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TOWARDS A MORE COMPREHENSIVE VIEW OF THE USE OF POWER
BETWEEN COUPLE MEMBERS IN ADOLESCENT
ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

by

Charles George Bentley

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Psychology

Approved:

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
Logan, Utah

2006

ABSTRACT

Towards a More Comprehensive View of the Use of Power
Between Couple Members in Adolescent
Romantic Relationships

by

Charles George Bentley, Master of Science

Utah State University, 2006

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Department: Psychology

This study investigated the construct of power in adolescent romantic couples using multiple measures. The project examined gender differences in power, created models of powerlessness for each gender, and examined relations between power and aggression and relationship quality. Participants were 90 heterosexual couples, aged 14-18 years old, living in rural areas in Utah and Arizona. Couple members completed surveys assessing attitudes and behaviors in their relationships and a video-recall procedure in which partners rated their own and their partner's behaviors during problem solving discussion.

Few gender differences emerged in reports of perpetration of aggression, but boyfriends reported higher levels of emotional vulnerability and lower levels of resource control for several power-related outcomes. Structural equation modeling yielded models

that appeared to capture the construct of powerlessness, with different models emerging for boyfriends and girlfriends. Finally, stepwise regressions revealed strong associations between measures of power and relationship outcomes with interesting gender differences.

(120 pages)

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Charles George Bentley

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INTRODUCTION

Recent theoretical and empirical work (Furman, Brown, & Feiring, 1999; Furman & Wehner, 1994; Shulman & Collins, 1997) has applied social learning theory and attachment theory to adolescent romantic relationships. Contemporary theories posit romantic coupling in adolescence as a vitally important developmental task (Furman, 1999). Early romantic relationships are characterized as transitional relationships, building on interpersonal and social skills, expectations, and values learned from previous interactions with parents, siblings, and peers and providing the framework for later adult coupling and marriage. Thus, experience in romantic teenage dyads may have a profound effect on the quality of eventual adult bonds.

Among aspects affecting relationship quality in adolescent dating relationships, the high prevalence (9% - 65% of dating couples report experiencing aggression within their romantic relationships) of dating aggression and violence between young couples (Arias, Samios, & O'Leary, 1987; Lewis & Fremouv, 2001) is of particular concern both immediately, and also over time, as patterns of interaction developed in early romantic relationships may persist into future relationships. Discrepancies in power between couple members have been associated with the establishment and maintenance of violent and aggressive behavior in dating relationships and marriage.

While recent studies address romantic relationship processes in adolescent populations (e.g., Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Furman, 2002), few focus specifically on aspects of power (Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 1999). Because of the

theoretical link between romantic relationships and marital relationships, the tradition of power research in marriage is relevant to adolescents. However, many of the studies are focused on behaviors that may not be relevant within the context of adolescence. For example, in marital relationships, interpersonal power is often assessed by examining decision-making authority in family matters (e.g., child-rearing decisions, financial decisions) or allocation of resources (Howard, Blumstein, & Schwartz, 1986). These strategies for evaluating interpersonal power may not be applicable to adolescent couples, in which, due to their minor status, neither couple member is likely to be faced with the same resource distribution and decision-making issues.

Clearly, adolescent romantic relationships, within their own context and as a link in the transmission of behaviors, attitudes, social skills, and interpersonal skills between past and future relationships, are an important topic. Furthermore, dating aggression and violence are among the aspects that are immediately problematic in addition to being carried forward to future relationships, and are consequently a critical area of study. However, relatively little is known about specific factors within adolescent contexts, that contribute to (or diminish) relationship quality and facilitate (or protect from) negative relationship outcomes such as aggression. While power inequity is thought to contribute to relational violence (Babcock, Waltz, & Jacobson, 1993; Ehrensaft & Vivian, 1999), the distribution of interpersonal power in teenage couples is not well understood. Consequently, studies that address the distribution of power within adolescent romantic relationships, particularly ones that conceptualize the construct in a multidimensional manner, are necessary to explore the specific context. Such studies may also help to

understand and intervene in the development of dating aggression. The current study investigated multiple methods for assessing interpersonal power in adolescent romantic couples and examined the associations between power inequity and experiences of perpetrating aggressive dating behavior and general relationship quality.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Importance of Romantic Relationships

Interpersonal relationships are a prominent feature in most peoples' lives. These associations enrich our lives with camaraderie, closeness, companionship, and many other beneficial qualities. Indeed, the phrase "well-adjusted" can be characterized largely by one's ability to create and maintain social relationships (Green, Hayes, & Dickinson, 2002; Umberson, Chen, House, & Hopkins, 1996).

Among the many types of social relationships encountered throughout life, romantic relationships are particularly remarkable. The intensity of features such as proximity, duration, intimacy, and efforts aimed at seeking partners experienced in these relationships often set romantic relationships apart from other relational contexts (Furman et al., 1999; Shulman & Collins, 1997). Consequently, it is no wonder that cultural norms and even biological drives that motivate individuals towards mate selection and sexual reproduction (Fisher, 2000), direct us towards romantic partnerships and eventually marriage or cohabitation.

In addition to the characteristics mentioned above, romantic relationships have been found to serve protective psychological functions (Horowitz, White, & Howell-White, 1996). For example, Horowitz and colleagues found that married individuals, both male and female, tend to experience less depression and have fewer problems with drugs and alcohol than their unmarried counterparts. Umberson et al. (1996) concluded that supportive relationships may not only be predictive of low general

psychological distress; they also suggested that discordant relationships may be predictive of increased distress. Thus, healthy romantic relationships may decrease maladaptive behavior and psychosocial distress.

Adolescent romantic relationships deserve specific emphasis not only because they serve the functions mentioned above, but they are also posited as a crucial stage in the development of abilities and skills relevant to future romantic relationships (Furman et al., 1999). Maladaptive attitudes and behavioral patterns developed in early romantic relationships may be carried forward into future relationships, impacting relationship success across the lifespan.

The Development of Romantic Relationships

Attachment theory is fundamentally helpful in explaining the transmission of relational styles and tendencies over the course of development. Based on the early ethological and evolutionary work of Bowlby (1982) and Harlow (1959), attachment theorists (Main & Easton, 1981) suggested that attachment styles emerge from infants' interactions with their primary caregivers (typically parents). Thus, the caregivers' behavior is influenced by the infant as well, establishing an ongoing dynamic process of development. Main (2000) initially identified three primary styles of attachment; secure, anxious-ambivalent, and avoidant. According to attachment theory, an infant who experiences consistent, nurturing, and warm attention from the caregiver may develop a secure attachment style often characterized by success in establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships (Brennan, Wu, & Loev, 1998). An implication is that the

individual who develops secure attachment may have the capacity to provide the same support and reassurance to eventual romantic partners and offspring. In contrast, avoidant or anxious attachment styles are hypothesized to predict greater difficulty in establishing and maintaining relationships across the lifespan.

During adolescence, attachment style is implicated in the development of peer relationships, with evidence providing support for continuity of relationship quality from relationships with caregivers to later peer relationships (Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995). Based on the attachment theory construct of the internal working model (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), Furman and Wehner (1994) suggested that individuals develop “views” that impact their perceptions of relationships, their behaviors, and their expectations for those relationships. Views are posited to influence future relationships, and may in a sense act as self-fulfilling prophecies; the expected relationship qualities may manifest themselves in new relationships. Thus, views that are specific to romantic relationships are formed, in part, from previous experiences in other relationship contexts (e.g., family and peer), initial experiences in early romantic relationships, and ideas about romantic relationships gained from the media and larger culture. Understanding adolescents’ experiences, beliefs, and attitudes in early romantic relationships is vitally important because the behavioral patterns and attitudes that are developed in initial romantic encounters are expected to significantly impact the quality of later romantic relationships and marriage. Knowledge regarding early development of romantic relationships will help guide interventions that might prevent adolescents from carrying maladaptive behaviors and attitudes forward into adult relationships.

Relationship Processes: Social Exchange and Power

Social exchange theory (SET) provides a theoretical framework for understanding relationship processes. SET (Huston & Burgess, 1979) posits that interpersonal relationships function as ongoing cost-benefit analyses. The theory is predicated on the existence of a reciprocity norm (Gergen, Greenberg, & Willis, 1980) that fosters a perception of indebtedness when an individual benefits from the actions of another. While there is a socialized expectation of reciprocity, the individual's efforts are directed towards maximizing personal benefit. SET explains adult romantic relationships particularly well, partly because they are generally entered into voluntarily, and are, consequently, subject to dissolution resulting from undesirable cost-benefit ratios. Throughout earlier developmental stages, the theory may not appear to explain relationship processes as well. Indeed, the characteristics of relationships that are well explained by SET emerge as individuals continue through developmental pathways.

In contrast to the relationship processes defined above, early family relationships are structured asymmetrically, such that children are dependent on parents for caregiving, protection, and nurturance, while parents derive relationship satisfaction from other sources (e.g., child affection, pride, etc.). The asymmetry in these relationships does not present the threat of dissolution because family relationships are considered to be more enduring and "involuntary." Middle childhood provides the first experiences with genuine relationship reciprocity in the context of intense, close same-sex friendships referred to as "chumships" (Sullivan, 1953). The onset of dating during adolescence

introduces a new relationship context with both new and old relationship management challenges (Furman & Wehner, 1994). While adolescents' same-sex friendships and sibling relationships have provided experience in developing reciprocity and managing "give and take" in relationships, the romantic relationship context introduces new challenges. Adolescents are not likely to have experienced the emotional intensity of "being in love" before, and sexual desire introduces a new and complicated relationship aspect. Further, males and females entering romantic relationships have likely been socialized in two different relationship styles as described in literature related to gender differences in play styles and interaction behaviors among children (Maccoby, 1995). This may further complicate efforts to transition to heterosexual romantic relationships. Successful management of the transition results in a growing degree of interdependence between partners. The new capacity for intimacy and equity in the context of a romantic relationship provides the foundation for the development of healthy adult romantic relationships and marriage.

Traditionally, social exchange theorists have suggested that romantic relationships are maintained by the mutually beneficial allocation of resources that are available to a specific couple. Interdependence (Chadwick-Jones, 1976) between romantic partners modifies the economic equation of social exchange; the "I" becomes "we." A result is that, rather than simply working toward maximizing benefits for the self, couple members' efforts move toward maximizing gains for themselves *and* their partners. Laursen and Jensen-Campbell (1999) described a developmental progression, such that

during adolescence, couple members typically develop more equitable relationship strategies as other factors, such as commitment and affection, increase.

Social exchange theory predicts that a relationship that is characterized by an inequitable distribution of resources would be experienced as less satisfying by the underbenefiting partner. Evidence from marital and adult dating literature suggests that the experience of inequity or “powerlessness” in one’s relationship is associated with a range of negative psychological and relationship outcomes, such as anger, depression, and frustration (Felmlee, 1994; Gray-Little & Burks, 1983; Steil & Turetsky, 1987; Vanfossen, 1982). For example, Falbo and Peplau (1980) and Aida and Falbo (1991) found that couples who reported feeling higher degrees of equity in their relationship were less manipulative towards each other and reported higher scores on measures of marital satisfaction.

When adult relationships are characterized by an imbalance in the distribution of power, research has found that the male partner is far more likely to hold the dominant position (Carli, 1999; Felmlee, 1994; Gray-Little & Burks, 1983; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997). Gray-Little and Burks suggested that relationship satisfaction tends to be highest in couples where the distribution of power is more egalitarian, and least when the female partner has more power than the male. Furthermore, the researchers found that with any discrepancy, the use of coercive strategies to create and maintain power discrepancies was a strong predictor of relationship dissatisfaction. Carli found that women may not use authority as a means of social influence as easily as men, and thus may not be as successful with coercive manipulations. Although previous research has characterized adolescent couples as more egalitarian, power discrepancies were still associated with

poorer psychological functioning (Galliher et al., 1999). Previous findings that adolescent couples were more egalitarian than would be predicted by the adult literature may represent a developmental trajectory of power distribution, such that the discrepancies in power that have traditionally been observed do not emerge until couple members begin to take on adult roles. Alternatively, a conceptualization of interpersonal power that takes in to account developmental issues specific to adolescence may be necessary in order to understand the nature and role of power distribution in adolescent couples. The present study was initiated with the goal of developing a developmentally appropriate assessment of interpersonal power in adolescent couples.

Dating Aggression and Power

One particularly problematic and dangerous outcome that has been related to relationship inequity or imbalance in personal power is relationship violence, including both psychological and physical aggression. Reports of dating aggression, both physical and psychological, are alarmingly prevalent in the United States, as well as other cultures (Arias et al., 1987; Lewis & Fremouv, 2001). According to an extensive literature review by Lewis and Fremouv, prevalence rates ranged from 9% - 65% for dating couples who report experiencing aggression within their romantic relationships, with the majority of the studies reporting between 21% - 45%. The same review found the following prevalence rates for aggression perpetrated by each gender: 15% - 37% of males perpetrate aggression during courtship, while 35% - 37% of females report engaging in aggression. Interestingly, despite conventional wisdom that might predict otherwise,

researchers consistently find an equal or larger percentage of males, as opposed to females, reporting victimization from both physical and psychological aggression (Lewis & Fremouv). Consistent with that finding, it is well documented (e.g., Foshee, 1996; Lewis & Fremouv) that females in community samples tend to report as many or more incidents of perpetration of both types of aggression. However, male perpetration, though perhaps less frequent, has been associated with greater injury (Foshee; Molidor & Tolman, 1998).

Discrepancies in interpersonal power in adult relationships have repeatedly been associated with dating and marital violence. Ehrensaft, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, and Heyman (1999) found that perceptions of being controlled by a spouse in decision-making, relationships outside the marriage, freedom to plan activities, and in developing a sense of competence were correlated with a higher degree of perpetration of spousal aggression. Babcock and colleagues (1993) reported similar findings, but also suggested that when the husband was the individual who reported lower power, a greater rate of abusive behavior was predicted.

Further, aggressive behavior can be perpetrated and explained from either low or high power positions in dating relationships. For example, a position of high power in a romantic relationship may enable dominant behaviors and attitudes to be expressed by physical and/or psychological aggression as a means of maintaining the dominant position. A lower-powered counterpart may facilitate this dynamic by acquiescing to the partner's aggression. Johnson (2001) coined the term "patriarchal terrorism" to describe this pattern of relationship violence. In this form of aggression, proposed by Johnson to

be “rooted in patriarchal ideas about relationships between men and women” (p. 97) and primarily descriptive of male violence against women, the aggression serves the purpose of establishing and maintaining power and control.

In contrast, aggression stemming from a lower power position may be understood differently. The experience of powerlessness in one’s relationship may create a reservoir of frustration and resentment that could inspire aggression directed toward the higher powered partner. This form of aggression may be best conceptualized as “helpless rage” or lashing out. In conjunction with literature highlighting gender differences in power observed in adult relationships (e.g., Foshee, 1996; Lewis & Fremouv, 2001), understanding relationship aggression from this perspective may begin to explain the high rates of female to male aggression reported in the literature. It may be that different aspects or facets of interpersonal power (e.g., emotional vulnerability vs. resource control) predict perpetration and victimization by males and females.

It is important to note that the above cited theories and studies that examined power in relationships all examined the construct of power in the context of western culture. Relatively egalitarian relationships appear to be the ideal relationship structure in this culture. However, other cultures may utilize hierarchical power structures that govern individual behavior. In these systems, relationship inequity may not share the same associations with negative outcomes that would be expected in western cultures. Furthermore, within Western culture, subcultural differences based on religion or community values may impact individual couple members’ expectations of equity and the impact of inequity on relationship outcomes. This study was conducted in rural

communities dominated by the conservative Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (LDS) culture, which has historically ascribed to very traditional gender roles. The impact of this cultural context on adolescent couple members' experience of interpersonal power may be an important consideration.

Similarly, within a given culture there may be a great deal of individual variation in the need or desire for power. Thus, the consequences or outcomes associated with a given power level may differ on an individual level. For example, an individual with a high need for power may exhibit more aggressive behavior when the desired high power conditions are not met.

Modeling Interpersonal Power in Adolescent Romantic Relationships

Given the association between discrepancies in interpersonal power and aggressive behavior found in the literature cited above, an assessment of studies that examined interpersonal power in the context of romantic relationships is necessary to understand the nature and use of power in young couples. Much of the work conducted in this area has focused on adult romantic relationships and marriage, and has seldom included more than one conceptualization or measurement of power. Applicability of traditional measures of power (e.g., resource allocation) to adolescent couples may be limited by developmental differences. Further, the use of power may be more adequately characterized as multidimensional, incorporating emotional, instrumental, and relational aspects. The following section reviews different conceptualizations of interpersonal power that have been presented in the literature, with the aim of developing a

multidimensional model of power (or powerlessness) that takes into account developmental considerations unique to adolescent couples. These investigations will be described and the relevance and limitations of this literature as applied to adolescent couples will be discussed. Finally, a model of interpersonal power in adolescent romantic relationships will be presented that incorporates multiple indices of powerlessness, reflecting emotional and social vulnerability, as well as disadvantages in resource control and decision-making authority.

Shame. Shame is a painful emotional experience that can be either a temporary state or a general disposition resulting from awareness of one's actions that are interpreted as humiliating, ridiculous, or otherwise negatively perceived. The construct of shame has been used in a number of recent studies to conceptualize a means by which differentials in power are created and maintained in relationships (Goldberg & Yeshiva, 1996; Tangney & Fischer, 1995; Wood & Duck, 1995). These studies have used the Other as Shamer (OAS) scale, the Test of Self-conscious Affect (TOSCA) scale, and the Self-conscious Affect and Attribution Inventory (SCAAI) to assess the occurrence of shame. Lopez and colleagues (1997) suggested that actively dating undergraduates who exhibited anxious and/or insecure attachment styles were predisposed to experience shame. These shame-prone individuals were less likely to act collaboratively with their significant others during problem solving exercises. The lack of collaboration led to partners acting independently without regard for others, which may likely provide the basis for inequity to emerge in some relationships. A result is that a condition may occur

that is conducive to the establishment of a discrepancy in power, with those who experience their partners as more shaming or humiliating feeling less powerful.

Retzinger (1995) and Goldberg (1996), in studies with young adults, suggested that dispositional shame is associated with a host of problematic behaviors and attitudes, such as avoidance, alienation, aggression, and impeded capacities for intimacy. These emotional experiences likely undermine the establishment of equal footing in romantic relationships, and are associated with depressive symptoms and relational conflict (Retzinger).

Further, the use of shaming, humiliating, and disrespectful behaviors toward one's partner has been characterized as a direct strategy for establishing and maintaining control in relationships (Mauricio & Gormley, 2001; Riggs, Caulfield, & Street, 2000; Ronfeldt, Kimerling, & Arias, 1998). The adolescent romantic relationship literature does not adequately address the role of shame experiences in understanding relationship processes. However, given the evidence for the phenomenon of adolescent egocentrism (Elkind, 1967), manifested as heightened self-consciousness and the belief that they are the center of everyone else's attention, and for the subjective importance of romantic relationships during adolescence (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992; Sharabany, Gershoni, & Hofman, 1981), perceptions of the romantic partner as shaming or disparaging are likely to be particularly salient to each individual's perception of his or her own, and the partner's, level of power. Thus, it is hypothesized that couple members' perceptions of shaming behaviors by their partners will capture one aspect of interpersonal power in romantic relationships and will be related to negative relationship outcomes.

The experience of shame may elicit different individual coping styles (Tagney, 1995). Some individuals may tend to externalize their response, either blaming the incident that caused their shameful experience on outside forces, acting on external forces to resolve or diffuse shame (i.e., aggression), or both. Other individuals may focus on the internal experience of shame, withdrawing from other people who reinforce their shameful experience. It may be that boys are somewhat more likely to externalize their emotional experience while girls may tend to internalize similar feelings.

Silencing-the-self. Self-silencing has been conceptualized as a depressive cognitive schema used to create and maintain interpersonal relationships. Silencing-the-self indicates a tendency to suppress feelings, thoughts, and actions (Jack & Dill, 1992) viewed as threatening to relationships. It has been used to characterize female relationship styles more than males, although the phenomenon has been observed in both genders. Because individuals who use this strategy forfeit a portion of their self-expression, the construct has been associated with lower interpersonal power. Specifically, self-silencing is considered to create a discrepancy, where in order to preserve the relationship, the self-silencer may allow his or her significant other (or social counterpart) to speak, think, or act, on behalf of both individuals.

Harper, Welsh, Grello, and Dickson (2003) recently conducted a study on self-silencing that noted gender differences in the manner in which, and purpose for which, self-silencing is used. Harper and colleagues found a higher incidence of self-silencing behaviors among college males than females in the context of their romantic relationships. The researchers suggested that males were likely to self-silence because

they were not as well versed in intimate communication as their female counterparts, and also because they may be relatively indifferent to such topics, perceiving them as not worth the risk of interpersonal conflict. Harper and colleagues found that self-silencing in females was associated with greater depressive symptoms and with perceptions of themselves lacking romantic appeal or attractiveness. The perception of lacking romantic appeal may compromise the position of power that a person has in their relationship to the degree that they may not want to risk alienation or relationship dissolution by expressing a contrary position (Harper et al.). Regardless of gender, self-silencing is likely a strategy, though not necessarily conscious or intentional, employed to maintain interpersonal relationships. Unfortunately, Harper and colleagues suggested that it was also associated with reduced psychological functioning for both males and females.

Rejection sensitivity. Rejection sensitivity, the degree to which an individual is preoccupied with being rejected in a social relationship or interaction (Downey, Bonica, & Rincon, 1999), has been associated with feelings of insecurity, hostility, jealousy, and compromised decision making in adults and young adults (Purdie & Downey, 2000). According to Purdie and Downey, rejection sensitive individuals may engage in behaviors that they feel are “wrong” in order to maintain their relationship. For example, they may tolerate dysfunctional relationship dynamics in spite of unpleasant experiences, in order to avoid the perceived threat of change. Thus, sensitivity to rejection may be associated with the creation and maintenance of power inequity within the context of romantic relationships.

Downey and Feldman (1996) suggested that individuals who demonstrate high degrees of rejection sensitivity perceive deliberate efforts to undermine their relationship from their romantic partners. Thus, they may either assume a submissive attitude with which they try to avoid relationship discord, or they may attempt to dominate the relationship in order to control situations where they feel disapproval. A result is a tendency toward erosion of supportiveness, the establishment of dissatisfaction with relationships, and increasing anxiety about experiencing rejection. Consistent with those findings, couples with a rejection sensitive member report perceiving a greater degree of conflict in their relationships (Downey & Feldman). Similar to silencing-the-self, rejection sensitivity seems to comprise a unique path through which relational discrepancies in power are established and maintained. Accordingly, its measurement is appropriate to capture a portion of the spectrum of the use of power in adolescent romantic relationships.

Decision-making. Van Willigen and Drentea (2001) found that perceived inequality in decision making among married or cohabiting adult couples undermined their sense of social support and satisfaction. They suggested that the individual whose opinion is disregarded tends to feel disadvantaged. Ehrensaft et al. (1999) interviewed adult married couples and found that decision making often determined which couple member was “in control.” Furthermore, they found that unequal decision-making patterns were associated with couples who reported higher degrees of relational distress and/or aggression. Zak, Collins, Harper, and Masher (1998), as well as Jernigan, Heritage, and Royal (1992), also

found that adults' perceptions of either partner exerting unequal control over decisions were associated with elevated reports of relationship distress and arguing. Consistent with the studies mentioned above, Frieze and McHugh (1992) found that wives who had experienced aggressive behavior perpetrated from their husbands also frequently reported the use of coercive decision-making strategies by their spouses.

Increasing autonomy during adolescence provides young couples with ample opportunities for decision making (Ausubel, 1981). Preliminary analyses of decision making in adolescent couples (Galliher et al., 1999) concluded that the majority of young couple members viewed decision making as a mutual, shared responsibility. However, for female adolescents, the perception that their boyfriends dominated in decision-making tasks was associated with lower self-esteem. This suggests that discrepancies in decision making capture an important dimension of power in adolescent romantic relationships, at least for female couple members. Findings from the adult literature further suggest that discrepancies in decision-making power should be associated with negative relationship outcomes, including conflict, relationship dissatisfaction, and aggression.

Social capital. Social capital is a term used by social exchange theorists to describe developing children's and young adults' access to cultural, institutional, and communal resources that may endow them with an advantage over other individuals (Croninger & Lee, 2001). The general concept of social capital will be adapted to apply to adolescent individuals. An example of social capital established in current literature is an adolescent's ability to receive extracurricular instruction for playing a musical instrument. Very often, an individual's social capital is enhanced by the status of their

parents (Parcel & Dufur, 2001). Clearly, not all adolescents have families that are able to provide them with a musical instrument and the proper instruction to play. Because parental involvement is assumed in the conceptualization of social capital, the resulting access to resources necessarily involves parental agreement and consent.

Social capital is a construct that addresses the allocation of certain resources (Coleman, 1994), and is consequently associated with power. A family that is able to offer its children superior advantages typically enjoys enhanced status in the community consistent with power. Thus, the notion of social capital has traditionally been examined from the point of view of the parents, as they are the source of resources to be allocated.

Resource allocation is a central ingredient of relational power (Manz & Gioia, 1983), yet it is difficult to assess in adolescent romantic relationships, where there are few tangible traditional resources to distribute. Typically, neither couple member in an adolescent romantic relationship controls access to finances, material goods, or services; parents retain control over most resource distribution. However, the notion of social capital can be adapted to explain discrepancies in power within adolescent couples, by attending to the adolescent perspective rather than the perspective of the parent. Among adolescents, affiliation with certain desirable or high status peer groups can be conceptualized as a resource. Consequently, adolescent-specific social capital may be related to the allocation of social resources. Accordingly, an individual may tolerate a low-power position in their relationship if, by associating with their partner, they gain access to a clique or peer group that they desire contact with. The current study uses this innovative conceptualization of social capital to capture one dimension of interpersonal

power in adolescent romantic couples. It is hypothesized that discrepancies in couple members' perceptions of their own and their partners' desirability as a romantic partner will facilitate a sense of vulnerability in couple members who perceive themselves to be of lower status than their partners. Thus, adolescents who view themselves as possessing less status as a romantic partner than their boyfriends or girlfriends will be at greater risk for relationship dissatisfaction and other negative relationship outcomes.

Yielding/giving-in. Yielding (which will henceforth be used interchangeably with the term giving-in), the behavior of sacrificing one's own actions and preferences, is another behavior that has been shown in empirical studies to be associated with the creation and maintenance of inequity among adult and young adult romantic couples, and is particularly common (socialized) for female couple members, though it may be present in males as well (Sprecher, 2001; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997; Wood, 2001). Yielding behavior occurs when individuals defer their desired actions to others, often perceiving that their sacrifice allows them to enjoy other rewards such as love, affluence, or material gain (Cate, Lloyd, & Henton, 1985).

Although it is not uncommon for couple members to yield to their partners on occasion, some individuals habitually defer to their partner. By doing so, they risk creating a persistent, though perhaps not consciously perceived, discrepancy in the social exchange of their relationship (Sprecher, 2001). Not surprisingly, the underbenefited member is more likely to experience dissatisfaction in the relationship, as well as negative psychological symptoms (Taylor, Gilligan, & Sullivan, 1995). A result is that they risk experiencing relationship distress and possible dissolution. Interestingly,

relationship dissolution may also occur as a result of assertiveness in female partners, who are perceived as powerful. Additionally, if an imbalance in power is established, the romantic couple may be at risk for the aggressive behaviors and other negative relationship outcomes associated with relationship inequity.

*Hypothesized Model of Interpersonal Power
in Adolescent Romantic Relationships*

The proposed model of power in adolescent romantic relationships incorporates each of the previously described dimensions of interpersonal power (see Figure 1). The model incorporates measures of power that assess emotional vulnerability, social disadvantage, and limitations in resource and decision-making control. Further, the current model uses innovative conceptualizations of traditional power constructs to form a developmentally appropriate analysis of power in adolescent couples. Due to the nature of the measures described above, the model may be more accurately described as measuring powerlessness. It is hypothesized that the underlying construct of interpersonal powerlessness contributes to each of the dimensions of the model. Further, each aspect of the hypothesized model is expected to predict the negative relationship outcomes of relationship dissatisfaction and aggression.

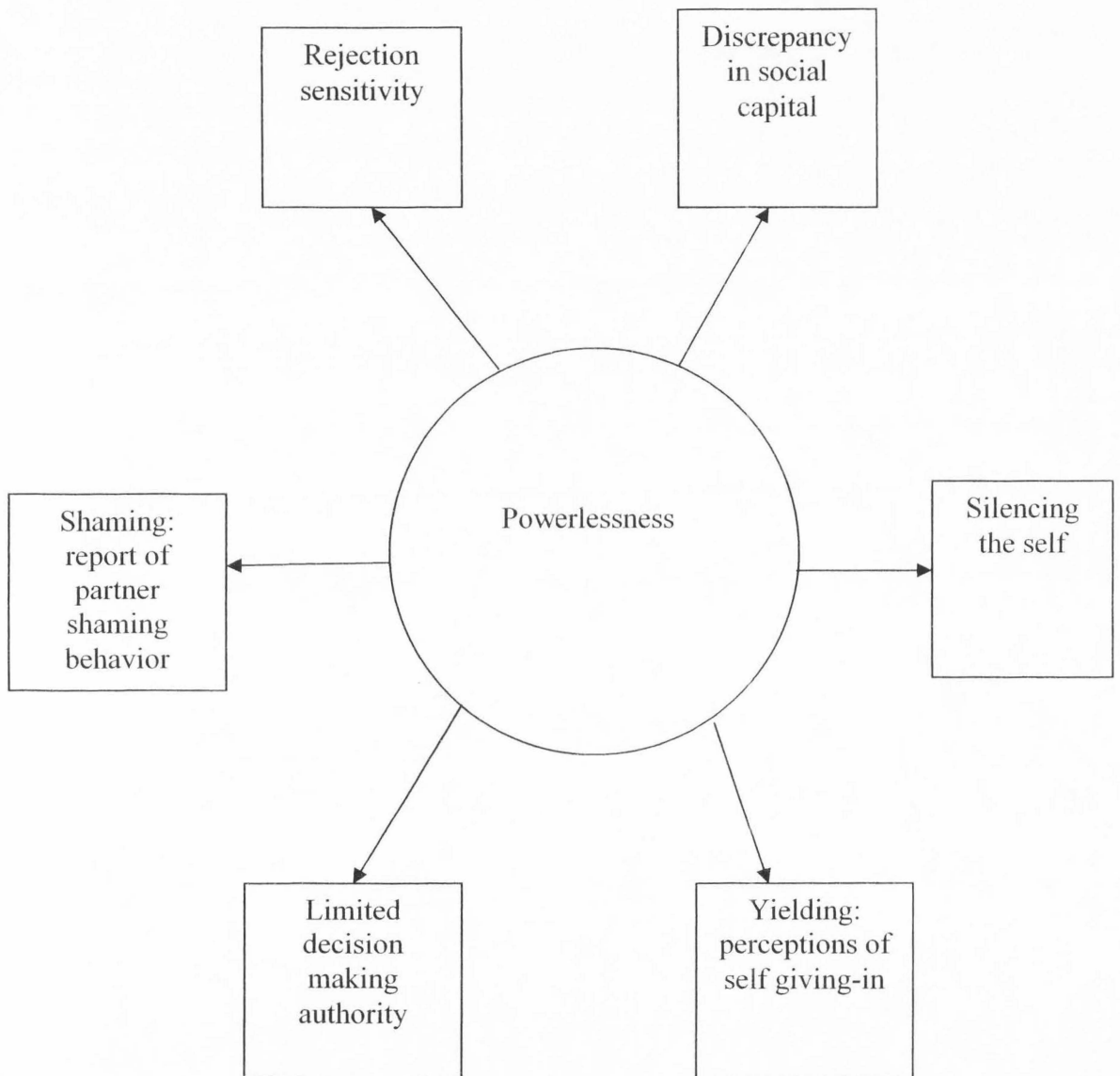


Figure 1. Proposed model of interpersonal power in adolescent relationships: Measures of resource control and emotional/social vulnerability.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The literature reviewed reveals a rich tradition of power research within the context of romantic relationships and marriage. However, the vast majority of published studies do not directly examine the construct of power among adolescent couples. Consequently, research that investigates power within adolescent romantic relationships is necessary.

Another limitation of the current research is that the use of power is typically conceptualized within very narrow theoretical constructs. Although there are many well conducted studies that examine power in relationships, their reliance on single dimensions of the construct fails to capture its complexity. None of the articles reviewed herein attempt a more comprehensive approach to the examination of power. Thus, it is important to investigate power in a multidimensional manner.

The available literature that examines power in romantic couples generally provides evidence that suggests power discrepancies are a risk factor for dating aggression, violence, and dissatisfaction with the relationship. Given the greater scope of a multifaceted means of conceptualizing power being proposed, it is important to investigate the associations between the various indices of power and relationship outcomes such as dissatisfaction and violence.

The current study developed and tested a multidimensional model of interpersonal power that is sensitive and relevant to adolescent populations and examined couple members' reports of power discrepancies. The proposed multidimensional,

developmentally appropriate assessment expands previous research by providing a more complex, current analysis of experiences of powerlessness in adolescent romantic relationships. It was hypothesized that each of the variables included in the model would capture a significant portion of the variance in the underlying construct of powerlessness in adolescent romantic relationships.

Although research examining discrepancies in power in adult dating and marital relationships has consistently found females to be disadvantaged with regard to interpersonal power (Carli, 1999; Felmlee, 1994; Gray-Little & Burks, 1983), a recent study focusing on adolescent romantic relationships described these early relationships as much more egalitarian (Galliher et al., 1999). The current study examines differences between adolescent boyfriends and girlfriends in their reports of emotional vulnerability and resource control in their relationships. Previous research specific to adolescent couples suggested that minimal differences between boyfriends and girlfriends in their perceptions of power imbalances would be observed.

Finally, the associations among measures of interpersonal power and the negative relationship outcomes of relationship dissatisfaction and the perpetration of dating aggression will be examined. It was hypothesized that the dimensions of power assessed in the multidimensional model would be significantly associated with negative relationship outcomes, including relationship dissatisfaction and aggression. Specifically, perceived discrepancies in power were expected to be associated with lower relationship satisfaction and reports of more frequent perpetration of a range of aggressive relationship behaviors. Previous research and theory has posited that relationship

aggression may stem from experiences of powerlessness (i.e., helpless “lashing out” against one’s partner) or from experiences of powerfulness (i.e., aggression used to establish and maintain power and control; Babcock et al., 1993; Foshee, 1996; Johnson, 2001; Lewis & Fremouv, 2001). In the current study, it was hypothesized that different aspects of emotional vulnerability and discrepancies in resource control would differentially predict perpetration of aggression for boyfriends and girlfriends.

METHODS

Design

The design for the proposed study was correlational, examining the associations among measures of power, relationship dissatisfaction, and aggressive behaviors in dating relationships. Observational and self-report data were collected from both partners of 90 heterosexual rural middle-adolescent romantic couples. Data for this project were collected as part of a larger study funded by a Utah State University New Faculty Grant and by B/START grant number 1 R03 MH064689-01A1 from the National Institute of Mental Health, both awarded to Renee V. Galliher, Ph.D.

Participants

Participants were 90 heterosexual adolescent couples. Two separate recruitment strategies were used. First target adolescents were recruited from rural high schools located in the Cache Valley, Utah. Students were randomly selected for telephone recruitment from school directories. Interested target adolescents were sent a packet of information describing the study via US mail (see Appendix A). Follow-up phone calls were made one week after the packet was sent to confirm eligibility and willingness of both partners and to schedule a data collection session. Second, as part of the larger study examining cultural differences in adolescent romantic relationship processes, Native American target adolescents and their partners were recruited from a public high school located near the border of a large southwestern American Indian reservation. School

personnel assisted in the recruitment and scheduling of couples recruited through the high school.

Participating couple members were between 14 and 18 years of age, inclusive, and couples were required to have dated exclusively for at least one month to ensure some degree of mutual relationship experience. The average couples' length of relationship was 55 weeks, and ranged from about a month to 6 years. Seventy-five percent of the couples had been dating for less than a year and a half. Individuals under the age of 18 were required to have written parental consent in addition to providing written assent, while those who were 18 provided only their own signature (see appendix A for consent form). Each couple member was compensated for participation with \$30 (\$60 per couple).

The ethnic origins for girlfriends were: 61% White, 2% African American, 1% Asian, 16% Latino/Hispanic, and 20% Native American. The average age of the girlfriends was 16.55 years. The religious affiliation endorsed by girlfriends was 61% Mormon (LDS), 17% Baptist, 10% Catholic, and 12% other, which most frequently indicated a traditional Native American religion. Forty-three percent of the female adolescents were employed. Sixty-three percent of girlfriends' parents were married to each other, 18% had divorced or separated parents, and 8% of the girlfriends' parents had never married; the remaining 11% were unspecified.

The boyfriends' ethnic origins were 57% White, 21% Latino/Hispanic, 21% Native American, and 1% African American. The average age of boyfriends was 16.92 years. Fifteen percent of boyfriends reported that they were in 9th or 10th grade, 65% of the

boyfriends were in 11th or 12th grade, and 20% were no longer in high school. The religious affiliation of the boyfriends was 59% Mormon, 13% Catholic, 23% specified no religious affiliation, and 5% were Baptist. Forty-eight percent of the boyfriends were employed. Seventy-one percent of the boyfriends' parents were married to each other, 12% were divorced, 7% had never married, and 10% were unspecified.

Procedures

Data collection for this project took place as part of a larger study examining relationship processes in adolescent romantic relationships. The data collection procedure took approximately 3 hours. Couples were recruited via phone solicitation in Cache Valley and came to the Dating Couples Lab on the USU campus. Data collection in the public high school took place in conference rooms set aside by the school personnel. Participating couples were provided beverages and snacks throughout the session to maintain their concentration and interest. Couples were first videotaped engaging in a problem-solving conversation (1 hour). Second, couple members alternated between a video recall procedure described below and completing a collection of questionnaire measurements administered on another computer. While one couple member engaged in the video recall, the other completed the questionnaire. The video recall procedure and questionnaire portions of the study took place in separate rooms to ensure privacy and confidentiality. Both the video recall and the questionnaire took approximately 1 hour to complete, for a total of 2 hours that each participant engaged in providing responses. To

avoid order effect, couples alternated the gender order in which the recall and the questionnaire were administered with each session.

Video Recall Procedure.

During the first hour of the session, couples were digitally recorded while having three brief conversations adapted from previous work with adolescent couples (Capaldi & Clark, 1998; Capaldi & Crosby, 1997). For the first 5-minute conversation, participants were instructed to plan a party, discussing the location of the party, planned activities, who to invite, what to provide their guests, and whether or not adults would be invited. For the remaining two 8-minute conversations, each couple member selected items from a common issues checklist completed prior to recording. The checklist (see Appendix B) included 21 common dating issues (Capaldi & Clark; Capaldi & Crosby). Each participant was instructed to identify two or three issues, including alternate selections in case they were not able to converse on the first topic for the entire 8 minutes. If there were not enough that applied, or if they did not want to select from the provided topics, individuals could provide their own issues. The participants were instructed to discuss each issue and come up with a solution, or solutions, for it.

Next, a video recall procedure was administered in which couple members provided subjective ratings of their own and their partners' behaviors during the conversations. Each couple member watched the two issues conversations twice; once to rate his or her own behavior and a second time to rate the partner's behavior. The conversations were divided into twenty 20-second segments. The computer automatically

played a segment, stopped the video for the couple member to provide ratings, and then resumed the video for the next 20-second segment. Following each segment, participants responded to seven statements on the computer, asking them to rate either their own or their partners' thoughts or behavior on seven dimensions. Participants rated their own and their partner's level of connection, conflict, sarcasm, discomfort, giving-in, efforts to persuade, and efforts to put down the partner for each segment of conversation. For example, in response to the statement "I was feeling very connected (or close) to my partner," the participant would click on the radial button that most closely fit his or her experience during that segment. The ratings were provided on a Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (very much). For the current study, ratings of self giving-in were used as an observational measure of yielding.

Questionnaire Measures

The measures relevant to the current study were administered as part of a battery of questionnaires used in the larger study. Measures for this study are described below and full copies are provided in Appendix C.

Demographic information. Participants completed a demographic information form that assessed age, gender, race, religiosity, educational history and aspirations, employment, parents' marital status, and parents' occupations.

Silencing the Self. The Silencing-the-Self scale (Jack, 1991) includes 31 items. These items are divided into four subscales: externalized self-perception, care as self-sacrifice, silencing the self, and divided self. Of these scales, only the silencing the self

subscale was used in the present study (9 items; e.g., “I don’t speak my feelings in an intimate relationship when I know they will cause disagreement,” “I rarely express my anger at those close to me”). The items were answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) and scale scores were calculated as a mean across items. Psychometric properties (Jack & Dill, 1992; Stevens & Galvin, 1995) are generally acceptable. High correlations with the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) support construct validity. Additionally, the scale has been used in numerous studies that identified the tendency to forfeit self-expression and correlated the tendency with expected outcomes. Jack and Dill (1992) also found internal consistency measures ($\alpha = .86 - .94$) to be acceptable. Finally, measures of test-retest reliability ($\alpha = .88 - .93$) are high. Reliability analysis conducted on the data for this study revealed an alpha of .77 for both girlfriends and boyfriends for the self-silencing subscale.

Rejection sensitivity. The Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire (Downey & Feldman, 1996) was developed to measure the degree to which individuals expect to be rejected by others, how they interpret ambiguous interpersonal cues, and if they overreact to rejection (Brookings, Zembar, & Hochstetler, 2003). A series of interpersonal scenarios are presented and respondents provide two responses for each. Example scenarios include: “You ask your boyfriend or girlfriend if he/she really loves you,” “You ask a friend if you can borrow something of his or hers.” Responses were assessed via two 6-point Likert-type scales. First, respondents were asked how anxious or concerned they would be about the scenario (1 = very unconcerned to 6 = very concerned) to assess the degree of anxiety and concern about the outcome (Downey & Feldman). Second,

respondents estimated how likely the outcome of the scenario would be (e.g., I would expect that my boyfriend/girlfriend would want to meet my parents; 1 = very unlikely, 6 = very likely) to assess expectations of acceptance or rejection (Downey & Feldman). The scale score is calculated by reverse scoring the outcome scenario values, multiplying them by the anxiety/concern responses, and summing across items. Downey and Feldman found the internal and test-retest reliability to be acceptable ($\alpha = .83$). Construct validity was supported by findings that highly rejection sensitive individuals' (as measured by the instrument) partners reported significantly less criticism than would be expected by their rejection sensitive partners. Brookings et al. supported these conclusions with similar findings. Analysis specific to the data collected for this study yielded an alpha of .84 for both girlfriends and boyfriends.

Shame. An 11-item scale was adapted (some items were rephrased or changed) for use with adolescent participants (T. Ferguson, personal communication, Fall, 2002) from the OAS Scale (Goss, Gilbert, & Allan, 1994) to assess perceptions of shaming behaviors by the partner. The OAS was developed from the Internalized Shame Scale (ISS; Cook, 1987) in order to emphasize how subjects perceive how they are seen by other people. For the current study, modified items assessed the degree to which each couple member perceived his or her partner to be engaging in humiliating or disparaging behaviors. The items were phrased to inquire how one's partner views them, and were endorsed on a Likert-type scale from 1-5 (never, seldom, sometimes, frequently, almost always). Following are some sample items: "My partner makes me feel small and

insignificant,” “My partner sees me as not measuring up to them,” “My partner looks down on me.” Reliability analysis conducted specifically on the data for this study yielded an alpha of .90 for girls and .93 for boys.

Social capital. Two items assessing couple members’ perceptions of their own and their partners’ desirability as romantic partners were developed specifically for this study, based on the social capital literature. The questions are: “To what degree does being involved with your partner increase your contact with people who you desire to be associated with,” and “to what degree does being involved with you increase your partner’s contact with people he or she desires to be associated with?” Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = not at all, 3 = somewhat, 5 = a lot). A difference score was calculated by subtracting participants’ ratings of their partners’ desirability from their ratings of their own desirability. Thus, a positive score indicates that the participant views him or herself as possessing more social capital than the partner, a score of zero indicates that the participant rated him or herself as equal in social capital to the partner, and a negative score indicates that the participant viewed his or her partner as possessing more social capital.

Decision making. Discrepancies in power were also measured using a decision-making questionnaire used in previous research (Galliher et al., 1999). Ten items assessed couple members’ perceptions of decision-making responsibility in the relationship. Sample items included “When you and your partner disagree on something, who usually wins?” “When you and your partner talk about important things, who usually makes the final decision?”, and “Who decides how much time you should spend

together?" Subjects responded to the questions using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = my partner always does, 3 = we both do, 5 = I always do). Reliability analysis for the data collected for this specific study resulted in an alpha of .79 for girls and .82 for boys.

Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory. Psychologically and physically aggressive behavior between couple members was measured using the Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI; Wolfe et al., 2001), a questionnaire developed specifically for use with adolescent populations. Following are subscale categories and example questions for each: Physical abuse: "I kicked, hit, or punched him or her;" threatening behavior: "I threatened to hurt him or her;" sexual abuse: "I kissed him or her when he or she didn't want me to;" relational aggression: "I said things to his or her friends to turn them against him or her;" emotional and verbal abuse: "I did something to try to make him or her jealous." Wolfe and colleagues (2001) used factor analysis to confirm the categories measured by the questionnaire. Test-retest reliability was acceptable ($r = .68 - .75$). Additionally, partner agreement was found to be reasonably strong. Construct validity was supported by comparing couples' scores to observer ratings of a lab interaction. Male reports were significantly correlated with observer ratings ($r = .43 - .44$). The reliability analysis conducted for this particular data resulted in the following alphas for each subscale: Physical abuse, girls .82 and male .80; threatening behavior, girls .24 and boys .68; sexual abuse girls, .64 and boys .77; relational aggression, girls .70 and boys .73; and emotional abuse, girls .84 and boys .89.

Levesque Romantic Experiences Questionnaire. Levesque (1993) developed the Levesque Romantic Experience Questionnaire (LREQ) to measure a number of qualities

in romantic relationships. The present study used the Relationship Satisfaction scale to ascertain the degree to which couple members perceive their relationships as satisfying (or not). Example items are as follows: “In general, I am satisfied with our relationship,” “I often wish I hadn’t gotten into this relationship (reverse scored).” The questions are answered using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly agree, 6 = strongly agree). Levesque found the reliability of the instrument to be high ($\alpha = .88$). The alpha calculated for the satisfaction subscale for this particular data was .70 for girls and .79 for boys.

RESULTS

A series of preliminary descriptive analyses were performed. First, means and standard deviations were calculated for all variables. Second, correlations among all predictor variables and among the predictor and outcome variables were calculated for both boyfriends and girlfriends. Finally, dependent measures *t*-tests were used to examine differences between couple members for all variables. Dependent measures *t*-tests were selected because couple members were linked in a one-to-one manner, rendering the two groups nonindependent.

Two sets of primary analyses were performed. First, the fit of both male and female models of powerlessness was examined using structural equation modeling techniques with AMOS 4.0 (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999). Second, a series of stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationships between power measures and relationship outcomes. Separate analyses were performed for girlfriends and boyfriends predicting each of the six relationship outcomes (satisfaction, physical aggression, emotional aggression, relational aggression, sexual coercion, and threatening behavior) from the six indices of interpersonal power. Potential problems with multicollinearity among the independent variables rendered interpretation of forced entry models difficult. In order to ensure that each variable included in the regression models accounted for unique variance in the outcome variables, stepwise regression techniques were used for all regression analyses. The stepwise regression process selects only the predictor variables that explain unique and significant variation in the criterion variables.

The analysis begins with the variable that is most highly correlated to the criterion, and includes all other variables that account for significant unique variance in consecutive steps.

For all analyses, the alpha level used was .05. All statistical procedures used SPSS 11.0, except for the structural equation model which used AMOS 4.0.

Preliminary Analyses

Means and Standard Deviations

Tables 1 and 2 provide a summary of means and standard deviations for power variables and relationship outcome variables.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Power Variables

| Variable | Male | | Female | | Possible range |
|-----------------------|---------|----------|--------|----------|----------------|
| | Mean | (SD) | Mean | (SD) | |
| Giving-in | 0.942 | (.9121) | 0.666 | (.7075) | 1-4 |
| Shame questionnaire | 1.857 | (.9678) | 1.605 | (.7991) | 1-5 |
| Rejection sensitivity | 9.486 | (2.1482) | 8.507 | (2.7773) | 1-18 |
| Social capital | -0.0543 | (.8691) | 0 | (.8341) | -4-4 |
| Silencing-the-self | 2.734 | (.6895) | 2.510 | (.6609) | 1-5 |
| Decision making | 3.055 | (.5336) | 2.854 | (.4610) | 1-5 |

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Outcome Variables

| Variable | Male | Female | Possible range |
|---------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| | Mean (SD) | Mean (SD) | |
| Physical abuse | 1.192 (.5396) | 1.265 (.6208) | 1-4 |
| Threatening behavior | 1.223 (.5759) | 1.210 (.4852) | 1-4 |
| Sexual abuse | 1.410 (.6447) | 1.234 (.4420) | 1-4 |
| Emotional abuse | 1.670 (.6635) | 1.810 (.6443) | 1-4 |
| Relational aggression | 1.234 (.6266) | 1.118 (.4448) | 1-4 |
| Relationship satisfaction | 3.498 (.9425) | 3.622 (.7498) | 1-6 |

Paired Samples t Tests

Because boyfriends and girlfriends were linked in couples, paired samples *t* tests were used to determine if the differences between couple members for all variables were of statistical significance. Refer to Table 3 for a summary of the *t* tests calculated to compare boyfriends and girlfriends scores for all study variables. Boyfriends reported significantly higher sexual abuse, greater decision making authority, and more self-silencing, shame, rejection sensitivity, and giving in relative to their girlfriends.

Correlations

First, correlations between demographic variables and all outcomes were analyzed for both boyfriends and girlfriends. Demographic variables examined included religious affiliation, age, school grade, and length of current relationship. Age and length of relationship were the only variables that demonstrated significant relationships among

Table 3

Results of Paired Samples t Tests Comparing Boyfriends and Girlfriends Scores on Indices of Interpersonal Power and Relationship Outcomes

| Variable | <i>t</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>p</i> | Cohen's <i>d</i> |
|-----------------------|----------|-----------|----------|------------------|
| Giving-in | 2.594 | 89 | .011 | .277 |
| Shame questionnaire | 2.138 | 89 | .035 | .225 |
| Rejection sensitivity | 3.018 | 89 | .003 | .318 |
| Social capital | -0.422 | 89 | .674 | -.045 |
| Silencing-the-self | 2.082 | 89 | .040 | .219 |
| Decision making | 2.328 | 89 | .022 | .245 |
| Physical aggression | -0.943 | 89 | .348 | -.099 |
| Threatening behavior | 0.144 | 89 | .886 | .015 |
| Sexual aggression | 2.336 | 89 | .022 | .246 |
| Emotional aggression | -1.806 | 89 | .074 | -.190 |
| Relational aggression | 1.531 | 89 | .129 | .161 |
| Satisfaction | -1.436 | 87 | .155 | -.151 |

any of the outcome variables. For boyfriends, age was inversely associated with emotional aggression, $r = -.235$, $p = .026$, and length of relationship was positively correlated with experienced shame, $r = .248$, $p = .019$; physical abuse, $r = .233$, $p = .027$;

sexual abuse, $r = .301, p = .004$; and emotional abuse, $r = .327, p = .002$. For girlfriends, age was negatively correlated with experienced shame, $r = -.229, p = .031$, and length of relationship were positively correlated with decision making, $r = .312, p = .003$; physical abuse, $r = .391, p = < .000$; threatening behavior, $r = .558, p = < .000$; relational aggression, $r = .390, p = < .000$; and emotional abuse, $r = .390, p = < .000$.

In addition, four correlation matrices were created. First, associations among all of the interpersonal power variables were examined separately for both boyfriends and girlfriends (see Table 4). Second, relationships among the interpersonal power variables and relationship outcome variables were examined for both boyfriends and girlfriends (see Tables 5 and 6).

Table 4

Correlations for Male and Female Power Measures

| Variables | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|---------|
| 1. Shame questionnaire | 1 | .314** | .147 | .270* | -.220* | .267 |
| 2. Silencing-the-self | .318** | 1 | .177 | .177 | -.047 | .064 |
| 3. Decision making | .093 | -.264* | 1 | -.037 | -.038 | -.296** |
| 4. Rejection sensitivity | .230* | .424** | -.097 | 1 | .162 | .141 |
| 5. Social capital | .158 | -.206 | .222* | -.154 | 1 | -.159 |
| 6. Giving-in | .300** | .062 | .083 | .108 | .017 | 1 |

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; correlations for males are above the diagonal; correlations for females are below the diagonal.

Table 5

Correlations Between Interpersonal Power Indices and Relationship Outcomes for Girlfriends

| Variables | Relationship satisfaction | Physical abuse | Threatening behavior | Sexual abuse | Relational aggression | Emotional abuse |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Shame questionnaire | -.410** | .381** | .223* | .529** | .239* | .270* |
| Silencing-the-self | -.115 | .120 | .083 | .060 | .077 | .053 |
| Decision making | -.118 | .183 | .129 | .161 | .169 | .227* |
| Rejection sensitivity | -.229* | .026 | .081 | .052 | .090 | .018 |
| Social capital | .182 | .295** | .085 | .333** | .202 | .250* |
| Giving-in | -.436** | .016 | -.134 | .156 | .033 | .140 |

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

Correlations among the measures of interpersonal power were inconsistent for both boyfriends and girlfriends. The most consistent bivariate associations emerged between the Shame questionnaire and various other power indices (e.g., rejection sensitivity and silencing-the-self for both males and females). Additionally, interesting patterns of association emerged between power indices and relationship outcomes for both boyfriends and girlfriends. For girlfriends, experiencing one's partner as shaming and viewing oneself as possessing greater social capital than the partner were both related to multiple relationship outcomes. For males, the most salient indices of interpersonal power were the Shame questionnaire and the measure of decision making authority.

Table 6

Correlations Between Interpersonal Power Indices and Relationship Outcomes for Boyfriends

| Variables | Relationship satisfaction | Physical abuse | Threatening behavior | Sexual abuse | Relational aggression | Emotional abuse |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Shame questionnaire | -.011 | .478** | .435** | .486** | .538** | .351** |
| Silencing-the-self | .157 | .173 | .113 | .238* | .193 | .210* |
| Decision making | .413** | .270* | .214* | .283** | .216* | .312** |
| Rejection sensitivity | -.186 | .195 | .189 | .255* | .135 | .227* |
| Social capital | -.185 | .054 | .069 | -.077 | .044 | -.002 |
| Giving-in | -.303** | .152 | .088 | .191 | .130 | .091 |

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

Primary Analyses

Testing the Model of Interpersonal Power

The hypothesized model of interpersonal power in adolescent romantic relationships was tested separately for boyfriends and girlfriends using maximum likelihood estimation with AMOS 4.0.

Girlfriend model. The model as proposed yielded an admissible solution when tested for female participants. The analysis yielded $\chi^2(9) = 21.266, p = .012$, with a chi-square-to-degrees-of-freedom ratio of 2.36. Although a significant chi square statistic is generally interpreted as indicating a poor fit, the statistic tends to overreject true models.

Further, a chi-square-to-degrees-of-freedom ratio of 2 or 3 is generally regarded as an indication of an adequately fitting model (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999). Other indices of general fit indicate that the data provide an excellent fit with the model (Normed Fit Index = .98; Relative Fit Index = .96; Comparative Fit Index = .99). For each of these indices, a value over .95 indicates a good fit with the model. Thus, overall the proposed model of interpersonal power in young couples appeared to fit well with data provided by girlfriends in this sample. Figure 2 illustrates all path coefficients relating to the relationships with the latent variable.

Significant paths emerged between the latent construct of powerlessness and the observed variables, silencing-the-self, rejection sensitivity, shame questionnaire, and the decision-making questionnaire. Squared multiple correlations suggest that the latent construct of powerlessness captures the most variance in the observed variable, silencing-the-self ($R^2 = .91$), with rejection sensitivity, shaming, and decision making contributing less to the construct ($R^2 = .20, .11, .07$, respectively).

Boyfriend model. The model as proposed did not yield an admissible solution for boyfriends. The decision-making questionnaire generated a negative estimated variance, rendering the solution inadmissible. A modified model was tested with the decision-making questionnaire removed from the list of observed variables. The modified male model yielded $\chi^2 (5 df) = 8, p < .156$, with a chi-square-to-degrees-of-freedom ratio of .6. The insignificant chi square statistic and the degrees of freedom to chi square ratio less than 2 indicate an excellent fit. Other indices of general fit also suggest that the data provide an excellent fit with the model (Normed Fit Index = .99; Relative Fit Index = .97;

Comparative Fit Index = .996). Figure 3 illustrates all R^2 values for observed variables, as well as all path coefficients relating to the relationships with the latent variable.

Significant paths emerged between the latent construct of powerlessness and the observed

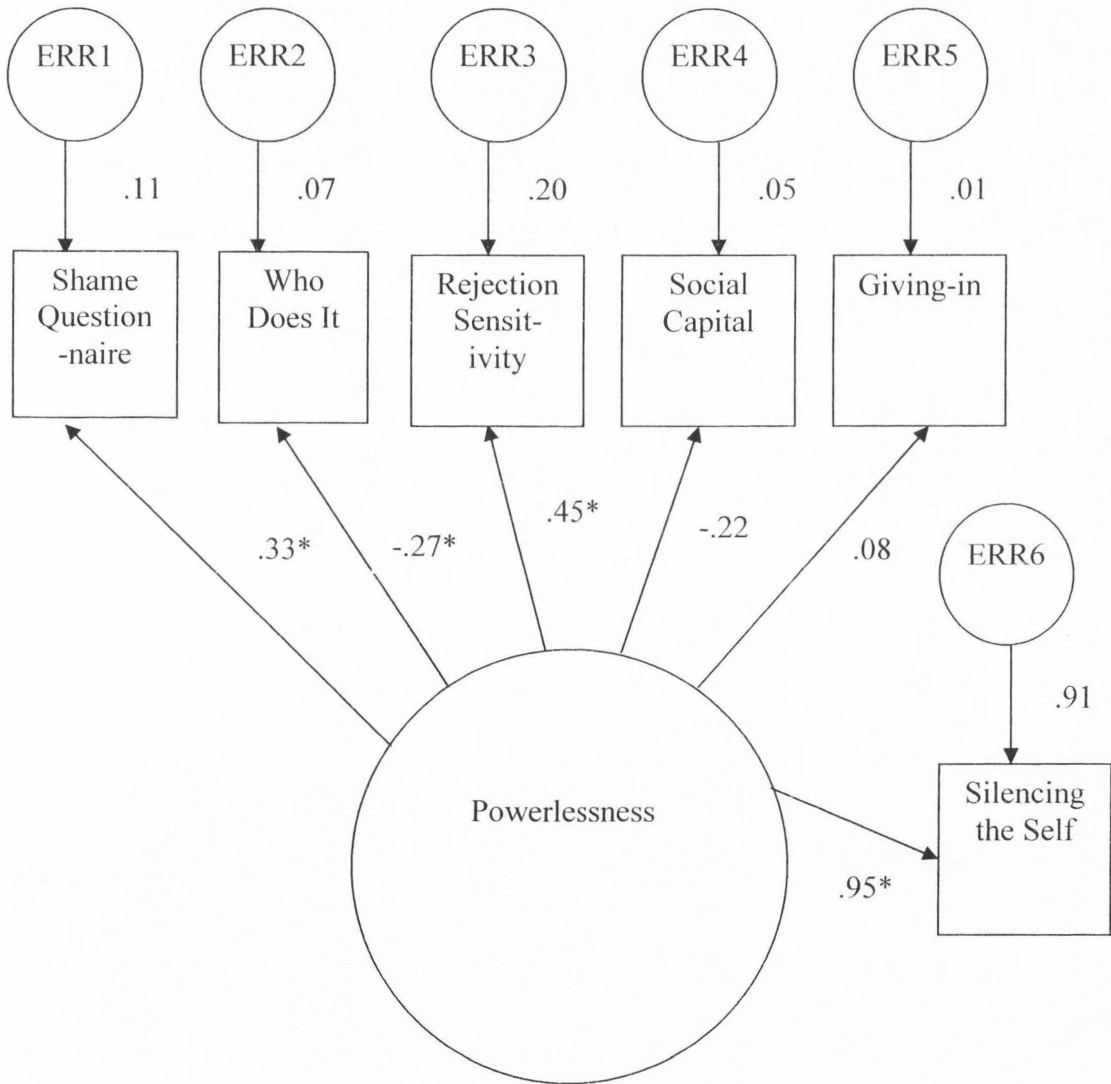


Figure 2. Final model of interpersonal powerlessness for girlfriends (* p < .05).

variables, silencing-the-self, rejection sensitivity, shame questionnaire, and giving-in.

Squared multiple correlations suggest that the latent construct of powerlessness captures

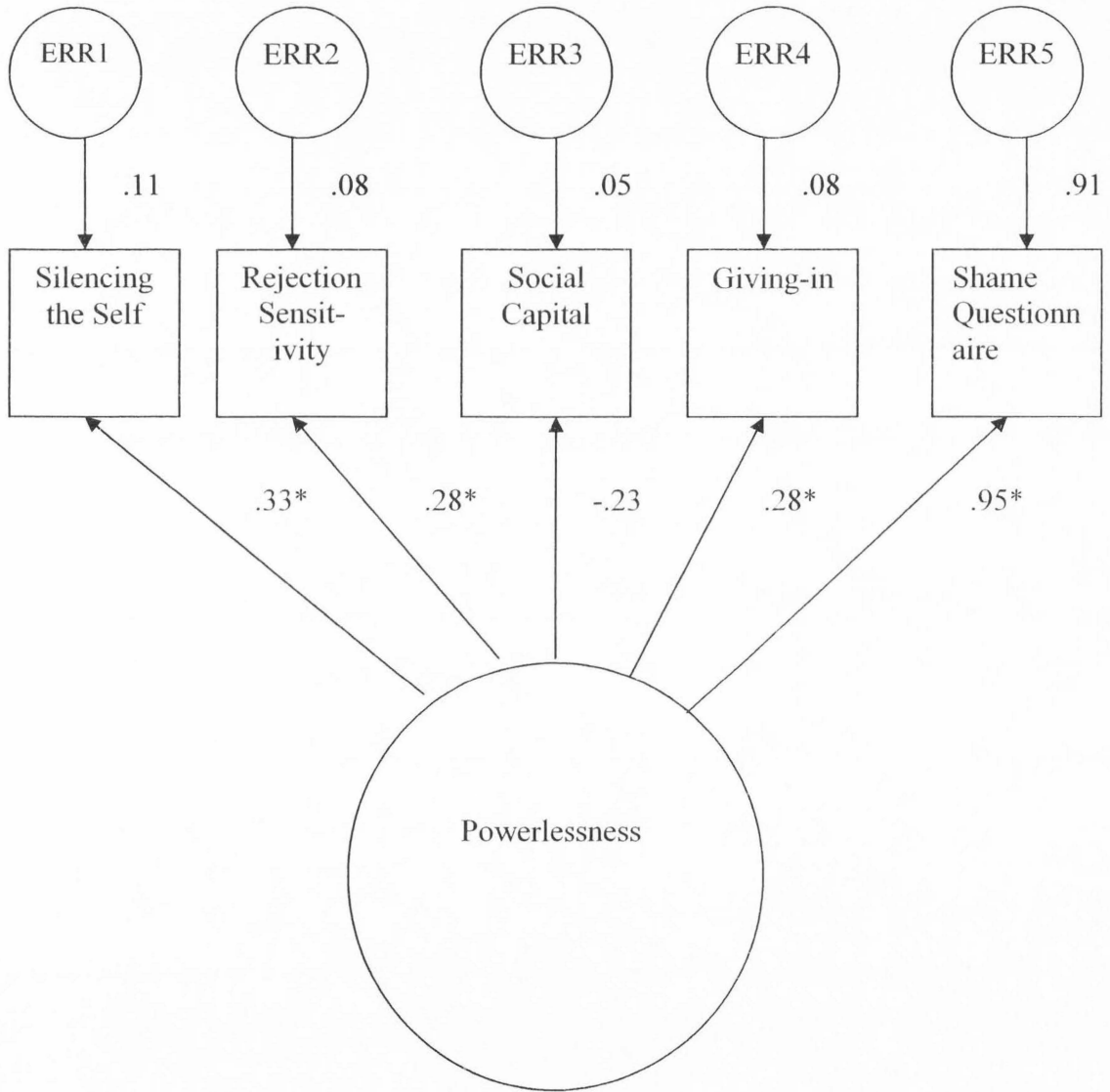


Figure 3. Final model of interpersonal powerlessness for boyfriends (* $p < .05$).

the most variance in the observed variable, shame questionnaire ($R^2 = .91$), with silencing-the-self, rejection sensitivity, and giving-in contributing less to the construct ($R^2 = .11, .08, .08$, respectively).

*Powerlessness Composite Scores
and Associated Outcomes*

Powerlessness composite scores were calculated for girlfriends and boyfriends. The composite scores are weighted sums of all the power measure scores, with each score weighted by its path coefficient from each structural equation model. Table 7 summarizes the correlations between powerlessness composites for both genders and all of the outcome measures.

Table 7

*Correlations Between Interpersonal Power Composites and Relationship Outcomes for
Girlfriends and Boyfriends*

| Variable | Relationship satisfaction | Physical abuse | Threatening behavior | Sexual abuse | Relational aggression | Emotional abuse |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Girlfriends powerlessness composite | -.279** | .071 | .093 | .091 | .115 | .049 |
| Boyfriends powerlessness composite | -.081 | .434** | .380** | .499** | .447** | .368** |

** $p < .01$.

Predicting Relationship Outcomes from Measures of Interpersonal Power

Girlfriends' regressions. Table 8 presents the results of the final steps in stepwise regression analyses examining relationships between power measures and relationship outcomes for female participants. All six regression analyses predicting girlfriends' relationship outcomes were significant, suggesting that the measures of interpersonal power are important factors in relationship quality for girls. Experiencing the partner as shaming and humiliating (i.e., high scores on the shaming questionnaire) was associated with poorer outcomes for all six criterion variables. When girlfriends viewed their boyfriends as more shaming, they reported less relationship satisfaction and higher scores on all five measures of aggression. Girlfriends' views of their own social capital relative to that of their boyfriends were also salient in predicting relationship satisfaction, physical and emotional aggression, and sexual coercion. When girlfriends viewed themselves as more desirable partners than their boyfriends they were both more satisfied and more aggressive. Finally, girlfriends' ratings of their own "giving in" during the videotaped conversations were related to relationship satisfaction and threatening behaviors. The more girls saw themselves giving in, the less satisfied they were with the relationship and the less threatening they were toward their partners.

Boyfriends' regressions. Table 9 summarizes the results of the final steps in the stepwise regression analyses examining relationships between power measures and relationship outcomes for male participants. All six regression analyses predicting

Table 8

Stepwise Regressions Predicting Relationship Outcomes for Girlfriends

| Outcome | Predictors included | Adj. R^2 | F | p | df | Beta | t | p |
|---------------------------|--|------------|--------|-------|-------|---------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Relationship satisfaction | | .303 | 13.581 | <.001 | 1, 87 | | | |
| | Giving-in | | | | | -.339 | -3.614 | .001 |
| | Shame Questionnaire Social capital | | | | | -.335 .244 | -3.525 2.688 | .001 .009 |
| Physical abuse | | .180 | 10.527 | >.001 | 1, 87 | | | |
| | Shame Questionnaire Social capital | | | | | .338 .242 | 3.435 2.455 | .001 .016 |
| Threatening behavior | | .069 | 4.213 | .018 | 1, 87 | | | |
| | Shame Questionnaire Giving-in | | | | | .282 -.218 | 2.599 -2.013 | .011 .047 |
| Sexual abuse | | .323 | 21.793 | >.001 | 1, 87 | | | |
| | Shame Questionnaire Social capital | | | | | .483 .257 | 5.408 2.877 | .001 .005 |
| Relational aggression | | .059 | 6.437 | .013 | 1, 87 | | | |
| | Shame Questionnaire | | | | | .264 | 2.537 | .013 |
| Emotional abuse | | .106 | 6.160 | .003 | 1, 87 | | | |
| | Shame Questionnaire Social capital | | | | | .250 .216 | 2.439 2.104 | .017 .038 |

Table 9

Regressions Predicting Relationship Outcomes for Boyfriends

| Outcome | Predictors included | Adj. R^2 | F | p | Df | Beta | t | p |
|---------------------------|---------------------|------------|--------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| Relationship satisfaction | | .161 | 18.046 | <.001 | 1, 89 | | | |
| Physical abuse | Decision making | .252 | 16.030 | <.001 | 1, 89 | .413 | 4.248 | <.001 |
| | Shame Questionnaire | | | | | .448 | 4.838 | <.001 |
| Threatening behavior | Decision making | .180 | 20.484 | <.001 | 1, 89 | .203 | 2.196 | .031 |
| | Shame Questionnaire | | | | | .435 | 4.526 | <.001 |
| Sexual abuse | | .266 | 17.692 | <.001 | 1, 89 | | | |
| Relational aggression | Shame Questionnaire | | | | | .455 | 4.951 | <.001 |
| | Decision making | .282 | 35.893 | <.001 | 1, 89 | .215 | 2.346 | .021 |
| Emotional abuse | Shame Questionnaire | | | | | .538 | 5.991 | <.001 |
| | Decision making | .174 | 10.371 | <.001 | 1, 89 | .312 | 3.204 | .002 |
| | | | | | | .266 | 2.729 | .008 |

boyfriends' relationship outcomes were significant, suggesting that the measures of interpersonal power are important factors in relationship quality for boys. Experiencing the female partner as shaming and humiliating (i.e., high scores on the Shame Questionnaire) was associated with poorer outcomes for the five criterion variables that measured aggression, but not satisfaction, among male partners. Boyfriends' reports of

relationship satisfaction tended to increase with higher scores on the decision-making questionnaire, suggesting that for males, the perception of themselves as having greater responsibility and/or control within their romantic relationships was associated with better perceived relationship quality. Interestingly, high scores on the decision making measure were also related to increases in reports of physical abuse, sexual aggression, and emotionally aggressive behavior. Thus, increased decision making responsibility and/or control for boyfriends appear to be associated with both increased relationship satisfaction and increased aggressive behavior.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to create a multidimensional model of power, or more accurately powerlessness, that specifically addresses experiences of emotional vulnerability and discrepancies in resource control in adolescent romantic relationships. Additionally, the study was designed to analyze the relations between the measures of power and important relationship outcomes including relationship satisfaction, relational aggression, threatening behavior, physical abuse, emotional abuse, and sexual abuse. Finally, gender differences in all facets of measurement were examined.

Overall, results suggest that the proposed measures of power represent a valid model of powerlessness for both genders. Furthermore, all observed relationship outcomes were significantly associated with couple members' scores on the proposed measures of power. Finally, many interesting gender differences were observed in reported experiences of vulnerability and powerlessness, as well as associations among power and relationship outcomes. This discussion will explore the following patterns of results: gender differences in reports of interpersonal power and relationship outcomes, testing the model of interpersonal power, and associations among interpersonal power indices and relationship outcomes.

Gender Differences in Reports of Interpersonal Power

Differences were observed between boyfriends' and girlfriends' reports of most of the indices of interpersonal power. These findings differed remarkably from the one known previous study of power in adolescent couples (Galliher et al., 1999) that suggested adolescent couples behaved in an egalitarian manner. The differences in power found in this study may reflect differences in measurement of power, though this cannot fully explain the differences because at least one measure was common to both studies. However, they may also be explained by patriarchal aspects of the largely LDS culture reflected in the Utah and Arizona sample. The direction and nature of the differences at first appeared somewhat inconsistent. First, as might be expected in a predominantly conservative and patriarchal culture such as found in LDS-prevalent rural Utah and Arizona (the sample was approximately 60% LDS), boyfriends reported making more decisions within the contexts of their romantic relationships than did their girlfriends. This phenomenon may be considered a socially sanctioned differential in power that favors male individuals, and may be expected to continue through relationships across the lifespan.

It makes intuitive sense, particularly when reflecting on patriarchal gender roles, that low power status, with regard to decision making, might influence one's ability for self-expression. Thus, one would expect that girlfriends, who report less decision-making control, may also tend to self-silence and give in to a greater degree. It was surprising,

then, to observe that boyfriends reported higher scores on self-silencing and giving-in when compared to girlfriends, despite their experience of more decision-making authority. In this sample, both self-silencing and giving in may reflect male tendencies to avoid conflict. Some males may find that opportunities for self-expression or self-direction in certain situations may not be worth the risk of conflict or disagreement that could lead to relationship dissatisfaction or even dissolution (Harper et al., 2003). Other boys may merely be indifferent to intimate communication, and therefore choose to forfeit their expression. Still, it is certainly likely that there may be an aspect of emotional vulnerability to some boyfriends' failure to express feelings, opinions, and desires with their romantic partners, and not just disinterest.

Boyfriends also reported higher levels of rejection sensitivity and viewed their partners as more shaming than girlfriends perceived them. Higher scores for boyfriends on rejection sensitivity and experiencing shame from their partners may suggest that there is veracity to the notion that boys' experiences of giving in and self-silencing reflect emotional vulnerability. Perhaps when boys forfeit their self-expression through giving in and self-silencing, they may experience shame and/or anticipate rejection as a result of violating perceived gender roles that require them to maintain an image of patriarchal authority. Although males may wield more decision-making power, their experiences of vulnerability in emotional and interpersonal aspects of their relationships might be at odds with the role that is prescribed by the prevailing culture.

It is also ironic that girlfriends, who report lower levels of decision-making power, endorse lesser degrees of self-silencing and giving in than do their boyfriends.

Perhaps gender role socialization in this region impacts adolescents' interpretations of inequity in their relationships. Girlfriends reported less decision-making authority, which is consistent with the religious ideology of the majority of the sample, while reporting lower levels of self-silencing, giving in, rejection sensitivity, and shame experienced from their partners. It seems possible that a lack of negative feelings surrounding compromised self-direction in the context of a romantic relationship could reflect societal expectations.

Gender Differences in Reports of Relationship Outcomes

Fewer differences between girlfriends and boyfriends were observed in measures of relationship aggression and relationship satisfaction. Couple members reported similar levels of aggressive and/or abusive behavior, with the exception of sexual abuse, which was reported more by boys. These findings are consistent with a large body of literature that suggests that females in community samples are as, or more, likely than males to engage in aggressive behaviors in their romantic relationships (e.g., Arias et al., 1987; Lewis & Fremouv, 2001). Additionally, couples often engage in reciprocal violence, where the recipient of aggression is likely to respond in kind (Gray & Foshee, 1997). It was surprising that there was not a significant difference in the types of aggression reported between genders. For example, in the peer literature, relational aggression (i.e., sabotaging the partner's relationships with others) and emotional abuse have typically been associated more with girls than boys (Crick, Casas, & Nelson, 2002).

Higher reports of sexually abusive behavior among boyfriends may reflect gender socialization. It may be that adolescent males experience more peer pressure to be sexually active. Alternatively, gender role socialization for females likely focuses more on controlling sexual impulses and evading sexual advances from boys. The traditional sexual script in which males perform the initiator role and females perform the refusal role has been found to dominate the interaction patterns of young couples (Grauerholz & Serpe, 1985; McCormick & Jessor, 1983; Perper & Weis, 1987). These roles require males to push for sex and women to resist their advances, effectively creating a sexual script based on conflict and power struggle rather than communication, empathy, and mutuality.

Testing the Model of Interpersonal Power

Analysis of the model of interpersonal power in romantic relationships yielded interesting, but different, patterns for boyfriends and girlfriends. The model as proposed appeared to successfully capture the construct of powerlessness for young women in our sample. Although methodological issues resulted in a modified model for boyfriends, the final model appeared to effectively depict the construct of powerlessness for young men as well.

The model tested for girlfriends indicated that self-silencing was an especially salient component of the construct of powerlessness. Thus, while boys reported higher levels of self-silencing, it appears that girlfriends self-silencing behaviors are more potent indicators of powerlessness in the relationship. This may lend support to the notion that

boys sometimes self-silence out of indifference or as a deliberate strategy to avoid conflict. Thus, it may not be as salient to the notion of powerlessness for boys.

Girlfriends who compromise their self-expression may be more directly forfeiting power when they choose not to communicate or assert their needs, desires, and opinions.

Rejection sensitivity, perceptions of being shamed, and reduced decision-making authority were also associated with the construct of powerlessness for girlfriends (with respectively decreasing strength). Considering the importance of self-silencing for girls, it seems that these three factors may both facilitate the conditions or behaviors that can lead to girls forfeiting verbal and behavioral self-expression and operate as a result of the decision to self-silence in one's relationship. For example, if an individual is preoccupied with being rejected, it seems likely that they might invest energy in avoiding such an experience. One way this could be accomplished is by withholding one's opinions or desires and thus preventing the possibility of dissent or rejection. Shame could be seen to operate in a similar manner, where individuals might suppress thoughts and actions that could result in being further shamed. Reduced decision making may be conceptualized as a resulting or parallel condition of self-silencing, as it is behaviorally consistent with forfeiting self-expression.

The model of powerlessness constructed for boyfriends provided a different picture of the construct. Powerlessness for the young men in this sample was most heavily influenced by reports of their girlfriends' shaming behaviors. Consequently, there must be something(s) in the male experience of shame received from others that undermines the ability to exercise or experience power in romantic relationships (or

perhaps it is the experience of powerlessness that leads to feelings of shame). Research previously reviewed suggests that shame prone individuals are likely to be involved in relationships that are characterized by a discrepancy in power (Lopez et al., 1997), which is supported by the salience of experiences of shame in the model of powerlessness for boyfriends.

Self-silencing, rejection sensitivity, and giving-in (in that order) also contributed to the boyfriends' construct of powerlessness. Although self-silencing did not appear to be as prominent for boys as it was for girls, it still was a significant aspect of the powerlessness construct. In light of the importance of shaming for boys, it is interesting to think of self-silencing as it may relate to shame. As discussed earlier, boys may withhold their expressions as a result of indifference or because they calculate the risk of creating conflict by expressing their opinions and conclude that it is not worth the hazard. However, it would appear that there might be an emotional component or consequence to boyfriends' use of self-silencing. Otherwise, it seems unlikely that male self-silencing would be strongly related to a powerlessness construct dominated by the experience of shame. While the model cannot determine whether self-silencing leads to shame, or vice versa, it is apparent that when boyfriends use self-silencing, they risk the creation of a specific differential in power in which they become at least somewhat vulnerable. Giving-in is likely to function in a similar way to self-silencing, in that boys choose to forfeit a portion of their self-expression or self-determination. The resulting conditions are likely to resemble those described for self-silencing

Rejection sensitivity for boys appears to be similar to self-silencing in its relationship to powerlessness. It is consistent with other research in suggesting that a preoccupation with being rejected will affect an individual's behavior in a manner that relates to the power exchange in their relationships. As previously discussed, rejection sensitivity has been associated with both attempting to dominate one's partner, and also becoming submissive (Downey & Feldman, 1996). The model created in this study would suggest that when boys become submissive in their efforts to cope with their apprehension of rejection, they experience less autonomy in their relationships.

Gender differences in the two models are interesting. In both models, many of the same aspects of power are related to the construct of powerlessness. However, the strongest relationships, self-silencing for girlfriends and shaming for boyfriends, are particularly worth comparing. It is interesting to note that self-silencing, although influenced by external factors, is best described as an internally manifested phenomenon. In contrast, shame is generally perceived from environmental sources (though there may be a degree of self-generated interpretation). Consequently, the adolescent female experience of powerlessness might be understood via internalizing mechanisms, while the adolescent male experience might be better understood as a reflection of their strategies for processing environmental information.

Associations Among Interpersonal Power

Indices and Relationship Outcomes

Bivariate relationships among the indices of power and between the measures of power and relationship outcomes yielded interesting patterns. First, for both girlfriends

and boyfriends, the individual measure that was most highly correlated with other power measures was the experience of shame from the partner. Shame was significantly correlated in expected directions with silencing the self, rejection sensitivity, and social capital for boys, suggesting a constellation of experiences of emotional vulnerability, insecurity, anxiety, and uncertainty in relationships. Similarly, shame was significantly associated with silencing the self, rejection sensitivity, and giving in for girlfriends, indicating that experiences of vulnerability and insecurity may be associated with compromised autonomy in romantic relationship interactions for girlfriends.

The bivariate correlations between power measures and outcome measures were similarly interesting. Associations among the power measures and relationship outcomes were sporadic and inconsistent for several of the measures for both boyfriends and girlfriends. For example, silencing the self and decision-making authority were not significantly correlated with any relationship outcomes for girlfriends and giving in and rejection sensitivity were related only to relationship satisfaction. Similarly for boyfriends, few significant correlations emerged among relationship outcomes and rejection sensitivity, silencing the self, giving in, and social capital. However, experiencing shame from one's partner (for both couple members) was a powerful and consistent predictor of relationship outcomes. Higher levels of shame were associated with all types of aggression for both couple members and with decreased relationship satisfaction for girlfriends.

Interestingly, decision making was associated positively with all of the outcomes for boyfriends. It makes sense that most individuals would find it gratifying to

be in relationships in which they often get their way. However, it is disturbing that such an arrangement may also be associated with increased perpetration of aggressive behaviors. The relation of satisfaction and aggressive behaviors may reflect that aggression is sometimes used as a means to establish and maintain advantages in power (Johnson, 2001) such that the perpetrator controls important aspects of the relationship. For example, an aggressive partner may exert control over decision making and the allocation of resources available in the context of their relationship. In this case, the powerful position is likely to be satisfying. Indeed, Social Exchange Theory would predict that the overbenefited individual would be more satisfied, regardless of the means by which that position is achieved and maintained.

Girlfriends reported decreased relationship satisfaction with increased levels of rejection sensitivity, shame, and giving in. Each of these bivariate relations is consistent with expectations and intuitively sensible. Perceiving one's relationship as unstable and insecure, one's partner as dismissive and degrading, and oneself as lacking autonomy and authority is likely to be associated with poorer relationship outcomes. In contrast, social capital was significantly associated with several aggressive outcomes. Thus, individual status seems to be an important aspect in romantic relationships for girlfriends that may be associated with increased aggressiveness. It may be that girls who have higher status become aware that their position allows them to exert coercive control over their boyfriends. Perhaps higher status also facilitates the devaluation of the lower status partner, which in turn may inspire some girlfriends to follow through with their perceived ability to get away with aggression directed towards their boyfriends. The relationship

between high social capital and aggression among girlfriends may also reflect efforts directed at maintaining higher status (or power) through aggressive behaviors.

Associations among all indices of interpersonal power and relationship outcomes were also examined simultaneously using multiple regression techniques. As a group, the various indices of power successfully predicted all aggression outcomes and relationship satisfaction for both girlfriends and boyfriends, suggesting that these measures of discrepancies in resource control and emotional vulnerability are important predictors of relationship quality for both male and female couple members.

For girlfriends, shaming, giving-in, social capital, or a combination of two or three of these variables predicted all of the outcomes (physical abuse, threatening behavior, sexual abuse, relational aggression, and emotional abuse). The experience of shame was an especially salient predictor for all outcome variables. Girlfriends who viewed their boyfriends as engaging in more shaming behaviors reported lower relationship satisfaction and higher scores on every measure of relationship aggression. Thus, verbal and behavioral communication that establishes or maintains feelings of humiliation and disrespect can be considered extremely high-risk behaviors regarding establishing conditions in which negative relationship outcomes may develop.

In contrast, giving in was negatively related to relation satisfaction and threatening behavior. Giving in is sometimes used as a strategy to avoid relationship conflict. The negative relationship it is demonstrated to have with aggressive behavior (and the lack of association with other aggressive outcomes) suggests that it may be somewhat effective as a method for conflict avoidance. However, giving in is also

associated with compromised relationship satisfaction. It may be important to emphasize that reductions in relationship satisfaction could result from using giving in as a conflict avoidance strategy.

At first glance, it might appear surprising that social capital predicted a majority of the aggression outcomes for girlfriends. The positive association between social capital and relationship satisfaction suggests that perceiving oneself as a more desirable romantic partner is a positive development. Indeed, achieving higher status among peers is almost universally perceived as a pleasing condition. On further reflection, social capital measures one's own perceived status relative to that of one's partner. Thus, by definition, it indicates an existing relationship discrepancy. As established in the review of literature, both a position of greater power and a position of powerlessness can facilitate the development of aggressive behavior. Perhaps when couple members hold themselves in higher regard than their partners, it becomes possible for them to devalue their partners' experience. Indeed, a brief look at the history of humankind will confirm that it is not uncommon for those in positions of power to exploit, abuse, and otherwise disrespect those considered weaker. Consequently, it might be important to scrutinize the seemingly healthy position of individuals who possess high status when attempting to understand or predict conflict and aggression in adolescent romantic relationships.

The regression results for boyfriends were equally illuminating. Shaming was again a prominent predictor variable (all outcomes were predicted by either shaming, decision making, or both). As with the girlfriends, boyfriends' aggressive behavior was predicted by their perception of being the recipient of shaming behaviors. Boyfriends'

apparent sensitivity to being shamed may reflect the relation between shame and powerlessness. Given the idealized gender values for males in a patriarchal culture, it makes sense that experiencing shame would increase aggression, both as an expression of frustration, and also as a means to increase their power.

Possessing high decision-making power predicted relationship satisfaction for boyfriends. It is certainly understandable that such a position would be pleasing. However, much like the girlfriend results related to social capital, decision-making power was also predictive of a majority of the aggression outcomes. Again, holding a high-power role increased the risk for mistreatment of one's lower-powered partner.

Thus, boyfriend's and girlfriend's aggressive behaviors towards their partners were predicted by shame, an indicator that appears to be associated with low power, and a high power index (social capital for girls, decision making for boys) associated with advantages such as greater resource control. Both emotional vulnerability and resource control reflect established conceptualizations of powerlessness and power, respectively. It is important to note that both positions are associated with aggressive behavior. To understand the risk of violent and conflictual behavior in relationships, one should not only consider that aggression can originate from a couple member who reports high relationship satisfaction, one should also be aware that aggression can be perpetrated by individuals who occupy either high or low power position. The current results suggest that experiences of powerlessness with regard to emotional vulnerability and experiences of higher power with regard to resource control may constitute the highest risks for aggressive behaviors.

Limitations

In spite of the interesting and potentially useful implications of this study, there are limitations that should be considered before generalizing the conclusions. First, the size of the sample acquired, although quite large for an observational study, is somewhat small for the multivariate analyses that were conducted. The sample is also disproportionately represented by rural adolescents and members of the LDS faith. Given the particularly patriarchal and comparatively conservative aspects of the culture surrounding that religion, the conclusions should be considered with a degree of caution. Furthermore, perhaps a result of the sample used, a restricted range of aggressive behavior was reported by participants. Consequently, low rates of aggression were observed.

Another limitation of this study can be found in the fact that the aggression outcome measures address perpetration. Consequently, victimization remains a relatively unknown quantity. Additionally, neither the power measures nor the outcome measures are intended to be considered an exhaustive or complete conceptualization of either category. To consider them as such would seriously underestimate the complexity of either construct.

Several measurement issues may also contribute to a lack of clarity in the current results. First, there may be an issue of social desirability in self-reports. Because the issue of equity in romantic relationships is clearly an important characteristic in Western cultures, self-reports of powerlessness in romantic relationships might be expected to be

minimized. For example, especially in traditional, conservative communities, boyfriends might be expected to underreport their experience of low power because it is inconsistent with cultural expectations for them to occupy a relatively high-powered position in their romantic relationships. The observed findings that boyfriends reported higher scores on most measures of emotional vulnerability and one measure of resource control, however, are inconsistent with this concern. Additionally, self-reported levels of socially undesirable behaviors, such as dating aggression, might also be considered suspect. Previous research, however, has found self-reported and observed levels of aggression in romantic couples to be highly correlated (Capaldi & Crosby, 1997). As might be expected with a nonclinical sample, couple members reported very low rates of aggressive behavior and generally high levels of relationship satisfaction. Restricted range for the outcome variables may have influenced patterns of association that were observed; replication with a higher risk sample might provide a different picture of the associations between interpersonal power and aggressive behaviors. Finally, discriminant validity among measures may also be an issue in this study; the separate measures of powerlessness were intercorrelated and may be assessing highly related constructs. However, the correlations among the measures were low to moderate, suggesting that the separate measures of power were, in fact, assessing separate, although related, aspects of interpersonal power.

Future Directions for Research

Future studies conducted in the domain of power in the context of adolescent romantic relationships should employ sampling techniques that might be more representative of the general population. Replication of this type of study with samples from other geographical areas and with urban or suburban samples would yield important information about the generalizability of findings. Additionally, little is known about relationship processes in same sex couples and research examining relationship development among sexual minority youth is needed. Similarly, higher rates of aggression might be observed in at risk populations.

Other measures of power, as well as other outcomes, should be explored. For example, different aspects of resource control and/or emotional conditions that affect power and/or powerlessness should be explored and measured. Both of these types of variables should be developed and measured so that they are sensitive to victimization as well as perpetration.

An interesting area that was neglected in this study (with the exception of relationship satisfaction) was the measurement of positive outcomes. Indeed, positive attributes and mechanisms can be as important as those that indicate negative qualities or processes. A final area of potential improvement, future studies might consider methodologies that may provide insight into causal aspects of the use of power and the resulting conditions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A:
Consent Form

Informed Consent/Assent Form
Interaction and Conflict in Rural Adolescent Romantic Couples

Introduction/Purpose: Professor Renee Galliher in the Department of Psychology at Utah State University is in charge of this research study. We would like you and your boyfriend/girlfriend to be in the study because we want to know about the dating relationships of teenagers your age. We want to learn how other parts of your life (like your families, attitudes, and feelings) affect your relationships and actions. About 100 couples will be in this research study.

Procedures: Your part in this study will be one three-hour session. Your session can be either in our research laboratory on the University campus (see enclosed map) or your home or your boyfriend/girlfriend's home. You and your boyfriend/girlfriend can choose if you want to come to the University or want our researchers to come to your home. The three-hour session will be divided into three parts. First, you will be videotaped having three short conversations with the person you are dating. Second, you will each watch the videotape of your conversations and answer questions about your thoughts and feelings during the tape. Finally, you will fill out some forms that will ask you questions about your attitudes, feelings, family, the way you handle conflict with your partner, your sexual behaviors, and drug and alcohol use.

Risks: There is some risk of feeling uncomfortable in this study. Some teenagers may not want to be videotaped or share personal information with the researchers. We will do everything we can to make you more comfortable. First, researchers will not be in the room while you are having your conversations. Second, you can choose not to discuss personal or difficult issues. Third, you can choose not to answer sensitive questions on the forms.

The law of Utah does require researchers to report certain information (e.g., threat of harm to self or others, abuse of a minor by an adult) to the authorities.

Benefits: We hope that you will find this study to be interesting and fun. Your information will help us learn more about teenagers' relationships. It will also help teachers, parents, counselors, and policy makers in their work with teenagers.

Explanation and Offer to Answer Questions: _____ has explained this study to you and answered your questions. If you have more questions, you can also ask the Primary Investigator, Professor Renee Galliher, at 797-3391.

Payment: When you finish this research, you and your dating partner will **each** be paid \$30. Your participation does not involve any costs.

Voluntary Nature of Participation and Right to Withdraw without Consequences: Being in this research study is entirely your choice. You can refuse to be involved or stop at any time without penalty.

Informed Consent/Assent Form
Interaction and Conflict in Rural Adolescent Romantic Couples

Confidentiality: Consistent with federal and state rules, your videotape and answers will be kept private. Only Professor Galliher and research assistants will be able to see the data. All information will be kept in locked filing cabinets in a locked room. Your answers and videotapes will only have an ID number and not your name. Your name will **not** be used in any report about this research and your specific answers will not be shared with anyone else. Data from this study, including the videotape, may be used for three years by our research team before it is destroyed. When the research has been completed, a newsletter with the general results will be sent to you.

IRB Approval Statement: The Institutional Review Board for the protection of human subjects at Utah State University has approved this research project. If you have any questions regarding IRB approval of this study, you can contact the IRB administrator at (435)797-1821.

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

Investigator Statement: I certify that the research study has been explained to the individual by me or my research staff. The individual understands the nature and purpose, the possible risks and benefits associated with participation in the study. Any questions have been answered.

Signature of PI and Student Researcher:

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

Charles Bentley, Student Researcher

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 it is up to me to participate even if my parents say yes. If I do not want to be in this study, I don't have to. No one will be upset if I don't want to participate or if I change my mind later and want to stop. I can ask questions that I have about this study 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 _____

When the study is completed, we would like to send you a newsletter outlining the results. Also, we will be conducting additional research on dating relationships and may wish to contact you in the future to participate in other studies. If you would like to receive a summary of the results of the study or if you are willing to be contacted for further research, please provide your name, address and phone number below.

I would like to receive a summary of the results of the study.

I would like to be contacted in the future to be asked about participating in other studies

Name: _____

Address: _____

Phone Number: _____

Appendix B:
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. My partner smokes, drinks, or does drugs more than I would like.
16. We have very different thoughts about religion, politics or other important issues.
17. My partner and I disagree about sex, sexual behaviors, or contraception.
18. My partner expects me to be interested in his/her hobbies.
19. My parents do not like us being together or feel we spend too much time together.
20. My parents do not like my partner or my partner's parents do not like me.
21. Adults at my school or church do not approve of my relationship with my partner.

OTHER

22. Other issue we disagree about _____.

Main Issue I'd like to discuss: _____.

First Alternate Issue: _____.

Second Alternate Issue: _____.

Appendix C:
Measures

The measures used in this study included both male and female versions of each questionnaire. In the interest of space and to avoid redundancy, only one gender version of each questionnaire will be included in this index. The different versions varied only in the use of appropriate pronouns in order to apply to each gender.

Demographic Information

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1. What is your gender? a male b female c Sometimes d Often</p> <p>2. What is your age? a [Open Ended]</p> <p>3. What is your date of birth? a [Open Ended]</p> <p>4. Which category or categories best describe your racial background? a White b African American c Asian d Hispanic/Latino e Native American f Other [Open Ended]</p> <p>5. What is your Religious Affiliation? a LDS b Catholic c Protestant d Jewish e None f Other, please specify [Open Ended]</p> <p>If you selected more than one category, with which racial background</p> | <p>do you most identify?</p> <p>6. How important is your religion to you? a Very important b Fairly Important c Don't Know d Fairly Unimportant e Not Important at all f Does Not Apply</p> <p>7. Are you currently enrolled in school? a Yes, Full Time b Yes, Part Time c No</p> <p>8. What grade are you currently in? a Not yet in high school b 9th c 10th d 11th e 12th f no longer in high school</p> <p>9. What is your approximate current grade point average (GPA)? a 0-1.0 b 1.1-2.0 c 2.1-3.0 d 3.1-4.0 e over 4.0</p> |
|--|---|

10. Are you currently employed?
- a Yes
 - b No
 - c If yes, how many hours per week? [Open Ended]
 - e Other
 - f If divorced or separated, how long (yrs) have they been divorced? [Open Ended]
11. What are your plans for the future?
- a Some College Courses
 - b College Degree (BA/BS)
 - c Graduate School
 - d Technical School
 - e Other (please specify) [Open Ended]
12. With whom do you live?
- a Both Parents
 - b Father Only
 - c Father & Stepmother
 - d Father & Girlfriend
 - e Other Adult Relatives
 - f Female Friend(s)
 - g Non-related adults
 - h Mother only
 - i Mother & Stepfather
 - j Mother & Boyfriend
 - k Brother(s) / Sister(s)
 - l Boyfriend/ Girlfriend
 - m Male Friend(s)
13. How would you describe where you live?
- a Urban (city)
 - b Suburban (subdivision)
 - c Rural (country)
14. How long have you lived at your current residence?
- a [Open Ended]
15. What is you parent's marital status?
- a Married to each other
 - b Divorced or separated from each other
 - c Never married to each other
 - d Widowed
16. How far in school did your father go?
- a Some high school
 - b High school graduate
 - c Technical school
 - d Some college
 - e College graduate
 - f Graduate school
17. How far in school did your mother go?
- a Some high school
 - b High school graduate
 - c Technical school
 - d Some college
 - e College graduate
 - f Graduate school
18. What does your mother do for a living?
- a [Open Ended]
19. What does you father do for a living?
- a [Open Ended]

Silencing the Self

Please circle the number that best describes how you feel about each of the statements listed below.

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|----------------------|---|-------------------------------|---|-------------------|
| | Strongly Disagree | | Neither Agree Nor Disagree | | Strongly Agree |
| 1. I think it is best to put myself first because no one else will look out for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I don't speak my feelings in an intimate relationship when I know they will cause disagreement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Caring means putting the other person's needs in front of my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Considering my needs to be as important as those of the people I love is selfish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I find it is harder to be myself when I am in a close relationship than when I am on my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I tend to judge myself by how I think other people see me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I feel dissatisfied with myself because I should be able to do all the things people are supposed to be able to do these days. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. When my partner's needs and feelings conflict with my own, I always state mine clearly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. In a close relationship, my responsibility is to make the other person happy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Caring means choosing to do what the other person wants, even when I want to do something different. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. In order to feel good about myself, I need to feel independent and self-sufficient. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. One of the worst things I can do is to be selfish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I feel I have to act in a certain way to please my partner | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. Instead of risking confrontations in close relationships, I would rather not rock the boat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I speak my feelings with my partner, even when it leads to problems or disagreements. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Often I look happy enough on the outside, but inwardly I feel angry and rebellious. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. In order for my partner to love me, I cannot reveal certain things about myself to him/her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. When my partner's needs or opinions conflict with mine, rather than asserting my own point of view I usually end up agreeing with him/her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. When I am in a close relationship I lose my sense of who I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. When it looks as though certain of my needs can't be met in a relationship, I usually realize that they weren't very important anyway. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. My partner loves and appreciates me for who I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Doing things just for myself is selfish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. When I make decisions, other people's thoughts and opinions influence me more than my own thoughts and opinions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I rarely express my anger at those close to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. I feel that my partner does not know my real self. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. I think it's better to keep my feelings to myself when they do conflict with my partner's. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. I often feel responsible for other people's feelings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. I find it hard to know what I think and feel because I spend a lot of time thinking about how other people are feeling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. In a close relationship, I don't usually care what we do, as long as the other person is happy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. I try to bury my feelings when I think they will cause trouble in my close relationship(s). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. I never seem to measure up to the standards I set for myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Rejection Sensitivity:

Each of the items below describes things high school students sometimes ask of other people. Please imagine that you are in each situation.

1. You ask someone in class if you can borrow his/her notes.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not he/she would want to lend you his/her notes?
 - a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned

2. You ask someone in class if you can borrow his/her notes.
I would expect that he/she would willingly give me his/her notes.
 - a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely

3. You ask your boyfriend to go steady.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not he also would want to go steady with you?
 - a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned

4. You ask your boyfriend to go steady.
I would expect that he would want to go steady with me.
 - a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely

5. You ask your parents for help in deciding what school to apply to.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your parents would want to help you?
 - a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned

- e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
6. You ask your parents for help in deciding what school to apply to. I would expect that they would want to help me.
- a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
7. You ask someone you don't know very well out on a date. How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not the person would want to go out with you?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
8. You ask someone you don't know very well out on a date. I would expect that the person would want to go out on a date with me.
- a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
9. Your boyfriend has plans to go out with his friends tonight, but you really want to spend that time with him, and tell him so. How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your boyfriend would decide to stay with you instead?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
10. Your boyfriend has plans to go out with his friends tonight, but you really want to spend that time with him, and tell him so. How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your boyfriend would decide to stay with you instead?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned

11. You ask your parents for extra spending money.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your parents would give it to you?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned
 - Concerned
 - Very Concerned
12. You ask your parents for extra spending money.
I would expect that my parents would not mind giving it to me.
- Very Unlikely
 - Unlikely
 - Somewhat Unlikely
 - Somewhat Likely
 - Likely
 - Very Likely
13. After class, you tell your teacher that you have been having some trouble with a section of the course and ask if he/she can help you.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your teacher would want to help you out?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned
 - Concerned
 - Very Concerned
14. After class, you tell your teacher that you have been having some trouble with a section of the course and ask if he/she can help you.
I would expect that the teacher would want to help me.
- Very Unlikely
 - Unlikely
 - Somewhat Unlikely
 - Somewhat Likely
 - Likely
 - Very Likely
15. You approach a close friend to talk after doing or saying something that seriously upset him/her.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your friend would want to talk with you?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned
 - Concerned
 - Very Concerned
16. You approach a close friend to talk after doing or saying something that seriously upset him/her.
I would expect that he/she would want to talk with me to try to work things out.
- Very Unlikely

- b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
17. You ask someone in one of your classes to go out for ice cream.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not the person would want to go?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
18. You ask someone in one of your classes to go out for ice cream.
I would expect that he/she would want to go with me.
- a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
19. After graduation you can't find a job and you ask your parents if you can live at home for a while.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your parents would want you to stay home?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
20. After graduation you can't find a job and you ask your parents if you can live at home for a while.
I would expect that I would be welcome at home.
- a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
21. You ask your friend to go out for a movie.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your friend would want to go with you?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned

22. You ask your friend to go out for a movie.
I would expect that he/she would want to go with me.
- Very Unlikely
 - Unlikely
 - Somewhat Unlikely
 - Somewhat Likely
 - Likely
 - Very Likely
23. You call your boyfriend after a bitter argument and tell him you want to see him.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your boyfriend would want to see you?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned
 - Concerned
 - Very Concerned
24. You call your boyfriend after a bitter argument and tell him you want to see him.
I would expect that he would want to see me.
- Very Unlikely
 - Unlikely
 - Somewhat Unlikely
 - Somewhat Likely
 - Likely
 - Very Likely
25. You ask a friend if you can borrow something of his/hers.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your friend would want to loan it to you?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned
 - Concerned
 - Very Concerned
26. You ask a friend if you can borrow something of his/hers.
I would expect that he/she would willingly loan me it.
- Very Unlikely
 - Unlikely
 - Somewhat Unlikely
 - Somewhat Likely
 - Likely
 - Very Likely
27. You ask your parents to come to an occasion important to you.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your parents would want to come?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned

- e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
28. You ask your parents to come to an occasion important to you.
I would expect that they would want to come.
- a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
29. You ask your friend to do you a big favor.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your friend would want to help you out?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
30. You ask your friend to do you a big favor.
I would expect that he/she would willingly agree to help me out.
- a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
31. You ask your boyfriend if he really loves you.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your boyfriend would say yes?
- a. Very Unconcerned
 - b. Unconcerned
 - c. Somewhat Unconcerned
 - d. Somewhat Concerned
 - e. Concerned
 - f. Very Concerned
32. You ask your boyfriend if he really loves you.
I would expect that he would answer yes sincerely.
- a. Very Unlikely
 - b. Unlikely
 - c. Somewhat Unlikely
 - d. Somewhat Likely
 - e. Likely
 - f. Very Likely
33. You go to a party and notice someone on the other side of the room, and then you ask them to dance.

- How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not the person would want to dance with you?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned
 - Concerned
 - Very Concerned
 - :
34. You go to a party and notice someone on the other side of the room, and then you ask them to dance.
I would expect that he would want to dance.
- Very Unlikely
 - Unlikely
 - Somewhat Unlikely
 - Somewhat Likely
 - Likely
 - Very Likely
35. You ask your boyfriend to come home to meet your parents.
How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your boyfriend would want to meet your parents?
- Very Unconcerned
 - Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Unconcerned
 - Somewhat Concerned
 - Concerned
 - Very Concerned
36. You ask your boyfriend to come home to meet your parents.
I would expect that he would want to meet my parents.
- Very Unlikely
 - Unlikely
 - Somewhat Unlikely
 - Somewhat Likely
 - Likely
 - Very Likely

Shame Questionnaire

Couples - females

1. My partner sees me as not measuring up to him.
 - a. Never
 - b. Seldom
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Frequently
 - e. Almost always

2. I think that *my* partner looks down on me.
 - a. Never
 - b. Seldom
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Frequently
 - e. Almost always

3. I feel that *my* partner sees me as not good enough.
 - a. Never
 - b. Seldom
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Frequently
 - e. Almost always

3. My partner sees me as small and insignificant.
 - a. Never
 - b. Seldom
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Frequently
 - e. Almost always

5. I feel insecure about my partners opinion of me.
 - a. Never
 - b. Seldom
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Frequently
 - e. Almost always

6. My partner sees me as unimportant compared to others.
 - a. Never
 - b. Seldom
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Frequently
 - e. Almost always

7. My partner sees me as defective as a person.
 - a. Never
 - b. Seldom
 - c. Sometimes
 - d. Frequently

The Who Does It Questionnaire

Directions. Please think about your current dating relationship and answer each question below.

In your current dating relationship.

1. Who initiates phone calls?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

2. Who drives when you go out?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

3. Who pays for dating activities (food, movies, etc.)?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

4. Who decides where to eat?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

5. Who decides where to go when you go out together?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

6. Who decides whom you should "hang-out" with?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

7. Who spends more time with other's friends?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

8. Who decides how much time you should spend together?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

9. In general, when you and your partner disagree on something, who usually wins?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

10. When you and your partner talk about things that are important to you, whose opinion "counts" the most?

- partner always does
 partner usually does
 we both do
 I usually do
 I always do

Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory – Girlfriends Version

The following questions ask you about things that may have happened to you with your boyfriend or girlfriend while you were having an argument. Check the box that is your best estimate of how often these things have happened with your current boyfriend or girlfriend in the past year (or in your whole relationship if you have been together for less than one year). Please remember that all answers are confidential. As a guide, use the following scales:

Never: this has never happened in your relationship

Seldom: this has happened only 1-2 times in your relationship

Sometimes: this has happened about 3-5 times in your relationship

Often: this has happened 6 or more times in your relationship

1. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I gave reasons for my side of the argument.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

2. He gave reasons for his side of the argument.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

3. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I touched him sexually when he didn't want me to.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

4. . He touched me sexually when I didn't want him to.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

5. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I tried to turn his friends against him.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

6. He tried to turn my friends against me.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

7. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I did something to make him feel jealous.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

8. He did something to make me feel jealous.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

9. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I destroyed or threatened to destroy something he valued.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

10. He destroyed or threatened to destroy something I valued.
 - a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

11. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I told him that I was partly to

- blame.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
12. He told me that he was partly to blame.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
13. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I brought up something bad that he had done in the past.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
14. He brought up something bad that I had done in the past.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
15. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I threw something at him.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
16. He threw something at me.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
17. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I said things just to make him angry.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes

- d Often
18. He said things just to make me angry.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
19. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I gave reasons why I thought he was wrong.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
20. He gave reasons why he thought I was wrong.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
21. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I agreed that he was partly right.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
22. He agreed that I was partly right.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
23. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I spoke to him in a hostile or mean tone of voice.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
24. He spoke to me in a mean or hostile tone of voice.

- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
25. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I forced him to have sex when he didn't want to.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
26. He forced me to have sex when I didn't want to.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
27. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I offered a solution that I thought would make us both happy.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
28. He offered a solution that he thought would make us both happy.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
29. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I threatened him in an attempt to have sex with him.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
30. He threatened me in an attempt to have sex with me.
- a Never
 - b Seldom

- c Sometimes
 - d Often
31. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I put off talking until we calmed down.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
32. He put off talking until we calmed down.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
33. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I insulted him with put-downs.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
34. He insulted me with put-downs.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
35. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I discussed the issue calmly.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
36. He discussed the issue calmly.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
37. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I kissed him

- when he didn't want
me to.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
38. He kissed me when I didn't want him to.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
39. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I said things
to his friends about
him to turn them against him.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
40. He said things to my friends about me to turn them against me.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
41. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I ridiculed or
made fun of him in
front of others.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
42. He ridiculed or made fun of me in front of others.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
43. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I told him
how upset I was.
a Never

- b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
44. He told me how upset he was.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
45. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I kept track of who he was with and where he was.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
46. He kept track of who I was with and where I was.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
47. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I blamed him for the problem.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
48. He blamed me for the problem.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
49. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I kicked, hit, or punched him.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

50. He kicked, hit, or punched me.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
51. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I left the room to cool down.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
52. He left the room to cool down.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
53. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I gave in, just to avoid conflict.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
54. He gave in, just to avoid conflict.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
55. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I accused him of flirting with another girl.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes
d Often
56. He accused me of flirting with another guy.
a Never
b Seldom
c Sometimes

d Often

57. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I deliberately tried to frighten him.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
58. He deliberately tried to frighten me.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
59. During a conflict or argument with my boyfriend in the past year, I slapped him or pulled his hair.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often
60. He slapped me or pulled my hair.
- a Never
 - b Seldom
 - c Sometimes
 - d Often

On a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) please rate the following statements as they relate to your current romantic partner.

| | Strongly Disagree | | Moderately Agree | | Strongly Agree | |
|---|----------------------|---|---------------------|---|-------------------|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1. In general, I am satisfied with our relationship. | | | | | | |
| 2. Compared to other people's relationships ours is pretty good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I often wish I hadn't gotten into this relationship.* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. Our relationship has met my best expectations. | | | | | | |
| 5. Our relationship is just about the best relationship I could have hoped to have with any body. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1. I am happiest when we are together. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I try to arrange my time so that I can be with him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I really care for him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He acts thoughtfully. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He is a great companion. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. I like the way I feel when I am with him. | | | | | | |
| 1. I get upset when he shows an interest in other girls. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I like it when he pays attention only to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I watch other girl's reactions to him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He watches how I act with other guys. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. Sometimes he doesn't believe that I love only him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He is jealous of my relationships with other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1. I am happy when he succeeds. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I want him to be a success according to his own standards. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I like it when he does things on his own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He makes me feel complete. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He helps me to become what I want to be. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He makes me feel emotionally stronger. | | | | | | |
| 1. I never have to lie to him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. He listens to me when I need someone to talk to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I find it easy to tell him how I feel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I really listen to what he has to say. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He tells me about his weaknesses and strengths. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He finds it easy to tell me how he feels. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1. I make him really happy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. He's really "crazy" for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. He thinks our relationship is terrific. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He makes me feel fantastic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He makes me become "alive". | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He makes me feel very happy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I am patient with him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I accept him for what he is. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I'm willing to forgive him for almost anything. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He recognizes and accepts faults in me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He takes me for what I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. He feels romantically excited when with me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I want to look attractive for him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. It is easy for him to be romantic with me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I get romantically excited just thinking about him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. I enjoy studying his body and his movements. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. I feel romantically excited when with him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. I think he has good ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I admire his persistence in getting after things that are important to him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I take pride in his accomplishments. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He thinks my ideas are important. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He respects my values and beliefs, although they don't always agree with his. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He knows when something is bothering me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. I help him through difficult times. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I make him feel self-confident. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I am concerned about how he feels. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He helps me find solutions to my problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He comforts me when I need comforting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He tries to get me in a good mood when I am angry. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. He sometimes gets angry at me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. Dating can sometimes be painful for him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. Sometimes I really upset him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I sometimes get upset because things don't go well between us. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. He can really hurt my feelings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. Sometimes I don't know why I put up with the things he does or says. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. I want to spend my life with him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I will always be loyal to him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I expect to always love him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. His fantasy is to be married to me forever. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. When it comes to our relationship, he is very loyal and worthy of trust. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He expects to be close by me forever. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. He is willing to change for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I want to be special in his life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. No one can love him as much as I do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I treat him as very special. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. He is the most important person in my life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. I feel that he was meant for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He is the person that best understands me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. We were attracted to each other immediately when we first met. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. We have the right physical "chemistry" between us. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. We have an intense romantic relationship. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I feel that we were meant for each other. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. We became involved rather quickly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. He fits my ideal standards of physical good looks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. I try to keep him uncertain about my commitment to him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I think that what he does not know about me will not hurt him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I have sometimes had to keep two of my boyfriends from finding out about each other. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I can get over love affairs pretty easily and quickly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. When my boyfriend becomes too dependent on me, I want to back off a little. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. I enjoy playing the "game of love" with a number of different guys. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. It is hard to say exactly when we went from being friends to being romantically involved. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. Love first requires caring for a while. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I expect to always be friends with the people I date. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. The best kind of love grows out of a long friendship. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. My most satisfying dating relationships grew from good friendships. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. Love is a deep friendship, not a mysterious, passionate emotion. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1. I consider what a person is going to become in life before I commit myself to him. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. It is best to love someone with a similar background to mine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. A main consideration in choosing a boyfriend is how he fits into my family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. An important factor in choosing a boyfriend is how he will be as a father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. Before getting very involved with someone, I try to figure out what our children would be like, if we were to have any. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. In choosing a partner, I consider how he will fit in my future plans. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | If my boyfriend ignores me for a while, I sometimes do stupid things to get his attention back. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. | I can't relax if I suspect he is with another girl. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. | When I am in love, I have trouble concentrating on anything else. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. | When he doesn't pay attention to me, I feel sick all over. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. | Sometimes I get so excited about being in love that I can't sleep. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. | When my love affairs break up, I really get depressed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | | | | | | | |
| 1. | I try to always help him through difficult times. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. | I would rather suffer myself than let my boyfriend suffer. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. | I can't be happy unless I put his happiness above my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. | I usually sacrifice my own wishes to let him get his own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. | Whatever I own is his to use as he chooses. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. | I would put up with a lot for his sake. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |