/her hobbies.

17. My parents do not like us being together or feel we spend too much time together.

18. My parents do not like my partner or my partner's parents do not like me.

19. Adults at my school or church do not approve of my relationship with my partner.

Other

20. Other issue we disagree about

_____

Main Issue I'd like to discuss:

_____

First Alternate Issue:

_____

Second Alternate Issue:

_____

Appendix H

Quality of Relationship Inventory

Quality of Relationship Inventory

Please use the scale below to answer the following questions regarding your relationship with your BOYFRIEND/GIRLFRIEND.

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A Little	Quite a Bit	Very Much

1. To what extent could you turn to this person for advice about problems?

2. How often do you need to work hard to avoid conflict with this person?

3. To what extent could you count on this person for help with a problem?

4. How upset does this person sometimes make you feel?

5. To what extent can you count on this person to give you honest feedback, even if you might not want to hear it?

6. How much does this person make you feel guilty?

7. How much do you have to "give in" in this relationship?

8. To what extent can you count on this person to help you if a family member very close to you died?

9. How much does this person want you to change?

10. How positive a role does this person play in your life?

11. How significant is this relationship in your life?

12. How close will your relationship be with this person in 10 years?

13. How much would you miss this person if the two of you could not see or talk with each other for a month?

14. How critical of you is this person?

15. If you wanted to go out and do something this evening, how confident are you that this person would be willing to do something with you?

16. How responsible do you feel for this person's well-being?

17. How much do you depend on this person?

18. To what extent can you count on this person to listen to you when you are very angry at someone else?

19. How much would you like this person to change?

20. How angry does this person make you feel?

21. How much do you argue with this person?

22. To what extent can you really count on this person to distract you from your worries when you feel under stress?

23. How often does this person make you feel angry?

24. How often does this person try to control or influence your life?

25. How much more do you give than you get from this relationship?

Appendix I

Dating History and Behaviors

Dating History and Behaviors

The following questions ask about your dating history, as well as dating and sexual behaviors with your current romantic partner.

IN THE LAST MONTH, how many times have you and your CURRENT PARTNER:

1. gone out with a group of friends?
a. never
b. 1-3 times
c. 4-6 times
d. 7-15 times
e. 16-50 times
f. 51+

2. gone out on a date alone?
a. never
b. 1-3 times
c. 4-6 times
d. 7-15 times
e. 16-50 times
f. 51+

3. told your partner you loved him/her?
a. never
b. 1-3 times
c. 4-6 times
d. 7-15 times
e. 16-50 times
f. 51+

4. been told by your partner that he/she loved you?
a. never
b. 1-3 times
c. 4-6 times
d. 7-15 times
e. 16-50 times
f. 51+
e. 16-50 times
f. 51+

5.   How long have you been dating your CURRENT PARTNER?

Please indicate the number of weeks

_____

6.   How often do you see your CURRENT PARTNER?

a. Everyday at school and everyday out of school
b. Everyday at school
c. 2-3 times per week
d. Once per week or less

7.   How would you describe the relationship between you and your CURRENT PARTNER?
a. Casually dating –we get together every once in a while, and we both see other people
b. Seriously dating-neither one of us sees anyone else
c. Engaged-we plan to get married
d. Married

8.   How would you describe the feelings between you and your CURRENT PARTNER?
a. We ONLY like each other
b. He/she loves me, I don't love him/her
c. I love him/her, she/he doesn't love me
d. We love each other

9. *How much longer do you think your relationship with your CURRENT PARTNER will last?*
   a. Less than a month
   b. 1-3 months
   c. 3-6 months
   d. 6-12 months
   e. more than a year
   f. I expect to marry this person

10. *In the LAST YEAR, how many boyfriends/girlfriends have you had?*

   _____None _____1 _____2 _____3
   _____4 or more

11. *How long did your longest dating relationship last?*

   Please indicate the number of weeks_____