

Dating the Green-Eyed Monster: Cross-Partner Associations Between Jealousy, Power, and  
Relationship Satisfaction in Young Dating Couples

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**Acknowledgements:** This study was supported by grants from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development and the National Institute of Mental Health (5R37HD058305-23, R01HD058305-16A1, R01-MH58066).

**Abstract:**

Jealousy is an important predictor of psychopathology, as well as relationship dissatisfaction and violence. This study examined romantic relationship jealousy as a process influenced by the behaviors and perception of both partners in a relationship and associated with low relationship power. A community sample of 131 couples were assessed between ages 20 and 22, with one partner followed up between the ages of 23 and 28. Utilizing actor-partner interdependence models, partner's low relationship power, as measured through self-report and observer's ratings of autonomy undermining behaviors, was positively associated with actor's jealousy, and actor and partner relationship satisfaction were both negatively associated with the jealousy of each partner. Jealousy also predicted a relative decrease in relationship satisfaction over the following 3 to 6 years. Intervention implications for conceptualizing jealousy dyadically and within a power framework are discussed.

## **Dating the Green-Eyed Monster: Cross Partner Associations Between Jealousy, Power, and Relationship Satisfaction in Young Dating Couples**

Jealousy is a robust portent of individual level dysfunction, such as alcohol abuse, social anxiety, and depression, as well as relationship dissatisfaction and violence ((DiBello et al, 2015; Culotta & Goldstein, 2008; Knox et al., 2007; Brainerd et al, 1996; Elphinston et al, 2013; Babcock et al, 2004; Seiffge-Krenke & Burk, 2015; Deans & Bhogal, 2019). Most research to date has treated jealousy as an intrapsychic phenomenon, exploring predictors such as an insecure attachment orientation, low self-esteem, and hostility (Miller et al, 2014; Harmon-Jones, Peterson, & Harris, 2009; Guerrero, 1998; Sharpsteen & Kirkpatrick, 1997; White & Mullen, 1989; Bringle, 1981). Even when measuring more dyadic phenomena (e.g., relationship outcomes) research has typically assessed only a single partner. This study examined an alternative perspective: that there is value in a dyadic conceptualization of jealousy as influenced by and influencing the actions and perspective of both partners.

Jealousy is particularly relevant to a young adult population. Individuals in dating relationships appear to experience more jealousy than married couples and also tend to display more destructive reactions to jealousy as compared to married individuals (Aylor & Dainton, 2001; Demirta & Dönmez, 2006). Young adults also engage in high levels of physical and relational aggression in general (Straus, 2004). Further, while it is often the case that these relationships dissolve before adulthood, the patterns established during these relationships shape subsequent adult relationships (Sprecher & Fehr, 1998; Tuval-Mashiach & Shulman, 2006). However, jealousy has typically been studied primarily in marital relationships (e.g., Kar & O'Leary, 2013). In contrast, studying jealousy in young adult relationships offers the opportunity to identify paths by which to protect against destructive relationship dynamics in adulthood.

## **Jealousy and Power**

Relationship power is likely a useful framework through which to understand jealousy. Researchers have conceptualized powerlessness as an individual believing they are unable to bring about desirable outcomes (Duck, 1992). In the context of relationships, feeling unable to control the trajectory of the relationship likely prompts vigilance about threats to the relationship, i.e., a potential romantic rival. Individuals who feel powerless may also feel unable to cope with the dissolution of the relationship and feel unable to initiate a new relationship. As such, these individuals would experience both heightened insecurity about and dependence on the relationship, important risk factors of jealousy (White, 1985).

The probable connection between jealousy and power is supported by the principle of least interest which suggests that one partner in a relationship is typically more committed than the other and that the less committed/interested partner can yield that power to exert influence in the relationship (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Waller & Hill, 1951; Oriña et al., 2011; Sprecher, Schmeeckle, & Felmlee, 2006). More committed individuals likely cede decision making to their partners out of fear that efforts to assert their will might drive their partner further away. Thus, in this framework, worry over one's partner leaving the relationship translates into that partner's power within the relationship.

Several lines of research suggest a likely real-world link between jealousy and lack of power. The documented link between intimate partner violence and jealousy suggests a relationship between jealousy and power, as intimate partner violence is a known mechanism for gaining relationship power (O'Leary et al, 2007; Germain, 2001). Additionally, an example of power differentials and jealousy co-occurring can be found in individuals with an anxious attachment orientation who tend to relinquish power to their partners by, for example,

prioritizing the relationship over their own needs and who also experience high levels of jealousy in their relationships (Impett & Gordon, 2010; Crowell, Fraley, & Roisman, 2016; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Finally, experimentally induced jealousy has been linked to overall feelings of powerlessness (Rotenburg, Shewchuk, & Kimberely, 2001). While these indirect links are supported by strong theoretical rationales (e.g., Kar & O’Leary, 2013), research directly assessing the link between jealousy and power within the relationship is lacking.

Examining dyadic and observed associations between jealousy and power is critical in accounting for potentially confounding cognitive biases that could foster feelings of powerlessness in jealous individuals. Self-esteem is a probable example of such cognitive biases, as jealousy is more common in individuals with low self-esteem (Chin et al, 2017; DiBello et al., 2015; Stieger, Preyss, & Voracek, 2012; Khanchandani & Durham, 2009). These individuals are likely particularly prone to worries that their partner will enter a new relationship with someone who can better fulfill their needs and also tend to feel inefficacious, perceiving themselves as lacking power in their relationship (Lane, Lane, & Kyprianou, 2004). However, there is also reason to believe that jealousy is a reaction to real steps taken by ones’ partner to limit their agency and power (e.g., Brainerd et al., 1996). Efforts to undermine a partner’s autonomy are a prime example of such behaviors, as these efforts reduce the recipients control over their life and the trajectory of the relationship and as such increase both the felt dependence of one partner and the relationship power of the other (Hodgins & Knee, 2002). Examining links between observed autonomy undermining behaviors and jealousy, accounting for the perspective of both partners, will allow us to better understand how relationship dynamics create risk for jealousy.

### **Jealousy and Relationship Satisfaction**

Research to date has largely ignored the cross-partner links between jealousy and relationship satisfaction, despite theorized impacts of jealousy on the jealousy target (Bevan, 2006). Relationship dissatisfaction at least implicitly raises the future possibility of moving to an alternative romantic relationship, which could prompt feelings of jealousy in the partners of dissatisfied individuals. Conversely, the distrustful and surveillance behaviors typical of jealous individuals could foment feelings of relationship dissatisfaction in their partners (Andersen et al., 1995; Dainton & Gross, 2008; Guerrero et al., 2011). Both one's own jealousy and perception of one's partner's jealousy have been linked to relationship dissatisfaction (Dandurand & Lafontaine (2014). However, existing research has relied solely on individual self-reports, thus making it impossible to disentangle the role of self-report confounds. Examining the association between the jealousy and relationship satisfaction of both partners would support the notion that jealousy impacts and/or is impacted by both partners in the relationship.

In addition to its potential immediate effects on relationships, jealousy likely also perpetuates adverse relationship patterns that promote unsatisfying romantic relationships and thus predict decreasing relationship satisfaction going forward. Jealous individuals are more possessive of their partners and tend to engage negatively with their partners by for example, surveilling their partner or deliberately eliciting jealousy from their partners (Andersen et al., 1995; Dainton & Gross, 2008; Guerrero et al., 2011; Guerrero, 2014). Such behaviors can become habitual, extending beyond the current relationship to perpetuate a lack of trust or equality in subsequent relationships. Jealousy may also function as a self-fulfilling prophecy, such that perseverating on a partner straying creates distance with one's partner and thus suggests to the jealous person that they were right to be jealous in the first place; this feedback loop would seem likely to further solidify a pattern of jealousy and dissatisfaction in future

relationships. Thus, jealousy appears likely to have *growing* implications over time, not just for current relationships but for future relationships as well, although this has never been examined. In addition, exploring long-term links of jealousy to relationship satisfaction could address one critical potential non-causal explanation for associations examined to date, as prior contemporaneous work has yet to parse out whether jealousy is simply more common in unsatisfying relationships or potentially contributes to relationship dissatisfaction.

Informed by past research, our investigations focused on one component of jealousy, referred to as suspicious jealousy (e.g., Rydell & Bringle, 2007). Suspicious jealousy, or perseverating over the possibility of a partner's future transgression, has been linked to exclusively negative outcomes (DiBello et al., 2015; Bevan, 2008; Elphinston et al., 2013; Elphison, Feeney & Noller, 2011). However, prior research studying jealousy has combined suspicious jealousy with reactive jealousy, a measurement of the negative emotions one would experience in response to infidelity, which has actually been linked to higher levels of relationship satisfaction (e.g., Dandurand & Lafontaine, 2014). Thus, the present study focused on dyadic and longitudinal correlates of a form of jealousy known to be harmful.

### **Current Investigation**

The current study examined how observed and self-reported relationship power is related to suspicious jealousy. We also explored the link between jealousy and relationship satisfaction within and across partners in an ongoing relationship and also explored whether jealousy predicted a relative increase in relationship satisfaction going forward. Finally, gender differences were explored, given prior findings of gender differences in jealousy precipitants and manifestation (e.g., Kar & O'Leary, 2013). This study used longitudinal, multimethod data in a diverse community sample of adolescents and their romantic partners followed from ages 20 to

28 to assess dyadic links between jealousy and power, and dyadic and longitudinal links between jealousy and relationship satisfaction. The following was specifically hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: Lower self-reported relationship power will be concurrently associated with higher levels of one's own suspicious jealousy.

Hypothesis 2: Higher levels of partner's autonomy undermining behavior will be concurrently associated with higher levels of one's own suspicious jealousy.

Hypothesis 3: Higher levels of suspicious jealousy will be concurrently associated with lower levels of both one's own and one's partner's relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: Higher levels of suspicious jealousy will predict a relative decrease in one's own future relationship satisfaction.

## **Method**

### **Participants**

This report is drawn from a larger longitudinal investigation of adolescent peer influences on adult development. The final sample of 131 couples was a subsample (selected based on availability of romantic partner) from an original sample of 184 participants initially assessed at age 13. 1 of the 131 couples was married. The final sample was racially, ethnically, and socioeconomically diverse and representative of the community from which it was drawn: adolescents 70 (53.4%) identified themselves as Caucasian, 44 (33.6%) as African American, 2 (2%) as Hispanic, 2 (1.5%) as Asian, 1 (< 1%) as American Indian, and 12 (9%) as of mixed race or ethnicity. Participants averaged 20.97 years at time point 1 and 24.84 at time point 2. Continuing participant's parents reported a median family income in the \$40,000–\$59,999 range at the initial assessment.



Adolescents were recruited from the seventh and eighth grades of a public middle school drawing from suburban and urban populations in the Southeastern United States. Information about the study was provided via an initial mailing to parents with follow-up presentations to students at school lunches. Formal recruitment took place via telephone contact with parents. Students who had already served as close peer informants in the study were not eligible to serve as primary participants. Of students eligible for participation, 63% of adolescents and parents agreed to participate when parents were contacted. Adolescents provided informed assent before each interview session, and parents and adult participants provided informed consent. Interviews took place in private offices within a university academic building.

Out of 131 participants who reported on their relationship at age 21, 108 participants reported on their relationship satisfaction at age 24 and/or age 27, depending on if they were in a relationship at that time. 49 individuals reported on their relationship with their partner from age 21 at least once. 59 participants were not with their age 21 partner again at any point, and instead reported on their relationship with new partners. If an individual reported on their relationship more than once, these reports were averaged.

## **Measures**

***Autonomy Undermining Behaviors.*** Interactions were coded using the Autonomy and Relatedness Coding System (Allen et al., 2003). This coding system evaluates adolescent and partner speech for both the frequency and strength of specific types of statements exhibiting or inhibiting autonomy and relatedness. Thus, the system does not simply add up remarks falling into a specific category but rather considers the intensity of comments when assigning scale scores. All interactions were coded from videotapes and transcripts, permitting use of tone, rhythm, intensity of speech, facial expressions, and body posture in the coding system in addition

to the content of speech. Each code uses a 0–4 scale with half-point intervals and concrete behavioral anchors of the meaning of each full point for a code.

Coded autonomy undermining behaviors were scored on three subscales: (a) placating/recanting one's position, in which one pretends to agree with the other or change their position in order to placate the other or deescalate the argument (e.g., "Fine, you're right. Whatever."); (b) overpersonalizing/blurring the boundary between the person and their position (e.g., "I will fall apart if you don't stop doing this—it's pushing me over the edge"); and (c) partner's attempts to pressure the other into selecting their choices by using an impatient tone of voice, signaling frustration or incredulity, making statements of ultimate position, or repeating themselves unnecessarily. Scores for each of the coded behaviors within a category (i.e., autonomy) were summed to provide an overall score for that category. Two trained coders rated each interaction, and their codes were then averaged. Coders were blind to other data from the study, and different coders rated autonomy behaviors for adolescent–mother and adolescent–close peer interactions at each time point. Copies of this coding manual are available on request. Past research using this coding system has found it to be a reliable predictor of both family and adolescent functioning (Allen, Hauser, Bell, & O'Connor, 1994; Allen, Hauser, Eickholt, Bell, & O'Connor, 1994). Interrater reliability was calculated using intraclass correlation coefficients and was  $r = .71$ .

***Self-reported Relationship Power.*** Derived from the Dominance scale of the Network of Relationships Inventory (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985). This subscale is made of up three items assessing the extent to which one's partner makes the decisions in the relationship and gets their way during disagreements. For ease of interpretability, this measure was reverse coded so that high levels reflected oneself having high power and low levels reflected one's partner having high power. Internal consistency was good ( $\alpha = .84$ ).

***Suspicious Jealousy.*** The Multidimensional Jealousy Scale (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989) is a 24-item measure designed to capture the degree to which target participants and their romantic partners each self-report on their frequency of jealous thoughts and behaviors and intensity of jealous emotions, in various hypothetical situations involving their partners. These situations primarily focus on how partners would react if their partners were interacting with someone of the opposite sex. Cognitive (suspicious) jealousy is assessed by how often participants have various suspicions concerning his or her partner and a rival (sample item: I suspect that X is secretly seeing someone of the opposite sex; Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989). Participants responded on a 1-7 likert scale for the cognitive subscale, with a 1 being never and a 7 being all the time. Internal consistency was good ( $\alpha = .91$ ).

***Relationship Satisfaction.*** Adolescents completed the seven-item relationship satisfaction scale from the Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, Dicke, & Hendrick, 1998) as a measure of their satisfaction in a current romantic relationship of at least 2 months duration. Participants completed this measure during their initial visit with their romantic partner between the ages of 20 and 22, and during any subsequent romantic partner lab visits. Internal consistency was good ( $\alpha = .82$  ages 20-22;  $\alpha = .89$  ages 23-28).

***Self-esteem.*** The Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (SPPA; Harter, 1988) was used to measure self-esteem. In accordance with Harter's definition of self-concept, the SPPA is an instrument designed to measure an adolescent's overall self-esteem and feelings of competence in eight specific domains, namely: scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioral conduct, romantic appeal, job competence and close friendship. Internal consistency was good ( $\alpha = .84$ ).

## Results

### *Preliminary Analyses*

The variables of interest were mostly normally distributed based on their skewness less than 2 and kurtosis less than 4 (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996). One variable, female jealousy contained an outlier greater than 2 standard deviations from the mean. The score was winsorized to the next highest value.

Bivariate correlations and gender effects are presented in Table 1. There was a significant gender effect on partner-reported dominance, such that females were perceived by their partners to be more dominant than men ( $t = 3.48, p < .01$ ).

### *Analytic Plan*

*R* program *OpenMx* (version 2.15.5; Boker et al., 2020) was used to perform model comparisons on a series of path analysis models to test actor and partner associations between power, autonomy undermining behaviors, relationship satisfaction, and suspicious jealousy. All models include intercorrelations both between predictor variables and between outcome variables. For each predictor, a model in which the actor and/or partner paths were constrained to be equal across gender was compared to a model in which paths were unconstrained. For all actor and partner effects, models unconstrained across gender were not significantly better than constrained models. Thus, the final models constrained all actor and partner effects to be equal across genders.

### *Primary Analyses*

*Hypothesis 1: Lower self-reported relationship power will be concurrently associated with higher levels of one's own suspicious jealousy.*

The model exploring actor and partner associations between dominance and jealousy fit the data well (RMSEA = 0.06,  $\chi^2$  (df= 2) = 3.26,  $p = .20$ ; See Figure 1). One's own report of their relationship power was negatively associated with their reported jealousy ( $\beta = 0.43$ , [95% CI (-.06, -.80)],  $p = .02$ ). However, one's jealousy was not associated with partner's report of their power ( $\beta = .20$ , [95% CI (-.18, .60)],  $p = .30$ ). This pattern of results suggests a link between perceptions of partner's relationship dominance and jealousy.

*Hypothesis 2: Higher levels of partner's autonomy undermining behavior will be concurrently associated with higher levels of one's own suspicious jealousy.*

The model exploring actor and partner associations between autonomy undermining behaviors and jealousy fit the data well (RMSEA = 0.00,  $\chi^2$  (df= 2) = 0.99,  $p = .62$ ; See Figure 2). Partner's observed use of autonomy undermining behaviors was positively associated with one's own jealousy ( $\beta = 4.79$ , [95% CI (1.78, 7.53)],  $p < .01$ ). One's own use of autonomy undermining behaviors was not significantly associated with one's own jealousy ( $\beta = 0.33$ , [95% CI (-2.22, 2.91)],  $p = .80$ ). Result patterns suggest a cross partner link between actor autonomy undermining behaviors and partner jealousy consistent with hypothesis 2.

*Hypothesis 3: Higher levels of suspicious jealousy will be concurrently associated with lower levels of both one's own and one's partner's relationship satisfaction.*

The model exploring actor and partner associations between relationship satisfaction and jealousy fit the data well (RMSEA = 0.06,  $\chi^2$  (df= 2) = 3.17,  $p = .21$ ; see Figure 3). Findings suggest that one's own relationship satisfaction is negatively associated with one's own jealousy ( $\beta = -0.39$ , [95% CI (-0.62, -0.15)],  $p > .01$ ), and partner's relationship satisfaction is negatively associated with one's own jealousy ( $\beta = -0.25$ , [95% CI (-0.49, -0.01)],  $p = .04$ ). Findings

suggest that relationship satisfaction and jealousy are negatively linked both within and across partners, consistent with hypothesis 3.

*Hypothesis 4: Higher levels of suspicious jealousy will predict a relative decrease in one's own future relationship satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 4 was examined via linear regression analyses. Jealousy significantly predicted relative decreases in levels of relationship satisfaction ( $\beta = -.24$ ,  $p = .02$ ). Analyses controlled for participant gender and family of origin income. Findings suggest that jealousy predicted a relative decrease in relationship satisfaction over the next three to six years.

#### *Post-hoc Analyses*

*Could power effects be accounted for more simply by levels of relationship satisfaction?*

Additional post-hoc analyses were conducted to control for the potential that lack of relationship power was a marker of general relationship dissatisfaction. The best fit models for autonomy undermining behaviors, relationship satisfaction, and jealousy and for partner dominance, relationship satisfaction, and jealousy constrained all effects to be equal across genders (RMSEA = .07,  $\chi^2$  (df=4) = 8.17,  $p = .09$ ); RMSEA = .06,  $\chi^2$  (df=4) = 7.14,  $p = .10$ ). The cross-partner association between autonomy undermining behaviors and jealousy was still significant after accounting for relationship satisfaction ( $\beta = 3.74$ , [95% CI (0.66, 6.51)],  $p < .01$ ). The association between self-report power and jealousy also remained significant ( $\beta = 0.42$ , [95% CI (-.08, -.77)],  $p = .02$ ). Results replicate a cross-partner association between autonomy undermining behaviors and jealousy as well as a within partner association between perceived partner dominance and jealousy.

*Could observed effects be accounted for more simply by levels of self-esteem?*

Finally, self-esteem was explored in relation to study variables but was not correlated with variables of interest and as such was not tested as a covariate in study models.

### **Discussion**

This study explored dyadic, observed, and longitudinal correlates of jealousy to extend our understanding about the relationship factors linked to suspicious jealousy. Findings revealed that individuals reported higher levels of jealousy when their partner held more relationship power, as assessed through both self-report and observational methods. Further, jealousy was related to lower levels of relationship satisfaction of both members of the couple and was associated with a relative decrease in relationship satisfaction in relationships over the next six years. Taken together, findings highlight low relationship power as one potential motivator of jealousy and suggest that jealousy is related to relationship satisfaction both across partners and into future relationships. To our knowledge, this is the first study to utilize dyadic and observational data to study associations between relationship factors and jealousy within and across partners.

Associations between jealousy and power are consistent with prior self-report research where individuals who reported feelings of powerlessness were more prone to jealousy when imagining a partner admiring a person of the opposite sex (Rotenburg et al., 2001). Current findings expand on previous associations by directly testing the link between *relationship* power and jealousy as opposed to a more trait-like learned helplessness as a measurement of powerlessness. As suggested by the principle of least interest (i.e. the notion that lack of commitment, likely to prompt feelings of jealousy in one's partner, also translates into high relationship power; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Waller & Hill, 1951) and supported by current findings, low relationship power functions as an important risk factor for jealousy. Further,

supplemental analyses made clear that relationship power was not simply a marker of relationship functioning but rather had a unique link to jealousy.

Partner's use of autonomy undermining behaviors was directly associated with jealousy. This suggests that the link between jealousy and power is tied to the behavior of one's partner and as such may be a reaction to *actual* power differentials in the relationship. Undermining the autonomy of one's partner is a form of power assertion that can communicate disinterest in the opinions of one's partner and signal a lack of commitment to the relationship. Targets of these behaviors could internalize a dependence on their partner, heightening fears of relationship termination. As such, perseveration about relationship threats could be a logical and even adaptive reaction to having low power in the relationship. Yet, jealousy was not linked to the *partner's* perception of their power, suggesting perceptions of power are more important than power as independently assessed.

Jealousy was also linked to a relative decrease in relationship satisfaction over the next six years. While prior research has tied jealousy to lower levels of satisfaction in the current relationship, the current findings are at least consistent with the possibility that jealousy leads to a relative decrease in relationship satisfaction (DiBello et al., 2015). As such, jealousy in young adult relationships is likely a key marker of future relationship turmoil. Jealousy in these young adult relationships may perpetuate and escalate patterns that undermine trust and subsequent satisfaction in current and future relationships (Andersen et al., 1995; Dainton & Gross, 2008; Guerrero et al., 2011). Alternatively, jealousy might reflect a trait-like factor that endures across relationships. As relationships grow in intensity and seriousness, this trait in turn would lead to increasing dissatisfaction in such relationships. Links between jealousy and later relationship satisfaction point to the importance of intervention efforts targeted at young adult couples,



adding to a literature suggesting the importance of early relationship dynamics for later relationships (Tuval-Mashiach & Shulman, 2006).

If confirmed in further research, associations between low relationship power and jealousy suggest the potential value in interventions focused on decreasing power differentials in relationships. Findings suggest that jealous individuals would benefit from actions that can increase their life satisfaction outside of their relationship and subsequently increase their relationship power within the relationship, such as pursuing fulfilling friendships or focusing on career advancement (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Waller & Hill, 1951). Interventions focused on redistributing relationship power are likely particularly possible and potent in young adult relationships. For example, partners are less likely to be dependent on each other for financial or childcare support, factors that can solidify the lesser earner or primary caregiver's less powerful position (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). Further, interventions focused on helping couples discuss conflict such that both partner's perspectives are heard could be similarly helpful in changing felt power within the relationship. Links of jealousy to lack of power also suggest a possible function of jealous behaviors: Surveillance behaviors, for example, may reflect an attempt of a low-powered individual to equalize relationship power. Such a conceptualization could facilitate understanding of one's partner, opening the door for intervention at the relationship level.

Study findings should also be interpreted while minding certain limitations. This study is limited in the cross-sectional nature of all but one analysis, making it particularly difficult to begin to tease out causal relations between jealousy and power. It is possible that jealousy is a predictor of autonomy undermining behaviors, as being the target of jealousy has been associated with negative emotional and behavioral responses (Guerrero, 2014; Yoshimura, 2004). It is

possible that autonomy undermining behaviors manifest in reaction to the behavior of a jealous partner where, for example, trust within the relationship has deteriorated such that arguments can no longer occur collaboratively, and autonomy undermining behavior is simply an attempt to resolve the argument. The direction of interpretation taken for this paper is consistent with past research linking jealousy and powerlessness, but future research could examine effects longitudinally, or even experimentally, to confirm results (Rotenburg et al., 2001). Further, structural factors like infidelity may have influenced all components of jealousy and partner behavior and should be explored in future research. Research is now needed to explore the extent to which the patterns observed in this study generalize to married couples. While links between jealousy and power have been theorized in married couples it may be that because marriages benefit from higher levels of relationship security than do dating relationships, relationship power and satisfaction are less directly linked with jealousy (Kar & O’Leary, 2013).

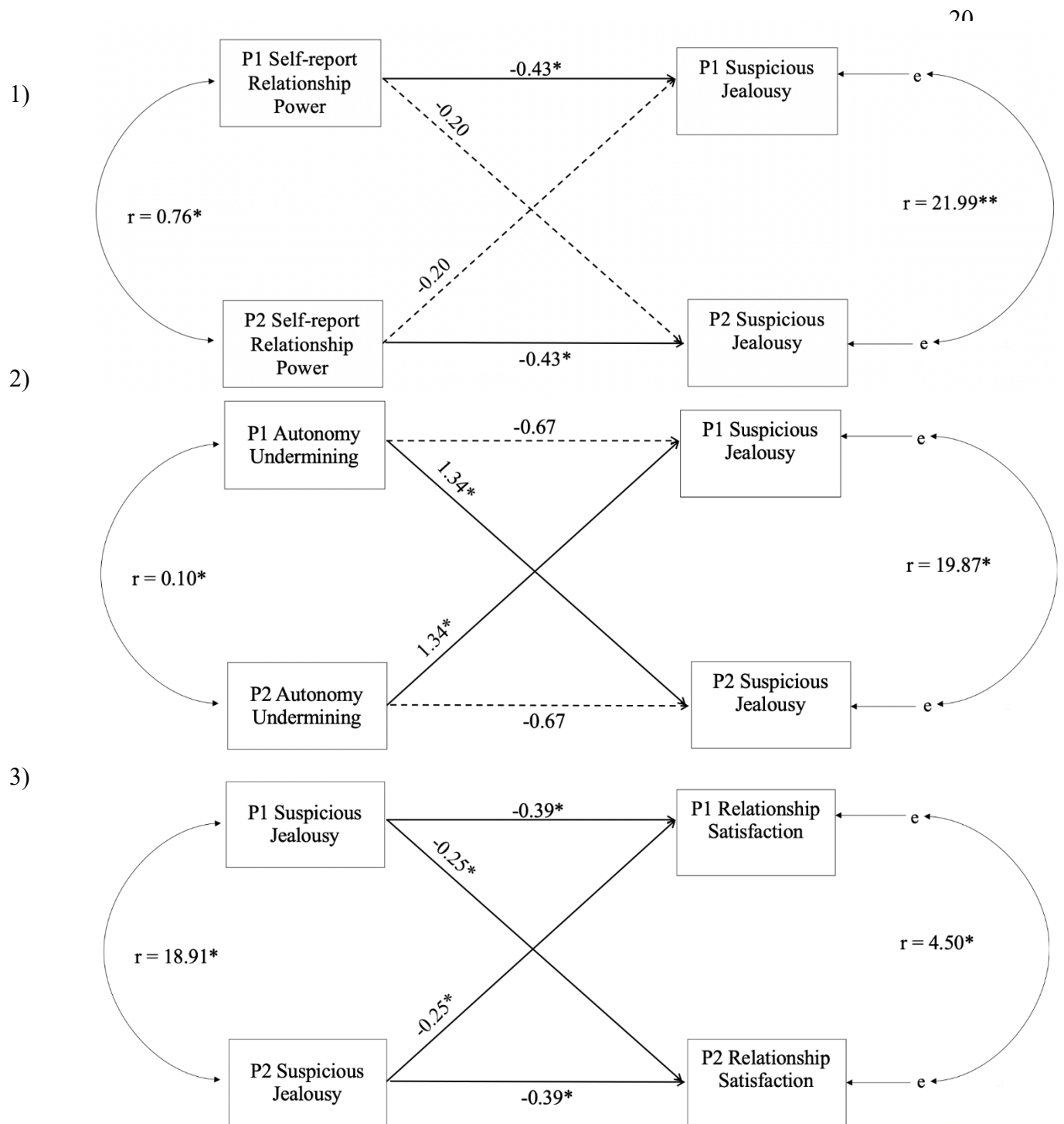
Overall, this study suggests the value in a shift towards conceptualizing jealousy at the relationship rather than individual level and offers relationship power as a potentially central element in this dyadic framework. Findings also suggest the potential value in intervention efforts early in relationships, given that jealousy predicted a relative decrease in relationship satisfaction across the next six years. If replicated, findings could motivate and inform novel intervention efforts focused on addressing relationship power imbalances as a means to reduce jealousy and its concomitant effects.

**Table 1.** Bivariate correlations and descriptive statistics for main study variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Men's Suspicious Jealousy	-						
2. Women's Suspicious Jealousy	.337**	-					
3. Men's Self-report Relationship Power	.051	.008	-				
4. Women's Self-report Relationship Power	.192*	.247**	.117	-			
5. Men's Autonomy Undermining	.157	.235*	.014	.318**	-		
6. Women's Autonomy Undermining	.319**	.127	.152	.052	.507**	-	
7. Men's Relationship Satisfaction	-.335**	-.192*	.068	-.085	-.113	-.115	-
8. Women's Relationship Satisfaction	-.168	-.102	.010	.003	-.201	-.051	.256**

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).



**Fig 1-3.** Unstandardized estimates from actor-partner interdependence models predicting suspicious jealousy from 1) Self-report relationship power, 2) Autonomy undermining behaviors, and 3) Relationship satisfaction. Solid lines indicate statistically significant pathways and dotted lines indicate statistically nonsignificant pathways.  $r$ , correlation;  $e$ , residual.

**Table 2.** Summary of Simple Regression Analyses for Adult Relationship Quality (N=112).

Variable	B	SE B	$\beta$
Suspicious Jealousy	-0.15	0.06	-0.24*
Relationship Satisfaction	-0.06	0.09	-0.06
Gender	0.11	0.72	.01
Family Income	0.30	0.17	.01
$R^2$		0.05	
F		3.05	
* $p < .05$ . ** $p < .01$ .			

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**Supplemental Table 1. Dominance and Relationship Satisfaction 95% Confidence Intervals**

Path	Lower CI	Estimate	Upper CI
Self-report Relationship Power → Own Jealousy	-0.08	0.42	-0.77
Self-report Relationship Power → Partner Jealousy	-0.08	0.28	0.63
Relationship Satisfaction → Own Jealousy	-0.45	-0.21	0.02
Relationship Satisfaction → Partner Jealousy	-0.54	-0.32	-0.09

**Supplemental Table 2. Autonomy Undermining and Relationship Satisfaction, 95% Confidence****Intervals**

Path	Lower CI	Estimate	Upper CI
Autonomy Undermining → Own Jealousy	-2.63	0.11	2.69
Autonomy Undermining → Partner Jealousy	0.65	3.74	6.51
Relationship Satisfaction → Own Jealousy	-0.43	-0.19	0.04
Relationship Satisfaction → Partner Jealousy	-0.49	-0.27	-0.04