Implications of Relationship Power Processes for Future Psychopathology and Partner Violence

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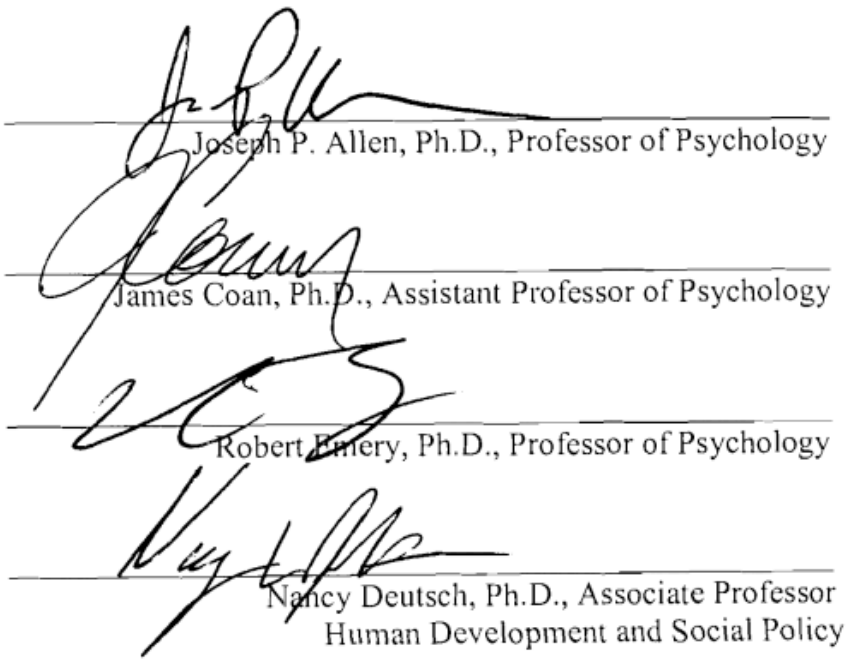

Abstract

One mechanism that has been consistently linked with relationship distress is power discrepancy in intimate relationships. However, conceptualizations of power in the extant literature are often confusing, inconsistent, and lack direct implications for couple intervention. The current study examined relations between videotaped observations of Christensen's Demand-Withdraw and Gottman's Rejection of Influence patterns during partner conflict and partner aggression and depressive symptoms one year later, across two distinct community samples. Sample 1 is comprised of 87 dating couples (mean age: 21, 43% minority). Sample 2 is comprised of 114 newlywed couples (mean age: 27.19, 72% minority). It was hypothesized that power struggles would be associated with increases in depressive symptoms, greater partner aggression, and relationship separation.

Results indicated that engaging in either role in each power sequence (demander/withdrawer; attempter/rejecter) is associated with intrapsychic and relationship distress over time, across both dating and marital relationships. While main effects between power dynamics and psychopathological outcomes were rarely found, significant moderating effects indicate that links between power patterns and aggression are strongest for the African American dating couples, and individuals with high attachment anxiety. Further, female attempt-male rejection of influence predicted increases in female and male internalizing distress, and male aggressive behaviors. Associations between observed power dynamics and increases in both aggression and depression over time were found for Caucasian, and not Latino, husbands. Finally, expressed positive affect in the context of conflict was generally found to exacerbate the relation between power dynamics and pathology, rather than serve as a buffer, as

predicted. Future directions include gaining an understanding of the underlying function and intent of the expressed affect, as differences in cultural interpretation and relationship expectations may help to explain why expressed power dynamics put some sub-groups more at risk for pathological outcomes than others. Findings suggest the importance of updating current, female-centered models of depression to include factors such as male power negotiation, anxious attachment styles, and ethnic minority status.

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"The issues of blending the study of affect and power are central to the integration of psychological and sociological approaches to marriage" (Gottman & Notarius, 2000, p.931)

The development of intimate romantic relationships is a key task of adolescence and early adulthood (Sullivan, 1953). When adolescent romantic relationships go awry, and interpersonal needs are not successfully negotiated in the romantic context, individuals may be particularly susceptible to the development of psychopathological functioning later in life. For example, individuals who divorce are at risk for a host of psychological problems, including psychopathology and suicide, compromised immune functioning, and decreased longevity (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978; Burman & Margolin, 1992). Individuals who do not divorce yet remain in aggressive relationships do not fare much better: Intimate partner violence victimization has been associated with increases in mental health problems such as depression, and anxiety (Carlson, McNutt, Choi, & Rose, 2002; Golding, 1999). The psychological consequences of partner violence are particularly concerning when we consider that rates of violence are alarmingly high, ranging between 21 to 45% in young couple dating relationships (Lewis & Fremouv, 2001. These rates appear to remain stable in the progression from a dating relationship to marriage (Murphy & O'Leary, 1989).

Further, women are currently experiencing higher rates of depression during the transition to adulthood (Rao, Hammen, & Daley, 1999). These depressive symptoms are often associated with and maintained by highly conflictual and unsatisfactory intimate relationships (Coyne, 1976, 1999; Rao et al.). Experiencing elevated levels of psychopathology at this critical time point has important implications, as this may significantly interfere with occupational functioning and raising one's own family. Thus, it appears that young couples today would greatly benefit from research that more closely identifies the specific interpersonal mechanisms that lead relationships to flourish or fail.

One such mechanism that has been consistently linked with relationship distress is the notion of imbalance of power or dominance in intimate relationships. Power in intimate relationships is a multi-faceted concept, and it has been considered in terms of three unique, and often uncorrelated, components. The first component of relationship power has been defined as power bases. An individual may be considered to have a higher "base power" if they have greater economic resources, social status, or greater skill or knowledge in a particular area than their partner. The second component of relationship power has been defined as power outcomes, which captures decision-making power, or who "gets their way" in the relationship. The last component of power is known as power processes. Power processes have been defined as the use of demandingness or control attempts in an individual's relationship (Cromwell & Oldson, 1975; Szinovacz, Sussman, & Steinmetz, 1987). Specifically, such power processes, or the means by which an individual **attempts to gain power in the context of conflict**, have been identified as a potential risk factor for partner aggression and divorce. These

power processes have been conceptualized and measured in a variety of ways, such as the demand-withdraw pattern (Christensen & Heavey, 1990), male rejection of influence (Coan, Gottman, Babcock, & Jacobson, 1997) and initiation of a topic in which one partner desires change (Sagrestano, Christensen & Heavey, 1998). Due to the inconsistent, and often confusing conceptualizations of power processes and its implications in the current literature, this study will explore two of the most precisely defined, empirically validated models of affect and power, Christensen's "demand-withdraw" and Gottman's "rejection of influence" patterns, in relation to psychopathological outcomes. The current study will concentrate on these patterns because such negative power dynamics are frequently observed in couple conflict, and potentially more responsive to intervention than more entrenched, stable manifestations of power, such as social status or economic resources.

The gendered woman-demand/man-withdraw sequence (in which the woman typically criticizes while the man emotionally withdraws or becomes defensive) is a well-established and deleterious power pattern in both marital and dating relationships (Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Vogel, Wester, & Heesacker, 1999). More frequent engagement in demand/withdraw behaviors have been implicated in outcomes of relationship dissatisfaction, divorce, and conflict (Christensen & Heavey). Both demand and withdraw behavior have been associated with an attempt at enacting control, or dominating the relationship, albeit through opposite means. Demand behavior may signify that an individual is in the "one- down" position in the relationship. Demands can be understood as attempts for power in order to enact change in the relationship or in the partner (Jacobson, 1989). At the same time, associations have been made between being

less emotionally "invested" in the relationship, and outwardly exerting power through withdrawal and resistance of relationship change (Noller, 1993).

Gottman conceptualizes the interface between relationship power and affect in terms of rejection of influence. The rejection of influence sequence has been characterized by a wife's attempt to influence through low-level negative affect (sadness, whining, tension) followed by husband's use of a more intense negative affect, such as belligerence or contempt, in return (Gottman, Coan, Carrere, Swanson, 1998). Also referred to as *escalation* of negative affect, this sequence has been characterized as a means by which one partner refuses to share relationship power with his or her spouse, by rejecting emotional influence from the other partner. This pattern has also been described as the "bat-em-back" hypothesis, as these rejecting partners are batting back any influence that their spouses attempts to throw their way, by exhibiting a more provocative or intense negative reaction (Coan et al., 1997). For example, the wife may express sadly: "We never spend quality time together anymore…" In rejecting the wife's influence, the husband may respond contemptuously: "What do you think, I'm made of money? You're such a whiny baby." Instead of listening to or validating his wife's attempt to influence, the husband escalates the negative emotional climate of the argument, and dismisses her request. *Male* rejection of influence is of particular concern, as it has been associated with severe domestic violence and divorce amongst married couples (Coan et al.; Gottman et al.).

Imbalances of Relationship Power and Partner Violence

One specific process of negotiating relationship power, demand behavior, has been associated with a host of maladaptive relationship outcomes, such as relationship distress and partner aggression. More specifically, male demand/partner withdraw behavior, has been concurrently associated with both *male and female* physical partner violence in two recent investigations (Feldman & Ridley, 2000; Ridley & Feldman, 2003). Historically, partner aggression has been conceptualized as a way in which a male *maintains his control* and dominance over his partner in a calculated fashion, known as "intimate terrorism" (Johnson & Leone, 2005). However, one might also hypothesize that *powerless* individual*s* may actually be at increased risk for *reactively* aggressing against their partners, as a way for individuals to attempt to establish power in their relationships. In fact, more frequent demand/withdraw behavior and *lower* perceived power have jointly predicted husband to wife domestic violence (Babcock, Waltz, Jacobson, & Gottman, 1993; Sagrestano, Heavey, & Christensen, 1999). The use of violence may be understood as a compensatory means by which powerless individuals exert control and influence over their partner (Babcock et al.).

Still other researchers have established links between male rejection of influence and more severe partner violence in a sample of domestically violent men (Coan et al., 1997). Male use of provocative affect such as belligerence in the context of rejection of influence has been conceptualized as potentially serving several different functions for the male. First, men are able to maintain control and exert power in the relationship. Additionally, in refusing to accept influence from their wives, they may be able to act consistently with more traditionally masculine ideals of not being persuaded or "whipped" by their wives (Coan et al.). Similarly to rejection of influence, these men

may also use violence to control and intimidate their wives. In consideration of the risks associated with the rejection of influence and demand-withdraw patterns, the current study intends to further tease apart associations between these power processes and partner violence, and proposes that dysfunctional attempts to *obtain or maintain* power, rather than *absolute levels of power*, are more closely linked with perpetration of aggression in relationships.

Imbalances of Relationship Power and Internalizing Symptoms

Although a moderate body of literature has been devoted to investigating the concurrent relationship implications for the demand/withdraw and rejection of influence patterns, less research has been devoted to investigating the *individual psychological outcomes* of engaging in such patterns. Relationship "demanders" may be demonstrating that they are more emotionally involved and dependent upon the relationship to meet their needs than their partner, and individuals who are less emotionally involved (i.e. withdrawing, or rejecting of influence) may be perceived by their partner as being more "in control" and less dependent upon the relationship. When a demand attempt is enacted and frequently met by partner withdrawal, this cyclical pattern of communication may become reinforced and intensified over time, and the demander is likely to feel increasingly frustrated and/or helpless due to his or her unrequited efforts (Byrne & Carr, 2000; Thorp, Krause , Cukrowicz, & Lynch, 2004; Uebelacker, Courtnage, & Whisman, 2003).

Several factors have been implicated in the associations between female demands and psychological distress, including the degree of relationship investment, partner

support, and partner dissatisfaction with division of household tasks (Horowitz & Damato, 1999; Thorp et al, 2004). Further, perceived inequality in benefitting from the relationship has been associated with increased emotional distress in dating relationships (Sprecher, Schmeeckle, & Felmlee, 2006; Welsh, Galliher, Kawaguchi, & Rostosky, 1999). However, an important consideration is whether dysfunctional power patterns such as demand/withdraw are specifically associated with individual depressive symptoms, or depressive symptoms merely exist as artifacts of broader patterns of *relationship* distress, consistent with recent findings (Baucom et al., 2007). Therefore, the current study will address the mixed associations between depression and dysfunctional power patterns, in investigating whether demand in the context of partner withdrawal or rejection predicts increases in depressive symptoms over time for the demander, even after controlling for other relationship factors, such as distress and satisfaction.

Potential Moderators of Power and Psychopathological Outcomes

Marital distress is often closely linked with the depressive symptoms of one or both partners (Beach & O'Leary, 1992). Therefore it is important to consider how relationship factors such as relationship quality, satisfaction, and romantic attachment, may moderate the association between dysfunctional power patterns and psychopathological outcomes. More specifically, the association between relationship dissatisfaction and depressive symptoms has been demonstrably stronger amongst *females* in close relationships, as supported by a meta-analytic review of community samples (Whisman & Beach, 2001). Tannen (1990) suggest that females place more emphasis on cultivating relationships and "talk" , thus female demanders may be particularly vulnerable to increases in

internalizing symptoms over time when their relationship needs are not being met by their partner.

The extant research suggests that females exhibit more demand behaviors more frequently in the context of partner conflict, and hence may be more susceptible to negative psychosocial outcomes than their male counterparts. Therefore, it is important to gain a better understanding as to why such gender differences in relationship power may exist. In fact, several different theories have been proposed, including both the social structural view and individual differences or personality perspective. The social structural view asserts that men traditionally hold more power in the marital relationship, due to historically possessing more economic resources and holding fewer household responsibilities. Thus, withdrawal and deflection of responsibility may occur more often on the part of the male because he typically can preserve the stereotypically male "one up position" by avoiding, rather than being receptive towards, the female's demands for change in the relationship (Jacobson, 1989). Conversely, the individual differences or personality perspective asserts that females may engage in more demand behavior due to societal influences upon them to place more value on affiliation and intimacy than their autonomy-driven male counterparts (Christensen, 1987).

Still other perspectives stand in contrast to the notion that males withdraw in order to maintain their one-up position in the relationship. More specifically, some researchers claim that males may engage in withdrawal behaviors in order to soothe their heightened physiological reactivity and discomfort in the face of conflict (Gottman & Levenson, 1988). Because men may generally experience more difficulty communicating their emotions in an evocative context, such as a partner disagreement, they may be more

likely to withdraw to attempt to avoid ongoing discomfort. Withdrawal may serve as a means by which individuals attempt to protect themselves from the negative emotional and physiological reactivity that may occur during negative exchanges with their partners. However, regardless of the withdrawing partner's *internal* emotional state, withdrawal may *outwardly* convey a disengagement and exertion of control over the disagreement, and a lack of concern for the other partner's intention. Despite these conflicting theoretical perspectives on the underlying motivations for such patterns, the notion that women more frequently engage in demand behaviors and men engage in withdrawing behaviors has been well substantiated in the literature.

Feminist theorists have emphasized the notion that patriarchal ideology, such as the husband's need for power and control, is one key risk factor in husband to wife partner violence. However, feminist perspectives largely minimize the role of *women* in the maintenance of aggressive relationships. This proposal considers the counterintuitive notion that if females are attempting to enact change through demand behaviors more frequently than males, they may in fact be *equally or more susceptible* to perpetrating partner aggression as their male counterparts. Although males commit more serious forms of violence, females may aggress through more relational means (Moretti, Holland, & McKay, 2001). According to a meta-analytic investigation, rates of physical partner violence perpetration are roughly equal across genders, although violence by stronger male partners is often more serious (Archer, 2000, Basile, 2004). Despite this knowledge, the traditional notion of male to female spousal battering continues to dominate the partner violence field (Basile). Therefore, this proposal will consider the

notion that attempts to enact change through demand attempts may predispose *women* to be at particular risk for aggressing against their romantic partners.

While the vast majority of research on relationship power dynamics has focused on the marital context, the negative implications of such interactions in dating couples also seem likely to be important. Yet researchers have largely shied away from research on adolescent dating relationships until more recently. This reluctance to empirically explore teen dating relationships has been due to beliefs that such relationships are transient and less important, and are merely reflective of the influence of other social contexts, such as parent and peer relationships (Collins, 2003). In contrast to these views, romantic relationships appear to play a particularly *important* role in teen psychosocial adjustment. In fact, adolescents in romantic relationships report more depressive symptoms than teens *not* in relationships, in one nationwide study of adolescents (Joyner & Udry, 2000). Further, researchers have found that adolescent relationships resemble adult relationships in terms of communication, commitment, demand/withdraw patterns, and rising co-habitation rates (Levesque, 1993; Nock, 1995, Vogel et al., 1999). Co-habitation has been identified as one specific risk factor for partner aggression; the impermanent yet intimate context of co-habitation may breed increased conflict for dating couples (Nock).

While teen dating relationships have received more empirical attention of late, investigative work has just begun to explore what specific *facets* of adolescent relationships may be associated with psychopathological functioning. For example, research on the association between relationship power dynamics and partner violence in dating relationships is scarce (Chung, 2005). Observational research on power dynamics

in dating relationships is even more limited. The research that has been conducted has found that dissatisfaction with relationship power is a predictor of dating violence, a finding similar to associations identified in marital relationships (Kaura & Allen, 2004, Ronfeldt, Kimerling, & Arias, 1998). Conversely, because dating relationships may be generally less intimate and more transient than *marital* relationships, dating couples may have less of an opportunity to establish ingrained power-related affective patterns (Kim, Capaldi, & Crosby, 2007). Furthermore, due to the relatively more superficial nature of dating relationships, dating couples may be less likely to discuss deep, emotionally charged issues that could breed attempts to assert power or engage one's partner. Therefore, the power processes commonly observed in marital conflict may be less prevalent in the context of dating relationships. Taken together, comparative literature on the nature of marital and dating relationships is in its infancy, and the risk and protective factors associated with dating relationships warrant further attention.

In investigating whether specific power processes manifest similarly across relationship contexts, the proposal findings may help to inform more effective couple intervention in several ways. First, it could highlight the importance of cultivating flexible gender role ideologies in the early stages of intimate relationships. Secondly, if power patterns are comparable in dating and marital relationships, this may highlight the importance of facilitating more adaptive communication patterns early on in one's relationship, in order to protect against the development of subsequent problematic behaviors, such as aggression and depressive symptoms.

Cultural Considerations

It is important to consider how culture and minority status may influence the interplay between relationship power dynamics and partner aggression, particularly considering that rates of domestic violence perpetration are often found to be higher among certain ethnic groups, such as African Americans and Latinos (West, 1997). Lower socioeconomic status, one of the most consistent risk factors for domestic violence, is overrepresented in minority families. Aggression may be more prevalent in poorer family contexts due to the stress associated with limited economic resources and the burdens of balancing work and family life (Carlson, 1984). Further, it is important to consider how a specific cultural identification, such as African American ethnicity, may be associated with relationship power dynamics. African American women are achieving greater economic and social mobility today, relative to their black male counterparts (McKinnon, 2003). This discrepancy in economic or social status within an African American couple may breed relationship conflict, particularly if Black males feel emasculated by their partner's relative success (La Taillade, 2006). In fact, African American relationships in which the male holds a traditional view of family structure and the female possesses a more prestigious occupation are at the *highest* risk for psychological and physical abuse (La Taillade & Mitchell, 2006). If these males are not obtaining traditional markers of success, such as economic and occupational stability, African American males partners may be at particular risk for engaging in negative relationship dynamics, such as the demand/withdraw pattern and aggressive behavior. Such behaviors likely serve as negative, compensatory means by which to assert power and control in their intimate relationships.

Further, one specific risk factor associated with Latin American family structure, *machismo,* may influence the prevalence of partner violence. *Machismo* is the expectation that males perform up to certain standards of hypermasculinity and external superiority, despite potential underlying feelings of inferiority (Flake & Forste, 2006; Ingoldsby & Smith, 1995). Thus, Latino men exhibiting machismo may feel particularly threatened by female dominance, or attempts to enact power during conflict, and may perpetrate higher levels of aggression towards their partners over time. In fact, Latina *dominant* decision-making, or the degree to which Latina women have the final say in household decisions, has been identified as a risk factor for partner victimization (Flake & Forste; Firestone, Harris, & Vega, 2003). However, while historical perceptions of Latin American family structure emphasize traditional gender roles, more contemporary viewpoints suggest that modern Puerto Rican woman are gaining more economic resources, and a greater "say" in the family structure, and Puerto Rican men are becoming more receptive to shifts in the traditional family hierarchy (McGoldrick, Giordano, & Garcia-Preto, 2005). Therefore, this proposal intends to investigate whether female demands exhibited within Latino couples are associated with increased risk for aggression victimization, despite the documented societal shifts towards a more egalitarian family structure. Taken together, gender and cultural identification are important considerations in the exploration of relationship power dynamics. The current study will examine how these demographic constructs moderate the associations between power processes and psychopathology across two diverse community samples.

Protective Factors

Although the above review has primarily focused on the risks associated with relationship power dynamics, the current study will also consider potential positive relationship factors that may moderate these risks. Researchers have characterized imbalance in affect or influence during partner conflict as representative of power imbalances in one's relationship (Gottman et al., 2002). The current proposal hypothesizes that the reverse is also true: *Reciprocal* engagement in an affect such as humor, validation, or affection, particularly in the context of partner conflict, may serve to "level the emotional playing field" and be used as a tool for diffusing tension surrounding power imbalance. Playfulness can be a means by which to attain increased intimacy, and can play an important role in autonomy-connection (Aune & Wong, 2002; Baxter, 1992). Shared humor is associated with higher levels of self-esteem and lower levels of perceived stress (Kuiper & Martin, 1993; Martin, Kuiper, Olinger, & Dance, 1993). Humor has also been demonstrated to reduce tension and aggressive tendencies, although research on these associations is outdated and lacks strong methodology (Gelkoph & Kreitler, 1996; Jurcova, 1998). In one observational study of couple functioning, divorce was predicted by both *lower* levels of husband and wife humor, and higher levels of deleterious affect such as contempt and defensiveness (Jacobson, Gottman, Gortner, Berns, and Shortt (1997). Positive affect has been associated with physiological soothing of the male partner, de-escalation of conflict, and subsequent marital happiness and stability (Gottman et al., 1998). Despite these important findings, research on the positive implications of intimacy and humor in an observational context is still quite preliminary, and the vast majority of couples researchers continue to concentrate on models of risk. Thus this proposal will examine the role of shared positive

affect during observed partner conflict as a *potential buffer* against the risks associated with dysfunctional power dynamics in the romantic context.

While the reviewed studies provide preliminary evidence as to power patterns pose risks to the psychological health of individuals in intimate relationships, they have been largely been restricted to self-report methods and concurrent associations. Christensen's work on demand-withdraw patterns often relies exclusively on the use of self-report measures of relationship communication, which may not accurately capture the dynamic, dyadic process of conflict negotiation in an unbiased fashion. Further, although the aforementioned models of power-related conflict patterns are widely disseminated, they are not without limitations. Specifically, controversy has arisen regarding the ability to replicate several of the affective process models in Gottman et al. (1998). More specifically, the rejection of influence pattern, failed to predict relationship satisfaction in a sample of young adult, at-risk married and co-habiting couples (Kim et al., 2007). Therefore, the current study intends to address these mixed results by examining whether rejection of influence is predictive of maladaptive outcomes, across a sample of newlywed *and* young adult dating couples. Findings from the current study will help to inform the degree to which such predictions can be replicated and generalized to couples of varying demographic and contextual characteristics. Further, no known studies to date have investigated the associations between the rejection of influence patterns and long-term intrapsychic outcomes, particularly in the context of dating relationships and *over time*.

This proposal will extend beyond the extant literature in examining the association between dynamic power processes in the context of romantic relationship

conflict and individual internalizing symptoms and aggressive behavior over time. Power processes during partner conflict are assessed in terms of two empirically-validated, specific sequences of affect, including both Christensen's "demand/withdraw" pattern and Gottman's "rejection of influence" model. Both sequences will be assessed in the context of a videotaped partner conflict task, and the psychological consequences of involvement in such power processes over time will be examined. In order to assess the generalizability of such associations, the researcher will investigate these questions utilizing longitudinal, multi-method assessments across two distinct samples. Sample 1 is comprised of a diverse selection of young adult dating couples in their early twenties and Sample 2 is comprised of newlyweds in their mid-late twenties, of predominantly Hispanic origin. In investigating these questions in samples of married and dating couples, we hope to better understand whether the dominance processes during partner conflict are similarly predictive of maladjustment across qualitatively different relationship contexts. It is particularly important to investigate the implications of relationship power in an ethnically diverse dating sample, as the extant literature on power in dating relationships has generally focused on predominantly Caucasian, college convenience samples.

Lastly, two different measurement strategies are used to provide the greatest degree of generalizability to findings. This study intends to capitalize upon the wide array of measures collected across both samples, in that it will examine how the same predictor variables (i.e., dysfunctional power patterns in the partner conflict task) capture a variety of relationship processes and outcomes of psychopathology across two distinct samples. While self reports of psychological and physical aggression will be assessed in

the dating sample, daily diary data of psychological aggression and conflict will be utilized in the newlywed sample, which helps to eliminate the confound of retrospective reporting. The current study will extend beyond examining concurrent associations between power and pathology by controlling for baseline internalizing symptoms within both samples, in order to assess whether power processes predict *relative increases* in psychopathology over time. By distinguishing adaptive from maladaptive aspects of partner conflict negotiation, the results intend to identify specific relationship dynamics that may be associated with increases and decreases in psychopathological functioning over time.

While it is important to acknowledge that the community samples under investigation are normative, and levels of psychopathology will not be as high as clinical samples, rates of aggressive behavior and internalizing symptoms in the dating sample are still quite substantial. Roughly ¼ of the dating sample at age 21 have endorsed physically aggressive behavior in their relationship, and 72% of the dating sample endorsed psychological aggression, an identified precursor to physical aggression. Further, 27% of the dating sample reported mild to moderate depression at age 21. Although the majority of the dating sample do not endorse diagnosable levels of depression at the first time point of assessment, mild to moderate symptoms are still considered to be evidence of significant intrapsychic dysfunction (Lewinsohn, Solomon, Seeley, & Zeiss, 2000). Findings may inform couple interventions which target the interplay between gender roles, power, partner violence and internalizing symptoms.

Three central hypotheses related to power processes during partner conflict across both samples will be examined:

Hypothesis 1: Dysfunctional power processes during partner conflict will be associated with perpetration of partner violence. More specifically, more frequent exhibition of demand behavior *in the context of partner withdrawal* during conflict will be associated with higher levels of partner aggression by the demander. More frequent rejection of influence behavior *in the context of partner attempts to influence* will be associated with higher levels of aggression by the rejecter.

Hypothesis 2: More frequent demonstration of "demand" or "attempts to influence" related affect during partner conflict *in the context of partner withdrawal or rejection of influence* will predict increases in internalizing symptoms for the demander over time.

Hypothesis 3: More frequent demand/withdraw and rejection of influence patterns will be associated with relationship dissolution over time.

Contextual factors (i.e. relationship status, quality, expressed positive affect) and demographic factors (i.e. ethnicity and gender) will moderate the association between dysfunctional power dynamics and psychopathological outcomes. For example, associations between power attempts and psychopathology will be particularly strong for females who report greater desire for intimacy or poor relationship satisfaction. These moderating factors will be tested and reported for each primary hypothesis.

In using the two samples, the overarching hypothesis is that similar associations between power processes and other outcomes will be observed across two different points of the lifespan and two different types of relationships. However, given this, it is also expected that certain aspects of each of these hypotheses will be particularly relevant in one sample or the other as outlined below:

Hypotheses expected to be most relevant to a specific Sample:

Hypothesis 1a: The association between demand and rejection of influence behavior and subsequent aggressive behavior will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample. Since the daily diary method used in the newlywed sample likely captures relationship processes more accurately than retrospective self report methods, the daily diary construct of aggression is hypothesized to be more closely linked to dysfunctional power patterns.

Hypothesis 2a: The association between demand/attempts to influence behaviors and subsequent depressive symptoms for the demanders will be particularly strongly confirmed in the dating sample. This prediction is based on the notion that the development and maintenance of romantic relationships is *particularly* central to psychological well-being and identity development in late adolescence and emergent adulthood.

Hypothesis 3a: The association between rejection of influence patterns and relationship dissolution will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample, based on previous research that failed to replicate such associations in a young adult sample of married and co-habiting couples.

Hypothesis 1b: The moderating role of positive affect in the associations between power processes and psychopathology will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample.

Hypotheses about Observable differences between samples:

We also expect to find a few differences across samples (in those areas where the samples use common measurement strategies):

Hypothesis 1c: Demand/withdraw and rejection of influence patterns will be exhibited less frequently during observed conflict in the dating sample, as compared to the newlywed sample.

Hypothesis 1d: The expression of positive reciprocal affect will be more frequently observed in the newlywed sample as compared to the dating sample.

Method: Dating Couples

Participants

Sample 1. This sample of 87 young adults and their romantic partners is drawn from a larger longitudinal investigation of 184 target participants assessed annually for the past 10 years that includes individuals not in romantic relationships. The mean age of participants is 21 years of age, 43% minority, 42% male, average length of dating relationship: 1.79 years. The current proposal intends to assess the subsample of 87 participants and their partners that have been dating for duration of three months or longer.

Procedure

The larger sample of 184 adolescents was recruited from the seventh and eighth grades at a public middle school drawing from suburban and urban populations in the southeastern United States. An initial mailing to parents of students in the relevant grades in the school gave them the opportunity to opt out of any further contact with the study. Only 2% of parents opted out of such contact. Of all families subsequently contacted by phone, 63% agreed to participate and had an adolescent who was able to come in with both a parent and a close friend. This sample appeared generally comparable to the overall population of the school in terms of racial/ethnic composition (37% non-White in sample vs. approximately 40% non-White in school) and socioeconomic status (mean household income = $44,900 in sample vs. $48,000 for community at large). The adolescents provided informed assent, and their parents provided informed consent before each interview session. The same assent/consent procedures were also used for collateral peers, romantic partners and parents. Interviews took place in private offices within a university academic building. All participants were paid for their participation.

Target participants and their romantic partners were approximately 21 years of age during the first wave of the current study. During the first wave, participants and their romantic partners first individually filled out a form that indicated three disagreements that they had as a couple, and rated the seriousness of the disagreement. Then, the research assistant consulted with the couple in order to decide upon a disagreement that both individuals were willing to discuss in a videotaped interaction task. If both individuals within the couple wrote down the same disagreement, that topic was designated as the discussion topic for the observational task. If all of their disagreements

were different, the target participant's most serious topic was selected, and the partner was consulted in order to ensure that both individuals were willing to discuss the designated topic. Then, couples participated in a videotaped conflict task, which lasted eight minutes. In the second wave of the current study that occurred approximately one year later, target participants filled out measures assessing psychopathology and relationship functioning.

Table 1. Overview of primary constructs and measures

Target-Partner Interactions **Time 1**	**Psychopathological Outcomes** **Time 2**
Relationship Power **Sample 1: Dating Young Adults** ❖ **Power Processes** (Partner Conflict Task-Specific Affect Coding System : **Obs**) **Dominance and Relative Relationship Power** (Network of Relationships Inventory**: T, P)** **Sample 2: Newlyweds** ❖ **Power Processes** (Partner Conflict Task-Specific Affect Coding System : **Obs**) ❖ **Desire for Relationship Change** (Areas of Change Questionnaire :**T,P)** **Hypothesized Moderators of Power Processes** **Sample 1: Dating Young Adults** ❖ **Romantic Attachment** (Experiences in Close Relationships **:T,P)** **Sample 2: Newlyweds** ❖ **Romantic Attachment** (Relationship BIS/BAS **:T,P)** **Reciprocal Positive Affect** **Sample 1: Dating Young Adults** ❖ **Positive Affect** Partner Conflict Task-Specific Affect Coding System (**Obs**) **Sample 2: Newlyweds** ❖ **Positive Affect**-Partner Conflict Task-Specific Affect Coding System (**Obs**)	**Relationship Maladjustment** **Sample 1: Dating Young Adults** ❖ **Jealousy(** Chronic Jealousy Scale:**T)** ❖ **Physical and Psychological Aggression(**Conflict Tactics Scale **:T, P)** **Sample 2: Newlyweds** ❖ **Jealousy, Physical aggression** (Areas of Change Questionnaire, : **T,P)** ❖ **Psychological aggression**: Complaints, Criticism, yelled, inconsiderate, intentionally ignored, increase in level of conflict, anger (Daily Diary:**T,P)** ❖ **Trust** (Trust Scale: **T,P)** **Internalizing Symptoms** **Sample 1: Dating Young Adults** ❖ **Depressive Symptoms** (Beck Depression Inventory **: T)** ❖ **Anxious Symptoms** (State-Trait Anxiety Inventory **: T)** **Sample 2: Newlyweds** ❖ **Depressve Symptoms** (Inventory to Diagnose Depression **:T, P)** **NOTE: Obs= observed/coded; T = Target participant report; P = Partner report** * Refer to Appendix B. for a copy of all measures used in the current study.

Measures

Relationship Predictors

Network of Relationships Inventory (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985) (Targets and their romantic partners report on the degree to which their partner makes decisions and is the "boss" in their romantic relationship. Subscale used: relative relationship power. The power subscale demonstrates good internal consistency (teen report α=.80, partner report α=.80).

Observed Conflict Task/ Specific Affect Coding System (SPAFF) - (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989). Romantic couples engaged in an observed disagreement task, and specific markers and sequences of affect will be coded by 2 teams of 5 independent, reliable coders who are currently being trained on this micro-analytic emotion coding system. Specific indicators of the demand/withdraw pattern interest were operationalized to be consistent with previous observational research on this pattern that has conceptualized "demand" behavior as discussion, blame, or pressure to change and "withdraw" behaviors as avoids, defends, or withdraws from discussion during videotaped partner conflict (Christensen & Heavey,1990). Thus, the current study operationalizes demand behaviors as either **criticism** (blaming, character attacks) **or domineering behavior** (patronizing, lecturing, incessant speech), and withdraw behaviors represented as **defensiveness** (minimizing problem, excuses) **or stonewalling** (active disengagement). Further, consistent with Gottman et al (1998), attempt to influence affect will be rated based on any expression of low level negative affect

(**sadness, fear/tension , whining, anger or domineering behavior** and rejection of influence affect will be rated based on the expression of **contempt , disgust, belligerence, stonewalling**, **defensiveness, or stonewalling behavior.** Lastly, the researcher will investigate the moderating role of positive, reciprocal communication patterns, such as **shared humor, affection, enthusiasm, validation, and interest.** Overall reliability between two graduate coders and trainer indicate α=.65, which indicates good reliability. See Table 2 for a list of the sequences utilized for the current study. Refer to Appendix N for a copy of the sequence sheet used for coding purposes.

Table 2. Theoretical and operationalized communication patterns during partner conflict

Partner Communication Patterns	Specific Coded Sequences
❖ Demand -Withdraw	❖ Criticism followed by Defensiveness or Stonewalling ❖ Domineering followed by Defensiveness or Stonewalling
❖ Rejection of Influence	❖ Low Level Negative Affect (Anger, Fear/Tension, Sadness, Whining, Domineering) followed by High Intensity Negative Affect (Contempt, Criticism, Belligerence, Defensiveness, Stonewalling, Disgust).
Reciprocal Positive Affect	❖ Humor, Affection, Enthusiasm, Validation, or Interest, followed by Humor, Affection, Enthusiam, Validation, or Interest

Table 3. Intraclass correlation coefficients

Intraclass Correlation Coefficients(ICC's) for Observational Coded Data		
Young Adults	**Behavioral Sequences**	**Newlyweds**
.63	Demand-Withdraw	.71
.62	Rejection of Influence	.64
.67	Reciprocal Positive Affect	.65
Young Adults	**Individual, Global Codes**	**Newlyweds**
.69	Affection	.82
.36	Anger	.45
.86	Belligerence	.72
.76	Contempt	.86
.79	Criticism	.80
.87	Defensiveness	.84
.90	Domineering	.84
.68	Fear	.79
.79	Humor	.89

.71	Interest	.69
.85	Sadness	.75
.90	Stonewalling	.60
.87	Validation	.85

Hypothesized Moderators of Power Processes

Desire for Intimacy/Relationship Quality-Experiences in Close Relationships (Brennan, Clark, Shaver, Simpson, & Rholes, 1998). Targets reported on their emotional and behavioral relational styles in romantic relationships more generally. Target participant self report of Anxious Attachment was used for the purposes of the current study. The anxiety subscale has high internal consistency (α=.94)

Relationship Assessment Scale (*Hendrick, Dicke, & Hendrick (1998*). Targets reported on their degree of satisfaction and contentment in their current relationship. The relationship satisfaction summary scale has high internal consistency (α=.85)

Aggression, and Relationship Maladjustment

Partner Aggression - Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979) (This 28-item measure was completed by target participants. Physical and psychological aggression subscales were used for the current study. The physical aggression subscale demonstrated excellent internal consistency (teen self report of aggression- α=.92, teen report of partner

aggression α=.90). The psychological aggression subscale demonstrates good internal consistency (teen self report of aggression- α=.79, teen report of partner aggression α=.72).

Jealousy- Chronic Jealousy Scale (White & Mullen, 1989) This 6-item self report measure assesses the degree to which an individual endorses jealousy responses. Target participants filled out this measure. The summary scale for this measure demonstrates good internal consistency (α=.81 for T1, α=.84 for T2).

Internalizing Symptoms

Depressive Symptoms- Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979). Target participants filled out this 21 item measure regarding the frequency of their depressive symptoms, over the course of the past week. The T1 and T2 summary scales indicate high internal consistency (α=.86,and .88, respectively).

Anxious Symptoms- State Trait Anxiety Inventory .(Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970). Target participants filled out this 20 –item measure regarding their experience of anxiety more generally. Trait subscale used for the current study, The T1 and T2 subscales demonstrate excellent internal consistency (α=.92 and .91, respectively).

Method: Newlyweds

Participants

Sample 2. The second sample is comprised of 114 Newlywed couples recruited through mailings via the Miami-Dade County marital registry. The mean age is 28.19 for

male partners, 26.42 for female partners, average length of marriage=4.42 months, ranging from .5 to 8 months. Average length of dating prior to marriage: 2.5 years. Wives were 58% Hispanic-Americans, 22% European-Americans, 11% African-Americans, 9% Asian-American and Pacific Islanders, or Native Americans. Wives' average level of Income was approximately $25, 000. Husbands were 49% Hispanic-Americans, 36% European-Americans, 7% African-Americans, 8% Asian-American and Pacific Islanders, or Native Americans. Husbands' average level of Income was approximately $45, 000. Couples were required to be married six months or less to be eligible. Couples were excluded from the larger project if they (a) had children from current or prior relationships, (b) did not speak English at home, (c) had plans to move away from the Miami-Dade area within the next two years, or (d) one or both partners had been previously married.

Procedure

The larger longitudinal investigation was comprised of three laboratory visits that were conducted approximately annually. The current study assessed emotionality and relationship functioning measures through self-report and observational methods at Time 1, and assessed relationship and intrapsychic outcomes through daily diary methods and self report methods approximately two years later, at Time 3. For the purposes of the current study, we will refer to the third time point from the larger investigation as Time 2, as we only investigated the association between Time 1 and Time 3 in the current study. At the first laboratory visit, couples independently filled out additional measures in separate rooms. Couples then participated in a series of videotaped observational tasks,

each lasting for 15 minutes. One topic of disagreement was chosen by the husband, the other by the wife. Couples were instructed to discuss the topic as if they were at home, with no requirement or instruction that one spouse lead the conversation (Gottman, 1994). Topics were chosen using a measure that lists common marital disagreements. Each spouse indicated the three topics they fought about the most, on a scale from 0 ("we never fight") to 100 ("we fight all the time"). The highest ranked item was chosen for each spouse's conflict task. For example, if a wife rated "spend more time with my family" as 100, that topic was chosen for her conflict task. Average rating for top area of disagreement was 69.15 (SD=25.48, range 10-100) for husbands and 74.12 (SD=22.80, range 12-100) for wives (paired *t-test* = -1.74, $p < .09$). The task that will be the focus of the current study is the wife's chosen disagreement topic. Informed consent was given, and confidentiality was assured to all participants.

Daily diary procedure.

Following the laboratory conversations, each partner was provided with a PDA handheld device (i.e., Handspring Visor™ Platinum) and was instructed in recording relationship-related experiences in the evening approximately 1 hour before going to sleep for 21 consecutive evenings. Participants were trained in the use of the Experience Sampling Program (ESP; Feldman Barrett, 2000) for PDAs running the Palm OS®, which was used for the presentation of the daily diary items. The training session consisted of an introduction to basic ESP diary entry procedures on the PDA (e.g., use of the stylus for pointing and clicking on the screen of the device) and a trial of the diary protocol that led participants through each diary item to ensure understanding and clarity.

Measures

Relationship Predictors

Relationship Dominance-Areas of Change Questionnaire (Weiss & Birchler, 1975). Both partners filled out this measure on specific domains they would like their partner to change.

Observed Conflict Task/ Specific Affect Coding System (SPAFF) (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989). Specific behavioral and affective markers were coded during the context of videotaped partner conflict. Specific indicators described above in Sample 1 measures section.

Hypothesized Moderators of Dominance Influences

*Desire for Intimacy/Relationship Quality-Relationship Incentive and Threat Sensitivity Scales (*original measure*: Carver & White, 1994: adapted for relationships by Laurenceau).* Both partners reported on their own approach and avoidance motivations in the context of their specific romantic relationship. Only the avoidance motivation was used for the purposes of the current study. The relationship threat sensitivity (avoidance motivation) has adequate internal consistency (α=.66 for husbands, α=.71 for wives).

Relationship Satisfaction- Quality of Marriage Index (QMI; Norton, 1983). Both partners reported on their own level of satisfaction and happiness in the relationship. The scale has good internal consistency (α=.88 for both husbands and wives).

Aggression, and Relationship Maladjustment

Experiences of Anger and Psychological Abuse- Experience Sampling Program (Feldman Barrett, 2000; Feldman Barrett, & Gross, 2001). Both romantic partners recorded their daily emotional experiences including but are not limited to: anger towards partner, increases in relationship conflict, partner hurt or wronged, criticized, rejected, or yelled at you. The verbal aggression that was aggregated yielded excellent internal consistency (α=.88 for T1 husbands, α=.89 for T1 wives; α=.82 for T2 husbands, α=.79 for T2 wives).

*Trust-The Trust Scale (*Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna,, 1985*).* This 18-item measure assesses the degree to which an individual feels s/he can trust and depend upon his or her partner. The measure demonstrated good to excellent internal consistency (α=.78 for T1 husbands, .94 for T2 husbands; α=.83 for T1 wives, .93 for T2 wives).

Internalizing Symptoms

*Depressive Symptoms- Inventory to Diagnose Depression (*Zimmerman & Coryell, 1987). (Both partners filled out this measure regarding the frequency of their depressive symptoms, over the course of the past week. The summary scale indicates good internal consistency (α=.86 for T1 husbands, .82 for T3 husbands; α=.84 for T1 wives, 78 for T2 wives).

Statistical Analyses

Because of sample size limitations across both samples, highly constrained models were tested at all times. Distinct hypotheses unique to each sample were examined separately; statistical analyses will not be aggregated across samples. First, basic, descriptive analyses of the data were conducted in order to gain a broad overview of the nature and limitations of the data prior to moving on to more advanced data analytic techniques. When the same constructs (i.e. depressive symptoms) are assessed across time points, Ordinary Least Squares regression with residualized change scores was used to assess predictors of specific types of change across time. Primary data analyses utilized hierarchical regression analyses, in order to assess what specific power sequences and moderating factors best predicted increases or decreases in partner aggression and internalizing symptoms over time.

Data analyses compared gender stereotypical or more "traditional" sequences (female demand-male withdraw) and "non-traditional sequences" (male demand-female withdraw) in order to assess whether the theoretically derived gendered communication patterns exist in the current data. Additionally, the current study examined the moderating association of reciprocal positive affect in the context of power processes. Lastly, moderating factors such as gender, minority status, relationship quality, and duration were examined. Refer to Figure 1 for an illustration of one of the chief hypothesized pathways of the demand withdraw pattern and the development of increases in depressive symptoms over time. Refer to Table 4 for a summary of the specific hypotheses and corresponding analytic strategies for the current study.

Table 4. Proposal hypotheses and analytic strategy

Type of Hypothesis	Specific Hypotheses (Abbreviated Descriptions)	Analytic Approaches
A. Longitudinal Associations between psychopathology and dysfunctional power patterns	<u>Perpetration of partner violence associated with</u>: I. A Demand behaviors in the context of partner withdrawal during conflict II. B. Rejection of influence behaviors during observed partner conflict <u>Increases in depressive symptoms predicted by</u>: I. A. Demand behaviors in the context of partner withdrawal during conflict II. B. Attempt to influence behavior during observed partner conflict <u>Relationship dissolution predicted by:</u> I. Demand/withdraw and rejection of influence patterns during conflict	Step I. OLS Regression
B. Moderated Associations	I. A. Demand behaviors X female gender → more severe depressive symptoms for demander II. B. Demand behaviors X Hispanic identification X Female gender → greater violence victimization III. C. Demand/withdraw behaviors X African American status X male gender → greater violence perpetration IV. D. Power patterns X poor relationship quality/insecure romantic attachment → more severe psychopathology V. E. Shared positive affect X Power patterns → less severe psychopathological outcomes VI. F. Shared positive affect X high	Step I. OLS Regression

	relationship quality → less severe psychopathological outcomes	
C. Hypotheses specific to a sample	I. A. Demand and rejection of influence behavior will be more closely associated with daily diary accounts of psychological aggression than self-reported measures of relationship functioning. II. B. The association between demand/attempts to influence and subsequent depressive symptoms will be particularly strongly confirmed in the dating sample. III. C. The association between rejection of influence patterns and relationship dissolution will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample. IV. D. The moderating role of positive affect in the associations between power processes and psychopathology will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample.	Step I. OLS Regression
D. Predicted Differences between samples	I. A. Demand/withdraw and rejection of influence patterns will be exhibited less frequently during observed conflict in the dating sample II. B. The expression of reciprocal affect will be more frequently observed in the newlywed sample as compared to the dating sample.	Step I. T-Test .

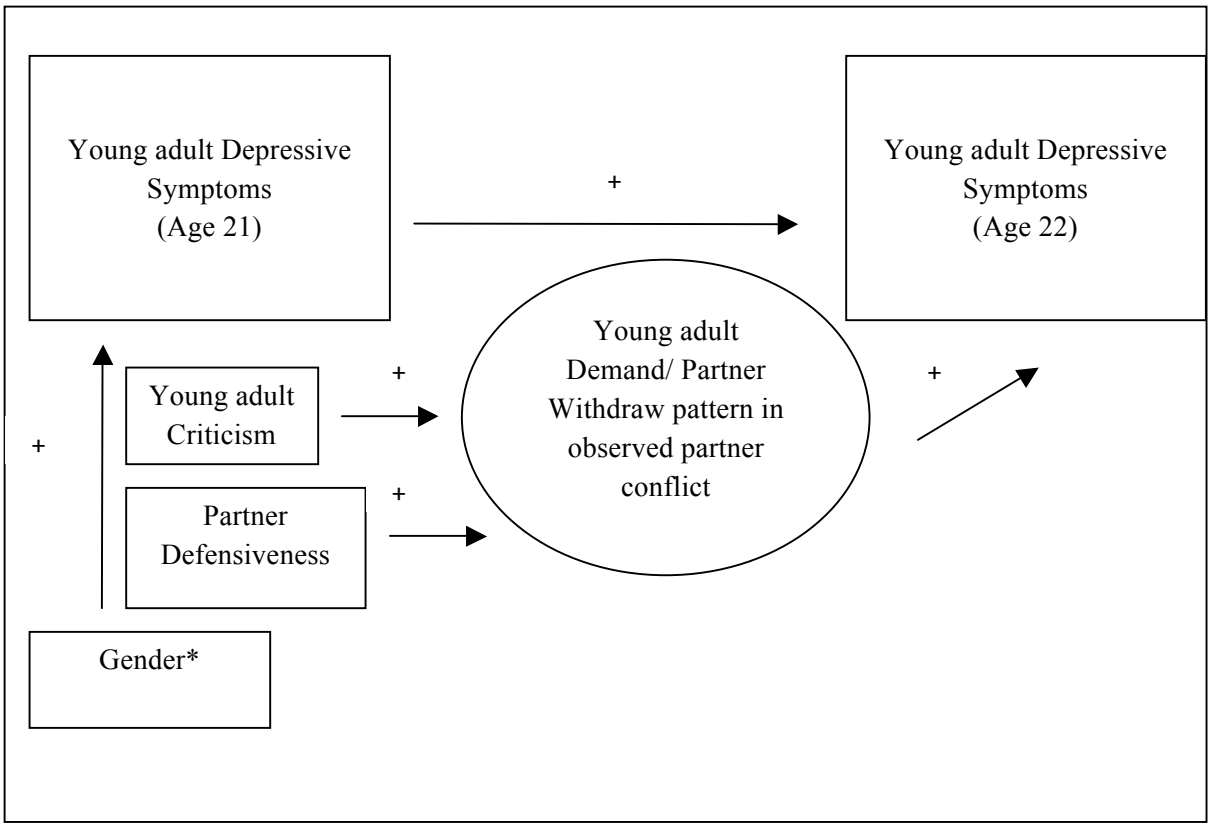

Figure 1. Predictions of depressive symptoms from demand-withdraw patterns in observed partner conflict

An important consideration is how the associations between power processes and psychopathology are similar or different across the dating and marital samples. Basic descriptive analyses and T-tests will be conducted, in order to examine how the means and variances of observed affect during conflict compare across relationship contexts. Such analyses will help to elucidate whether couples are expressing approximately similar ranges of positive and negative emotionality during conflict in the dating relationships as compared to the marital relationships.

Missing Data. To the extent that the amount of missing data for any given analysis is non-trivial, assessments of the nature of missingness (e.g., missing at random, MAR) and its impact was made using current techniques for modeling incomplete longitudinal data within the analytic framework described above. Missing data was handled with what are increasingly standard procedures involving full information maximum likelihood analyses (for "MAR" data), by including covariates for variables systematically predictive of missing data, and with multiple imputation procedures in the Mplus 4.1 program.

Results: Dating Couples

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and correlations with demographic variables (i.e., income) were computed for all variables and are presented in Tables 5 through 8. Correlations between all primary and demographic variables are presented in Tables 9-11. Numerous main effects were found for gender and family income in relation to the power patterns, moderators and psychopathology outcomes examined in Sample 1, therefore these demographic variables were controlled for in all regression analyses in hypotheses I-III for the young adult dating sample. Possible moderating effects of these demographic factors on the relationships were also examined, across all three central hypotheses. All significant moderating effects are reported below.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for coded sequences during observed partner conflict

Coded Target Participant-Partner Sequences(Obs)	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*r* with Pcpt Income
Participant Demand/Partner Withdraw, Time 1	87	.58	.67	-.17
Partner Demand/Participant Withdraw, Time 1	87	.57	.55	-.31**
Participant Attempt to Influence/Partner Rejection of Influence, Time 1	87	.95	.80	-.15
Partner Attempt to Influence/Participant Rejection of Influence, Time 1	87	.87	.69	-.34**
Participant Initiated Positive Reciprocation, Time 1	87	.60	.64	.18^{+}
Partner initiated Positive Reciprocation, Time 1	87	.63	.61	.17

*Note: ** p < .01; * p < .05;* $^{+}$*p<.10; Gender scored male=1, female=2,:* Obs: Videotaped Observation.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics for relationship quality outcome variables included in hypothesis I and III

Hypothesis I & III Outcomes	N	Mean	SD	*r* with Pcpt Income
Participant Psychological Aggression, Time 1(C)	85	11.16	4.91	-.05
Partner Psychological Aggression, Time 1(C)	88	11.00	4.35	-.01
Participant Physical Aggression, Time 1(C)	85	3.77	.10	-.18+
Partner Physical Aggression, Time 1 (C)	85	3.76	.10	-.16
Participant Jealousy, Time 2 (T)	80	12.85	4.62	-.01
Participant Jealousy, Time 1 (T)	83	10.71	4.85	-.02

*Note: ** p ≤ .01; * p ≤ .05; * $^{+}$*p≤.10; Gender scored male=1, female=2 ,T=Target Participant report,C=Combined Participant and Partner report.*

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics for internalizing distress outcome variables included in Hypothesis II

Hypothesis II Outcomes	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*r* with Pcpt Income
Participant BDI Depressive Symptoms, Time 2 (T)	80	4.40	5.65	-.03
Participant BDI Depressive Symptoms, Time 1 (T)	85	5.87	6.20	.06
Participant STAI Trait Anxious Symptoms, Time 2 (T)	79	35.84	9.96	.02
Participant STAI Trait Anxious Symptoms, Time 1 (T)	84	35.03	11.28	.00

*Note: ** p < .01; * p < .05; $^{+}$p<.10;* T=*Target participant report,*

Table 8. Descriptive statistics for moderator variables included in hypothesis I,II & III

Moderators	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*r* with Pcpt Income
Participant Anxious Romantic Attachment, Time 1 (T)	87	50.81	22.61	.26*
Participant Relationship Satisfaction, Time 1 (T)	88	30.52	3.91	-.09

Note: ** p <.01; * p < .05; $^{+}$p<.10 ;* T= *Target participant report.

Table 9. Pearson correlation coefficients for observed prtr sequences and relationship distress outcome variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1. Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw(T1)	1.00	.37***	.85***	.35***	-.30**	-.34***	.23*	.23*	.10	.16	.24*	.04
2. Prtr Demand Pcpt Withdraw(T1)		1.00	.47***	.80***	-.35***	-.43***	-.02	.07	.12	.14	.12	.15
3. Pcpt Attempt to Influence (T1)			1.00	.47***	-.38***	-.42***	.17+	.18+	.09	.08	.24*	.17
4. Prtr Attempt to Influence(T1)				1.00	-.41***	-.46***	-.04	.05	.01	.04	.11	.15
5. Pcpt Initiated Positive Affect(T1)					1.00	.92***	-.12	-.01	-.16	-.06	-.22*	-.06
6. Prtr Initiated Positive Affect(T1)						1.00	-.15	-.03	-.14	-.08	-.16	-.09
7. Pcpt Psychological Aggression(T1)							1.00	.74***	.42***	.23*	.14	.11
8. Prtr Psychological Aggression(T1)								1.00	.23*	.30**	-.01	.22+
9. Pcpt Physical Aggression(T1)									1.00	.78***	.20+	.13
10. Prtr Physical Aggression (T1)										1.00	.09	.15
11. Pcpt Jealousy (T1)											1.00	.24*
12. Pcpt Jealousy (T2)												1.00

*$^{+}p \leq .10$ *p <.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001*

Table 10. Pearson correlation coefficients for observed prtr conflict sequences, internalizing distress outcome variables, and moderator variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1. Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw(T1)	1.00	.37***	.85***	.35***	-.30**	-.34***	.12	-.02	.13	-.01	.08	-.10
2. Prtr Demand Pcpt Withdraw (T1)		1.00	.46***	.80***	-.35***	-.43***	.02	-.05	-.04	-.08	.09	.10
3. Pcpt Attempt to Influence(T1)			1.00	.47***	-.38***	-.42***	.12	.06	.14	.09	.17	-.09
4. Prtr Attempt to Influence(T1)				1.00	-.41***	-.46***	.18+	.07	.08	.05	.10	.05
5. Pcpt Initiated Positive Affect(T1)					1.00	.92***	.05	-.09	-.07	-.06	-.16	-.14
6. Prtr Initiated Positive Affect(T1)						1.00	.02	-.08	-.07	-.05	-.19+	-.13
7. Pcpt Depressive Sxs (T1)							1.00	.35**	.69***	.50***	.34**	-.05
8. Pcpt Depressive Sxs (T2)								1.00	.32**	.51***	.12	.11
9. Pcpt Anxious Sxs (T1)									1.00	.67***	.40***	.09
10. Pcpt Anxious Sxs (T2)										1.00	.30**	.09
11. Pcpt Anxious Attachment(T1)											1.00	-.04
12. Pcpt Relationship Satisfaction (T1)												1.00

$^{+}p \leq .10$ *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Table 11. Pearson correlation coefficients for moderator and outcome variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1. Pcpt Psychological Aggression (T1)	1.00	.74***	.42***	.23*	.14	.11	.26*	-.02	.20+	.02	.21*	.06
2. Prtr Psychological Aggression(T1)		1.00	.23*	.30**	-.01	.22+	.23*	.02	.07	-.02	.09	-.19+
3. Pcpt Physical Aggression(T1)			1.00	.78***	.20+	.13	.05	-.07	.13	.13	.20+	-.01
4. Prtr Physical Aggression(T1)				1.00	.09	.15	.12	-.01	.10	.14	.14	-.08
5. Pcpt Jealousy (T1)					1.00	.24*	.08	.03	.21*	.06	.27**	.20+
6. Pcpt Jealousy (T2)						1.00	.09	.21+	.20+	.16	.25*	. 01
7. Pcpt Depressive Sxs (T1)							1.00	.35**	.69***	.50***	.34**	-.05
8. Pcpt Depressive Sxs (T2)								1.00	.32**	.51***	.12	.11
9. Pcpt Anxious Sxs (T1)									1.00	.67***	.40***	.09
10. Pcpt Anxious Sxs (T2)										1.00	.30**	.09
11. Pcpt Anxious Attachment (T1)											1.00	-.04
12.Pcpt Relationship Satisfaction(T1)												1.00

$^{+}p \leq .10$ *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Results of t-tests comparing mean levels of all variables of interest on both racial/ethnic minority status and gender revealed the following significant differences. First, mean levels of target participant initiated positive affect were higher for non-minority participants (*M*=.74, *SD*=.71) than minority participants (*M*=.56, *SD*=.46). Mean levels of partner initiated positive affect were also higher for non-minority participants (*M*=.97, *SD*=.67) than minority participants (*M*=.59, *SD*=.46). Mean levels of participant demand partner withdraw patterns were lower for non-minority participants (*M*=.44, *SD*=.45) than minority participants (*M*=.78, *SD*=.62). Mean levels of partner demand participant withdraw patterns were also lower for non-minority participants (*M*=.44, *SD*=.40) than minority participants (*M*=.75, *SD*=.67). Mean levels of partner attempt to influence participant rejection of influence patterns were also lower for non-minority participants (*M*=.69, *SD*=.47) than minority participants (*M*=1.11, *SD*=.85). Finally, mean levels of participant physical aggression were lower for non-minority participants (*M*=3.75, *SD*=.03) than minority participants (*M*=3.80, *SD*=.15). No other significant differences were found based on ethnic minority status.

Further, t-tests comparing mean levels of all variables on gender revealed only the following significant difference. Mean levels of target verbal aggression were higher for female participants (*M*=12.32, *SD*=5.42) than male participants (*M*=9.79, *SD*=3.87).

Lastly, results of t-tests comparing mean levels of all variables on the dichotomous outcome variable that assesses relationship break-up indicated that mean levels of participant relationship satisfaction were higher for those individuals whose relationship remained intact over time (*M*=31.59, SD=2.66) as compared to those who experienced a break up with their partner (29.70, SD=4.31).

Primary Analyses

Multiple regression. Hierarchical regression analyses were run for all of the hypotheses included below. In these models, I first entered demographic variables (gender and household income). Next, I entered the outcome construct at baseline to predict relative change models, when the construct of interest had been assessed at both baseline and follow up waves. Finally, I entered the primary hypothesized predictor variable. All standardized B- weights (β) from these models are reported, and statistical significance is noted in every case where $p < .10$. All main effects that were significant at the .01 level or higher are presented in tables across all hypotheses. To help guard against Type I error given the large number of analyses conducted, all findings that were significant only at the .05 level are described in text only, and are neither tabled nor interpreted.

Interactions. Interactions for both gender and specific ethnic minority status(African American vs. Caucasian) were tested for all multiple regression analyses in all hypotheses. Further, specific relationship factors (i.e., romantic attachment anxiety, relationship satisfaction, and reciprocal expressed positive affect) were tested as moderators for all multiple regression analyses in all hypotheses. Given the high degree of overlap between household income and ethnic minority status, I controlled for ethnic minority status in place of household income for all regression analyses that tested specific minority status as a moderating variable. In the figures used to depict interactions significant at the .01 level, I have standardized variables with a mean of 0 and a standard

deviation(SD) of 1, and the lines reflect predicted equations for individuals 1 SD above or 1 SD below the mean on the moderating variable.

In terms of more detailed information regarding ethnic make-up, 56% of the couples are both Caucasian, 28% of couples are both African American, and 16 % of the couples are comprised of couples in which at least one individual is of minority status. For the purposes of clarity and specificity, the 16 % of couples in which the dyad were not of the same ethnic status were dropped in the analyses in which ethnic identification was investigated as a chief moderator.

Hypothesis I: Power Patterns and Aggression

The first major hypothesis was that more frequently observed dysfunctional power patterns during partner conflict would be associated with greater relationship distress, including greater partner aggression and jealousy.

I. A. Concurrent Associations between Demand Withdraw and Partner Aggression.

First, it was hypothesized that more frequent exhibition of demand behavior in the context of partner withdrawal would predict greater partner perpetration of aggression on the part of the demander. Results supported this hypothesis, as more frequent participant demand partner withdraw patterns during observed conflict predicted higher levels of target participant's verbal aggression towards their partner (β=.21, p<.05). Additionally, more frequent participant demand- partner withdraw patterns during observed conflict predicted *partner's* verbal aggression towards the target participant (β=.23, p<.05). However, demand -withdraw patterns were not significantly related to participant or

partner perpetration of physical aggression in the romantic context (β=.06, p=.57; β=.11, p=.33, respectively).

Further, as noted above, several variables were hypothesized to be moderators of the association between demand- withdraw patterns and partner aggression, including demographic variables (i.e., gender, specific ethnicity) and specific relationship factors (i.e., romantic attachment anxiety, relationship satisfaction, and reciprocal positive affect).

First, gender and ethnic minority status were hypothesized to moderate the association between demand withdraw patterns and aggression, such that the association between demand withdraw and perpetration of partner aggression was proposed to be particularly strongest for African American males. As part of this hypothesis, African American participants were examined both in relation to Caucasians, and in relation to all others (Caucasians and non-African American minority participants). Results did not support this hypothesis, as a test of the three-way interaction between male gender, African American status, and demand withdraw patterns on partner aggression yielded non-significant results. Further, a test of the two-way interaction between gender and demand withdraw patterns on partner aggression yielded non-significant results. However, a moderating effect of ethnic minority status was found, such that, for African American individuals, more frequent participant demand–partner withdraw patterns were associated with higher levels of physical aggression victimization of target participants (β=.23, p<.05).

Next, it was hypothesized that romantic attachment would moderate the association between demand- withdraw and partner aggression, such that more frequent

demand -withdraw patterns would be more strongly associated with participant perpetration of aggression for participants with high attachment anxiety vs. low attachment anxiety. Results partially supported this hypothesis; more frequent participant demand= partner withdraw patterns were associated with greater physical aggression *victimization* for participants who endorsed high romantic attachment anxiety vs. low romantic attachment anxiety (see Table 12 and Figure 2).

Table 12. The interaction of participant attachment anxiety and participant demand -withdraw patterns predicting participant physical aggression victimization

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender(Male=1, Female =2)	-.04	-.10		
Pcpt. Household Income	-.15	-.17	.03	.03
Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw	.14	.16	.01	.04
Pcpt Attachment Anxiety	.18	.18	.03	.07
Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw* Pctpt Attachment Anxiety	.26**	.26**	.06**	.13*

Note: *$p<.05$. ** $p\leq.01$. Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

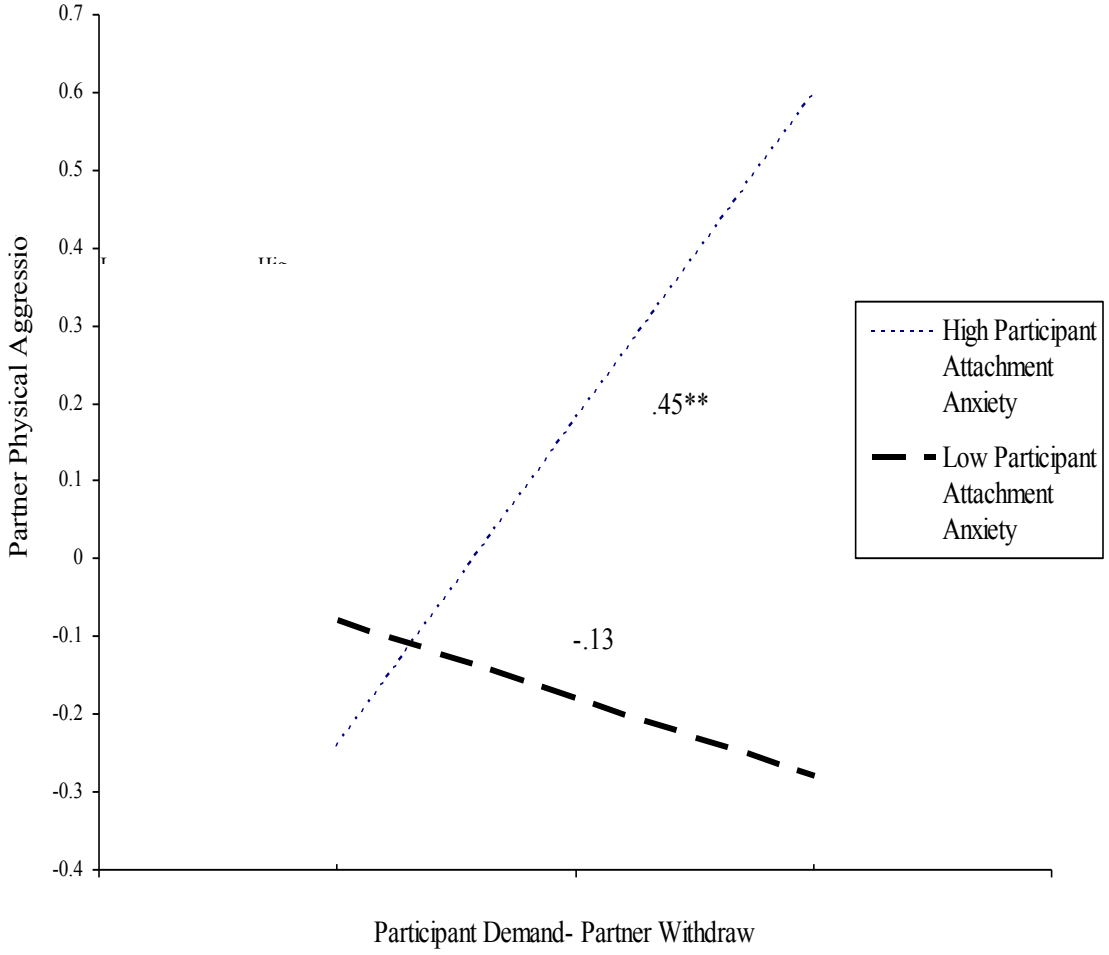

Figure 2. Moderating effect of participant attachment anxiety on participant demand- partner withdraw patterns in predicting participant physical aggression victimization

Further, it was hypothesized that perceived relationship satisfaction would moderate the association between partner aggression and demand withdraw patterns, such that more frequent demand withdraw patterns would be less strongly associated with perpetration of partner aggression for participants with high relationship satisfaction vs. low relationship satisfaction. Results did not support the hypothesis; more frequent participant demand- partner withdraw patterns were associated with *higher* levels of

partner verbal aggression for participants who reported high relationship satisfaction vs. low relationship satisfaction *(*see Table 13 and Figure 3). More frequent participant demand- partner withdraw patterns were also associated with higher levels of *participant* perpetration of verbal aggression for participants who reported high relationship satisfaction vs. low relationship satisfaction (β=.24, p<.05).

Table 13. The interaction of participant relationship satisfaction and participant demand-partner withdraw patterns predicting partner verbal aggression

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender(Male=1, Female =2)	.03	-.08		
Pcpt. Household Income	-.01	.04	.00	.00
Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw	.23*	.23*	.05*	.05
Pcpt Relationship Satisfaction	-.18^{+}	-.20^{+}	.03^{+}	.08
Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw * Pctpt Relationship Satisfaction	.28**	.28**	.08**	.16*

Note: $^{+}$ p<.10. *p<.05. ** p<.01. Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

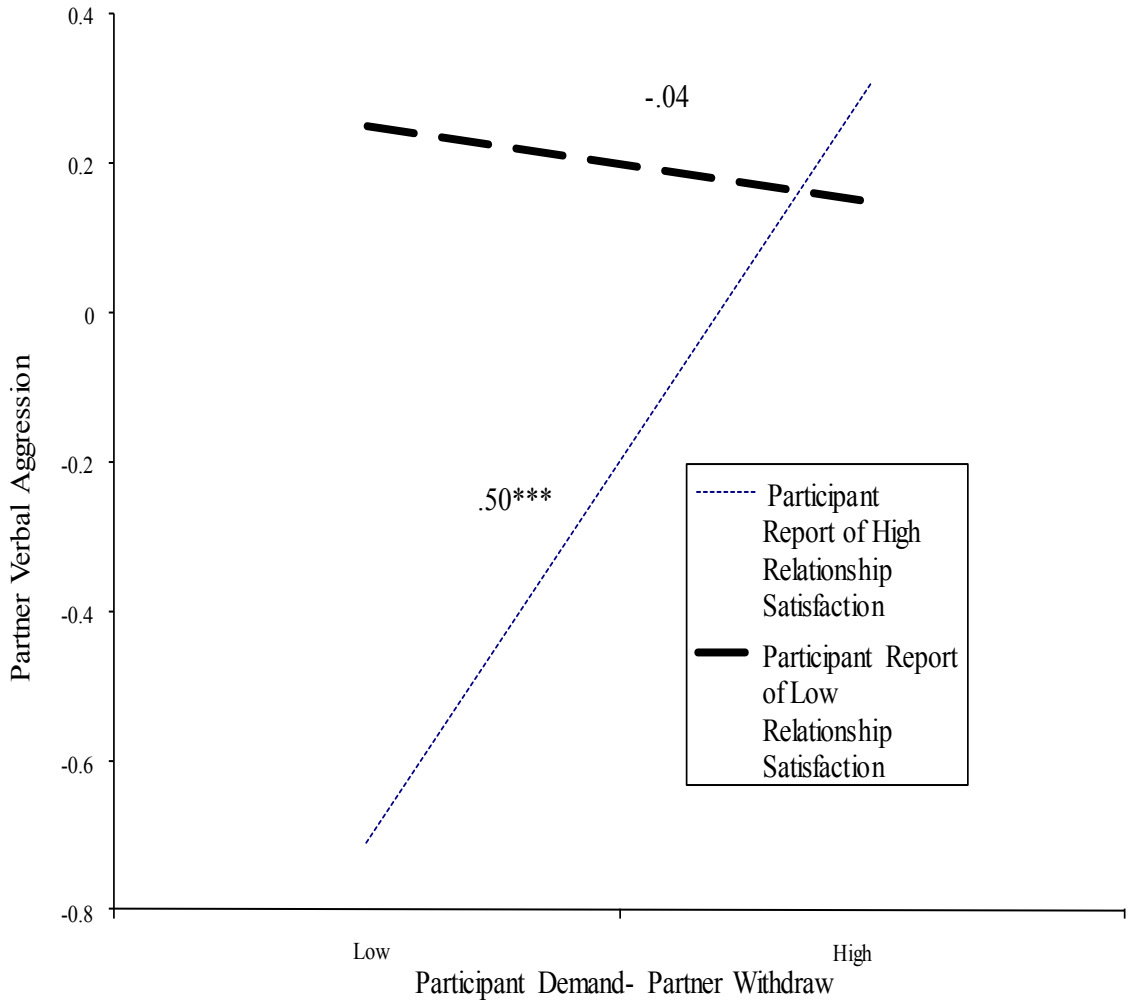

Figure 3. Moderating effect of participant relationship satisfaction on participant demand- partner withdraw patterns in predicting partner verbal aggression perpetration

Further, it was hypothesized that the expression of reciprocal positive affect within a romantic dyad would moderate the association between demand- withdraw and partner aggression, such that more frequent demand -withdraw patterns would be less

strongly associated with partner perpetration of aggression for participants with high expressed positive affect during observed conflict vs. low expressed positive affect. Results did not support the hypothesis; more frequent participant demand- partner withdraw patterns were associated with *higher* levels of partner physical aggression for partners who initiated high levels of reciprocal positive affect (see Table 14 and Figure 4). More frequent participant demand- partner withdraw patterns were also associated with higher levels of partner physical aggression for participants who initiated high levels of positive affect (β=.29, p<.05). Lastly, more frequent participant demand -partner withdraw patterns were associated with higher levels of participant physical aggression for partners who initiated high levels of reciprocal positive affect (β=.33, p<.05).

Table 14. The interaction of participant positive affect and participant demand-partner withdraw patterns predicting partner physical aggression

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender(Male=1, Female =2)	-.05	-.03		
Pcpt Household Income	-.15	-.20^{+}	.02	.02
Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw	.14	.35**	.02	.04
Prtr Initiated Reciprocal Positive Affect, Age 21	-.03	.23	.00	.04
Pcpt Demand Prtr Withdraw * Prtr Positive Affect	.40**	.40**	.08**	.12^{+}

Note $^{+}$ p<.10. *p<.05. ** p<.01: Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

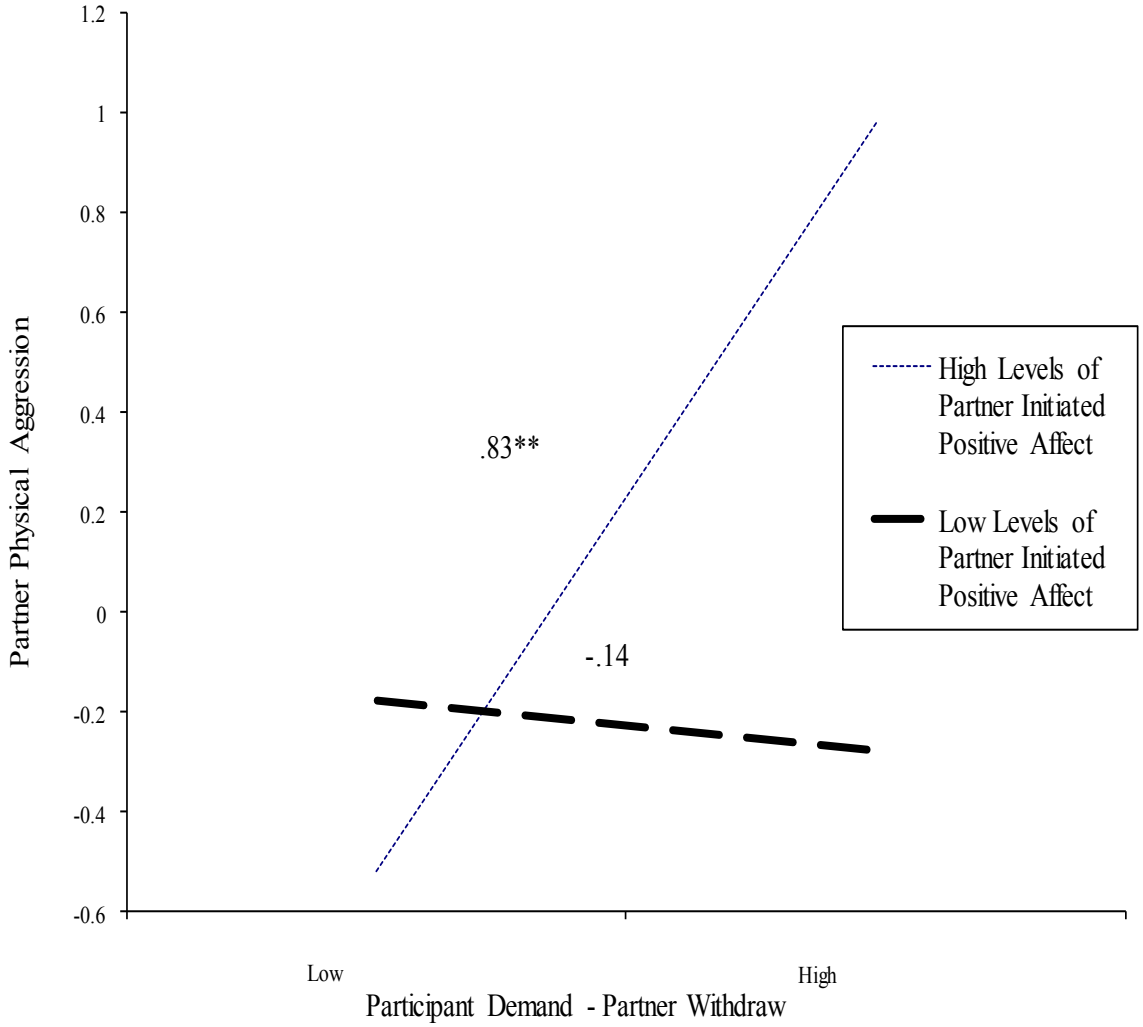

Figure 4. Moderating effect of partner positive affect on participant demand-partner withdraw patterns in predicting partner physical aggression

In sum, there was partial support for the hypothesis that greater demand behaviors in the context of partner withdrawal would predict more frequent aggressive behaviors. Specifically, links were found between participant demands and participant verbal

aggression, as well as participant demands and partner verbal aggression. Partial support was found for the moderating effect of attachment anxiety, in that participant demand behaviors were associated with greater physical aggression victimization for those participants who endorsed high attachment anxiety. Partial support was found for the moderating role of ethnic minority status, such that, for African American couples, participant demand-partner withdraw behaviors was associated with great physical aggression victimization of participants. Hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of reciprocal positive affect and relationship satisfaction were not supported. In fact, there was moderate support for results contrary to the hypothesis; demand behaviors were more strongly linked with partner aggression for those individuals with high positive affect and high relationship satisfaction.

I. B. Longitudinal Associations between Demand Withdraw and Relative Increases in Jealousy.

It was hypothesized that more frequent demand-withdraw behavior would predict relative increases in self reported jealousy over time by the demander. In this hypothesis, I controlled for demographic variables and baseline jealousy. Results of hierarchical regression analyses did not support the hypothesis. More frequent participant demand-partner withdraw patterns were not associated with relative increases in participant jealousy over time (β=-.01, p=.91. Further, more frequent partner demand- participant withdraw patterns were not associated with relative increases in participant jealousy(β=.14, p=.26) Lastly, none of the hypothesized moderators (i.e., gender, ethnicity, attachment anxiety, relationship satisfaction, positive affect) interacted with

demand -withdraw patterns to predict relative increases in target participant jealousy over time. In sum, no support was found for hypotheses relating to demand- withdraw patterns and jealousy.

C. Concurrent Associations between Rejection of Influence and Partner Aggression.

Further, it was hypothesized that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be associated with greater partner aggression by the individual in the rejecting role. Results partially supported this hypothesis, as the association between participant attempt to influence- partner rejection of influence patterns and partner perpetration of verbal aggression towards the target participant approached significance (β=.18, p<.10). However, participant attempt- partner rejection of influence patterns were not significantly related to partner physical aggression (β=.06, p<.61). Further, partner attempt-participant rejection of influence patterns were not significantly related to participant perpetration of verbal aggression (β= -.03, p<.77) or physical aggression (β= -.05, p<.68).

First, a moderating effect of participant ethnic minority was found, such that, for African American participants, more frequent participant attempt- partner rejection of influence patterns were associated with greater participant and partner verbal aggression (see Table 15 and Table 16, respectively). Gender did not moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and partner aggression.

Table 15. The interaction of ethnic minority status and participant attempt - partner rejection of influence patterns in predicting participant verbal aggression

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender (Male=1, Female =2)	.26**	.26**		
Pcpt. Minority Status (Non-minority=1, African American=2)	.00	-.03	.07	.07
Pcpt. Attempt Prtr Rejection of Influence	.15	.07	.02	.09
Pcpt Attempt Prtr Rejection* Pctpt Minority Status (β Caucasian=.-13; β Afr Amer =.40**)	.27**	.27**	.07**	.16*

Note. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01. *** $p\leq$.001.Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

Table 16. The interaction of ethnic minority status and participant attempt- partner rejection of influence patterns in predicting partner verbal aggression

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender (Male=1, Female=2)	.03	.04		
Pcpt. Minority Status (Non-minority=1, African American=2)	-.11	-.15	.01	.01
Pcpt. Attempt Prtr Rejection of Influence	.21*	.11	.04*	.05
Pcpt Attempt Prtr Rejection* Pctpt Minority Status (β Caucasian=.-15; β Afr Amer=.55***)	.34***	.34***	.11***	.16*

Note. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01. *** $p\leq$.001. Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

Next, it was hypothesized that anxious romantic attachment would moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and partner aggression, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be more strongly associated with participant aggression for participants with high attachment anxiety. Results did not support the hypothesis; anxious romantic attachment did not moderate the above associations.

Additionally, it was hypothesized that perceived relationship satisfaction would moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and partner aggression, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly associated with partner aggression for participants who report high relationship satisfaction. Results did not support the hypothesis; relationship satisfaction did not moderate the above associations.

Further, it was hypothesized that the expression of reciprocal positive affect within a romantic dyad would moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and partner aggression, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly associated with partner aggression for dyads with high expressed positive affect during observed conflict. Results were contrary to the hypothesis; more frequent participant attempt-partner rejection of influence patterns were associated with *higher* levels of partner victimization by physical aggression for partners who initiated high levels of reciprocal positive affect *(*see Table 17 and Figure 5).

Table 17. The interaction of partner positive affect and participant attempt -partner rejection of influence patterns in predicting participant physical aggression

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender (Male=1, Female=2)	.12	.12		
Pcpt. Household Income	-.18+	-.24	.05	.05
Pcpt Attempt Prtr Rejection of Influence	.05	.29*	.00	.05
Prtr Initiated Reciprocal Positive Affect	-.10	.21	.01	.06
Pcpt Attempt Prtr Rejection* Prtr Positive Affect	.45***	.45***	.10***	.16*

Note. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01. *** $p\leq$.001. Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

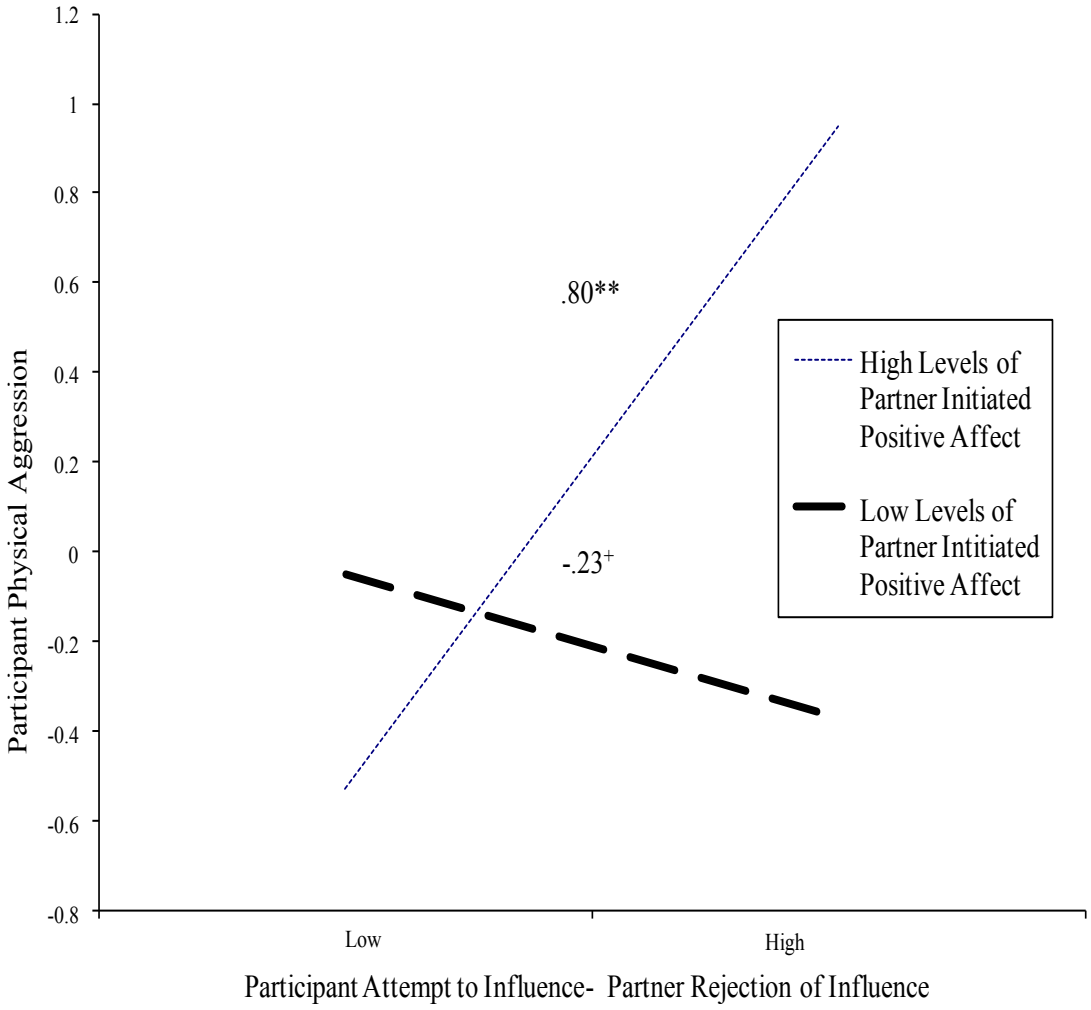

Figure 5. Moderating effect of partner initiation of positive affect and participant attempt- partner rejection of influence patterns in predicting physical aggression

In sum, there was weak support for the hypothesis that greater rejection of influence behavior would predict more aggressive behavior. Partial support was found for the moderating effect of minority status; participant rejection of influence was more strongly linked with participant verbal aggression for African American couples. Hypotheses regarding gender, attachment anxiety and relationship satisfaction were not supported. Finally, results were contrary to the hypothesis that positive affect would attenuate the association between rejection behaviors and partner aggression; more frequent participant attempt-partner rejection of influence patterns were associated with *higher* levels of partner victimization by physical aggression for partners who initiated high levels of reciprocal positive affect.

I. D. Longitudinal Associations between Rejection of Influence and Relative Increases in Jealousy.

It was hypothesized that more frequent demonstration of rejection of influence behaviors during partner conflict would be associated with relative increases in jealousy over time for the individual in the rejecting role. Findings did not support the hypothesis; participant rejection of influence behaviors was not significantly associated with relative increases in target participant jealousy over time (β= 11, p<.33).

Next, ethnic minority status and gender were tested as moderators of the association between attempt to influence-partner rejection of influence patterns and relative increases in jealousy over time. Neither ethnicity nor gender was found to moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and jealousy.

Next, it was hypothesized that anxious romantic attachment would moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and jealousy, such that more frequent

rejection of influence patterns would be more strongly associated with increases in jealousy over time for participants with high attachment anxiety. Results supported the hypothesis; more frequent partner attempt-participant rejection of influence patterns were associated with relative increases in participant jealousy over time for those participants who reported high attachment anxiety (see Table 18 and Figure 6). Further, more frequent participant attempt-partner rejection of influence patterns were associated with relative increases in participant jealousy over time for those participants who reported high attachment anxiety (β=.30, p<.05).

Table 18. The interaction of participant attachment anxiety and partner attempt-participant rejection of influence patterns in predicting participant jealousy over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender(Male=1, Female=2)	-.05	-.09		
Pcpt Household Income	-.08	.08	.00	.00
Baseline Pcpt Jealousy	.26*	.16	.07*	.07
Prtr Attempt Pcpt Rejection of Influence	-.10	.21	.01	.08
Pcpt Attachment Anxiety	.16	.16	.02	.10
Prtr Attempt Pcpt Rejection* Pcpt Attachment Anxiety	.29**	.29**	.07**	.17*

Note: ^{+}p<.10. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01. Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

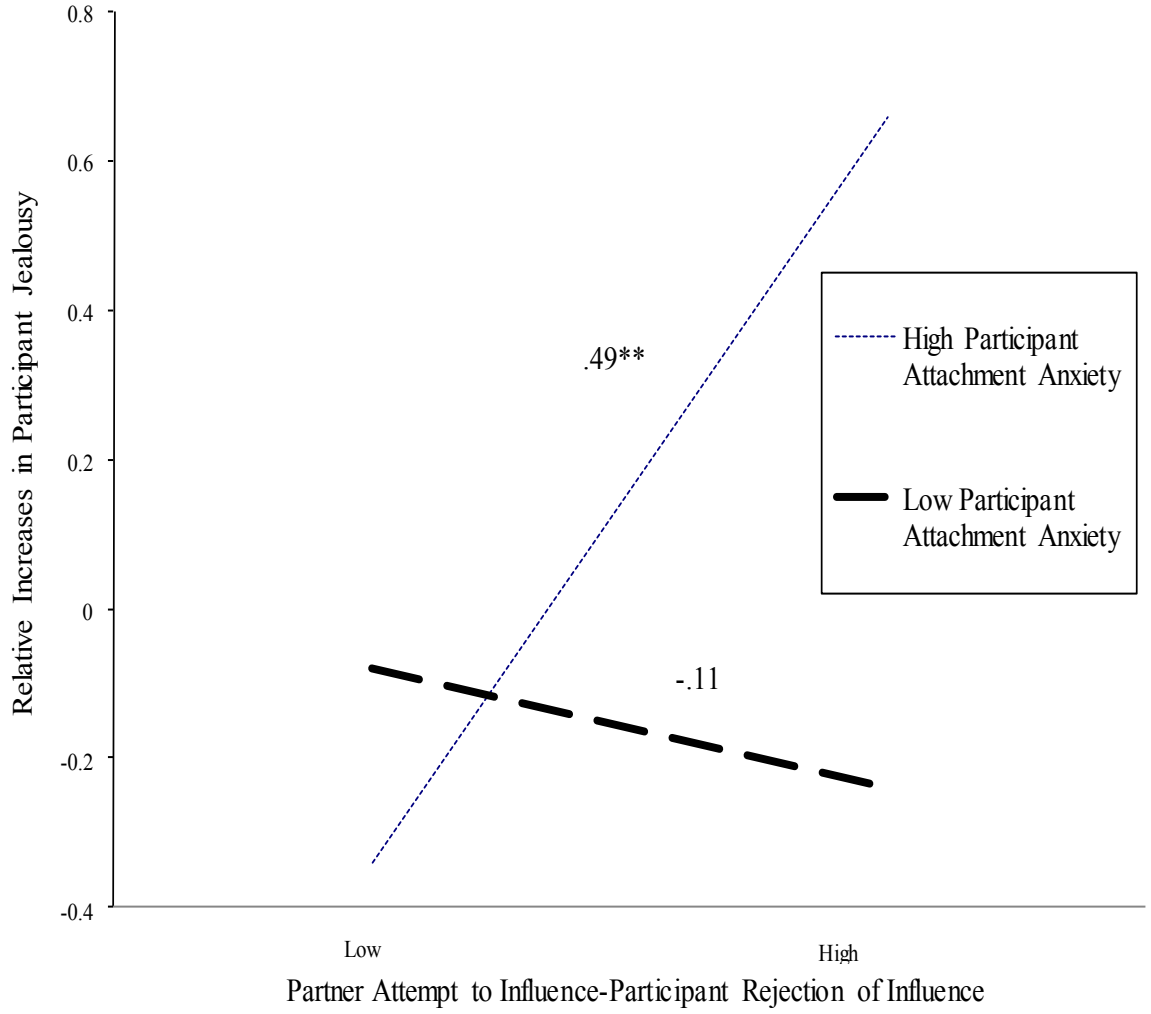

Figure 6. Moderating effect of attachment anxiety on partner attempt -participant rejection of influence patterns in predicting relative increases in participant jealousy

Additionally, it was hypothesized that perceived relationship satisfaction would moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and jealousy, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly associated with participant jealousy for participants who report high relationship satisfaction. Results did

not support the hypothesis; relationship satisfaction did not moderate the above associations.

Next, a moderating effect of positive affect was hypothesized, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly associated with jealousy for dyads with high expressed positive affect.. Results supported the hypothesis; more frequent participant attempt-partner rejection of influence patterns were associated with relative decreases in participant jealousy for participants who initiated high levels of positive affect *(β*=-.40, *p*<.05). Further, more frequent participant attempt-partner rejection of influence patterns were also associated with relative decreases in participant jealousy for *partners* who initiated high levels of positive affect *(β*=-.40, *p*<.05).

In sum, there was no support for the hypothesis that greater rejection behaviors in the context of attempt to influence would predict greater jealousy. Strong support was found for the moderating effect of attachment anxiety; rejection of influence behaviors were more strongly linked to participant jealousy for those participants high in attachment anxiety. Hypotheses regarding gender, ethnic minority status, and relationship satisfaction were not supported. Finally, strong support was found for the moderating effect of positive affect; participant attempt to influence patterns were associated with relative decreases in jealousy for those couples who expressed high reciprocal positive affect.

Hypothesis II: Power Patterns and Depression

The second major hypothesis was that more frequent observed power patterns during partner conflict would be associated with relative increases in internalizing symptoms over time.

II . A. Longitudinal Associations between Demand Withdraw and Relative Increases in Internalizing Symptoms.

It was hypothesized that more frequent demand-withdraw behavior would predict relative increases in internalizing symptoms over time by the demander. In this hypothesis, we controlled for demographic variables and baseline internalizing symptoms. Results did not support the hypothesis. More frequent participant demand-partner withdraw patterns were not associated with relative increases in participant depressive symptoms *(β*=-06, *p*=.55) nor anxious symptoms *(β*=-.07, *p*=.42) over time.

Next, ethnic minority status and gender were tested as moderators of the association between demand-withdraw patterns and relative increases in internalizing symptoms over time. More specifically, a moderating effect of gender was predicted, such that the association between demand behaviors and internalizing symptoms was hypothesized to be stronger for females vs. males. The hypothesis was not supported; gender did not moderate the above associations. Additionally, ethnic minority status did not significantly moderate the association between demand -withdraw patterns and internalizing symptoms.

Next, it was hypothesized that a moderating effect of anxious romantic attachment would be found, such that more frequent participant demand- partner withdraw patterns

would be more strongly associated with increases in internalizing symptoms over time for participants with high attachment anxiety. Results were contrary to the hypothesis; more frequent partner- demand participant withdraw patterns predicted relative *decreases* in participant anxious symptoms over time for those participants who report high attachment anxiety vs. low attachment anxiety (see Table 19 and Figure 7).

Table 19. The interaction of participant attachment anxiety and partner demand-participant withdrawal in predicting participant anxiety symptoms over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Gender(Male=1, Female=2)	-.03	-.11		
Pcpt. Household Income	.03	.03	.00	.00
Baseline Pcpt Anxiety Symptoms	.66***	.68***	.44***	.44***
Prtr Demand Pcpt Withdraw	-.04	-.05	.00	.44***
Pcpt Attachment Anxiety	-.01	-.01	.00	.44***
Prtr Demand Pcpt Withdraw* Pctpt Attachment Anxiety	-.21**	-.21**	.04**	.48***

Note. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01. *** $p\leq$.001. Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

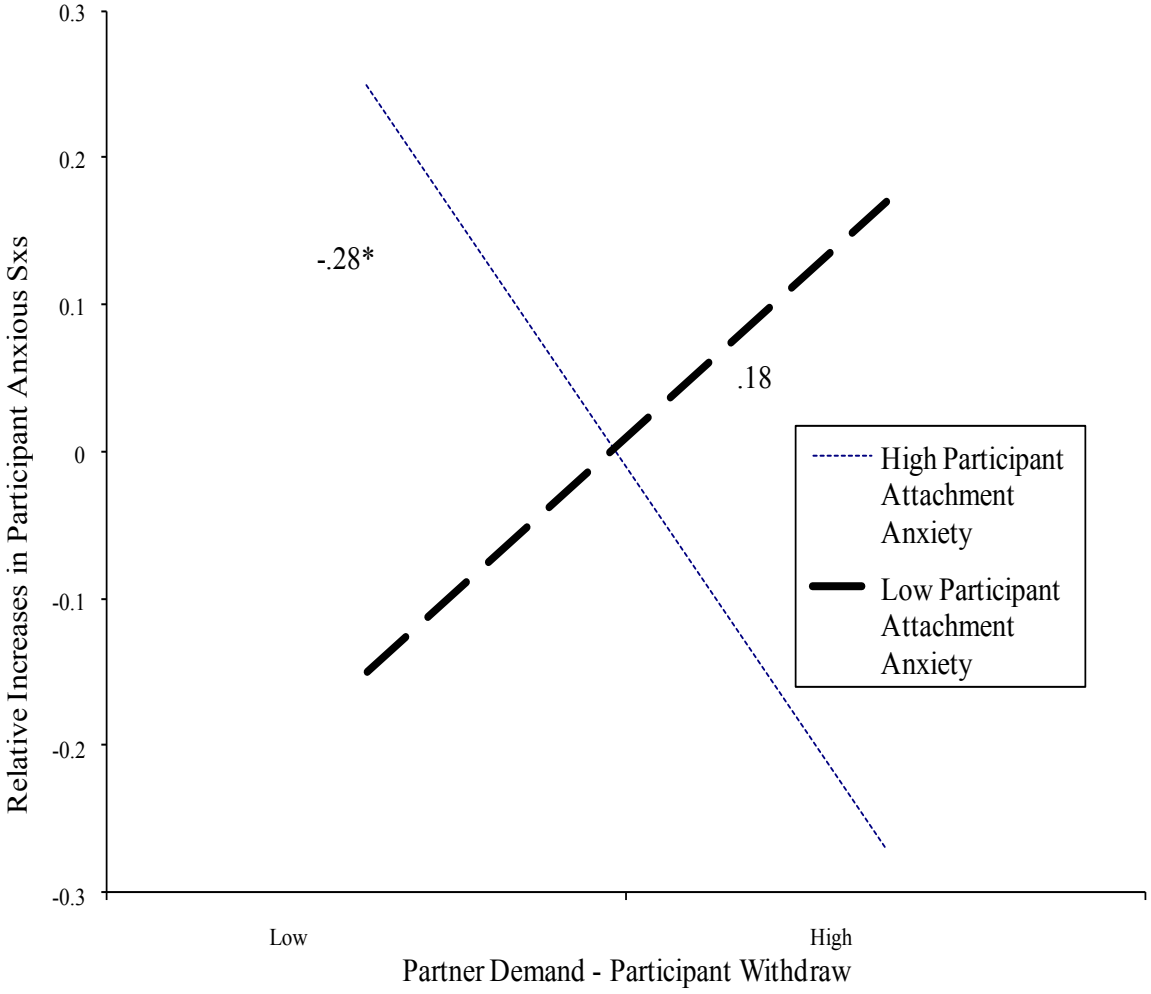

Figure 7. Moderating effect of attachment anxiety on partner demand -participant withdraw patterns in predicting relative increases in participant anxious symptoms

Additionally, it was hypothesized that more frequent demand behaviors would be less strongly associated with internalizing symptoms for participants who report high relationship satisfaction vs. low relationship satisfaction. Results did not support the hypothesis; relationship satisfaction did not moderate the above associations.

Finally, it was hypothesized a moderating effect of positive affect would be found, such that more frequent demand withdraw patterns would be less strongly associated with relative increases in internalizing symptoms for dyads with high expressed positive affect during observed conflict vs. low expressed positive affect. Results were contrary to the hypothesis; more frequent partner demand- participant withdraw patterns predicted *relative increases* in anxiety symptoms for participants who initiated high levels of reciprocal positive affect *(β*=.24, *p*<.05).

In sum, no support was found for the primary hypothesis that greater demand behaviors would directly predict relative increases in internalizing symptoms. Hypotheses regarding gender, ethnic minority status, and relationship satisfaction were also not supported. Results were contrary to the hypothesis that positive affect would attenuate the above associations; partner demands in the context of participant withdrawal were associated with *relative increases in anxiety* for those participants who expressed high reciprocal positive affect. Finally, results were contrary to the hypothesis that demand behaviors would be more strongly linked to internalizing symptoms for those individuals with high attachment anxiety; partner demands predicted relative decreases in participant anxious symptoms for those participants with high attachment anxiety.

II. B. Longitudinal Associations between Rejection of Influence and Relative Increases in Internalizing Symptoms.

It was hypothesized that more frequent demonstration of rejection of influence behaviors would be associated with relative increases in internalizing symptoms over

time for the individual in the "attempt to influence" role. Results did not support the hypothesis; more frequent participant attempts to influence were not associated with relative increases in participant depressive symptoms *(β*=-02, *p*=.84) nor anxious symptoms *(β*=-.01, *p*=.92) over time.

Next, ethnicity and gender were tested as moderators of the association between rejection of influence patterns and internalizing symptoms. Gender moderated the association, in that participant attempts to influence were more strongly associated with relative increases in anxious symptoms for females vs. males *(β*=.20, *p*<.05). Ethnicity did not moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and internalizing symptoms.

Next, it was hypothesized that a moderating effect of anxious romantic attachment would be found, such that more frequent participant attempts to influence would be more strongly associated with increases in internalizing symptoms for participants with high attachment anxiety. Results did not support the hypothesis; attachment anxiety did not moderate the above associations.

Further, it was hypothesized that a moderating effect of relationship satisfaction would be found, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly associated with internalizing symptoms for participants who report high relationship satisfaction. Results did not support the hypothesis; relationship satisfaction did not moderate the above associations.

Lastly, it was hypothesized that a moderating effect of positive affect would be found, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly associated with internalizing symptoms for dyads with high expressed positive affect vs.

low expressed positive affect. Results were contrary to the hypothesis; more frequent partner attempt-participant rejection of influence patterns were associated with *relative increases in* depressive symptoms for those participants who initiated high levels of reciprocal positive affect vs. low levels of positive affect(β=.33, p<.05).

In sum, no support was found for the hypothesis that greater attempts to influence would predict relative increases in internalizing symptoms. Hypotheses regarding ethnic minority status, attachment anxiety and relationship satisfaction were also not supported. Partial support was found for the moderating effect of gender; participant attempts to influence were more closely linked to relative increases in anxious symptoms for females as opposed to males. Results were contrary to the hypothesis that positive affect would attenuate the above associations; participant rejection of influence was associated with *relative increases in depressive symptoms* for those participants who expressed high reciprocal positive affect during observed conflict.

Hypothesis III: Power Patterns and Relationship Dissolution

The third major hypothesis was that more frequent observed power patterns during partner conflict would be associated with likelihood of break up over time.

III. A. Longitudinal Associations between Demand -Withdraw and Relationship Dissolution.

It was hypothesized that more frequent demand -withdraw behaviors during partner conflict would be associated with relationship dissolution over time. The dichotomous outcome variable, relationship dissolution, was coded as 0 was coded for the couples who broke up, and coded as 1 when couples' relationships remained in intact.

Results of logistical regression analyses did not support the hypothesis. More frequent participant demand-partner withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with relationship break ups over time (OR=91, *p*=.70). More frequent partner demand-participant withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with relationship break ups over time (OR=.86, *p*=.56). In other words there was virtually no difference in likelihood of breakup for those who exhibited more frequent demand -withdraw patterns. Further, none of the hypothesized moderators (i.e., gender, ethnicity, attachment anxiety, relationship satisfaction, positive affect) moderated the association between demand withdraw patterns and relationship dissolution over time. In sum, the hypotheses regarding demand-withdraw behaviors and relationship dissolution were not supported.

III. B. Longitudinal Associations between Rejection of Influence and Relationship Dissolution.

Finally, it was hypothesized that more frequent rejection of influence behaviors during partner conflict would be associated with relationship dissolution over time. Results of logistical regression analyses did not support the hypothesis. More frequent participant attempt-partner rejection of influence patterns were not associated with relationship break ups over time (OR= .99, p=.96). Further, more frequent partner attempt-participant rejection of influence patterns were not associated with relationship break ups over time (OR= .81, p=.42). In other words, there was virtually no difference in likelihood of breakup for those who exhibited more frequent rejection of influence patterns.

Gender moderated the association between partner attempt-participant rejection of influence patterns and relationship dissolution, such that couples that were one unit

above the mean in male attempt-female rejection of influence behaviors were approximately twice as likely as those who are at the mean for rejection of influence behaviors to break up over time (see Table 20).

Table 20. The interaction of gender and partner attempt- participant rejection of influence patterns in predicting relationship dissolution over time

	β entry	β final	OR
Gender (Male=1, Female =2)	-.02	-.06*	.88
Pcpt. Income	.10	.06	1.14
Prtr Attempt Pcpt Rejection of Influence	-.12	- .21	.62
Ptr Attempt Pcpt Rejection* Gender	- .33*	-.33*	.53

Note: *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01. *** $p\leq$.001.Pcpt: Target Participant. Prtr: Romantic Partner.

None of the additional hypothesized moderators (i.e., ethnicity, attachment anxiety, relationship satisfaction, positive affect) moderated the association between rejection of influence patterns and relationship dissolution over time. In sum, hypotheses regarding rejection of influence behaviors and relationship dissolution were not supported.

Results: Newlyweds

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and correlations with demographic variables (i.e., income) were computed for all variables and are presented in Tables 21 through 24. Correlations between all primary and demographic variables are presented in Tables 25-29. Numerous main effects were found for household income, therefore these demographic variables were controlled for in all regression analyses in Hypotheses I-III. Possible moderating effects of demographic factors on the relationships were also

examined, across all three central hypotheses. All significant interactions are reported below.

Table 21. Descriptive Statistics for coded sequences during observed husband conflict

Coded Husband-Wife Sequences (Obs)	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*r* with Income
Wife Demand/Husband Withdraw, Time 1	114	1.29	.97	-.08
Husb Demand/Wife Withdraw, Time 1	114	.71	.70	-.11
Wife Attempt to Influence/Husb Rejection of Influence, Time 1	114	1.44	.97	-.04
Husb Attempt to Influence/Wife Rejection of Influence, Time 1	114	.97	.81	-.09
Wife initiated Positive Reciprocation, Time 1	114	.79	.75	.08
Husb initiated Positive Reciprocation, Time 1	114	.82	.72	.08

*Note: ** p < .01; * p < .05;* $^{+}$*p<.10; Note: Obs=Videotaped Observation*

Table 22. Descriptive statistics for relationship quality outcome variables included in hypothesis I and III

Hypothesis I & III Outcomes	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*r* with Income
Wife Psychological Aggression, Time 1 (DD)	106	1.29	.47	-.11
Husb Psychological Aggression, Time 1 (DD)	106	1.35	.34	-.10
Wife Psychological Aggression, Time 1 (DD)	60	1.23	.43	-.10
Husb Psychological Aggression, Time 2 (DD)	60	1.33	.34	-.20
Wife Distrust, Time 1 (S)	108	2.22	.82	-.19*
Husb Distrust, Time 1 (S)	110	2.04	.68	-.08
Wife Distrust, Time 2 (S)	60	5.56	1.24	.15
Husb Distrust, Time 2 (S)	61	5.59	1.31	.30*

*Note: ** p < .01; * p < .05;$^{+}$p<.10; Note DD: Daily Diary Data : Self Report*

Table 23. Descriptive statistics for internalizing distress outcome variables included in hypothesis II

Hypothesis II Outcomes	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*r* with Income
Wife Depressive Symptoms, Time 1 (S)	120	7.71	8.24	-.14
Husb Depressive Symptoms, Time 1 (S)	89	4.79	5.43	-.11
Wife Depressive Symptoms, Time 2 (S)	120	7.64	7.40	-.11
Husb Depressive Symptoms, Time 2 (S)	90	5.21	6.05	-.19*

*Note: ** p < .01; * p < .05;$^{+}$p<.10; Note: S=Self Report*

Table 24. Descriptive Statistics for moderating variables

Moderators	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*r* with Income
Wife Relationship Threat Sensitivity, Time 1 (S)	109	3.23	.55	-.05
Husb Relationship Threat Sensitivity, Time 1 (S)	110	3.00	.59	-.15
Wife Relationship Satisfaction, Time 1 (S)	118	33.80	8.57	.11
Husb Relationship Satisfaction, Time 1 (S)	120	35.13	7.74	.11

*Note: * p < .01; * p < .05; $^{+}$p<.10; Note: S=Self Report*

Table 25. Pearson correlation coefficients for observed prtr sequences and relationship distress outcome variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Wife Demand Husb Withdraw(T1)	1.00	.15	92***	.23**	-.45***	-.49***	.05	.02	.31*	.34**
2. Husb Demand Wife Withdraw(T1)		1.00	.32***	.87***	-.23**	-.27**	.01	.03	-.19	-.07
3. Wife Attempt to Influence (T1)			1.00	.35***	-.46***	-.48***	.09	.08	.27*	.32*
4. Husb Attempt to Influence((T1)				1.00	-.22*	-.26**	.03	.07	-.12	.01
5. Wife Initiated Positive Affect(T1)					1.00	.95***	-.06	-.01	-.20	-.25*
6. Husb Initiated Positive Affect(T1)						1.00	-.04	.00	-.19	-.21
7. Wife Psychological Aggression(T1)							1.00	.95***	.47***	.43***
8. Husb Psychological Aggression(T1)								1.00	.42***	.46***
9. Wife Psychological Aggression(T2)									1.00	.85***
10. Husb Psychological Aggression(T2)										1.00

$^{+}p \leq .10$ *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Table 26. Pearson correlation coefficients for observed prtr sequences and relationship distrust

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Wife Demand Husb Withdraw(T1)	1.00	.15	92***	.23**	-.45***	-.49***	.16+	-.15	.05	.06
2. Husb Demand Wife Withdraw(T1)		1.00	.32***	.87***	-.23**	-.27**	.14	.21*	-.10	.09
3. Wife Attempt to Influence (T1)			1.00	.35***	-.46***	-.48***	.16+	-.07	-.03	.07
4. Husb Attempt to Influence(T1)				1.00	-.22*	-.26**	.14	.21*	-.07	.09
5. Wife Initiated Positive Affect(T1)					1.00	.95***	-.19+	-.08	.02	-.17
6. Husb Initiated Positive Affect(T1)						1.00	-.18+	-.05	.03	-.17
7. Wife Distrust (T1)							1.00	.20*	-.27*	-.04
8. Husb Distrust (T1)								1.00	-.12	-.45***
9. Wife Distrust (T2)									1.00	.66***
10. Husb Distrust (T2)										1.00

$^{+}p \leq .10$ *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Table 27. Pearson correlation coefficients for observed prtr conflict sequences,and internalizing distress outcome variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Wife Demand Husb Withdraw(T1)	1.00	.15	.92***	.23**	-.45***	-.49***	.08	-.13	.24*	.02
2. Husb Demand Wife Withdraw(T1)		1.00	.32***	.87***	-.23**	-.27**	.08	-.01	.09	-.13
3. Wife Attempt to Influence (T1)			1.00	.35***	-.46***	-.48***	.12	-.15	.18+	.03
4. Husb Attempt to Influence(T1)				1.00	-.22*	-.26**	.12	-.04	.04	-.07
5. Wife Initiated Positive Affect(T1)					1.00	.95***	-.12	-.07	.03	.00
6. Husb Initiated Positive Affect(T1)						1.00	-.13	-.07	.02	-.02
7. Wife Depressive Sxs (T1)							1.00	.28**	.51***	.32**
8. Husb Depressive Sxs (T1)								1.00	.06	.29**
9. Wife Depressive Sxs (T2)									1.00	.24*
10. Husb Depressive Sxs (T2)										1.00

$^{+}$ *$p \leq .10$ *p <.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001*

Table 28. Pearson correlation coefficients for observed prtr conflict sequences and moderating variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Wife Demand Husb Withdraw(T1)	1.00	.15	92***	.23**	-.45***	-.49***	.11	.07	-.15	-.09
2. Husb Demand Wife Withdraw(T1)		1.00	.32***	.87***	-.23**	-.27**	-.03	.08	-.10	-.21*
3. Wife Attempt to Influence(T1)			1.00	.35***	-.46***	-.48***	.09	.05	-.17+	-.09
4. Husb Attempt to Influence(T1)				1.00	-.22*	-.26**	-.10	.03	-.14	-.21*
5. Wife Initiated Positive Affect(T1)					1.00	.95***	-.26**	-.10	.17+	.26**
6. Husb Initiated Positive Affect(T1)						1.00	-.28**	-.15	.20*	.25**
7. Wife Relationship Threat Sensitivity (T1)							1.00	.26**	.11	-.05
8. Husb Relationship Threat Sensitivity (T1)								1.00	- .09	..04
9. Wife Relationship Satisfaction(T1)									1.00	.20*
10. Husb Relationship Satisfaction(T1)										1.00

$^{+}p \leq .10$ *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Table 29. Pearson correlation coefficients for outcome variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1.Wife Psychological Aggression (T1)	1.00	.95***	.47***	.43***	.06	.08	-.10	-.03	.32***	.17+	.16	.17
2. Husb Psychological Aggression(T1)		1.00	.42**	.46***	.08	.06	-.06	.07	.33***	.11	.20+	.17+
3. Wife Psychological Aggression (T2)			1.00	.86***	.01	.14	-.21	-.35**	.29*	.25*	.32**	.22+
4. Husb Psychological Aggression(T2)				1.00	.06	.07	-.10	-.18	.34**	.16	.46***	.25+
5. Wife Jealousy (T1)					1.00	.20*	-.27*	-.04	.41***	.06	.23*	.10
6. Husb Jealousy (T1)						1.00	-.12	.45***	.30**	.28**	-.11	.25*
7. Wife Jealousy (T2)							1.00	.65***	-.27*	-.26*	-.14	-.08
8. Husb Jealousy (T2)								1.00	-.35***	-.31***	-.13	-.09
9. Wife Depressive Sxs (T1)									1.00	.28***	.51***	.32**
10. Husb Depressive Sxs (T1)										1.00	.06	.29**
11. Wife Depressive Sxs (T2)											1.00	.24*
12. Husb Depressive Sxs (T2)												1.00

$^{+}p \leq .10$ *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Results of t-tests comparing mean levels of all variables of interest on both wife and husband ethnicity revealed the following significant differences. First, mean levels of wife initiated positive affect were higher for Caucasian wives (*M*=.95, *SD*=.50) as compared to Latino wives (*M*=.58, *SD*=.57). Mean levels of husband initiated positive affect were also higher for Caucasian husbands (*M*=.94, *SD*=.65) as compared to Latino husbands (*M*=.61, *SD*=.65). Mean levels of husband distrust were higher for individuals with Caucasian wives (*M*=.6.16 *SD*=.68) as compared to Latino wives (*M*=5.41, *SD*=.1.34). Mean levels of wife relationship threat sensitivity were lower for individuals with Caucasian husbands (*M*=3.11, *SD*=.62) as compared to Latino husbands (*M*=3.36, *SD*=.48). Results of t-tests comparing mean levels of all variables on the divorce variables failed to find any significant differences. Of the 114 couples assessed in the current study, 76 of those couples reported on their divorce status at follow up. Of those 76 couples, 62 reported that their marriage was intact, 14 couples reported that they had divorced.

Hypothesis I: Power Patterns and Aggression

I. A. Longitudinal Associations between Demand Withdraw and Relative Increases in Partner Aggression

Primary Analyses

First, it was hypothesized that more frequent exhibition of demand behavior in the context of partner withdrawal would predict relative increases in demander aggression. There was only weak support for this hypothesis, as the relationship between more frequent wife demands in the context of husband withdrawal and relative increases in wife verbal aggression approached significance(β=.22, $p\leq$.10). Significant findings were somewhat contrary to the hypothesis, as more frequent exhibition of wife demand -- husband withdraw patterns during observed conflict predicted relative increases in *husband* perpetration of verbal aggression towards his partner (β=.26, p<.05). Lastly, husband demand--wife withdraw patterns were not significantly related to relative changes in either husband's or wife's use of verbal aggression in the romantic context (β=-.08, p=.54; β=-.21, p=.11, respectively).

A moderating effect of husband ethnic minority status was found, such that, for Caucasian husbands, more frequent wife demand-- husband withdraw patterns predicted relative increases in both wife verbal aggression and husband verbal aggression. (β=-.32, p<.05; see table 30, respectively). Further, a third moderating effect of husband ethnic minority was found, such that, for Latino husbands, more frequent husband demand -- wife withdraw patterns predicted relative *decreases* in wife verbal aggression(β=-.24, p<.05). Further, a moderating effect of husband relationship satisfaction was found, such that more frequent husband demand-- wife withdraw patterns predicted relative increases in wife verbal aggression over time for those couples whose husbands reported low satisfaction (see Table 31 and Figure 8).

Table 30. The interaction of minority status and wife demand --husband withdrawal patterns in predicting husband aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Husband Minority Status(Caucasian=1, Latino=2)	.23	- .01	.05	.05
Baseline Husband Aggression	.60**	.55***	.33***	.38***
Wife Demand Husband Withdraw	.26*	.36***	.01*	.39***
Wife Demand Husband Withdraw* Husband Minority Status ($\beta_{\text{Caucasian}}$=.36^{+}; β_{Latino}= -.11)	-.36***	-.36***	.11***	.50***

Note: $^{+}$ p<.10. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01.

Table 31. The interaction of relationship satisfaction and husband demand-- wife withdrawal patterns in predicting wife aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	-.10	-.03	.01	.01
Baseline Wife Aggression	.55***	.47***	.31***	.32**
Husband Demand Wife Withdraw	- .19	.00	.03	.35**
Husband Relationship Satisfaction	.28*	-.28**	.05*	.40***
Husband Demand Wife Withdraw* Husband Relationship Satisfaction	-.51***	-.51***	.23*	.63***

Note: $^{+}$ p<.10. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01.

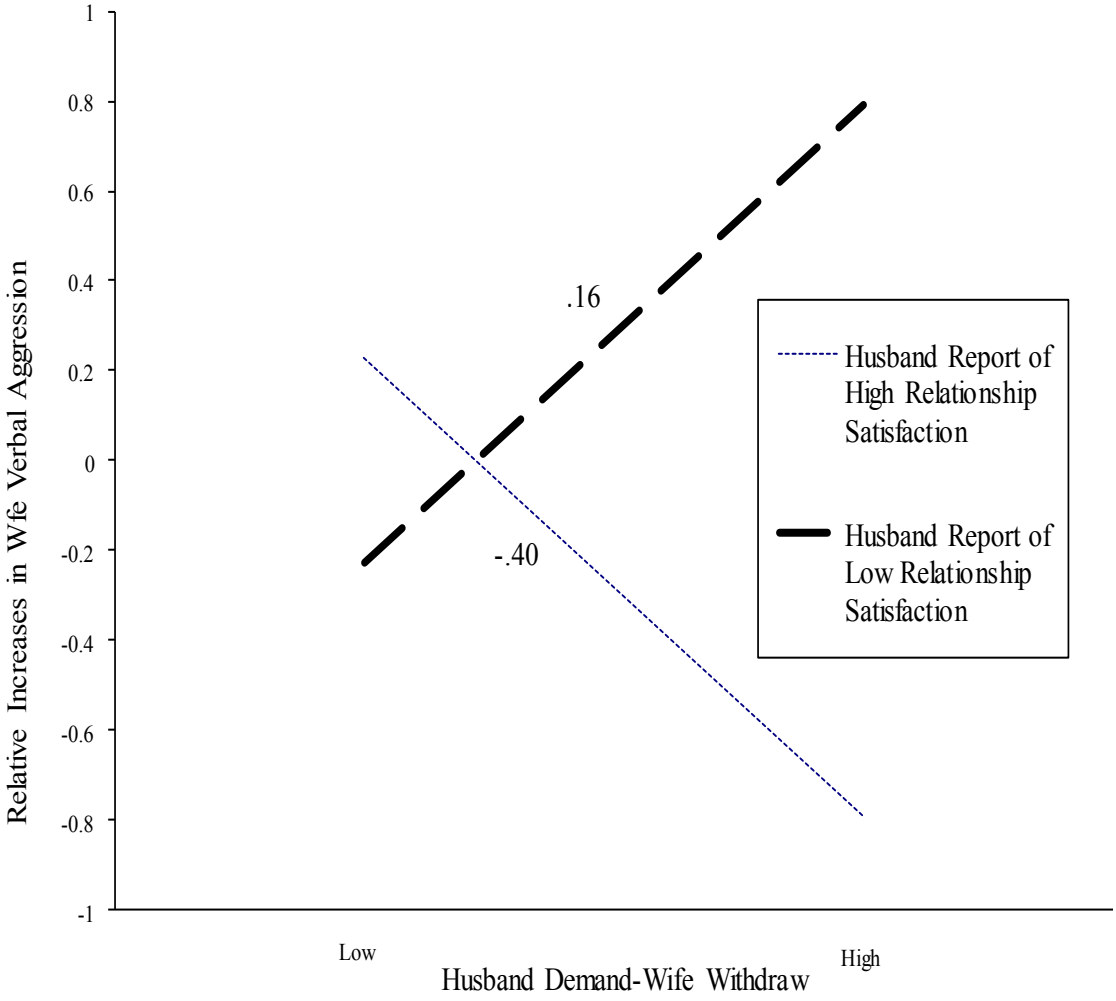

Figure 8. Moderating effect of husband relationship satisfaction on husband demand- wife withdraw patterns in predicting wife verbal aggression

Additionally, it was hypothesized that a moderating effect of relationship threat sensitivity would be found, such that more frequent demand- withdraw patterns would be more strongly associated with partner aggression for partners who report high relationship threat sensitivity vs. low relationship threat sensitivity. Results did not

support the hypothesis; relationship threat sensitivity did not moderate the above associations. Lastly, reciprocal positive affect did not moderate the associations between demand-withdraw behaviors and aggression.

In sum, there was weak support for the hypothesis that greater demand behaviors in the context of partner withdrawal would predict more frequent aggressive behaviors. There was moderate support for the hypothesis that relationship satisfaction would moderate the association between demand -withdraw behaviors and partner aggression. Hypotheses regarding reciprocal positive affect and relationship threat sensitivity as moderators of demand withdraw and aggression were not supported. Hypotheses regarding the moderating role of ethnic minority status were contrary to what was hypothesized; the associations between demand-withdraw patterns and aggression were consistently stronger for Caucasian as compared to Latino couples.

I. B. Longitudinal Associations between Demand- Withdraw and Relative Increases in Relationship Distrust

It was hypothesized that more frequent demand-withdraw behavior would be associated with relative increases in self-reported relationship distrust over time by the demander. Results of hierarchical regression analyses failed to support the hypothesis. More frequent wife demand- husband withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband distrust over time (β=.15, p=.34; β=.03, p=.82, respectively). However, a moderating effect of wife relationship satisfaction was found, such that more frequent wife demand--husband withdraw patterns were associated with relative increases in wife distrust for wives who reported low relationship satisfaction vs.

high satisfaction (see Table 32, Figure 9). Further, more frequent husband demand-wife withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband distrust over time (β=-.08, p=.60; β=.09, p=.54, respectively). Lastly, ethnic minority status, relationship threat sensitivity, and reciprocal positive affect did not moderate the association between demand- withdraw patterns and relationship distrust.

In sum, there was no support for the hypothesis that greater demand behaviors in the context of partner withdrawal would predict greater relationship distrust over time. There was moderate support for the hypothesis that relationship satisfaction would moderate the association between demand -withdraw behaviors and relationship distrust, in that wife demand behaviors were associated with greater wife distrust for less satisfied wives. Hypotheses regarding ethnic minority, reciprocal positive affect and relationship threat sensitivity as moderators of demand –withdraw patterns and distrust were not supported.

Table 32. The interaction of wife relationship satisfaction and wife demand - husband withdrawal patterns in predicting wife distrust over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	.30**	.16	.09	.09
Baseline Wife Distrust	- .26*	-.23*	.06*	.15***
Wife Demand -Husband Withdraw	.12	.30**	.02	.17+
Wife Relationship Satisfaction	.54***	.33*	.25***	.42***
Wife Demand- Husband Withdraw* Wife Relationship Satisfaction	-.53***	-.53***	.10***	.52***

Note: + p<.10. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01.

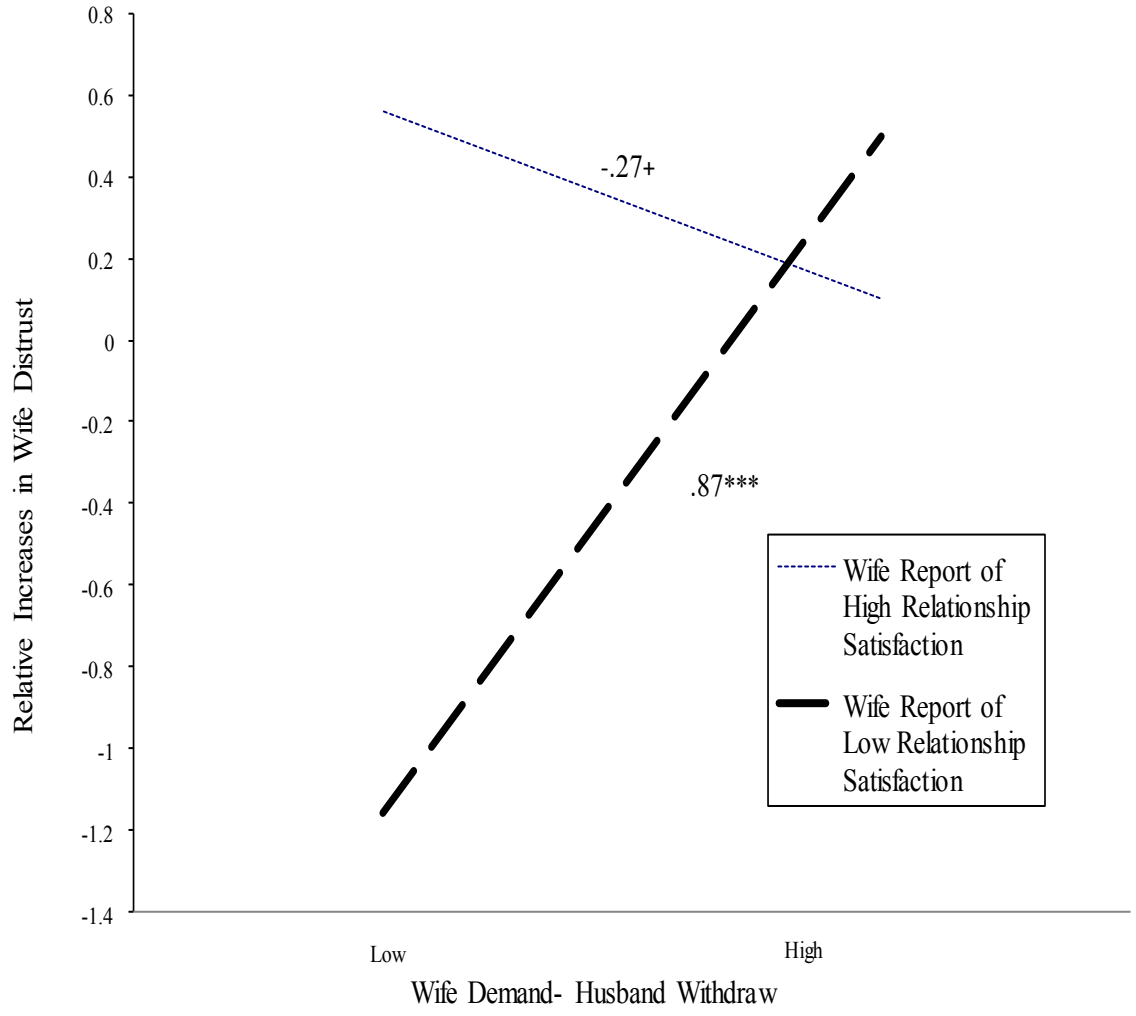

Figure 9. Moderating effect of wife relationship satisfaction on wife demand- -husband withdraw patterns in predicting wife distrust

I. C. Longitudinal Associations between Rejection of Influence and Relative Increases in Partner Aggression

It was hypothesized that more frequent demonstration of rejection of influence behavior (i.e., intense negative affect such as belligerence or contempt) exhibited in the context of partner attempt to influence (i.e low level negative affect such as fear/tension, sadness, whining) would be associated with greater aggression by the individual in the rejecting role. Results failed to support this hypothesis. More frequent wife attempt - husband rejection of influence patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband perpetration of aggression over time (β=.15, p=.23; β=.19, p=.12, respectively). Further, more frequent husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband perpetration of aggression over time (β=-.12, p=.35; β=.00, p=.98, respectively).

Several moderating effects of husband ethnic minority status were found, such that, for Latino husbands, more frequent husband attempt --wife rejection patterns predicted relative decreases in husbands' and wives' verbal aggression (see Table 33 and Table 34, respectively). Further, more frequent wife attempt –husband rejection of influence patterns predicted relative *increases in* husbands' and wives' verbal aggression, for Caucasian husbands only (see Table 35 and Table 36, respectively).

Table 33. The interaction of ethnic minority status and husband attempt --wife rejection of influence patterns in predicting husband verbal aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Husband Minority Status(Caucasian=1, Latino=2)	.22	-.01	.05	.05
Baseline Husband Aggression	.61***	.65***	.34***	.39***
Husband Attempt-Wife Rejection of Influence	.03	-.09	.00	.39***
Husband Attempt-Wife Rejection* Husband Minority Status ($\beta_{Caucasian}$=.40*; β_{Latino}= -42*)	-.33**	-.33**	.14**	.53***

Note: $^{+}p<.10$. $^{*}p<.05$. $^{**}p\leq.01$.

Table 34. The interaction of ethnic minority status and husband attempt --wife rejection of influence patterns in predicting wife verbal aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Husband Minority Status(Caucasian=1, Latino=2)	.27+	.07	.07*	.07
Baseline Wife Aggression	.55***	.59***	.28***	.35***
Husband Attempt-Wife Rejection of Influence	-.10	-.22+	.00	.35***
Husband Attempt Wife Rejection* Husband Minority Status ($\beta_{Caucasian}$=.28; β_{Latino}= -.60***)	-.36**	-.36**	.16**	.51***

Note: $^{+}p<.10$. $^{*}p<.05$. $^{**}p\leq.01$.

Table 35. The interaction of ethnic minority status and wife attempt --husband rejection of influence patterns in predicting husband verbal aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Husband Minority Status(Caucasian=1, Latino=2)	.24+	- .03	.06+	.06
Baseline Husband Aggression	.60***	.59***	.32***	.38***
Wife Attempt-Husband Rejection of Influence	.19	.27*	.00	.38***
Wife Attempt Husband Rejection* Husband Minority Status ($\beta_{Caucasian}$=.42*; β_{Latino}= -.22)	-.34**	-.34**	.13**	.51***

Note: $^{+}p<.10$. $*p<.05$. $**p\leq.01$.

Table 36. The interaction of ethnic minority status and wife attempt- husband rejection of influence patterns in predicting wife aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Husband Minority Status(Caucasian=1, Latino=2)	.29*	.06	.08	.08
Baseline Wife Aggression	.54***	.55***	.27***	.35**
Wife Attempt-Husband Rejection of Influence	.12	-.22+	.00	.35**
Wife Attempt Husband Rejection* Husband Minority Status ($\beta_{Caucasian}$=.40*; β_{Latino}= -.32)	-.35**	-.35**	.11**	.46***

Note: $^{+}p<.10$. $*p<.05$. $**p\leq.01$.

Further, a moderating effect of wife relationship satisfaction was found, such that more frequent husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns predicted relative decreases in wives' verbal aggression for those wives who reported low relationship satisfaction (see Table 37 and Figure 10). Conversely, more frequent husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns predicted relative decreases in wives' verbal aggression for those *husbands* who reported *high* relationship satisfaction (see Table 38 and Figure 11).

Finally, a moderating effect of relationship threat sensitivity was found, such that more frequent wife attempt –husband rejection of influence patterns predicted relative increases in husbands' verbal aggression for those wives who report high relationship threat sensitivity vs. low threat sensitivity(Table 39 and Figure 12). Reciprocal positive affect did not moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and partner aggression.

In sum, there was no support for the overall hypothesis that greater rejection behaviors in the context of attempt to influence would predict more frequent aggressive behaviors. Findings regarding the moderating effect of minority status were not in the expected direction; rejection of influence patterns were consistently more strongly linked to husband and wife verbal aggression for those couples with Caucasian husbands. Mixed support was found for the moderating effect of relationship satisfaction. Husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns were associated with increases in wife verbal aggression over time when husbands were less satisfied, but were associated with *decreases* in wives' verbal aggression when wives were less satisfied. Partial support was found for the moderating effect of relationship threat sensitivity; wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were associated with increases in husbands' verbal aggression when wives reported high sensitivity to threat in their relationships. . Hypotheses regarding reciprocal positive affect were not supported.

Table 37. The interaction of relationship satisfaction and husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns in predicting wife verbal aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	-.10	-.11	.01	.01
Baseline Wife Aggression	.48***	.48***	.22***	.23+
Husband Attempt- Wife Rejection of Influence	- .15	- .30*	.02	.25*
Wife Relationship Satisfaction	.02	.06	.00	.25*
Husband Attempt-Wife Rejection * Wife Relationship Satisfaction	.46***	.46***	.12***	.37***

Note: $^{+}$ $p<.10$. *$p<.05$. ** $p\leq.01$.

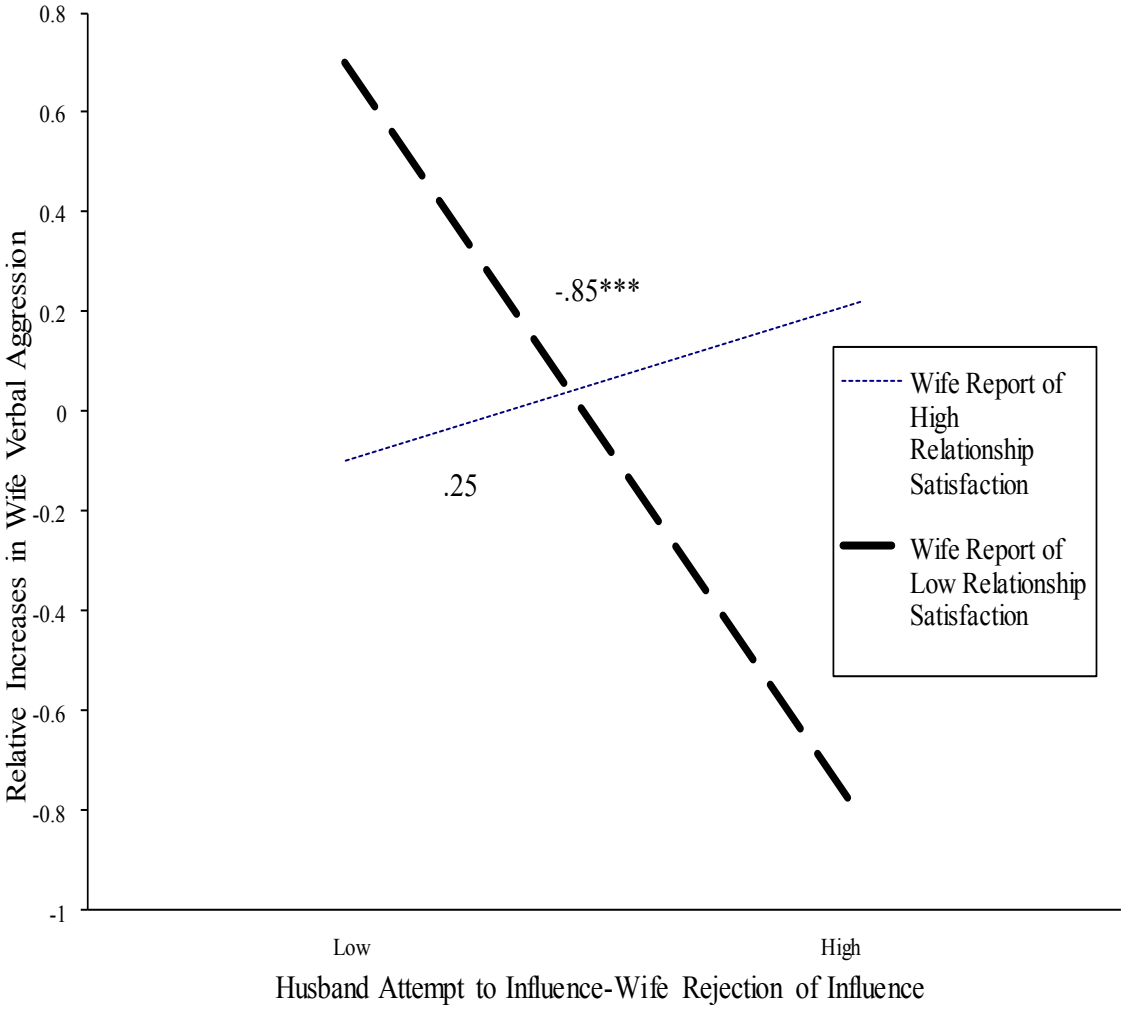

Figure 10. Moderating effect of wife relationship satisfaction on husband attempt- wife rejection of influence patterns in predicting wife verbal aggression

Table 38. The interaction of relationship satisfaction and husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns in predicting wife verbal aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	-.10	-.04	.01	.01
Baseline Wife Aggression	.55***	.51***	.31***	.32**
Husband Attempt- Wife Rejection of Influence	- .10	- .00	.00	.32**
Husband Relationship Satisfaction	- .28*	- .26*	.07*	.39***
Husband Attempt-Wife Rejection * Husband Relationship Satisfaction	- .49***	-.49***	.23***	.62***

Note: $^{+}$ $p<.10$. *$p<.05$. ** $p\leq.01$.

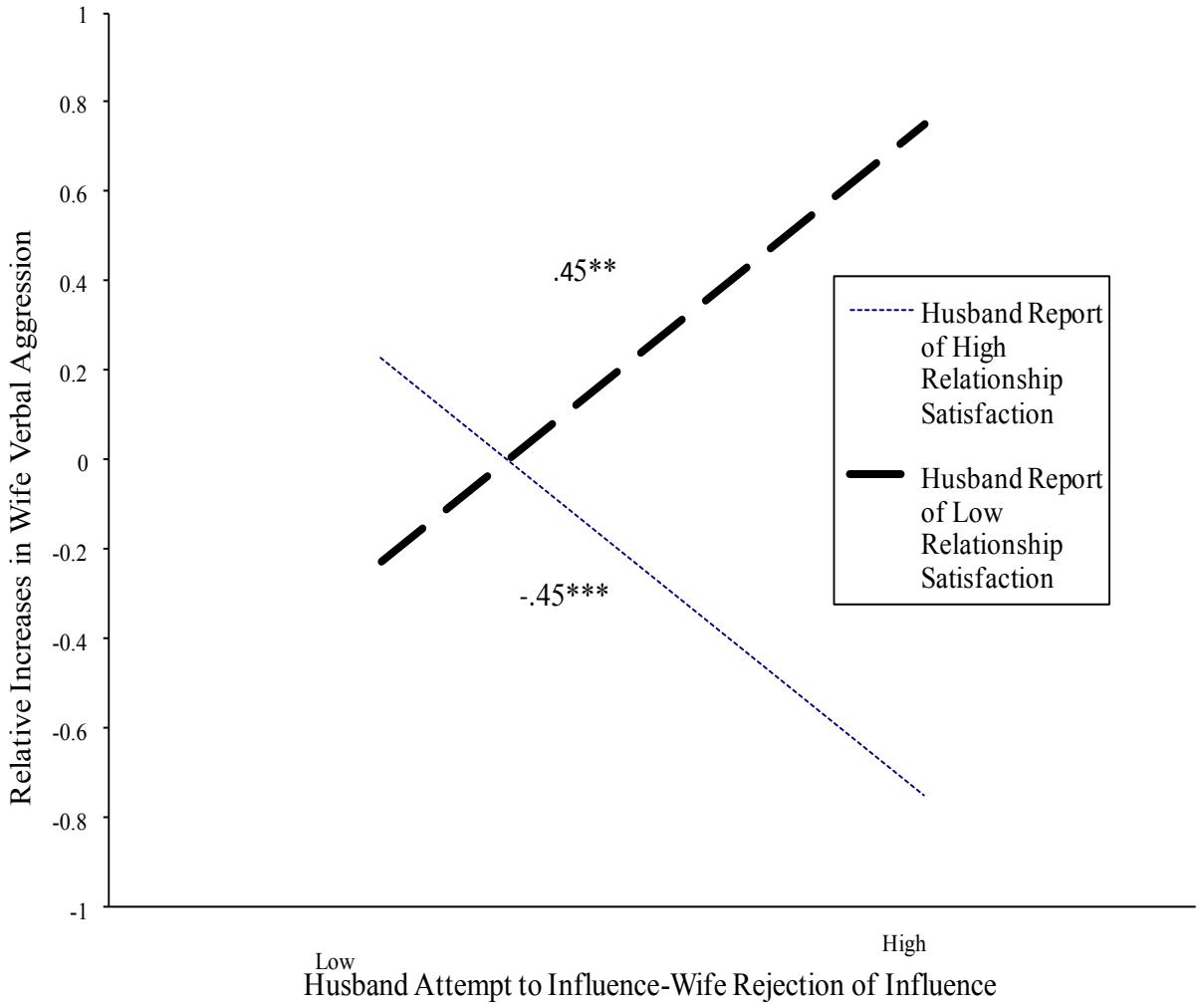

Figure 11. Moderating effect of husband relationship satisfaction on husband attempt- wife rejection of influence patterns in predicting wife verbal aggression

Table 39. The interaction of threat sensitivity and wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns in predicting husband verbal aggression over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	-.02	-.09	.04	.04
Baseline Husband Aggression	.61***	.44***	.37***	.41***
Wife Attempt- Husband Rejection of Influence	.19	.29**	.00	.41***
Wife Relationship Threat Sensitivity	.27**	.23*	.03**	.44***
Wife Attempt-Husband Rejection * Wife Relationship Threat Sensitivity	.27**	.27**	.06**	.50***

Note: $^{+}$ $p<.10$. $*p<.05$. $**$ $p\leq.01$.

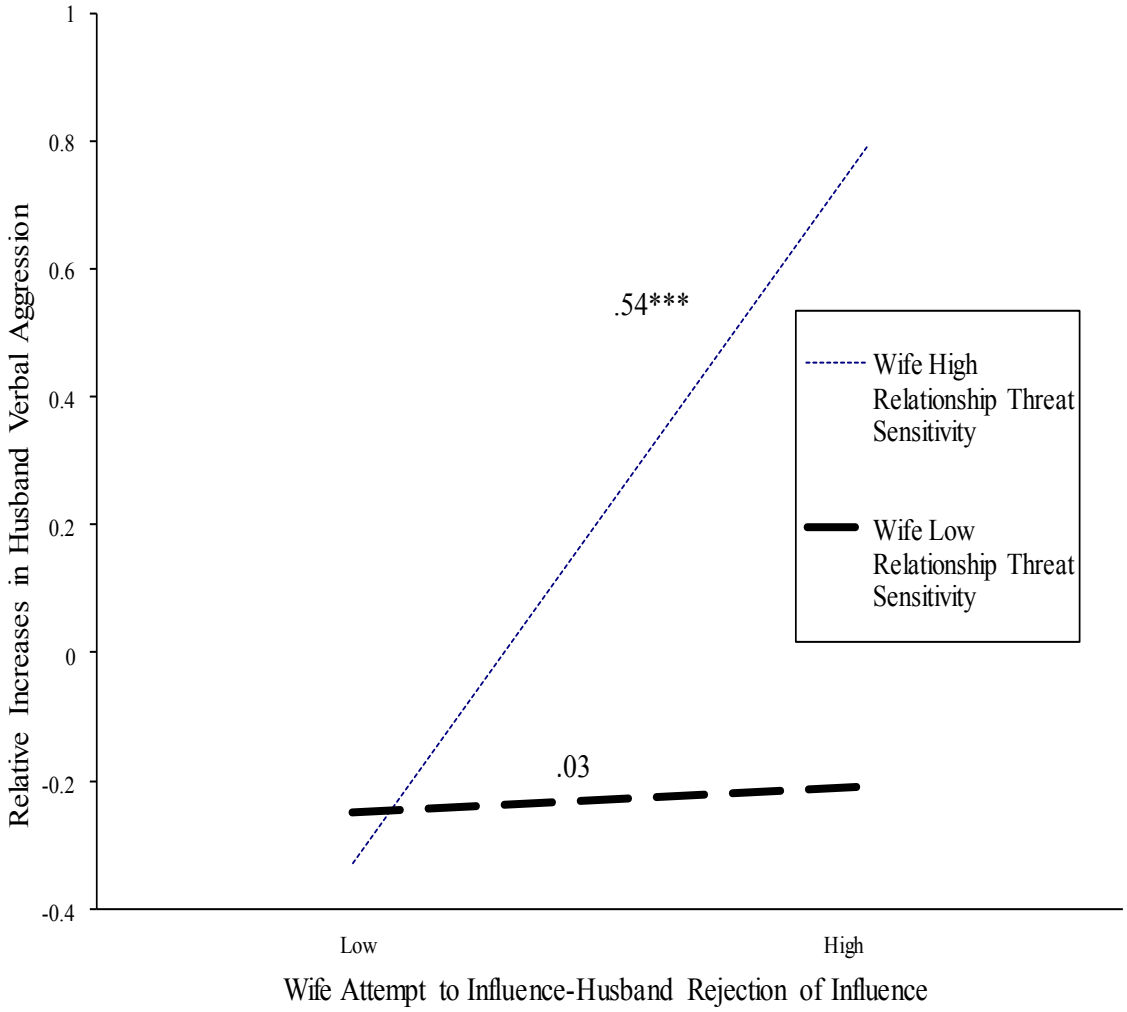

Figure 12. Moderating effect of wife threat sensitivity on wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns in predicting husband verbal aggression

1. D. Longitudinal Associations between Rejection of Influence and Relative Increases in Relationship Distrust

It was hypothesized that more frequent rejection of influence behavior would be associated with relative increases in distrust over time. Findings did not support the hypothesis; husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband distrust over time (β= -.04, p<.77; β= .08, p<.57). Further, wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband distrust over time (β= .06, p=.65; β= .07, p<.57).

Results partially supported the hypothesis regarding the moderating role of relationship satisfaction; more frequent wife attempt--husband rejection of influence patterns predicted relative increases in husband distrust for wives who reported low relationship satisfaction (β= - .37, p<.05).

Next, it was hypothesized that expressed positive affect during partner conflict would moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and distrust, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly associated with increases in distrust over time for dyads with high expressed positive affect. Contrary to the hypothesis; more frequent wife attempt--husband rejection of influence patterns predicted relative increases in husband distrust for husbands who initiated high expressed positive affect (β= .31, p<.05). Ethnicity and relationship threat sensitivity did not moderate the association between rejection of influence patterns and distrust.

In sum, there was no support for the hypothesis that greater rejection behaviors would predict relative increases in relationship distrust over time. Partial support was

found for the prediction that relationship satisfaction would moderate the link between rejection of influence patterns and relationship distrust, as wife attempt--husband rejection of influence patterns predicted increases in husband distrust for wives with low relationship satisfaction. Findings regarding the moderating effect of reciprocal positive affect were not in the expected direction; wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were linked to husband distrust for husbands who initiated *higher* levels of positive affect. Hypotheses regarding ethnicity and relationship threat sensitivity were not supported.

Hypothesis II: Power Patterns and Depression

II .A . Longitudinal Associations between Demand-Withdraw Behaviors and Relative Increases in Internalizing Symptoms

It was hypothesized that more frequent demand-withdraw behavior would be associated with relative increases in internalizing symptoms over time by the demander. Results weakly supported the hypothesis. The association between more frequent wife demand-- husband withdraw patterns and relative increases in wife depressive symptoms approached significance *(*β=.19, $p\leq$.10). However, more frequent wife demand--husband withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases husband depressive symptoms over time (β=.03, p=.78). Further, more frequent husband demand--wife withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband depressive symptoms over time (β=-.14, $p\leq$.10; β=.-13, p=.19, respectively).

Husband ethnic minority status moderated the association between husband demand-- wife withdraw patterns and husband depressive symptoms, such that more frequent husband demand -- wife withdraw patterns were more strongly associated with

relative increases in husband depressive symptoms for Caucasian husbands (β=-22, p<.05).

Further, relationship threat sensitivity moderated the association between husband demand-- wife withdraw patterns and husband depressive symptoms , as more frequent wife demand- husband withdraw patterns were associated with relative increases in husband depressive symptoms over time when wives report high relationship threat sensitivity (see Table 40 and Figure 13).

Table 40. The interaction of wife relationship threat sensitivity and wife demand-husband withdrawal patterns in predicting husband depressive symptoms over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	-.20	-.17+	.04	.04
Baseline Husband Depressive Symptoms	-.33**	.33**	.11**	.15^{+}
Wife Demand Husband Withdraw (Age =21)	.03	-.05	.00	.15^{+}
Wife Relationship Threat Sensitivity	-.05	-.05	.00	.15^{+}
Wife Demand Husband Withdraw* Wife Threat Sensitivity	.29**	.29**	.09**	.24**

Note: $^{+}$ p<.10. *p<.05. ** $p\leq$.01.

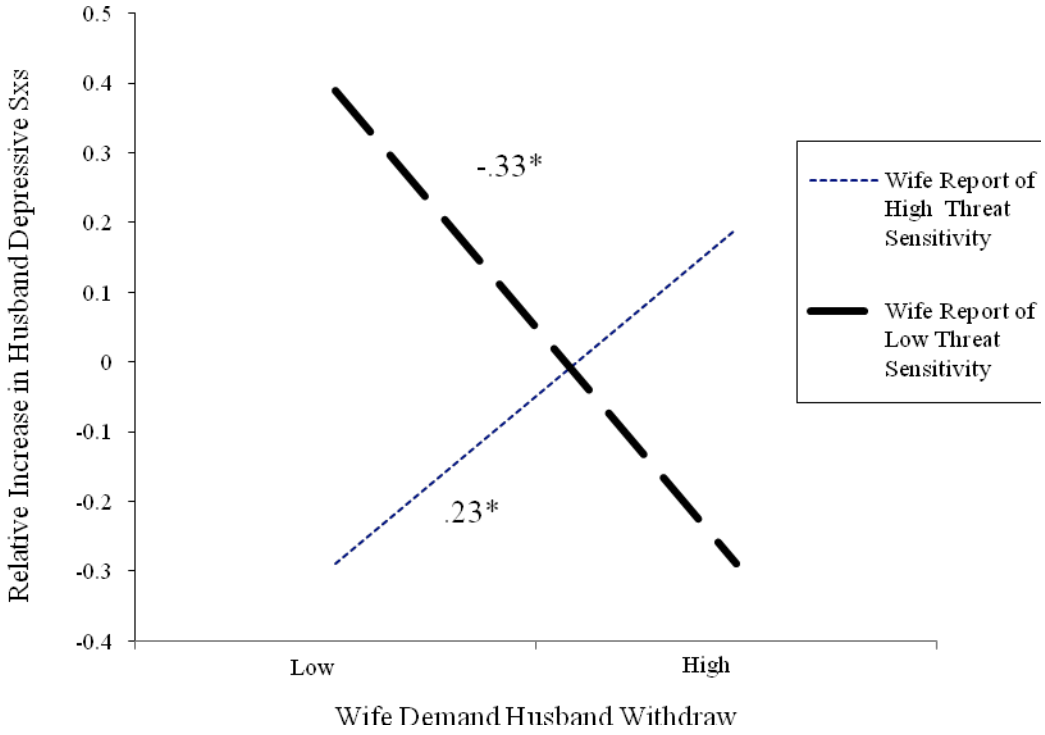

Figure 13. Moderating effect of wife threat sensitivity on wife demand- husband withdraw patterns in predicting husband depressive symptoms.

Additionally, more frequent wife demand-- husband withdraw patterns were associated with *relative increases* in depressive symptoms for wives with low relationship satisfaction, as hypothesized (see Table 41 and Figure 14). Further, more frequent husband demand --wife withdraw patterns were associated with *relative increases* in depressive symptoms for *husbands* of wives who reported low relationship satisfaction(β=-.22, p<.05)

Table 41. The interaction of wife relationship satisfaction and wife demand-husband withdrawal patterns in predicting wife depressive symptoms over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	-.12	-.04	.01	.01
Baseline Wife Depressive Symptoms	.58***	.43***	.34***	.35***
Wife Demand Husband Withdraw	.14***	.26***	.01	.36***
Wife Relationship Satisfaction	-.08	-.13	.01	.37***
Wife Demand Husband Withdraw* Wife Relationship Satisfaction	-.45***	-.45***	.21***	.58***

Note: $^{+}$ $p<.10$. *$p<.05$. ** $p\leq.01$.

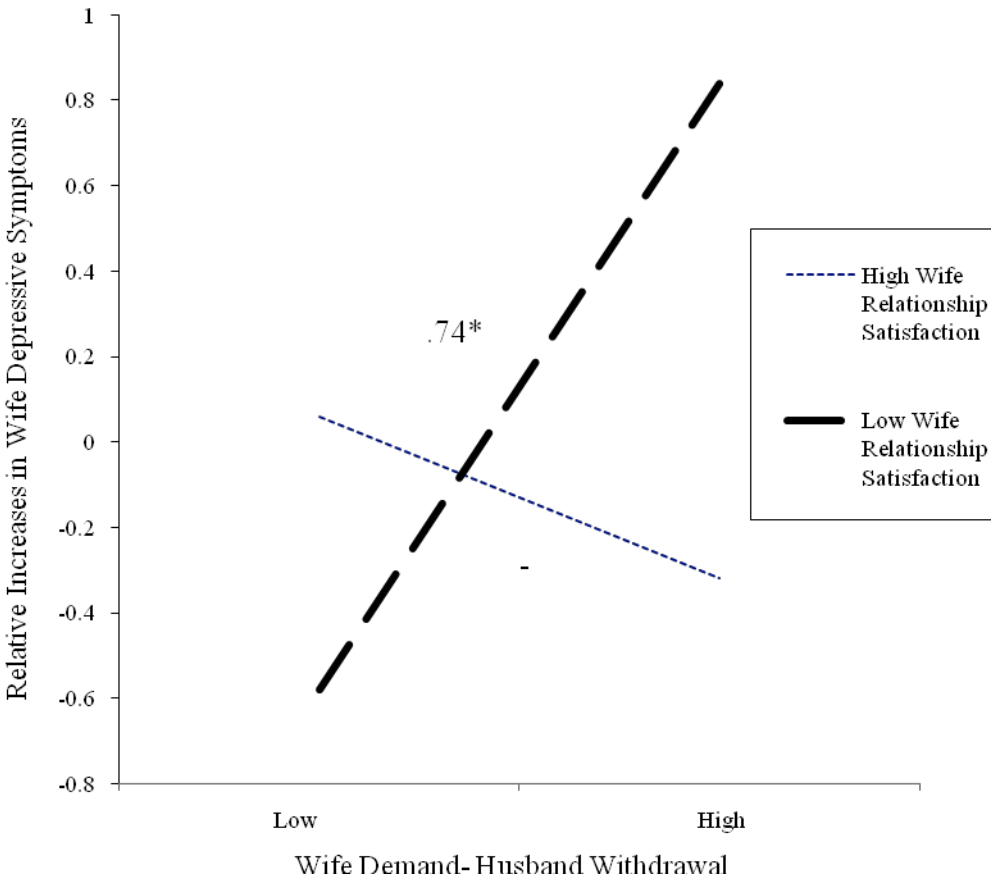

Figure 14. Moderating effect of wife relationship satisfaction on wife demand-husband withdraw patterns in predicting wife depressive symptoms

Next, it was hypothesized that more frequent demand- withdraw patterns would be less strongly associated with relative increases in depressive symptoms for dyads with high reciprocal positive affect during observed conflict. Results did not support the hypothesis; reciprocal positive affect did not moderate the above associations.

In sum, there was partial support for the hypothesis that greater demand-withdraw patterns would predict increases in depressive symptoms for the demander. Further, a significant association was found between demand -withdraw patterns and husband depressive symptoms for those couples with Caucasian husbands. Strong support was found for the moderating effect of both relationship satisfaction and relationship threat sensitivity. Demand- withdraw patterns were consistently associated with relative increases in husband and wife depressive symptoms when wives reported feeling less satisfied, and higher on relationship threat sensitivity. Hypotheses regarding reciprocal positive affect were not supported.

II. B . Longitudinal Associations between Rejection of Influence and Relative Increases in Internalizing Symptoms.

It was hypothesized that more frequent rejection of influence behaviors would be associated with relative increases in internalizing symptoms over time for the individual in the "attempt to influence" role. Results did not support the hypothesis; more frequent wife attempts to influence were not associated with relative increases in wife or husband

depressive symptoms *(β*=.07, *p*=.47; *β*=.04, *p*=.72, respectively). Further, more frequent husband attempts to influence were not significantly associated with relative increases in wife or husband depressive symptoms over time (*β*=-.04, *p*=.65; *β*=-.05, *p*=.65, respectively).

Next, a moderating effect of ethnic minority status was found, such that, for Caucasian husbands, more frequent wife attempt- husband rejection of influence patterns predicted relative increases in husband depressive symptoms for Caucasian husbands *(β*= -.22, *p*<.05).

Next, a moderating effect was found for relationship threat sensitivity, such that more frequent wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns predicted relative increases in husband depressive symptoms when their wives reported high relationship threat sensitivity (*β*= .23, *p*<.05).

Further, it was hypothesized that a moderating effect of relationship satisfaction would be found, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be more strongly associated with depressive symptoms for individuals who report low relationship satisfaction. Results supported the hypothesis; more frequent wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were associated with relative increases in wife depressive symptoms when wives were also less satisfied (see Table 42 and Figure 15). Further, more frequent wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were associated with relative increases in *husband* depressive symptoms when wives reported feeling less satisfied *(β*= -.27, *p*<.05).

Lastly, it was hypothesized that a moderating effect of positive affect would be found, such that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would be less strongly

associated with depressive symptoms for dyads with high expressed positive affect during observed conflict vs. low expressed positive affect. Positive affect did not moderate the above associations; therefore the hypothesis was not supported.

Table 42. The interaction of wife relationship satisfaction and wife attempt-husband rejection patterns in predicting wife depressive symptoms over time

	β entry	β final	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Total Household Income	-.12	-.05	.01	.01
Baseline Wife Depressive Symptoms	.58	.44***	.34***	.35***
Wife Attempt Husband Rejection of Influence (Age =21)	.07	.22**	.01	.36***
Wife Relationship Satisfaction	-.08	-.07	.01	.37***
Wife Attempt Husband Rejection* Wife Relationship Satisfaction	-.43***	.43***	.16***	.53***

Note: $^{+}p<.10$. $^{*}p<.05$. $^{**}p\leq.01$.

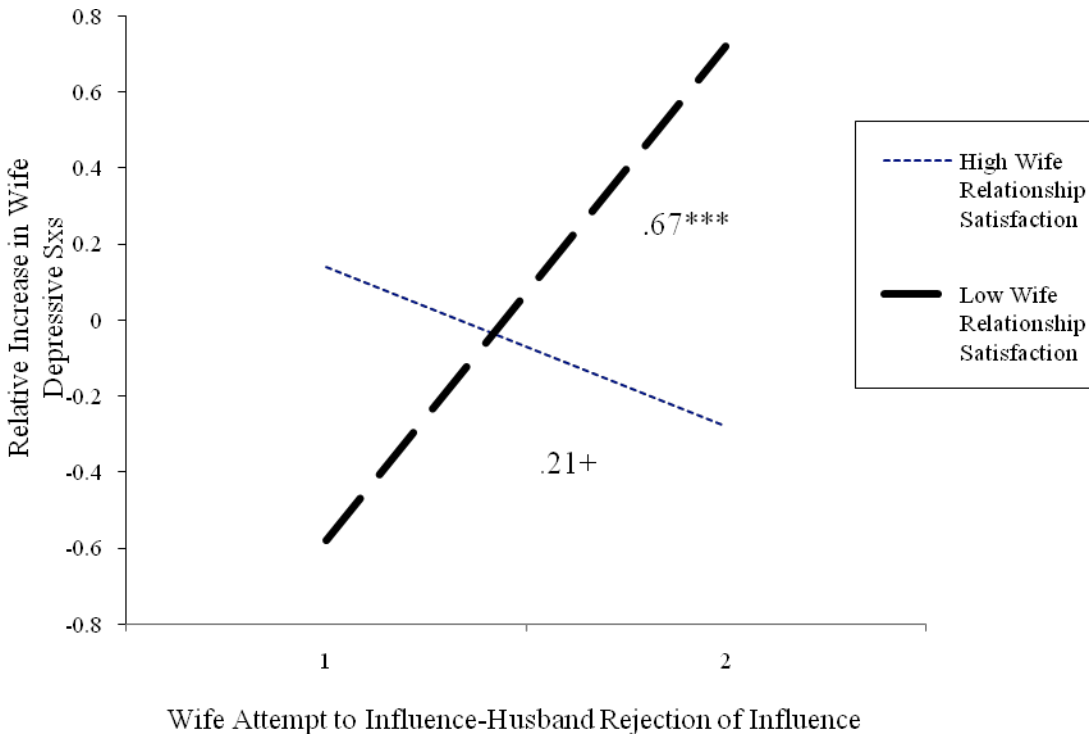

Figure 15. Moderating effect of wife relationship satisfaction on wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns in predicting wife depressive symptoms

In sum, no support was found for the hypothesis that greater attempts to influence in the context of rejection of influence would predict increases in depressive symptoms for the attempter. However, wife attempt-husband rejection patterns were significantly linked to husband depressive symptoms for couples with Caucasian, as compared to Latino husbands. Moderate support was found for the moderating effect of both relationship satisfaction and relationship threat sensitivity. Hypotheses regarding reciprocal positive affect were not supported.

Hypothesis III: Power Patterns and Divorce

III. A . Longitudinal Associations between Demand-Withdraw and Divorce.

It was hypothesized that more frequent demand withdraw behaviors during partner conflict would be associated with relationship dissolution over time. The dichotomous outcome variable, divorce, was coded as 1 for the couples who divorced, and coded as 0 when couples' relationships remained in intact. Results of logistical regression analyses did not support the hypothesis. More frequent wife demand- husband withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with divorce over time (OR=.88, *p*=.70). More frequent husband demand- wife withdraw patterns were not significantly associated with divorce over time (OR=1.59, *p*=.20). In other words there was no statistically reliable main effect difference in likelihood of breakup for those who exhibited more frequent demand -withdraw patterns.

Husband relationship threat sensitivity moderated the association between wife demand-husband withdraw patterns and divorce, such that couples that were one unit above the mean in wife demand-husband withdraw behaviors and husband threat sensitivity were approximately seven times as likely to divorce as those who are at the mean for rejection of influence behaviors and relationship threat sensitivity (see Table 43). Further, none of the additional hypothesized moderators (i.e., ethnicity, relationship satisfaction, positive affect) moderated the association between demand withdraw patterns and divorce over time.

In sum, no support was found for the hypothesis that more frequent demand-withdraw patterns would display an overall effect in predicting likelihood of divorce over time. However, the association between wife demand -husband withdraw patterns and divorce likelihood was stronger for husbands with high relationship threat

sensitivity. Hypotheses regarding reciprocal positive affect, relationship satisfaction, and ethnicity were not supported.

Table 43. The interaction of husband relationship threat sensitivity and wife demand- husband withdraw patterns in predicting divorce

	β entry	β final	OR
Total Household Income	-.26	-.16	.88
Husb Relationship Threat Sensitivity	-.01	.37*	2.94
Wife Demand- Husband Withdraw	-.16	- .21	.56
Wife Demand- Husband Withdraw * Husb Relationship Threat Sensitivity	.64***	.64***	6.70

Note. *$p<.05$. ** $p\leq.01$. *** $p\leq.001$.

III. B. Longitudinal Associations between Rejection of Influence and Divorce

Finally, it was hypothesized that more frequent rejection of influence behaviors during partner conflict would be associated with relationship dissolution over time. Results of logistical regression analyses did not support the hypothesis. More frequent wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were not associated with divorce over time (OR= .88, p=.70). Further, more frequent husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns were not associated with relationship break ups over time (OR= 1.40, p=.26). In other words, there was virtually no difference in likelihood of breakup for those who exhibited more frequent rejection of influence patterns.

A moderating effect of husband relationship threat sensitivity was found, such that couples that were one unit above the mean in wife attempt-husband rejection of influence behaviors and husband threat sensitivity were approximately five times as

likely as those who are at the mean for rejection of influence behaviors and relationship threat sensitivity to divorce (see Table 44). Further, a moderating effect of wife relationship threat sensitivity was found, such that couples that were one unit above the mean in husband attempt- wife rejection of influence behaviors and wife threat sensitivity were approximately three times as likely as those who are at the mean for rejection of influence behaviors and relationship threat sensitivity to divorce (see Table 45). Hypotheses regarding reciprocal positive affect, relationship satisfaction, and ethnic minority status were not supported.

In sum, no support was found for the primary hypothesis that more frequent rejection of influence patterns would predict overall likelihood of divorce over time. However, the association between wife attempt -husband rejection of influence patterns and divorce likelihood was stronger for husbands with high relationship threat sensitivity. Further, the association between husband attempt -wife rejection of influence patterns and divorce likelihood was stronger for wives with high relationship threat sensitivity. Hypotheses regarding reciprocal positive affect, relationship satisfaction, and ethnicity were not supported.

Table 44. The interaction of husband relationship threat sensitivity and wife attempt to influence-husband rejection of influence patterns in predicting divorce

	β entry	β final	OR
Total Household Income	-.26	-.12	.92
Husb Relationship Threat Sensitivity	-.01	.32+	2.43
Wife Attempt- Husband Rejection of Influence	-.17	- .18	.63
Wife Attempt- Husband Rejection of Influence * Husb Relationship Threat Sensitivity	.60***	.60***	4.89

Note. *$p<.05$. ** $p\leq.01$. *** $p\leq.001$.

Table 45. The interaction of wife relationship threat sensitivity and husband attempt to influence- wife rejection of influence patterns in predicting divorce

	β entry	β final	OR
Total Household Income	-.26	-.27	.88
Wife Relationship Threat Sensitivity	.15	.15	1.38
Husband Attempt- Wife Rejection of Influence	.18	.20	1.58
Husb Attempt- Wife Rejection of Influence * Wife Relationship Threat Sensitivity	.55**	.55**	2.60

Note. *$p<.05$. ** $p\leq.01$. *** $p\leq.001$

Hypotheses About Differences Between Samples

Hypothesis I_a: The association between demand and rejection of influence behavior and subsequent aggressive behavior will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample. This hypothesis was not supported. Links between power patterns and aggression were more strongly confirmed in the young adult dating sample

Hypothesis II_a: The association between demand/attempts to influence behaviors and subsequent depressive symptoms for the demanders will be particularly strongly confirmed in the young adult dating sample. This hypothesis was not supported. Weak support was found for the relation between power patterns and internalizing symptoms in the newlywed sample, however no other main effects were found. Based on our findings, it appears that other factors beyond relationship status appear to be more central to the link between power patterns and internalizing symptoms,

such as gender and ethnicity, initiation of positive affects, relationship satisfaction, and attachment anxiety.

Hypothesis III_a: The association between rejection of influence patterns and relationship dissolution will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample. No direct associations were found between power patterns and relationship dissolution, among the young adult dating couples or newlywed couples. However, relationship threat sensitivity moderated the association between rejection of influence patterns and relationship dissolution more consistently in the newlywed sample. Thus, partial support was found for the hypothesis that rejection of influence and relationship dissolution links would be stronger in the newlywed sample, particularly when individuals were higher in relationship threat sensitivity.

Hypothesis 1_b: The moderating role of positive affect in the associations between power processes and psychopathology will be particularly strongly confirmed in the newlywed sample. This hypothesis was not supported. The association between power processes and psychopathology was not attenuated to a greater degree in the Newlywed sample. In fact, overall, the associations between power and dysfunctional outcomes was found to be *stronger* among both young adult dating and newlywed couples who initiated higher levels of positive affect. One result was found in the proposed direction within the young adult dating sample, in that the association between demand-withdraw patterns and jealousy was attenuated when couples exhibited greater positive affect during conflict. Table 46 provides a comprehensive overview of significant results found in each sample.

We also expect to find a few differences in rates of power dynamics and positive affect across samples (in those areas where the samples use common measurement strategies):

Hypothesis I_c: Demand/withdraw and rejection of influence patterns will be exhibited less frequently during observed conflict in the dating sample, as compared to the newlywed sample. This hypothesis was not supported. There were no significant differences found in mean levels of power patterns across samples.

Hypothesis I_d: The expression of positive reciprocal affect will be more frequently observed in the newlywed sample as compared to the dating sample. This hypothesis was not supported. There were no significant differences found in mean levels of positive affect across samples.

Table **46. Overview of results for each sample**

Sample 1: Young Adult Dating Couples	**Sample 2: Newlywed Couples**
Demand Withdraw and Aggression	
• Moderate support for links between demand-withdraw and aggression. Demand Withdraw and Aggression links stronger for couples who: ❖ Identify as African American ❖ Report higher relationship satisfaction ❖ Exhibit more positive affect during conflict ❖ Report higher attachment anxiety	• Weak support for links between demand-withdraw and aggression. Demand -Withdraw and Aggression links stronger for couples who: ❖ Report lower relationship satisfaction ❖ Exhibit more frequent wife demand-husband withdraw patterns ❖ Identify as Caucasian
Demand Withdraw and Jealousy/Distrust	
• No support for links between demand-withdraw and jealousy. No moderators found for young adult dating couples.	• No support for links between demand- withdraw and distrust. Demand- Withdraw and distrust links stronger for couples who: ❖ Report lower relationship satisfaction
Rejection of Influence and Aggression	
• Weak support for links between rejection of influence and aggression. Rejection of Influence and Aggression links stronger for couples who: ❖ Identify as African American	• No support for links between rejection of influence and aggression. Rejection of Influence and Aggression links stronger for couples who: ❖ Identify as Caucasian ❖ Report greater threat sensitivity
Rejection of Influence and Jealousy/Distrust	
• No support for links between rejection of influence and jealousy Rejection of Influence and Jealousy links stronger for couples who: ❖ Report greater attachment anxiety ❖ Exhibit less positivity during conflict	• No support for links between rejection of influence and distrust. Rejection of Influence and Distrust links stronger for couples who: ❖ Report lower relationship satisfaction ❖ Exhibit more positivity during conflict
Demand Withdraw and Internalizing Symptoms	

• No support for links between demand-withdraw and internalizing symptoms. Demand Withdraw and internalizing links stronger for couples who: ❖ Exhibit more positive affect ❖ Report less attachment anxiety	• Partial support for links between demand-withdraw and internalizing symptoms for the demander. Demand Withdraw and internalizing links stronger for couples who: ❖ Identify as Caucasian ❖ Report greater threat sensitivity ❖ Report lower relationship satisfaction
Rejection of Influence and Internalizing Symptoms	
• No support for links between rejection of influence and internalizing symptoms. Rejection of Influence and internalizing links stronger for couples who: ❖ Exhibit more frequent female attempt-husband rejection patterns ❖ Exhibit greater positive affect during conflict	• No support for links between rejection of influence and internalizing symptoms. Rejection of Influence and internalizing links stronger for couples who: ❖ Exhibit more frequent wife attempt-husband rejection patterns ❖ Identify as Caucasian
Demand Withdraw and Relationship Dissolution	
• No support for links between demand-withdraw and relationship dissolution. No moderators found for young adult dating couples.	• No support for links between demand-withdraw and relationship dissolution. Demand-Withdraw and divorce links stronger for couples who: ❖ Report higher relationship threat sensitivity
Rejection of Influence and Relationship Dissolution	
• No support for links between rejection of influence and relationship dissolution. Rejection of Influence and dissolution links stronger for couples who: ❖ Exhibit more frequent male attempt-female rejection patterns	• No support for links between rejection of influence and relationship dissolution. Rejection of Influence and divorce links stronger for couples who: ❖ Report higher relationship threat sensitivity

Discussion

The current study examined two empirically derived measures of relationship power struggles, Christensen's Demand-Withdraw, and Gottman's Rejection of Influence (Christensen, 1990; Gottman et al., 1998). This study examined the manifestation of these power dynamics during videotaped partner conflict in two distinct samples (one dating, one married), and examined the association between power struggles and problematic functioning across relationship and intra psychic domains over time. This study also examined whether a number of contextual variables exacerbated or attenuated links between power and pathology.

The current study extended beyond the existing literature by more closely examining (1) which role is "riskier" in the observed power struggle (i.e., demander or withdrawer; attempter or rejecter) (2) what contextual/dyadic elements matter most in the domain of power and pathology (3) whether power dynamics predict similar or different outcomes across dating and newlywed samples and (4) whether links between observed power patterns and pathology hold up over time. The majority of findings were assessed via longitudinal change models, which provides a clearer understanding of the directional effects of power dynamics on relative changes in symptom distress over time.

Results indicated that engaging in a particular "role" in the demand-withdraw and rejection of influence sequence did not appear to be consistently more predictive of pathological outcomes over time. Instead, it seems that what matters most was that these power dynamics predicted risky outcomes when *coupled* with pre-existing vulnerabilities (attachment anxiety) or cultural contexts (ethnicity, gender). While some clear

similarities were found across the dating and newlywed samples, distinct differences highlight some potential distinctions in the implications of power dynamics between marital and dating relationships.

Similar Patterns across both Young Adult Dating and Newlywed Samples

When examining the results across the young adult dating and newlywed samples, several consistent patterns emerged. First, main effects between demand -withdraw and rejection of influence behaviors and psychopathological outcomes were rarely found, with a few notable exceptions. More specifically, results from Hypothesis I suggest partial support for links between more frequent demand-withdraw patterns and higher levels of verbal aggression across the dating and newlywed samples. Elevated demand-withdraw behaviors during conflict were linked to more frequent use of verbally aggressive behaviors *by both parties* in the relationship, consistent with previous research (Feldman & Ridley, 2003; Sagrestano et al, 1999). More frequent demand-withdraw patterns were not linked with greater aggression by the demander only, in contrast to what was hypothesized.

Overall, it appears that certain moderator variables help to better explain the links between power patterns and pathology across both young adult and newlywed couples than the observed power patterns alone. First, attachment anxiety/relationship threat sensitivity, a measure of one's cognitive-affective-behavioral style in romantic relationships, appears to be a *particularly* important risk factor in the domain of power struggles and psychological distress. For example, power patterns were generally linked to greater global relationship distress (i.e., jealousy, partner aggression) for those

individuals with greater attachment anxiety/relationship threat sensitivity across both the dating and newlywed couples. If individuals enter into relationships with faulty expectations (e.g., fear that their partners will leave or reject them, or belief that their partners are not available/responsive/loving enough), *and* engage in power struggles during conflict discussions, these individuals appear to foster what they fear most: possessive, harsh, and aggressive relationship exchanges.

Further, attachment anxiety appeared to play an important (albeit somewhat different) role in the interplay between power dynamics and depressive symptoms across the two samples. While power dynamics predicted *greater* depressive symptoms when one partner was more sensitive to relationship threat amongst the newlyweds, power patterns were linked with relative *decreases* in internalizing symptoms for those with greater attachment anxiety amongst the dating couples. Possible reasons for the latter, counterintuitive finding are discussed in more detail in the section devoted to findings unique to the dating relationships.

Power Patterns and Positive Affect

Additionally, reciprocal expressed positive affect generally appeared to moderate the association between power dynamics and pathology in an unexpected direction. Power dynamics were generally linked to *greater* pathology for those couples with greater expressed positive affect amongst the dating couples. While this link was much less consistently replicated amongst the newlywed couples, the link between rejection of influence behaviors and jealousy was found for those newlywed couples with greater expressed positivity.

These findings are somewhat consistent with a recent study that found associations between more frequent conflict and greater wife-husband coupling of positive affect (Schermerhorn, Chow, & Cummings, 2010). The authors suggest that expressing positive affect may be one way that couples learn to regulate one another when engaging in more frequent conflict episodes. Further, it is possible that elevated levels of positive affect are not merely capturing pure "positivity" within the dyad; perhaps more frequent positivity (apologies, compliments, validation) could in part be reflecting reassurance-seeking behaviors by one or both partners. Engaging in reassurance-seeking (veiled as positive affect) could potentially place a strain on a relationship that is already being tested by more frequent demand-withdraw behaviors. Unfortunately, while the current data do not enable us to examine the underlying function of exhibiting positive affect during conflict, follow up research is indicated in order to more closely assess the intent of certain affects, that appear, at first glance, to be adaptive.

Further, this finding could be partially explained by a lack of sensitivity in rater assessment of partner's expressed emotions. In the coding system used to rate the couples, raters at times had difficulty distinguishing between "purely positive, joking or affectionate" affect, and other negative affects that contain more toxic forms of humor, such as belligerence, contempt, or nervous laughter. Thus, perhaps some proportion of the rated positive affect could be better represented in another "affective" domain, and might explain why such affect is linked with physically aggressive behaviors.

The finding also suggests that these couples could be understood as generally more "volatile", in that they engage in both negative, competitive interactions *and*

positive emotions (Gottman, 1994). In contrast to Gottman's original assertion that volatile couples fare similarly to more avoidant or validating couples, more recent findings suggest that volatile couples have more dysfunctional relationship outcomes than those who are more consistently validating of one another (Holman & Jarvis, 2003). Physically aggressive couples may be expressing more positivity as a way to compensate for, combat, or cope with, other areas of dysfunction. In line with this notion, high levels of positive emotionality may serve to maintain high relationship expectations, and may subsequently elicit more intense negative reactions when one's relationship expectations are not met; a type of emotional "boomerang effect".

Power Patterns and Internalizing Distress

Further, results from Hypothesis II suggest weak support for direct links between more frequent attempts to influence and greater internalizing symptoms over time across both samples, in contrast to what was hypothesized. However*, female* attempts to influence were predictive of relative increases in female partner's anxious symptoms amongst the dating couples. Similarly, wife attempts to influence were predictive of relative increases in wife depressive symptoms for less satisfied wives, amongst the newlywed couples. Findings are consistent with and extend previous literature that has identified the gendered female attempt-male rejection of influence patterns as particularly predictive of risky outcomes over time (Coan et al., 1997). Male resistance to influence from their female partners may partially be due to societal pressure to maintain a patriarchal, "male dominated" relationship structure. Further, females are more likely to develop depression, and are more likely to experience internalizing distress in relation to relationship problems (Fincham, Beach, Harold, & Osborne, 1997; Nolen-Hoeksema &

Girgus, 1994). Therefore, it is not surprising that female attempts to influence were more closely linked to female's own internalizing distress over time, rather than male's distress.

Despite the gender differences identified in the above findings, several results linked wife attempt-husband rejection of influence behaviors to *husband* depressive symptoms as well, particularly when wives reported less satisfaction and greater threat sensitivity. Although links identified between female attempts to influence and female internalizing distress were relatively stronger, such findings suggests that husband psychological well-being is also influenced by rejection of influence dynamics, and wives' relationship experience (satisfaction, threat sensitivity). Findings extend beyond the extant literature on the interplay between gender, power, and depression. No known studies to date have examined the implications of rejection of influence for *internalizing* distress over time, as the majority of studies have explored how rejection of influence relates to externalizing difficulties.

Power Patterns, Divorce, & Distrust

Additionally, demand-withdraw patterns largely failed to predict jealousy and relationship dissolution, across both samples, with two exceptions among the newlyweds. Greater wife demand--husband withdraw behaviors predicted increases in wife distrust for those wives who reported low relationship satisfaction. Further, more frequent wife demand- husband withdraw behaviors predicted divorce when husbands reported greater relationship threat sensitivity. These findings are consistent with previous findings that

have identified the gendered female demand --male withdraw pattern as *particularly* predictive of relationship distress among marital relationships (Heavey et al*.,* 1993; Noller et al.,1993). Very few studies to date have directly compared demand-withdraw rates across dating and married couples within the same investigation, as the majority of studies have examined such patterns exclusively in married couples. While the links between demand-withdraw behaviors and dissolution/distrust were rather limited across both samples, current findings do suggest that demand-withdraw patterns do not place *dating* couples at a similar degree of risk for break up or jealousy as their married counterparts. Perhaps such patterns place newlywed partners at greater risk for experiencing relationship instability (i.e., distrust, divorce) because such gendered patterns are more entrenched and pervasive (Kim et al., 2007), and the integrity of their burgeoning marital relationship may be more sensitive to individual partner attributes, such as low relationship satisfaction and threat sensitivity. Further, a recent study on prevalence of distrust within dating and marital relationships found that levels of distrust were higher among Hispanics as compared to White couples, and higher in marital as compared to dating relationships(Estacion & Cherlin, 2010). These disparities across relationship status and ethnic minority status is consistent with the finding that wife demand-withdraw patterns were only predictive of wife distrust in the sample of predominantly Latino, marital couples, and also highlights the importance of considering how other partner attributes might differentially impact the implications of power patterns across relationship contexts.

Finally, similar patterns emerged from Hypothesis III in identifying significant associations between female attempt to influence—male rejection of influence patterns

and relationship dissolution across both dating and newlywed samples. While links were found between the more traditional female attempt-male rejection of influence patterns and dissolution, *male* attempt-*female* rejection of influence patterns and threat sensitivity also predicted likelihood to divorce amongst the newlywed couples. Overall, relatively weaker support was found for the association between rejection of influence patterns and relationship dissolution amongst the dating couples, consistent with a more recent study that failed to find associations between rejection of influence and relationship separation in a sample of high-risk, young adults in dating relationships (Kim et al., 2007). Similar to the findings for demand-withdraw behaviors, perhaps the power dynamics within the marital relationships are more ingrained than in the dating relationships, and therefore may be more deleterious to relationship stability.

Findings Unique to Young Adult Dating Sample

Power Patterns and Dating Aggression

Results from Hypothesis I indicated that demand-withdraw behaviors were not directly linked to heightened physically aggressive behavior as had been hypothesized, and this null finding may be partially attributed to the restricted range of physically aggressive behaviors found in this normative, community sample of young adults.

While no direct links between demand -withdraw behaviors and physical aggression were found, several factors were found to moderate the links between demand-withdraw behaviors and aggression. More specifically, demand-withdraw behaviors predicted greater physical aggression victimization for individuals with high attachment anxiety, but the same association was not found for individuals with low

attachment anxiety. These findings are consistent with and extend previous research, which found elevations in demand-withdraw behaviors and verbal aggression amongst partners who were insecurely attached (Domingue & Mollen, 2009). Our findings which specifically pertain to attachment anxiety suggests that a heightened tendency to worry and overreact about the availability and responsiveness of partners may leave anxious individuals vulnerable to harsh, rejecting behavior from their partners, particularly when these individuals are engaging in more demand behaviors (Miga, Hare, Allen, & Manning, 2010). While not by any means justified, this exhibition of physical aggression could perhaps be one way that partners attempt to gain some distance from their more "anxiously attached" counterparts, as individuals with heightened attachment anxiety often exhibit more clingy, dependent behaviors that could serve to squelch their partner's sense of autonomy in the relationship.

Further, relationship satisfaction moderated the association between demand-withdraw behavior and aggression in an unexpected direction. More frequent demand-withdraw behavior were associated with overall greater verbal aggression in relationships when individuals reported feeling *more* satisfied. Perhaps to a particular subset of individuals, more frequent demand-withdraw behaviors and reciprocal verbal aggression may be perceived as normative, and even a reflection of relationship engagement, and therefore may not be associated with greater perceived dissatisfaction in the relationship.

Similarly to the demand-withdraw findings, heightened rejection of influence patterns predicted higher levels of verbal aggression, but no direct links were found between rejection of influence and physical aggression by either partner. Further, the association between rejection of influence and verbal aggression approached significance,

so only tentative conclusions can be drawn. Findings were in the expected direction, in that individuals who were more rejecting of partners' attempts at influence (i.e., exhibiting more contemptuous, provocative, or belligerent behavior during conflict) also were more verbally aggressive towards their partners more generally. This finding is consistent with previous research that found links between rejection of influence and higher levels of partner violence (Coan et al., 1997). Additionally, more frequent rejection of influence patterns predicted greater physical aggression when reciprocal positive affect was expressed more frequently during conflict. This is consistent with the finding that couples who demonstrated higher demand-withdraw behaviors *and* positive emotionality during conflict also reported more physical aggression in their relationships.

Further, heightened attempts to influence one's partner (i.e., expressed sadness in an attempt to persuade, fear/tension, whining) were linked with more verbal aggression for African American couples, but not Caucasian couples. Previous research suggests that minority individuals are more likely to be of lower socioeconomic status, and African American males in particularly may be less likely to have achieved traditional markers of success, such as educational and occupational mobility, as compared to their African American female counterparts (McKinnon, 2003). Such stressors may place undue strain on relationships, and may lead minority couples in particular to resort to more maladaptive means of relationship influence, in the form of power negotiations and aggressive behaviors (Carlson, 1984; West, 1997). A review of the literature reveals a surprising paucity of studies that have considered minority status as a potential moderating variable of power dynamics and aggression; therefore the current findings

offer an additional contextual lens through which to understand rejection of influence behaviors.

Rejection of Influence and Distrust

While moderate support was found for the association between power negotiation patterns and partner aggression, neither demand-withdraw nor rejection of influence patterns alone predicted increases in jealousy over time. However, individuals who were more rejecting of influence (i.e., belligerent, contemptuous) during conflict reported relative increases in jealousy over time if they *also* reported being more anxiously attached. An individual with heightened romantic attachment anxiety often exhibits exaggerated worry about their partner's investment in the relationship. Therefore, engaging in conflict with one's partner may serve to threaten an already tenuous concept of partner availability, which may not only be associated with more provocative, intense negative emotions during conflict, but may also lead to heightened, and problematic levels of jealous, possessive feelings in their romantic relationships.(Buunk, 1997; Knobloch, Solomon, & Cruz, 2001).

Power Patterns and Anxiety

Results from Hypothesis II suggest relatively weak support for direct links between more frequent demand-withdraw patterns and internalizing symptoms over time. Demand behaviors were not directly linked to anxious or depressive symptoms over time, as predicted. Several results were found in the opposite direction to what was hypothesized. More specifically, more frequent withdrawal (i.e., defensiveness,

stonewalling) in the context of demand behaviors was associated with *relative decreases* in anxious symptoms over time for those withdrawing individuals who also reported greater attachment anxiety. This finding was in an unexpected direction, and could perhaps be understood more easily when we think about the needs and desires of an individual with a more anxious romantic attachment. Since more anxiously attached individuals often enter into relationships yearning for greater engagement and investment from their partners, experiencing a partner as demanding or domineering during conflict may be perceived as satisfying to an individual who is anxiously attached, albeit in an ultimately dysfunctional way, as demands and conflict behaviors could be construed as relationship engagement.

Another unexpected finding was that individuals who were more withdrawn in the context of partner demands *and* exhibiting more positive emotions during partner conflict, reported *increases* in anxious symptoms over time. Individuals who are more withdrawn may be exhibiting more defensiveness or stonewalling during conflict as an attempt to regulate and soothe their reactivity and anxiety that becomes activated during an emotionally evocative conflict situation (Denton, Burleson, Hobbs, Von Stein, & Rodriguez, 2001; Gottman, 1994; Richards, 2004). Further, greater withdrawal in the face of demands has been found to be more strongly linked to self-reported stress than demand behaviors, consistent with the current finding (Malis & Roloff, 2006). Yet why might the link between withdrawal and anxiety only be found for withdrawing individuals who also express positive emotions during conflict? This finding runs somewhat counter to previous literature, as internalizing symptoms have more commonly been linked to more *destructive* emotions during marital conflict (Papp, Goeke-Morey, &

Cummings, 2007). Perhaps these defensive individuals are initiating more positive affect for the very same reasons they withdraw, as an attempt to manage or assuage the conflict situation, placate their partner, or even to seek reassurance from their partner. Excessive reassurance seeking has been linked to both anxiety and depression; as such individuals are more likely to seek assurance from partners as a way to help bolster their fragile self concept (Joiner, Katz & Lew, 1999; Joiner, Metalsky, Katz, & Beach, 1999).

Additionally, participant rejection in the context of partner attempts to influence were associated with *relative increases in depressive symptoms* for those participants who expressed high reciprocal positive affect. This rather counterintuitive finding is nonetheless consistent with the finding that greater withdrawal was linked to greater internalizing distress for those who expressed greater positive emotions. Similarly to the explanation of that finding, it may be that individuals are expressing positive emotion in an attempt to assuage their partner, seek reassurance, or maintain the relationship. Such strategies may ultimately prove burdensome, and may result in increases in internalizing distress over time for those individuals.

Findings Unique to Newlywed Sample

Power Patterns and Marital Aggression

Results regarding Hypothesis I indicate that greater wife demand-husband withdraw behaviors were linked with heightened verbal aggression by *both* parties in the relationship, for Caucasian husbands, but not for Latino husbands, contrary to what was hypothesized. This finding is in contrast to previous research that has identified

consistent links between demand-withdraw and marital distress across cultures, (Christensen & Eldridge, 2005; Rehman & Holtzworth-Munroe, 2006). Perhaps one reason that wife demand- husband withdraw patterns predicted aggression for Caucasian and not Latino couples is that Latino couples may be more accustomed to the more traditional social structure that some theorists claim is indicative of greater male relationship control (i.e., wife demand-husband withdrawal), and therefore such gendered patterns may not be predictive of marital distress in the same way that it is for Caucasian couples. Further, as mainstream society generally shifts towards more egalitarian relationships (Thornton & Young-Demarco, 2001), elevated wife demand- husband withdraw patterns might produce more friction if Caucasian couples have expectations for more equitable relationship exchanges between husband and wife. Future research would profitably examine how potential differences in acculturation, socioeconomic status and educational/employment opportunities might aid in interpreting the findings, as full-time employment, educational attainment, and greater acculturation have been linked with more egalitarian gender-role attitudes (Cunningham, Beutel, Barber, & Thornton, 2005; Leaper & Valin,1996).

Further, husband demand-wife withdraw patterns were associated with increases in wife verbal aggression when husbands reported less relationship satisfaction. Findings are consistent with previous literature that has identified partner dissatisfaction as one factor that strengthens the association between demands and marital distress (Thorpe et al., 2004). Among the newlyweds, spousal withdrawal was more consistently related to perpetration of verbal aggression than spousal demands, suggesting that demand behavior

does not place a partner at relatively greater risk for externalizing difficulties, contrary to what was hypothesized.

While husband attempt- wife rejection of influence patterns were associated with relative *decreases* in wife and husband verbal aggression for Latino husbands; the same association was not found for Caucasian husbands, contrary to what was hypothesized. Results were surprising in that one might conjecture that wife rejection of husband's influence (manifested by wife belligerence and/or contempt) might be seen as particularly provocative in a more patriarchal family structure, thus leading to increases, rather than decreases in, relationship distress. Further, wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were associated with relative increases in partner aggression more generally for Caucasian, not Latino, husbands. This is the first known study to date that has more closely examined ethnic differences in the rejection of influence pattern. The somewhat counterintuitive findings suggest that perhaps the rejection of influence dynamic is interpreted and experienced differently for Latino couples, and previously established links between rejection of influence and relationship distress may not be generalized to non-white couples.

Additionally, mixed results were found regarding the moderating effect of relationship satisfaction. Husband attempt-wife rejection of influence patterns predicted relative decreases in wife verbal aggression over time, under two conditions: when wives reported low satisfaction, and when husbands reported *high* satisfaction. In sum, it appears that the reversal of the more traditional, gendered rejection of influence pattern is predictive of less aggression for the wife, but this link varies based on self or partner level of satisfaction. Perhaps the reversal of traditional roles in the rejection of influence

dynamic, particularly in the context of wife's topic of disagreement, is one sign of the husband's engagement in the conflict resolution process, thus contributing to more adaptive relationship dynamics on the part of the wife.

Finally, wife attempt-husband rejection of influence patterns were predictive of both husband aggression and husband distrust, but only when wives report greater sensitivity to threat, and lower relationship satisfaction, respectively. Again, power dynamics alone do not appear directly predictive of relationship dysfunction, but when rejection of influence patterns are paired with particular vulnerabilities in one partner (threat sensitivity, low satisfaction), this appears quite predictive of husband's relationship distress over time. As relationship threat sensitivity can be understood as one measure of relationship insecurity, findings are consistent with previous research that suggests that even one "insecure" partner in the dyad can greatly influence maladaptive relationship dynamics (Dominque & Mollen,2009).

Demand-Withdraw and Depressive Symptoms

Results from Hypothesis II found links between wife demand-husband withdraw patterns and husband depressive symptoms, when wives were high on threat sensitivity. Further, wife demand-husband withdraw patterns predicted relative increases in wife depressive symptoms, when wives were low on relationship satisfaction. Results are consistent with and extend previous findings that link marital communication problems, low satisfaction and partner depressive symptoms (Byrne & Carr, 2000; Coyne, Thompson, & Palmer, 2002). The current study's use of longitudinal change models in a mixed gender sample help to illuminate the specific risk that destructive power

dynamics pose for the exacerbation of depressive symptoms over time, for both wives and husbands alike.

Rejection of Influence and Divorce

While direct links between rejection of influence patterns and divorce were found among newlywed couples in previous research (Gottman et al., 1998), links between rejection of influence and divorce were only found when partners reported high relationship threat sensitivity in the current study. Further, husband *and* wife initiated rejection of influence patterns were both predictive of divorce in the current study, in contrast to the Gottman et al. finding that divorce was solely predicted by the gendered wife attempt-husband rejection pattern. Measurement and sample differences likely contribute to differing results, as this newlywed sample differs from Gottman's original newlywed sample on characteristics such as geographic region, ethnic composition, and age. Further, while the observed rejection of influence patterns were originally coded by Gottman using a "sequential, conditional probability" approach, the current study utilized a more global assessment of dyadic rejection of influence exchanges. Future research should more closely control for such factors in order to establish whether failure to directly replicate Gottman's original findings is attributable to sample differences, or suggests lack of robustness and generalizability.

Predictive Value of Demand-Withdraw vs. Rejection of Influence

Further, one of the study's objectives was to compare whether and how the two distinct power patterns under investigation (Christensen's Demand-Withdraw and Coan & Gottman's Rejection of Influence) are similarly associated with pathology over time.

While the demand-withdraw and rejection of patterns were both highly correlated to one another and overlapped conceptually, similarities and differences in predictions of risky outcomes were found. Specifically, among the dating couples, demand-withdraw patterns were slightly more predictive of aggression than rejection of influence patterns. Further, rejection of influence interacted with ethnic minority status to predict aggression, while demand-withdraw patterns interacted with attachment anxiety and relationship quality to predict aggressive behaviors. While no associations were found between demand-withdraw patterns and jealousy, rejection of influence interacted with attachment anxiety to predict greater jealous behavior. Neither demand-withdraw nor rejection of influence patterns directly predicted internalizing symptoms among the dating couples, but several counterintuitive findings were identified; demand-withdraw behaviors were associated with lower anxious symptoms for those with high attachment anxiety, and rejection of influence was associated with greater depressive symptoms for those with high expressed positivity. Finally, male attempt to influence-female rejection of influence patterns predicted increased likelihood for break up, but demand-withdraw patterns did not predict increased break up likelihood. Findings for the dating sample suggest that while these power patterns are highly correlated, they interact with specific contextual variables to pose unique risks to relationships. While demand-withdraw may pose slightly more risk for aggression in the current study, rejection of influence patterns appear to be more predictive of jealousy and break up over time. These findings need to be replicated before more definitive conclusions can be drawn, however results do suggest that it is important to pay close attention to the specific manifestation of power

struggles, as power patterns "are not created equal", particularly in the dating relationships.

In regards to the newlyweds, demand-withdraw and rejection of influence patterns played out much more similarly. These power patterns were similarly predictive of partner aggression, and ethnic minority status moderated both power patterns in identical ways, such that stronger associations were found between both demand-withdraw and rejection of influence and aggression, for Caucasian couples. Both power patterns interacted with low satisfaction to predict more relationship distrust, and greater depressive symptoms among the newlyweds. Both power patterns also interacted with threat sensitivity to similarly predict depressive symptoms and increased divorce likelihood. In sum, while differences between the power patterns were also found, demand-withdraw and rejection of influence patterns appeared to predict relatively similar risks over time for newlyweds, in contrast to the dating couples. Perhaps the power dynamics in the longer-term, marital context are more entrenched, and therefore may be more consistently associated with harmful outcomes for the newlyweds.

Limitations

Limitations of the current study include the following. First, only one partner's topic was coded in each sample, which suggests that future research should take into account both partners' topics in order to control for the influence of topic investment on power dynamics. In addition, while the vast majority of analyses were longitudinal change models, a portion of the analyses in the young adult dating sample were cross-sectional, which prevents us from making stronger conclusions about directionality of

effects. Further, although the current study uses methodologically rigorous observational methods to assess power dynamics and other expressed affects, the current study does not assess the underlying function of the behaviors and non-verbal displays of affects, nor an individual's interpretation of their partner's affective expressions. Interpretation and function of expressed affects might vary considerably based on factors such as cultural context, type of relationship, attachment history and relationship quality. Finally, both community- based samples were comprised solely of heterosexual couples. As a result, future research should be conducted that examines power dynamics in gay and lesbian intimate relationships, and/or in couples from higher risk backgrounds, to assess the degree of generalizability of the current findings.

Overall Conclusions and Implications

In sum, results highlight the importance of examining the implications of demand-withdraw and rejection of influence patterns in conjunction with other psychosocial and cultural contexts that are relevant to relationship functioning. While such power patterns alone were not strong predictors of partner aggression and internalizing distress, results indicate that attachment style, dating status, ethnicity, and dyadic expressed emotion impact whether and how power struggles become destructive to relationship and individual well-being over time. To date, extant research on power dynamics and distress has largely failed to factor in such moderating variables. The current findings enhance our ability to generalize previously observed patterns to an increasingly diverse portion of the population. Further, the current study more closely identified specific risks

associated with both roles within each power sequence, as research to date has mainly explored global implications of these communication patterns. Findings highlight the importance of developing interventions that examine clients' affective experiences and negotiations of power in a broader context of attachment history, relationship status, and cultural background.

The United States is rapidly becoming more ethnically diverse; therefore one of the strengths of the current study is its closer examination of how power dynamics relate to pathology across varied cultural contexts within the U.S. While Hispanic/Latino subcultures are the most prevalent immigrant group in the U.S. at the current time, there continue to be significant disparities in help-seeking amongst minority subgroups. The current findings provide additional empirical support for the importance of engaging in culturally sensitive clinical practice, in an effort to develop case conceptualization and couples intervention that reflect an awareness of the unique needs, risk and protective factors associated with particular cultural groups.

Historically, literature on intimate relationship dynamics and depression has primarily examined the impact of these power struggles on females' distress. However, the current findings highlight the fact that maladaptive power dynamics are impacting *both* partners, not just the female. Therefore, it is important to continue to allow male partners to have equal representation in both the research and therapy context, as such findings begin to challenge more traditional models of "female-dominated depression", and may inform more effective treatments for males with co-occurring depression and relationship difficulties. Current findings also suggest that power dynamics pose risks for marital couples that don't uniformly apply to the dating context, so couples therapists

should use caution in applying a "one size fits all" couples intervention to marital and dating relationships alike.

Finally, results suggest the importance of educating partners and therapists on the dangers of engaging in *both roles* in the power struggle. In contrast to the "principle of least interest" theory that posits the partner who is more withdrawn, or "less invested" in the relationship asserts power and control, current findings suggest that neither party "wins" or ultimately holds the power in the relationship. In contrast, both roles in the power struggle confer risks for the development of pathology over time. Undue attention has been made to the demander, and the rejecter: they're potentially more provocative at first glance, they elicit and express more emotion in the therapeutic context, and they often make louder bids for attention (literally). But in fact, more attention should be paid to the withdrawer in the sequence, as current results suggest that these individuals are also at risk for experiencing considerable distress over time.

Finally, several counterintuitive findings emerged from the current study. For example, expressing positive emotions during conflict appeared to generally exacerbate couple distress rather than alleviate it, contrary to what was originally predicted. Further, individuals who were both higher on attachment anxiety and experienced more partner demands reported feeling *less* anxious over time, rather than more anxious. Such findings highlight the importance of gaining a clearer understanding of the underlying *function and intent* of these expressed emotions during conflict. Relationship dynamics and intimate emotions are complex and deep-seated, and couple and family dynamics function in such a way that often "work" for couples, even if these dynamics are quite *dys*functional. For this reason, couples therapists who try to rework dynamics purely at

the behavioral level without careful consideration to the affective meaning underlying the observed dynamics are likely to be met with a fair amount of resistance. Therefore, these findings suggest that it will behoove therapists to recognize the pervasiveness of such power dynamics, even in non-clinical samples, and to encourage couples to begin to address the needs and motivations beneath the specific roles they adopt, as this will likely lead to more sustainable changes in couple behavior.

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Appendix A: Network of Relationships Inventory

We are interested in the different kinds of things young adults experience in romantic relationships. Please answer the following questions as they relate to your partner . Please check the box that best describes your relationship:

	Never/ None	A Little	Somewhat	Quite a Bit	Extremely Much
1. How much free time do you spend with this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. How much do you play around and have fun with this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. How often do you go places and do enjoyable things with this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. How much do you and this person get upset with or mad at each other?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. How much do you and this person disagree and quarrel?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. How much do you and this person argue with each other?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. How much does this person teach you how to do things that you don't know how to do?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. How much does this person help you figure out or fix things?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. How often does this person help you when you need to get something done?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. How much do you and this person get on each other's nerves?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. How much do you and this person get annoyed with each other's behavior?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. How much do you and this person hassle or nag each other?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. How much do you talk about everything with this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. How much do you share your secrets and private feelings with this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. How much do you talk to this person about things that you don't want others to know?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. How much do you help this person with things s/he can't do by him/herself?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. How much do you protect and look out for this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. How much do you take care of this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. How much does this person like or love you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. How much does this person really care about you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. How much does this person have a strong feeling of affection (loving or liking) toward you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. How much does this person treat you like you're admired or respected?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Never/ None	A Little	Somewhat	Quite a Bit	Extremely Much
23. How much does this person treat you like you're good at many things?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. How much does this person like or approve of the things you do?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. How much do you tell the other person what to do (more than they tell you what to do)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Between you and this person, how much do you tend to be the boss in the relationship?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. In your relationship with this person, how much do you tend to take charge and decide what should be done?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. How sure are you that this relationship will last no matter what?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. How sure are you that your relationship will last in spite of fights?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. How sure are you that your relationship will continue in the years to come?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. How often do you turn to this person for support with personal problems?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. How often do you depend on this person for help, advice, or sympathy?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. When you are feeling down or upset, how often do you depend on this person to cheer you up?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. How often does this person point	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

out your faults or put you down?					
35. How often does this person criticize you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. How often does this person say mean or harsh things to you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. How often does this person get his/her way when you two do not agree about what to do?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. How often does this person end up being the one who makes the decisions for both of you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. How often does this person get you to do things his/her way?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. How satisfied are you with your relationship with this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. How good is your relationship with this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. How happy are you with the way things are between you and this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. How much does this person punish you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. How much does this person discipline you for disobeying him/her?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. How much does this person scold you for doing something you are not supposed to do?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix B: Areas of Change Questionnaire

In every relationship there are behaviors one or both partners seek to change. Behaviors may occur either too often or not often enough. For example, a partner may be dissatisfied because the other takes out the garbage only once a week. The desired change would be for this behavior to occur more often. On the other hand, one might be dissatisfied because too much time was being spent cleaning up the house: in this case the desired change would be for this behavior to occur less often. In other words, a person's dissatisfaction with partner performance of a particular behavior can be expressed as a desire for a behavior to occur either more or less often.

The following pages list typical behaviors which can cause relationship dissatisfaction. As you read each item, decide whether you are satisfied with your partner's performance described in that item. If you are satisfied with your partner's performance or if an item is not relevant to you, check the zero point on the scale, meaning **"NO CHANGE DESIRED."**

If you are not satisfied with your partner's performance in a particular item, indicate how much less you would like to see. Use the rating scale accompanying each item. If you would prefer to see a particular behavior occur less often, circle the number on the "minus" half of the rating scale and indicate how much less you would like this behavior to occur. If you would prefer to see a behavior occur more often, circle the appropriate number on the plus side of the scale.

I want my partner to:

		much less			no change		much more	
	Major Disagreement							
43.	Assert power and control.	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3

Appendix C: Relationship Assessment Scale

We are interested in how teens feel when in romantic relationships. Please answer the following questions as they relate to your current relationship.

	1 **Not at all**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5** **Extremely well**
1. How well does your partner meet your needs?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. How good is your relationship compared to most?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. How much do you love your partner?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. How many problems are there in your relationship?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix D: Quality of Marriage Index; Relationship Satisfaction

SS

Please circle the number that corresponds to your relationship with your partner.

1. We have a good relationship.

I Strongly Agree — I Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. My relationship with my partner is very stable.

I Strongly Agree — I Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. My relationship with my partner is strong.

I Strongly Agree — I Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. My relationship with my partner makes me happy.

I Strongly Agree — I Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. I really feel like part of a team with my partner.

I Strongly Agree — I Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. All things considered, what degree of happiness best describes your relationship?

Unhappy — Happy — Perfectly happy

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Appendix E: Experiences in Close Relationships

The following statements concern how you feel in romantic relationships. We are interested in how you GENERALLY experience relationships, not just in what is happening in a current relationship. Respond to each statement by checking the box that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Somewhat disagree**	**Neutral / mixed**	**Somewhat agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
2. I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
3. Just when my partner starts to get close to me, I find myself pulling away.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
4. I get uncomfortable when a romantic partner wants to be very close.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
5. I don't feel comfortable	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

opening up to romantic partners.							
6. I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
7. I am nervous when a partner gets too close to me.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
8. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
9. I try to avoid getting too close to my partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
10. I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
11. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on romantic partners.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
12. I prefer not to be too	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

close to romantic partners.							
13. I tell my partner just about everything.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
14. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
15. I feel comfortable depending on romantic partners.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
16. I don't mind asking romantic partners for comfort, advice, or help.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
17. It helps to turn to romantic partners in times of need.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
18. I turn to my partner for many things, including comfort and reassurance.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

19. I worry about being abandoned.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Somewhat disagree**	**Neutral / mixed**	**Somewhat agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
20. I worry a lot about my relationships.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
21. I worry that romantic partners won't care as much as I care about them.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
22. I worry a fair amount about losing my partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
23. I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
24. I often want to merge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

completely with romantic partners, and this sometimes scares them away.							
25. I worry about being alone.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
26. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
27. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
28. Sometimes I feel that I force my partners to show more feeling and more commitment.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
29. I do often worry about being abandoned.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

30. If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
31. I find that my partner(s) don't want to get as close as I would like.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
32. When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel somewhat anxious and insecure.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
33. I get frustrated when my partner is not around as much as I would like.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
34. I get frustrated if romantic partners are not available when I need them.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

35. When romantic partners disapprove of me, I feel really bad about myself.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
36. I resent it when my partner spends time away from me.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

Appendix F: Relationship Behavioral Inhibition System /Relationship Behavioral Activation System

Each item of this questionnaire is a statement that a person may either agree with or disagree with. For each item, indicate how much you agree or disagree with what the item says. Choose only one response to each statement. Please be as accurate and honest as you can be. Respond to each item as if it were the only item. That is, don't worry about being "consistent" in your responses. Choose from the following four response options:

1 = very true for me
2 = somewhat true for me
3 = somewhat false for me
4 = very false for me

_____ 1. Even if I think something bad is about to happen in my marriage, I rarely experience fear or nervousness.

_____ 2. I go out of my way to be connected to my spouse.

_____ 3. When things are going well in my marriage, it draws me to the relationship even more.

_____ 4. I'm always willing to try something new in my marriage if I think it will be fun.

_____ 5. When my marriage is going well, I feel excited and energized.

_____ 6. Criticism or scolding from my spouse hurts me quite a bit.

_____ 7. When I want something good to happen in my marriage, I go all-out to make it happen.

_____ 8. I will often do things with my spouse for no other reason than that they might be fun to do together.

_____ 9. If I see a chance to have something good happen in my marriage, I move on it right away.

_____ 10. I feel worried or upset when I think or know my spouse is angry at me.

_____ 11. When I see an opportunity to enhance my marriage, I get excited about doing it.

_____ 12. I'm very spontaneous in my marriage.

_____ 13. If I think something unpleasant is going to happen in my marriage I usually get pretty "worked up."

_____ 14. When good things happen to me in my marriage, it affects me strongly.

_____ 15. I feel worried when I think I've acted poorly in my marriage.

_____ 16. I crave excitement and new sensations in my marriage.

_____ 17. When I see the possibility of something good happening in my relationship with my spouse, I try very hard to make it happen.

_____ 18. I hardly ever experience fear about losing my marriage.

_____ 19. If my spouse and I won a free trip somewhere, I'd get really excited about the fun we'll have together.

_____ 20. I worry about making mistakes in my marriage.

Appendix G: Conflict Tactics Scale

People and their romantic partners don't always agree on things. These disagreements end in different ways. How often does each of these things happen with your disagreements with your partner ? Please check the box that corresponds to your choice.

	Never	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Usually**	**Always**
1. I give in.	□	□	□	□	□
2. My partner gives in.	□	□	□	□	□
3. We compromise.	□	□	□	□	□
4. I ignore or withdraw from the disagreement (no solution).	□	□	□	□	□
5. My partner ignores/withdraws from the disagreement.	□	□	□	□	□
6. I continue to argue and escalate the conflict.	□	□	□	□	□
7. My partner continues to argue and escalate the conflict.	□	□	□	□	□

Here is a list of things you and your romantic partner might do when you have a disagreement. Thinking of **BIG AND SMALL** disagreements, please check the box that corresponds to how often each of these things has happened in

the past year with your partner .

How often have you or your partner done this in the past year?

	Never	Once	Twice	3-5 Times	6-10 Times	11-20 Times	More than 20 Times
8. A. You discussed the issue calmly.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner discussed the issue calmly.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
9. A. You got information to back up your side.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner got information to back up his/her side.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
10. A. You brought in or tried to bring in someone to help settle things.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner brought in or tried to bring in someone to help settle things.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
11. A. You insulted or swore at your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner insulted or swore at you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

	Never	Once	Twice	3-5 Times	6-10 Times	11-20 Times	More than 20 Times
12. A. You sulked and/or refused to talk about it.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner sulked and/or refused to talk about it.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
13. A. You stomped out of the room, house, or yard.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner stomped out of the room, house, or yard.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
14. A. You cried.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner cried.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
15. A. You did or said something to spite your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner did or said something to spite you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
16. A. You threatened	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

to hit or throw something at your partner.							
B. Your partner threatened to hit or throw something at you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
17. A. You threw, smashed, hit, or kicked something.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner threw, smashed, hit, or kicked something.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
18. A. You threw something at your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner threw something at you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
19. A .You pushed, grabbed, or shoved your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner pushed, grabbed, or shoved you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
20. A. You slapped your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner slapped you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

21. A. You hit your partner with your fist or kicked or bit your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner hit you with his/her fist or kicked or bit you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
22. A. You hit or tried to hit your partner with a belt, hairbrush, paddle, stick, or similar item.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

	Never	**Once**	**Twice**	**3-5 Times**	**6-10 Times**	**11-20 Times**	**More than 20 Times**
B. Your partner hit or tried to hit you with a belt, hairbrush, paddle, stick, or similar item.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
23. A. You hit or tried	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

to hit your partner with a club, baseball bat, lamp, chair, or similarly heavy object.							
B. Your partner hit or tried to hit you with a club, baseball bat, lamp, chair, or similarly heavy object.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. A. You beat up your partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
B. Your partner beat you up.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. A. You choked your partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
B. Your partner choked you.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. A. You threatened your partner with a knife or gun.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
B. Your partner threatened you with a knife or gun.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

27. A. You used a knife or gun against your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner used a knife or gun against you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
28. A. You purposely burned or scalded your partner.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
B. Your partner purposely burned or scalded you.	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

<u>In the past year</u>, have you ever been <u>physically</u> hurt by your partner enough to cause you to:

		YES	**NO**
A.	Cry?	□	□
B.	Bruise?	□	□
C.	Show red marks?	□	□
D.	Show Burns?	□	□
E.	Bleed?	□	□
F.	Faint?	□	□
G.	Require medical attention?	□	□

Appendix H: Selected Items of Interest from Daily Diary Reports

210|Today, I criticized my partner.

|0 times|1time|2 times|3 times|4 times|5+ times

220|Today, I "snapped" at or yelled at my partner.

|0 times|1time|2 times|3 times|4 times|5+ times

245|Today, I was inconsiderate or selfish toward my partner.

0 time|1 times|2 times|3 times|4times|5+ times

230|Today, I intentionally ignored my partner

|0 times|1 time|2 times|3 times|4 times|5+ times

330|Today, my partner criticized me.

0 time|1 time|2 times|3 times|4 times|5+ times

340|Today, my partner "snapped" at or yelled at me.

0 times|1 time|2 times|3 times|4 times|5+times

345|Today, my partner was inattentive and unresponsive...

|0 times|1 time|2 times|3 times|4times|5+ times

350|Today, my partner intentionally ignored me.

|0 times|1 time|2 times|3 times|4 times|5+ times

Appendix I: Chronic Jealousy Scale

Please answer the following questions about yourself by circling the number that best describes you.

1. How jealous a person are you generally?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all jealous		moderately jealous		fairly jealous

2. How often have you experienced jealousy in your romantic relationships?

1	2	3	4	5
fairly often		Sometimes		very rarely

3. When you get jealous, how intense is that feeling usually?

1	2	3	4	5
very strong		somewhat strong		very weak

4. Do those who know you well tend to think of you as:

1	2	3	4	5

not usually jealous	sometimes jealous	often jealous

5. How much have your jealous feelings been a problem in your romantic relationships?

1	2	3	4	5
no problem at all		sometimes a problem		often a problem

6. Do you think of yourself as a person who can get jealous easily?

1	2	3	4	5
definitely yes		sometimes		definitely not

Appendix J: Trust Scale

Please indicate your response to each statement by using the following seven-point scale. Respond in the way you feel about the item at present.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly disagree strongly agree

a. My partner has proven to be trustworthy and I am willing to let him/her engage in activities that other partners find too threatening. _____

b. Even when I don't know how my partner will react, I feel comfortable telling him/her anything about myself; even those things of which I am ashamed. _____

c. Though times may change and the future is uncertain, I know my partner will always be ready and willing to offer me strength and support. _____

d. I am never certain that my partner will do something that won't do something that I will dislike or will embarrass me. _____

e. My partner is very unpredictable. I never know how he/she is going to act from one day to the next. _____

f. I feel very uncomfortable when my partner has to make decisions that will affect me personally. _____

g. I have found that my partner is unusually dependable, especially when it comes to things that are important to me. _____

h. My partner behaves in a very consistent manner. _____

i. Whenever we have to make an important decision in a situation that we have never encountered before, I know my partner will be concerned about my welfare. _____

j. Even if I have no reason to expect my partner to share things with me, I still feel certain that he/she will. _____

k. I can rely on my partner to react in a positive way when I expose my weaknesses to him/her. _____

l. When I share my problems with my partner, I know he/she will respond in a loving way even before I say anything. _____

m. I am certain that my partner would not cheat on me, even if the opportunity arose and there was no chance that he/she would get caught. _____

n. I sometimes avoid my partner because he/she is unpredictable and I fear saying or doing something that might create conflict. _____

o. I can rely on my partner to keep the promises he/she makes to me. _____

p. When I am with my partner I feel secure in facing unknown new situations. _____

q. Even when my partner makes excuses that sound rather unlikely, I am confident that he/she is telling the truth. _____

r. I trust my partner. _____

Appendix K: Beck Depression Inventory

For each number, check the box that best describes how you have been feeling in the <u>past week, including today</u>. If more than one statement within a group seems to apply equally well, check each box that applies.

1	I do not feel sad.
	I feel sad.
	I am sad all the time and I can't snap out of it.
	I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it.
2	I am not particularly discouraged about the future.
	I feel discouraged about the future.
	I feel I have nothing to look forward to.
	I feel that the future is hopeless and that things cannot improve.
3	I do not feel like a failure.
	I feel I have failed more than the average person.
	As I look back on my life, all I can see is a lot of failures.
	I feel I am a complete failure as a person.
4	I get as much satisfaction out of things as I used to.
	I don't enjoy things the ways I used to.
	I don't get real satisfaction out of anything anymore.
	I am dissatisfied or bored with everything.

5	I don't feel particularly guilty.
	I feel guilty a good part of the time.
	I feel quite guilty most of the time.
	I feel guilty all of the time.
6	I don't feel I am being punished.
	I feel I may be punished.
	I expect to be punished.
	I feel I am being punished.
7	I don't feel disappointed in myself.
	I am disappointed in myself.
	I am disgusted with myself.
	I hate myself.
8	I don't feel I am any worse than anybody else.
	I am critical of myself for my weaknesses or mistakes.
	I blame myself all the time for my faults.
	I blame myself for everything bad that happens.
9	I don't have any thoughts of killing myself.
	I have thoughts of killing myself, but I would not carry them out.
	I would like to kill myself.
	I would kill myself if I had the chance.

10	I don't cry any more than usual.

	I cry more now than I used to. I cry all the time now. I used to be able to cry, but now I can't cry even though I want to.
11	I am no more irritated now than I ever am. I get annoyed or irritated more easily than I used to. I feel irritated all the time now. I don't get irritated at all by the things that used to irritate me.
12	I have not lost interest in other people. I am less interested in other people than I used to be. I have lost most of my interest in other people. I have lost all of my interest in other people.
13	I make decisions about as well as I ever could. I put off making decisions more than I used to. I have greater difficulty in making decision than before. I can't make decisions at all anymore.
14	I don't feel I look any worse than I used to. I am worried that I am looking old or unattractive. I feel that there are permanent changes in my appearance that make me look unattractive. I believe that I look ugly.
15	I can work about as well as before. It takes an extra effort to get started at doing something. I have to push myself very hard to do anything. I can't do any work at all.
16	I can sleep as well as usual.

	I don't sleep as well as I used to. I wake up 1-2 hours earlier than usual and find it hard to get back to sleep. I wake up several hours earlier than I used to and cannot get back to sleep.
17	I don't get more tired than usual.
	I get tired more easily than I used to. I get tired from doing almost anything. I am too tired to do anything.
18	My appetite is no worse than usual.
	My appetite is not as good as it used to be. My appetite is much worse now. I have no appetite at all anymore.

19a	I haven't lost much weight, if any, lately.
	I have lost more than 5 pounds lately, I have lost more than 10 pounds lately. I have lost more than 15 pounds lately.
19b	I am purposely trying to lose weight by eating less.
	YES NO
20	I am no more worried about my health than usual.

	I am worried about physical problems such as aches and pains, or upset stomach, or constipation. I am very worried about physical problems and it's hard to think of much else. I am so worried about physical problems that I cannot think about anything else.
21	I have not noticed any recent change in my interest in sex. I am less interested in sex than I used to be. I am much less interested in sex now. I have lost interest in sex completely.

Appendix L: Inventory to Diagnose Depression-Current

Take a moment to remember **the past week, including today**. Below are a series of statements that refer to the past week. From each list of five possible responses, determine which statement best describes how you felt **during the past week**. Next, for each statement that describes how you felt, please indicate whether you felt that way for **more or less** than two weeks.

---

1. 1 I did not feel sad or depressed.
   2 I occasionally felt sad or down.
   3 I felt sad most of the time, but I was able to snap out of it.
   4 I felt sad all of the time, and couldn't snap out of it.
   5 I was so sad or unhappy that I couldn't stand it.

2. 1 More than two weeks.
   2 Less than two weeks.

---

3. 1 My energy level was normal.
   2 My energy level was occasionally a little lower than normal.
   3 I got tired more easily or had less energy than is usual.
   4 I get tired from doing almost anything.
   5 I felt tired or exhausted almost all of the time.

4. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

5. 1 I was not feeling more restless and fidgety than usual.

2 I felt a little more restless or fidgety than usual.

3 I was very fidgety, and I had some difficulty sitting still in a chair.

4 I was extremely fidgety, and I paced a little bit almost every day.

5 I paced more than an hour per day, and I couldn't sit still.

6. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

7. 1 I did not talk or move more slowly than usual.

2 I talked a little slower than usual.

3 I spoke slower than usual, and it took me longer to respond to questions, but I could still carry on a normal conversation.

4 Normal conversations were difficult because it was hard to start talking.

5 I felt extremely slowed down physically, like I was stuck in mud.

8. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

9. 1 I did not lose interest in my usual activities.

2 I was a little less interested in 1 or 2 of my usual activities.

3 I was less interested in several of my usual activities.

4 I had lost most of my interest in almost all of my usual activities.

5 I had lost interest in all of my usual activities.

10. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

11. 1 I got as much pleasure out of my usual activities as usual.

2 I got a little less pleasure from 1 or 2 of my usual activities.

3 I got less pleasure from several of my usual activities.

4 I got almost no pleasure from several of my usual activities.

5 I go no pleasure from any of the activities which I usually enjoy.

12. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

13. 1 My interest in sex was normal.

2 I was only slightly less interested in sex than usual.

3 There was a noticeable decrease in my interest in sex.

4 I was much less interested in sex than now.

5 I lost all interest in sex.

14. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

15. 1 I did not feel guilty.

2 I occasionally felt a little guilty.

3 I often felt guilty.

4 I felt quite guilty most of the time.

5 I felt extremely guilty most of the time.

16. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

17. 1 I did not feel like a failure.

2 My opinion of myself was occasionally a little low.

3 I felt I was inferior to most people.

4 I felt like a failure.

5 I felt I was a totally worthless person.

18. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

19. 1 I didn't have any thoughts of death or suicide.

2 I occasionally thought life was not worth living.

3 I frequently thought of dying in passive ways (such as going to sleep and not waking up), or that I'd be better off dead.

4 I had frequent thoughts of killing myself.

5 I tried to kill myself.

20. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

21. 1 I could concentrate as well as usual.

2 My ability to concentrate was slightly worse than usual.

3 My attention span was not as good as usual and I had difficulty collecting my thoughts, but this didn't cause any problems.

4 My ability to read or hold a conversation was not as good as usual.

5 I could not read, watch TV, or have a conversation without great difficulty.

22. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

23. 1 I made decisions as well as usual.

2 Decision making was slightly more difficult than usual.

3 It was harder and took longer to make decisions, but I did make them.

4 I was unable to make some decisions.

5 I couldn't make any decisions at all.

24. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

25. 1 My appetite was not less than normal.

2 My appetite was slightly worse than usual.

3 My appetite was clearly not as good as usual, but I still ate.

4 My appetite was much worse.

5 I had no appetite at all, and I had to force myself to eat even a little.

26. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

27. 1 I didn't lose any weight.

2 I lost less than 5 pounds.

3 I lost between 5 - 10 pounds.

4 I lost between 11 - 25 pounds.

5 I lost more than 25 pounds.

28. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

29. If you circled #2, 3, 4, or 5 on question #27: Were you dieting and deliberately trying to lose weight?

1 YES

2 NO

3 Not relevant – I did not lose any weight.

---

30. 1 My appetite was not greater than normal.

2 My appetite was slightly greater than usual.

3 My appetite was clearly greater than usual.

4 My appetite was much greater than usual.

5 I felt hungry all the time.

31. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

32. 1 I didn't gain any weight.

2 I gained less than 5 pounds.

3 I gained between 5 - 10 pounds.

4 I gained between 11 - 25 pounds.

5 I gained more than 25 pounds.

33 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

34. 1 I was not sleeping less than normal.

2 I occasionally had slight difficulty sleeping.

3 I clearly didn't sleep as well as usual.

4 I slept about half my normal amount of time.

5 I slept less than 2 hours per night.

35. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

36. 1 I was not sleeping more than normal.

2 I occasionally slept more than usual.

3 I frequently slept at least 1 hour more than usual.

4 I frequently slept at least 2 hours more than usual.

5 I frequently slept at least 3 hours more than usual.

37. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

38 1 I did not feel anxious, nervous or tense.

2 I occasionally felt a little anxious.

3 I often felt anxious.

4 I felt anxious most of the time.

5 I felt terrified and near panic.

39. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

40. 1 I did not feel discouraged about the future.

2 I occasionally felt a little discouraged about the future.

3 I often felt discouraged about the future.

4 I felt very discouraged about the future most of the time.

5 I felt that the future was hopeless and that things would never improve.

41. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

42. 1 I did not feel irritated or annoyed.

2 I occasionally got a little more irritated than usual.

3 I got irritated or annoyed by things that usually didn't bother me.

4 I felt irritated or annoyed almost all the time.

5 I felt so depressed that I didn't get irritated at all by things that would normally bother me.

43. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

---

44. 1 I was not worried about my physical health.

2 I was occasionally concerned about bodily aches and pains.

3 I was worried about my physical health.

4 I was very worried about my physical health.

5 I was so worried about my physical health that I could not think about anything else.

45. 1 More than two weeks.

2 Less than two weeks.

Appendix M: State Trait Anxiety Inventory

Below are a number of statements which people have used to describe themselves. Read each statement, and then check the appropriate box to indicate how you GENERALLY feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one.

	Almost Never	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Almost Always**
1. I feel pleasant.	□	□	□	□
2. I tire quickly.	□	□	□	□
3. I feel like crying.	□	□	□	□
4. I wish I could be as happy as others seem.	□	□	□	□
5. I am losing out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.	□	□	□	□
6. I feel rested.	□	□	□	□
7. I am "cool, calm, and collected".	□	□	□	□
8. I feel difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome them.	□	□	□	□
9. I worry too much over something that doesn't really matter.	□	□	□	□
10. I am happy.	□	□	□	□
11. I am inclined to take things hard.	□	□	□	□
12. I lack self-confidence.	□	□	□	□
13. I feel secure.	□	□	□	□
14. I try to avoid facing a crisis or difficulty.	□	□	□	□
15. I feel blue.	□	□	□	□

16. I am content.	□	□	□	□
17. Some unimportant thought runs through my mind and bothers me.	□	□	□	□
18. I take disappointments so strongly that I can't put them out of my mind.	□	□	□	□
19. I am a steady person.	□	□	□	□
20. I get in a state of tension or turmoil as I think over my recent concerns and interests.	□	□	□	□

Appendix N: Kliff- SPAFF Coding Sheet: Sequences

Tape #: _____ Coder: _____

Segment: 1 2 3 4 Date Coded: _____
FEMALE ANTECEDENT

Demand-Withdrawal

1.Female Criticism or domineering followed by male Defensiveness or stonewalling
0 1 2 3 4

Rejection of Influence

2. Female low negative followed by male high negative
0 1 2 3 4

Low Negative Reciprocation

3. Female low negative followed by male low negative
0 1 2 3 4

High Negative Reciprocation

4. Female high negative followed by male High negative

Repair Attempts

5. ANY Female negative followed by ANY male positive
0 1 2 3 4

De-escalation

6. Any female negative followed by male neutral affect
0 1 2 3 4

Positive Reciprocation

7. Any female positive followed by any male positive
0 1 2 3 4