

THE RELATIONSHIP OF ADULT ATTACHMENT STYLE AND INTERACTIVE
CONFLICT STYLES TO MARITAL SATISFACTION

A Dissertation

by

ANNE KATHERINE CROWLEY

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2006

Major Subject: Counseling Psychology

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Approved by:

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ABSTRACT

The Relationship of Adult Attachment Style and Interactive Conflict Styles to Marital Satisfaction. (August 2006)

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This study examined the association between individual attachment and interactive conflict styles and the overall influence on marital satisfaction in 207 married individuals. The application of attachment theory to this study of adult romantic relationships was established via factor analysis and yielded two dimensions: self (anxiety) and other (avoidance). Accommodation and demand-withdraw were the two forms of conflict interaction studied, which, respectively, are constructive and destructive styles of engagement that impact marital satisfaction. Individuals completed self-report measures of attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw and global marital satisfaction. The current study yielded statistically significant results and supported all of the research hypotheses. There were negative relationships found between the attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance and total accommodation, while positive relationships were determined between both attachment dimensions and demand-withdraw behaviors. In relationship to marital satisfaction, an individual's total accommodation was positively related, while demand-withdraw behaviors were inversely associated. There were also inverse relationships found between both the

attachment dimensions and marital satisfaction. These findings suggest that the data are consistent with previous research on attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw behavior and marital satisfaction. In addition to supporting prior findings, this study also had several unique contributions. A statistically significant relationship was found between the constructive and destructive conflict styles, which suggested total accommodation was associated with lower levels of demand-withdraw. In addition, a path model for the variables of attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw and marital satisfaction was developed. This display of variables is especially useful in showing the bidirectionality of constructive and destructive behaviors in marriage. Research implications for these findings are presented and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Dedicated to my loving husband,
supportive parents,
friends and family.

Thank you for all your words of encouragement.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Romantic relationships are a major and consistent focus of researchers. Great emphasis has been placed on investigating and understanding relationship satisfaction, which may serve as an outcome of interpersonal processes (Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, 2000). Additionally, researchers have commonly focused on conflict in relationships to better understand relationship satisfaction. More specifically, researchers have examined how couples engage in and attempt to resolve conflict (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989). Pietromonaco, Greenwood and Feldman Barrett (2004) discuss three generalizations that have arisen from researching relationships and conflict. First, conflict is frequently present in the majority of relationships. Second, resolving conflict may contribute to enhanced intimacy and increased relationship satisfaction. Finally, individuals in unhappy marriages tend to experience difficulty in resolving conflict due to negative patterns of interaction that escalate rather than reduce conflict. In other words, conflict is inevitable in a romantic relationship, but the impact on satisfaction will depend on the manner in which partners interact during conflictual situations (Markman, 1991). Attachment theory provides researchers with the framework to better understand this process of individual differences on perception and reaction to conflict (Collins, 1996).

This dissertation follows the style of the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*.

Research has shown attachment to be an important concept to examine when attempting to understand or explain a couple's interactive pattern (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Collins, 1996; Feeney, 1999). The activation and regulation of an attachment system impacts an individual's cognitive, emotional and behavioral responses within a romantic relationship (Collins & Read, 1994; Feeney, 1999; Zhang & Labouvie-Vief, 2004). Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory suggests that the quality of the early parent-child relationship creates a framework of internalized expectations and beliefs about the self and the self in relation to others. This framework creates a working model of attachment, which consists of scripts about patterns of interpersonal relationships (Fishtein, Pietromonaco & Feldman Barrett, 1999). This working model influences later social and environmental interactions as well as personal developmental experiences (Collins, 1996). Cognitive, emotional and behavioral responses expressed in close relationships are influenced by an individual's internal working model of self and others (Mikulincer, Shaver & Pereg, 2003). One's relational orientation can exist at both conscious and unconscious levels and is relatively stable. It is distinguished first as an infant, relating to a parent or caregiver, then as an adult, bonding with a romantic partner (Shaver, Collins & Clark, 1996). Similar to an infant's attachment system, which activates in situations of stress (Bowlby, 1969), adult attachment styles are also triggered during conditions that produce feelings of threat to the self or to the romantic relationship (Feeney, 2002).

The three conditions that are most likely to activate an individual's attachment system are situations of fear, challenge and conflict. The majority of the literature has

focused on how people respond in fear-provoked situations. While noticeably less research has been completed on conflict-based activation, this interaction may be beneficial in testing fundamental properties of the attachment theory (Simpson, Rholes & Phillip, 1996). In a relationship with an attachment figure, conflict can create a situation of uncertainty in a partner's availability, create a circumstance to work toward a supportive relationship and create an opportunity to assess and modify current thoughts and feelings about the relationship (Simpson & Rholes, 1994). This study is an attempt to further understand the impact of individual differences on relationship satisfaction. More specifically, this research examines attachment styles and the association between styles of conflict engagement and their influence on marital satisfaction.

Conflict is inevitable in a romantic relationship and the marital relationship is no exception. In general, conflict occurs when one person perceives his or her advancement towards needs or desires is interrupted or blocked by another (Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000). The outcome depends on how each partner reacts and responds to the conflict (Creasey, 2002). In general, couples tend to develop and maintain sequences of communication, or interactive patterns, within their intimate relationships. During conflictual situations, these interactive patterns can either be positive and functional, enhancing the marital relationship, or be negative and dysfunctional, contributing to relational distress and escalation of conflict (Sullaway & Christensen, 1983). The expression of positive or negative sentiment and behaviors during conflict can influence a couple's relationship satisfaction. Researchers examining marital interaction and

marital satisfaction have consistently found that negative interactions are more prominent in unhappy marriages than happy ones (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989).

While engagement in conflict may have either functional or dysfunctional outcomes within a marriage, avoidance of conflict seems to be more detrimental to a relationship in that it creates more long-term problems (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989). In comparison to nondistressed couples, while distressed couples tend to report a greater frequency of conflict and more time spent engaged in conflict, they also report employing more strategies for conflict avoidance (Feeney, Noller & Callan, 1994). In other words, it is not the fact that couples experience conflict that is harmful to their relationship, but how couples react and interact in conflict that makes the difference in satisfaction. As a result, this study focuses on two forms of interactions during conflict: accommodation and demand-withdraw.

Researchers suggest that conflict style is likely associated with a general underlying orientation to relationships since an individual's approach to conflict is relatively consistent (Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000). For this reason, this study will utilize attachment theory to clarify an individual's internal working model of interaction as it relates to conflict styles. Numerous studies have explored attachment theory with respect to individual differences of child (e.g. Bowlby, 1969, 1973, 1988; Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Wall, 1978) and adult relationships (e.g. Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Collins, 1996; Feeney, 1999, Mikulincer, et al., 2003).

Attachment has also been examined in terms of its relationship with satisfaction (e.g. Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990, Feeney, et al., 1994,

Fishtein, et al., 1999), communication (e.g. Feeney, et al., 1994), as well as conflict (e.g. Simpson, et al., 1996, Creasey, 2002), yet few studies have empirically examined the relationships between attachment and specific interactive patterns during conflict such as accommodation (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995; Gaines, Reis, Summers, Rusbult, Cox, Wexler, Marelich & Kurland, 1997) and demand-withdraw (Feeney, et al., 1994; Pistole, 1994). Additionally, while studies have investigated these interactive patterns of accommodation (e.g. Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovick & Lipkus, 1991; Rusbult, 1993; Kumashiro, Finkel & Rusbult, 2002) and demand-withdraw (e.g. Christensen, 1988; Heavey, Christensen & Malamuth 1995; Sagrestano, Christensen & Heavey, 1999; Caughlin & Vangelisti, 2000, Eldridge & Christensen, 2002), no study to date has yet considered the relationship between these two forms of interaction. These concepts embody constructive and destructive modes of conflict engagement, which impact relationship satisfaction. The constructive accommodative action of a spouse has been found to have a positive correlation with satisfaction (Rusbult, et al., 1991), while the destructive demand-withdraw interaction has been found to have a negative one (Christensen, 1988). Investigating the possible relationship between these two variables may lead to a greater understanding of individual differences, engagement of interactive patterns and the overall influence on marital satisfaction.

Researchers have looked at satisfaction from the perspective of dating as well as marital relationships. Feeney (2002) suggested that satisfaction may be strongly predicted by an individual's comfort with closeness in dating relationships; while, an individual's anxiety over relationships was found to be more consistent and a stronger

predictor for marital satisfaction. As a result, this study will focus on individuals who are married rather than simply dating. This study will be able to better contribute to the attachment and relationship literature by studying marital interactions compared to previous studies that primarily investigated persons dating (e.g. Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Creasey, Kershaw & Boston, 1999).

This study surveyed married individuals versus married couples. While the main impetus for studying individual married people was the logistical constraints of accessing couples, several other benefits are apparent. First, research findings have suggested that relationship satisfaction may be better explained by one partner's generalized expectations of the other rather than the other's actual occurrence of behaviors (Feeney, 2002). Second, individuals' own attachment scores had a stronger association to relationship characteristics than did those of their partners (Feeney, et al., 1994). Finally, self-reported conflict patterns seem to generalize across various samples of populations, including married partners, married women and married couples (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004). In summary, this study will examine the relationship of adult attachment and interactive conflict styles to marital satisfaction. This is an important area of research because relationship researchers have found that marital satisfaction is not only related to the reduction of negative interactions during conflict, but also the increase of positive ones (Epstein & Baucom, 2002) and to date, no research has investigated the link between destructive and constructive behaviors during conflict. The remainder of this chapter will identify the research questions and hypotheses for this

study, as well as, operationally define the main concepts and terms utilized for this research.

Hypotheses

1. An individual's attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are inversely correlated with marital satisfaction.
2. An individual's attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are negatively correlated to his or her level of total accommodation.
3. An individual's attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are related to the likelihood of engaging in either demand or withdraw behavior with his or her partner.
4. An individual's total accommodation is positively related to marital satisfaction.
5. An individual's likelihood of engaging in demand- withdraw behaviors is inversely correlated with marital satisfaction.

Research Questions

1. What are the relationships among the variables of attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw and quality of marriage?
2. What is the relationship between an individual's total accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict style?
3. What relationship does an individual's length of marriage have on accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict styles?
4. Is there a difference between the modes of delivering surveys to participant (in-person versus email)?

Operational Definitions

Attachment, as defined by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) is a two dimension, dichotomized model of self and others. These two dimensions are combined to form four prototypes: secure, preoccupied, fearful and dismissing.

Self-Model. The self-model is the image of one's self (i.e. I believe I am worthy of love vs. I am not) and is connected with the level of anxiety and dependency encountered in close relationships. This model is associated with an individual's ability to generate internal validation versus having to seek validation externally.

Other-Model. The other-model is the image of others (i.e. others are believed to be reliable and trustworthy vs. unresponsive and unavailable) and is connected to the movement towards or away from intimacy or avoidance.

Secure Attachment Style. Secure attachment is described as trusting others and having a strong sense of self. As a result, secure individuals demonstrate a low level of anxiety and a low degree of avoidance.

Preoccupied Attachment Style. Preoccupied attachment is demonstrated by feelings of unworthiness and a need of the approval of others. As a result, preoccupied individuals experience a high level of anxiety and a low degree of avoidance in relationships.

Fearful Attachment Style. Fearful attachment is described as feeling unlovable and having distrust of others. As a result, fearful individuals demonstrate high levels of anxiety along with a high degree of avoiding close relationships.

Dismissing Attachment Style. Dismissing attachment is demonstrated by feelings of personal achievement and a high sense of self-reliance yet avoidance of close relationships. As a result, dismissing individuals experience low anxiety with a high degree of avoidance.

Interactive conflict styles are defined in terms of constructive and destructive behavior and by the concepts of accommodation and demand-withdraw.

Constructive Behavior. Constructive behavior in a conflictual situation involves being able to 1) communicate negative feelings regarding a specific incident or behavior and 2) receive and respond (acknowledge and validate) when a partner expresses negative feelings (Markman, 1991).

Destructive Behavior. Destructive behavior may be impulsive or purposeful, is characterized by negativity and will typically escalate a situation (Kilpatrick, Bissonnette, Rusbult, 2002).

Accommodation is defined by Rusbult, et al. (1991) in terms of two dimensions and four typologies.

Accommodation. Accommodation is defined as a partner's willingness to inhibit the impulse to react destructively and instead reacts constructively in response to the other's destructive behavior. Accommodating behaviors can be characterized in terms of two dimensions: constructive/destructive and active/passive.

Exit. Exit is a destructive and active behavior characterized by proximity-rejecting behaviors such as yelling or threatening to separate.

Voice. Voice is a constructive and active behavior characterized by proximity-promoting behaviors such as compromising or seeking help.

Loyalty. Loyalty is a constructive and passive behavior characterized by proximity-promoting behaviors such as praying or forgiving.

Neglect. Neglect is a destructive and passive behavior characterized by proximity-rejecting behaviors such as avoiding problems by leaving the house.

Demand-Withdraw. Demand-withdraw is an interactive pattern that is mutually escalating such that one partner reacts to the other while the other partner's behavior is cued by the first. Demand behavior is characterized by criticizing or blaming one's partner and withdraw is characterized by avoiding or defending against one's partner (Christensen, 1988).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Attachment

Attachment theory initially conceptualized a system that maintained proximity between an infant and an attachment figure or primary caregiver during threatening or dangerous situations (Bowlby, 1969). In the process of interacting with a primary caregiver, infants form mental representations, which are cognitive/affective schemas (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998), of the relationship between self and others, also known as an internal working model (Bowlby, 1973). Bowlby (1973) described the working model as an image and judgment of self and others such that would question: is the self deemed worthy of another, particularly the primary caregiver, to reply to self's requests for support and protection and is the attachment figure available and responsive to requests for support and protection. The function of the attachment system was expanded to conceptualize the primary caregiver as functioning as a secure base from which the infant could engage in exploration (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). The quality of an infant's attachment is dependent on the infant and caregiver's history of interactions and the degree to which the infant depends on the caregiver as a source of security (Bowlby, 1988).

Ainsworth and colleagues (1978) created the "Strange Situation", an empirical method to test and measure Bowlby's attachment theory. With this procedure, they were able to observe the effects of the separation and reunion of infants and their attachment figures (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). Attachment behavior is activated when an infant feels

afraid, anxious or otherwise reacts to separation from the primary caregiver, typically the mother (Bowlby, 1969). When this system is engaged, the infant sends out signals, for instance crying, to communicate a need for proximity to the attachment figure. In response to these signals, the caregiver is expected to tend to the infant and respond with some form of bodily contact. As a result of the closeness, the infant's attachment need is satiated and the infant feels confident to continue exploration (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

Based on studies of behavioral interaction, Ainsworth, et al. (1978) classified infant behavior into three attachment styles: secure, anxious/ambivalent and avoidant. Secure attachment behavior is witnessed when infants seek reassurance from their caregivers, who positively respond and are thereby experienced as warm, available and able to offer the infant protection (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). This style is also distinguished by trust, because a parent or caregiver is experienced as being responsive to the infant's needs. Infants with secure attachments are also characterized with the ability to maintain positive expectations and exhibit self-confidence (Simms, 1998). Securely attached children are also observed as feeling comfortable in novel situations and have positive emotional effects that occur internally and are displayed outwardly (Shaver, et al., 1996). In contrast to secure attachment are the insecure attachment styles anxious/ambivalent and avoidant. With an anxious/ambivalent or preoccupied attachment style, a child tends to develop maladaptive perceptions of him/ herself and others, which is a result of inconsistent parental behavior. While an anxious/ambivalent infant is characterized as desiring attention from a caregiver, once it was offered, the

infant would reject it (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). Due to the inconsistent and unreliable nature of the caregiver, the anxious/ambivalent child tends to experience anxiety and uncertainty in novel situations (Shaver, et al., 1996). This attachment style also develops when infants perceive their parents as inaccessible, and as consequence, respond to interaction with fearful or anxious behavior. As a result, the child typically develops a pervasive fear of abandonment (Ainsworth, et al., 1978).

The second type of insecure attachment is avoidant. Infants categorized as avoidant tended to shun closeness or interaction with the primary caregiver. Avoidant behavior was also observed when the infant would ignore the mother's presence or turn away from her or even avert eye contact (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). Individuals in this category are also characterized as behaviorally independent, yet lacking trust as well as self-confidence (Simms, 1998). Typically, an avoidant attachment style also is the result of experiencing caregivers as unreliable and unresponsive, which contributes to the lack of concern or attention given to the caregiver by the infant (Ainsworth, et al., 1978).

Considered collectively, insecure attachments have implications for the development of the child's self-esteem as well as future interpersonal relationships (Collins & Read, 1990). In addition, an insecure attachment may influence the development of aggressive and impulsive behavioral characteristics (Simons, Paternite & Shore, 2001). Insecure attachment is also predicted to contribute to poor peer relationships as well as the interpretation of ambiguous behavior as hostile (Marcus & Kramer, 2001). Simons and colleagues (2001) found that children's perceived insecure parental attachment also lowers their self-esteem and that the perception of an insecure

attachment contributes to the child attributing negative intentions to his or her peers. Their conclusion further demonstrates the lack of trust and prosocial behavior, which fail to be internalized as a result of their insecure attachment.

To expand Ainsworth and colleagues' (1978) three categories of attachment, Bowlby (1988) also described the role of defensive processes in conceptualizing attachment behavior and relationships. Defensive processes include detachment or deactivation, which is the absence of attachment behaviors in a situation where the activation of the attachment system would normally be expected, such as with the experience of pain, fear or separation. Typically when an attachment system is activated, an individual experiences emotional arousal, in addition to the desire for comfort or closeness from the attachment figure; however, in detached individuals this system activation is severed and consequently the emotional reaction is hindered. An infant's attachment behavior is also characterized as detached or deactivated when, for example, the infant's attention is directed upon an inanimate object in distraction, rather than focused on the attachment figure (Bowlby 1988). Individuals characterized as avoidant typically display this form of defensive or detached behavior (Bowlby, 1980; Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

In summary, the specific experiences of a caregiver's warmth and responsiveness evolve into generalized beliefs and expectations for others as well as the worthiness of self. Bowlby (1988) asserted that the schemas of self and others, created from the parent-child interaction, are also present in other relationships. These beliefs and expectations of self and others are used in new relational situations to predict and

explain interpersonal behaviors of self and others so that an individual can prepare or react to expected outcomes (Collins & Read, 1990). Therefore, attachment theory has provided researchers with the framework to better understand the process and influence of personal and interpersonal histories on new relationships (Collins, 1996). Attachment theory suggests that internal representations, developed during the primary relationship, continue to be influential and stable throughout an individual's lifespan (Bowlby, 1988); however, recent researchers have found that individual working models may change as people encounter new relationships (Collins & Read, 1990). While it is possible to facilitate the stability of internal working models, for example through self-perpetuating behaviors, perception of events that support the current working model or choosing environments or interactions that match beliefs about self and others (Feeney, 1999), it is possible that working models may change (Collins & Read, 1994). Existing beliefs and expectations can be disconfirmed by significant events in the person's social environment, such as experiencing a satisfying relationship. This change, of course, depends on the duration and emotional significance of the event or experience. Furthermore, as individuals gain new understanding about previous experiences, especially ones related to attachment, it is possible that their working models might change (Feeney, 1999). Based on these ideas, researchers have also used attachment theory as a framework for understanding adult romantic relationships.

Adult Romantic Attachment Styles

As an expansion of attachment theory, considering adult attachment facilitates an understanding of adult relationships (Feeney & Noller, 1990). Adult attachment has

been examined in terms of parent-child relationships as well as social or peer relationships (see Feeney & Noller, 1990). Researchers also have investigated adult attachment styles through intimate partner relationships (Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Shaver, et al., 1996; Simms, 1998, Bartholomew & Horowitz 1991).

Hazan and Shaver (1987) first conceptualized romantic love as a process of attachment and they created a self-report measure to classify adults into the three attachment categories that corresponded to Ainsworth and colleagues (1978) childhood attachment styles. Based on their research, they characterized someone with a secure attachment style as trusting, happy, friendly, and highly invested in the romantic relationship. In addition, secure adults tend to be stable, have a positive regard for others as well as a strong sense of self (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Such individuals also tend to exhibit higher levels of satisfaction within the close relationship as well as interdependence and commitment (Simms, 1998).

In contrast, Hazan and Shaver (1987) found insecure attachments in romantic relationships to be portrayed by obsession, jealousy and emotional extremes. More specifically, anxious-ambivalent attachment styles are characterized by a desire for union, yet a fear of abandonment, while avoidant styles fear intimacy. Individuals with anxious-ambivalent attachment styles also tend to experience higher break-up rates, with a greater occurrence of getting back together. Moreover, persons with such styles also report more social dissatisfaction and loneliness as well as have an extreme concern about rejection. Anxious-ambivalent styles tend to overly self-disclose, appear unstable

and experience difficulty coping in stressful situations; while avoidant people tend to experience discomfort when close to others and struggle to depend on others or completely trust them (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Furthermore, individuals with avoidant attachment styles are characterized as having a low investment and a lack involvement in romantic relationships (Shaver, et al., 1996). Overall, persons with these insecure attachment styles are found to experience less satisfaction in their intimate relationships (Tucker & Anders, 1999).

Overall, relationship satisfaction as an outcome of attachment is well represented and consistent in the attachment literature. Previous researchers have found that relationship satisfaction is positively correlated to secure attachment, while insecure attachments are negatively correlated (e.g. Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990; Feeney, et al., 1994). Securely attached individuals reported feeling their partners were more dependable and therefore felt less insecure and more satisfied in their relationships. Moreover, secure attachment correlates with a higher proportion of positive emotions in the relationship than negative ones, whereas the inverse correlation occurs in insecure attachments (Simpson, 1990). Furthermore, those individuals who expressed higher satisfaction in their romantic relationships also tended to experience their partners' behavior as being more positive than those with less satisfaction (Feeney, 1999). Securely attached partners also tended to describe themselves as more confident in their relationships as well as in their partners' level of commitment (Collins, 1996). In terms of gender differences, satisfaction was negatively related to the female's level of anxiety, while positively related to the male's comfort of

closeness or intimacy in relationships (Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney, et al., 1994). While previous researchers have found consistent results relating attachment patterns and relationship satisfaction, there have been some interesting findings involving individuals with avoidant attachments (Simpson, 1990; Collins & Read, 1990). Hazan and Shaver (1987) describe avoidant attachment as a fear of being close to others, as opposed to an avoidant behavior that is detached in relationships. This definition of avoidance is similar to their description of ambivalent behavior and as a result, their analysis found similar results between the two categories (Bartholomew, 1990), for example, both experienced a greater self-doubt and increased levels of jealousy (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Therefore, it has been proposed, that a single definition of avoidance may be inadequate to accurately capture the variations of avoidant behavior patterns witnessed in adulthood, as compared to those witnessed during childhood (Bartholomew, 1990). In order to differentiate between the behavioral aspect of avoiding closeness and the subjective need for attachment and fear of intimacy, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed a two-dimensional model that yields a four-category measure of adult attachment.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) conceptualized adult attachment into two dimensions, based on Bowlby's concept of the working model of self and self in relation to others. The two dimensions are dichotomized to create positive and negative continuous and categorical ratings of both the image of self (I believe I am worthy of support and love vs. I am not) and the image of others (others are believed to be trustworthy and reliable vs. unavailable and unresponsive) (Bartholomew & Horowitz,

1991). In other words, the self-model is connected with the level of anxiety and dependency encountered in close relationships (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). When an individual has a low sense of dependence on others, he or she is able maintain internal validation, in contrast to those who need others' validation to determine their self-worth, or those who have a high level of dependency (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The dimension of the other-model pertains to the movement towards or away from intimacy, based on the person's anticipated outcome of close relationships (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994).

In addition, these dimensions are also combined to form four prototypes, as compared to the Hazan and Shaver (1987) three-category model (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Figure 1 illustrates the attachment patterns and their relationship to the two dimensions (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). In this model, secure types are described as trusting of others and having a strong sense of self worth. Secure individuals contribute positive attributes to both self and to others, thereby demonstrating a low level of anxiety and low degree of avoidance in relating to other (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). This prototype corresponds to previous researchers' secure category. The second type is a preoccupied style, which is demonstrated by feelings of unworthiness and a need for others' acceptance and approval (Bartholomew, 1990). In other words, people matching this prototype experience a high level of anxiety and a low degree of avoidance in relationships due to their negative sense of self and positive regard for others (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Previous research has categorized this pattern as preoccupied or as ambivalent. The third style, fearful, is also

represented by a negative sense of self that results in feelings of being unlovable. However, unlike preoccupied, these individuals also have a negative experience of others, which contributes to a distrust of others and an avoidance of intimacy-even though they desire the closeness (Bartholomew, 1990). This pattern describes individuals with high levels of anxiety coupled with a high degree of avoiding close relationships (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). This style corresponds to Hazan and Shaver's (1987) avoidant category (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Dismissing, the fourth and final prototype, captures adult behavior exhibiting what Bowlby (1988) termed deactivation, or denial of attachment needs (Bartholomew, 1990).

		MODEL OF SELF (Dependence)	
		Positive (Low)	Negative (High)
MODEL OF OTHER (Avoidance)	Positive (Low)	CELL I SECURE Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy	CELL II PREOCCUPIED Preoccupied with relationships
	Negative (High)	CELL IV DISMISSING Dismissing of intimacy Counter-dependent	CELL III FEARFUL Fearful of intimacy Socially Avoidant

Figure 1. Model of Adult Attachment (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 227)

A positive sense of self and feelings of worthiness, a strong sense of self-reliance as well as personal achievement identify this style; however, individuals with dismissing attachment patterns have had negative experiences with others and therefore actively avoid close relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Unlike the fearful pattern, dismissing is characterized as exhibiting low anxiety due to the strong sense of self; however, similar to fearful, the dismissing pattern also falls on the dimension of high avoidance. Due to these differences between fearful and dismissing, it is apparent that there is the need for a model of two dimensions with four prototypes rather than three categories.

Another difference and advantage of this four-style model is that an individual is not expected to exclusively display only one attachment style. Instead, based on the individual's past experiences, he or she is described as best matching one of the four styles. This match is an approximation since an individual commonly displays two or more prototypes to varying degrees (Bartholomew, 1990). This proposed differentiation of two distinct types of avoidance is empirically validated and therefore, researchers are increasingly utilizing the four-category model of adult attachment pattern (Feeney, 1999). Research has confirmed the dimensional aspect of adult attachment (Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998; Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Mikulincer, et al., 2003). Brennan and colleagues (1998) found there was a growing consensus that a two-dimensional model for conceptualizing attachment more accurately reflected an individual's adult attachment style. Several studies have identified anxiety and avoidance as underlying structures or dimensions of adult attachment. The former dimension is related to the

working model of self while the latter is related to the working model of others (see Feeney, 1999, for overview).

In addition, recent research has identified affective reactivity and regulation, two affect-based processes, underlying internal working models, which correspond with the individual differences in attachment styles. Affective reactivity implies that an individual experiences a threat that constitutes the need to regulate personal feelings of distress, while regulation involves the approach or withdraw from others, also known as an interpersonally-based regulation. In relation to attachment styles, affective reactivity and regulation depend on high or low ratings on both the anxiety and avoidance dimensions, such that individuals with high anxiety tend to exhibit more frequent affective reactivity and seek to restore feelings of security; however, the behaviors the individuals engage in will depend on their level of avoidance (Pietromonaco, Feldman Barrett & Power, 2006). For instance, individuals with high avoidance tend not to approach or request interaction with others, while those with low avoidance are more likely to create an interaction with another. These behaviors correspond, respectively, with Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991) fearful and preoccupied prototypes (Pietromonaco, et al., 2006).

In conclusion, attachment styles are persistent and consistent in daily interactions and generally define and predict how individuals will relate to others (Bowlby, 1969). As infants, individuals create internal working models that are schemas of self worth as well as generalized beliefs and expectations for others (Bowlby, 1988). Infants and adults alike create expectations of others based on previous experiences and based on

these expectations, an individual is able to determine which strategies will be most effective in the reduction of distress (Pietromonaco, et al., 2006). Adult attachment styles create the foundation for individual's behavioral, cognitive and emotional functioning in a romantic relationship (Shaver, et al., 1996). Affect, cognitions and behaviors related to an individual's working model are stimulated by situations or events of actual or perceived distress (Feeney, 2002); therefore, I will further take into account the aspects of attachment system activation in the following section.

Activation of Attachment Systems. Like the infant whose attachment style is activated during times of stress (Bowlby, 1969), adult attachment styles are also marked during situations that threaten the self or the romantic relationship, for example times of stress or conflict (Feeney, 2002). When an individual fails to achieve proximity or reduce distress, this individual, characterized as either anxious or avoidant, adopts a strategy for secondary attachment or, in other words, adopts hyperactivating or deactivating strategies (Mikulincer, et al., 2003). Shaver and Mikulincer (2004) further conceptualized the activation of attachment systems with their three-component model. First, an individual appraises a threatening event, which may constitute the activation of attachment behavior, or proximity-seeking. Previous studies empirically support the response of proximity-seeking as a result of an actual or perceived threat (see Mikulincer, et al., 2003 for an overview). The second component involves the evaluation of the availability of attachment figures, both internal and externalized. Finally, the feasibility of proximity-seeking is also assessed as an adequate and appropriate coping behavior to alleviate distress. This third stage contributes to an individual's movement

towards secondary strategies, which can be heightened with recurrent usage (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2004).

When an attachment figure is deemed unavailable, and an individual is experiencing distress and insecurity, or is unable to maintain a sense of autonomy through internalized attachment, he or she may likely approach the activation of their attachment system with the secondary strategies of hyperactivating or deactivating (Mikulincer, et al., 2003). In terms of accessibility, Mikulincer, Gillath and Shaver (2002) found that activation was heightened in anxious attachments, yet repressed with avoidant attachments. The former attachment style is likely to utilize hyperactivating strategies, while the latter deactivating. Hyperactivating strategies can include clinging behaviors, attempts to minimize distance and eliciting of involvement from the significant other as well as establish a state of closeness or intimacy (Mikulincer, et al., 2003). This strategy creates a cycle of hypervigilance in appraising possible threatening events as well as oversensitivity to events being perceived as threatening, thereby maintaining a constant state of distress and negative outlooks (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2004). In contrast to the former strategy, a deactivating strategy involves an individual withdrawing from and/or denying proximity to significant others and instead disregarding threatening events and seeking independence. In summary, the activation of an individual's attachment system is triggered by actual or perceived threats (Mikulincer, et al., 2003). According to Shaver and Mikulincer's (2004) three-component model, the appraisal of a situation, the evaluation of attachment figure availability and the proximity-seeking to reduce distress are all influenced by an

individual's attachment style. For the purpose of this study, I will focus on conflict as the source of distress within the marital relationship and as the antecedent to the activation of the attachment system.

Attachment and Conflict. In general, secure individuals tend to exhibit more positive conflict behavior and affect regulation, as a result of their confidence in both self and others (Creasy, 2002). Furthermore, they tend to experience conflict as less threatening than insecure individuals and consequently, are better able to manage conflictual situations, resulting in the maintenance of their romantic relationship (Pistole, 1989; Pietromonaco, et al., 2004). In contrast, insecure individuals tend to experience difficulty in managing conflict and affect regulation, which relates to their attachment history of unreliable and therefore unpredictable relationships (Creasy, 2002).

Moreover, for the preoccupied style that has a fear of abandonment, conflict can create a situation of uncertainty in a partner's availability (Simpson, et al., 1996), which can heighten the activation of the attachment system (Mikulincer, et al., 2002). Such an individual also tends to engage in behaviors that escalate the conflict (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004). As compared to insecure individuals, secure persons tend to utilize more integrative strategies to manage conflict (Pistole, 1989).

More specifically, Simpson and colleagues (1996) found through self-report and observation of dating partners that secure individuals engage in direct interactions, are better able to consider their partners' perspectives and are more open in their communication. In addition, after a conflictual discussion, secure persons report feeling more favorably towards their partners and relationships as a whole. In contrast,

ambivalent styles were observed as having more negative interactions, as well as expressing heightened affect such as anxiety and anger. This style also reported a decrease in relationship satisfaction after a conflictual encounter. On the other hand, partners with avoidant attachment styles were observed during conflict to divert their attention or withdraw, express defensiveness and display more negativity in their interactions. Unlike the decreased satisfaction of ambivalent styles, avoidant individuals did not report a change in perception of their partners. Persons with avoidant styles tend to minimize conflictual situations and not engage emotionally, cognitively or behaviorally during conflict, thus not increasing their distress level (Simpson, et al., 1996).

Gender differences have also been recognized throughout the attachment and conflict literature (see Pietromonaco, et al., 2004, for review). Creasy (2002) observed that males with an insecure working model increased the frequency of negative behavior, negative affect and increased difficulty with problem negotiation. Moreover, men with avoidant attachment styles were described as less supportive and as exhibiting less warmth towards their partner, as well as engaging in a poorer quality of interactional style (Simpson, et al., 1996). For women, a wife's preoccupied style was associated with a display of less positive emotions (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004). Highly preoccupied or ambivalent wives were also observed as behaving similarly to women categorized as being distressed; they tend to initiate and control the discussion of conflict (Simpson, et al., 1996). In contrast, during conflict, secure women were found to express more positive affect and behave more positively than insecure women.

Furthermore, both husbands and wives with a secure internal working model were observed as more accepting of their respective partners during a disagreement (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004).

In conclusion, securely attached individuals engage in more positive or constructive conflict behavior while individuals with an insecure attachment display more negative or destructive behaviors. Generally, self-report and observational studies alike support this prediction that individuals with a secure attachment will engage in more constructive behaviors during conflict as compared to insecurely attached individuals (see Pietromonaco, et al., 2004, for a review). These styles of conflict, either constructive or destructive, may impact the level of satisfaction within the marital relationship (Creasy, 2002). Therefore, the remainder of this chapter will focus on the constructive and destructive interactive conflict styles of accommodation and demand-withdraw as well as discuss the respective relationships with attachment and marital satisfaction.

Interactive Conflict Styles

Conflict is inevitable in a romantic relationship, and as a result, partners may experience negative feelings. The impact of the conflict on the relationship depends on the manner in which partners handle their respective negative emotions during their interactions (Markman, 1991). Effective conflict resolution involves reducing, avoiding or eliminating destructive reactions to partner's negative behavior (Arriaga & Rusbult, 1998). When a couple is able to constructively manage conflict, the partners tend to experience development of and enrichment within their relationship; however, if handled

destructively, conflict can contribute to dissatisfaction within the relationship (Greeff & de Bruyne, 2000). Constructive behavior is defined as an individual controlling his or her negative affect. Moreover, within a conflictual interaction, an individual is displaying constructive behavior when he or she is not only able to communicate negative feelings to a partner, but also be (constructively) receptive and responsive when a partner expresses negative feelings (Markman, 1991). Behaviors that characterize constructive handling of conflict include focusing on the partner relationship, rather than the self, flexible and cooperative interactions and the intention to understand and grow rather than protect and defend. Constructive conflict can also be exhibited by acts of collaboration and negotiation and maintaining an objective of mutually satisfying each partner's goals (Greeff & de Bruyne, 2000).

In contrast, destructive behaviors tend to escalate the situation and result in outcomes that are typically dissatisfying to one or both partners (Rinaldi & Howe, 2003). Negative affect, over positive, is more predictive of future relationship outcomes, such as distress or divorce (Markman, 1991). Destructive behaviors may occur in the heat of the moment and can include yelling, sarcasm, hurtful comments or worse. When a partner encounters such negative behavior, the inclination is to respond in kind. As a result, conflict is escalated (Kilpatrick, et al., 2002). The situation is therefore exacerbated when a partner reciprocates with negative behavior (Gaines, et al., 1997). Therefore, in order to resolve conflictual situations and enhance the opportunity for reconciliation, the partner must inhibit his or her inclination towards reciprocating in a negative manner. Such impulse control reduces tension and is therefore characterized as

constructive behavior. When a partner resists the temptation to retaliate destructively and instead reciprocates in a positive fashion, this behavioral act is termed accommodation (Kilpatrick, et al., 2002).

Accommodation

Partners who use accommodating behavior are exhibiting constructive behavior and are therefore, in the face of conflict, making attempts to revive or maintain their relationship (Rusbult, et al., 1991). These conflictual situations have been described as an accommodative dilemma, in that an individual feels personally threatened and his or her sense of relationship security is questioned. During this type of threat, an individual is faced with attending to the well-being of self or the well-being of the relational unit. This can also be described as defending the self or protecting the relationship. When an individual chooses to protect the relationship, he or she is exhibiting accommodating behavior (Gaines, et al., 1997). Accommodation is defined as a partner's willingness to inhibit the impulse to react destructively and instead reacts constructively in response to the other's destructive behavior (Rusbult, et al., 1991). Rather than making a harmful retort to a partner's destructive behavior, a partner can resist and promote the greater interests of the relationship as well as enhance relationship functioning (Gaines, et al., 1997).

Accommodating behaviors can be characterized in terms of two dimensions: constructive/destructive and active/passive. To embody these dimensions, Rusbult and colleagues (1991) conceptualized four response typologies: voice, exit, loyalty and

neglect. Figure 2 illustrates the four typologies of accommodation and their relationship to the two dimensions.

	Active	Passive
Constructive	VOICE Making partner aware of negative feelings, but actively trying to improve the relationship	LOYALTY Retaining faith in both partner and relationship, but passively waiting for change
Destructive	EXIT Behaving in a manner destructive to the relationship intended to hurt the partner	NEGLECT Ignoring problems or one's partner, allowing relationship to worsen

Figure 2. Accommodation Model (Rusbult, et al., 1991)

In the first dimension, exit and neglect are categorized as destructive responses, while voice and loyalty are classified as constructive ones. Furthermore, the constructive reactions, voice and loyalty, are regarded as proximity-promoting behaviors while the destructive ones, exit and neglect, are considered proximity-rejecting behaviors (Gaines, et al., 1997). In the second dimension, exit and voice typologies are labeled as active responses, whereas loyalty and neglect are denoted as passive responses (Rusbult, 1993). Active or passive responses are in relationship to the situation rather than the individual's action. For instance, a spouse may leave the house, which is an active

behavior, but because he or she is not addressing the marital issue, the response to the situation is passive (Rusbult, Zembrodt & Gunn, 1982).

In other words, *Exit* is an active behavioral response that is destructive or harmful to the relationship, such as screaming, separating, threatening to leave or getting a divorce; *Voice* is an active response used with constructive intentions to improve relational conditions and may be exhibited through discussing the problem, making suggestions, compromising or seeking professional assistance; *Loyalty* is described as passively, yet optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, for example, praying for improvement, forgiving and forgetting or continuing to wear a wedding band. Finally, *Neglect* is passively allowing the relationship to deteriorate, with responses such as ignoring, spending less time at home, avoiding problems or insulting the other. The inhibition or expression of destructive behavior can be predicted by relationship satisfaction as well as be predictive of satisfaction within the relationship (Rusbult, et al., 1991).

Accommodation and Satisfaction. The willingness to accommodate in response to a partner's destructive behavior may be influenced by the level of satisfaction within the romantic relationship. When partners have experienced satisfaction prior to the emergence of issues, they are more likely to respond with voice and loyalty; however, if relationship partners have previously been dissatisfied, then more destructive responses of exit and neglect are predicted (Rusbult, et al., 1982). On the other hand, relationship functioning may be impacted by the manner in which a partner responds to another's destructive act. Rusbult and colleagues (1991) found that destructive responses have

greater impact on overall relationship satisfaction, such that if an initial destructive act is responded to with constructive behavior, then relationship functioning is enhanced. In contrast, when the partner's reciprocation matches the destructive engagement, then relationship functioning is decreased. Moreover, in terms of gender differences, preliminary results found that there was a greater level of accommodation exhibited by women than men, but couple functioning was more reliably predicted by the male partner's willingness to accommodate as compared to the female (Rusbult, et al., 1991).

However, at times, accommodating for the relationship may be at a cost to the individual. In other words, accommodative dilemmas can create a conflict for an individual in determining whether to respond to personal or relationship well-being. Partners who decide to protect themselves exhibit exit and neglect responses to their partners' destructive behavior, in comparison to those who attempt to protect the relationship by reacting with voice and loyalty responses (Gaines, et al., 1997). An individual's application of accommodation strategies to the partner's destructive behavior results from a transformation of motivation, in which the individual encounters a shift in his or her motivation. Such a shift tends to involve movement towards considerations of pro-relationship and away from motives of self-interest (Kumashiro, et al., 2002). Furthermore, an individual's mode of reciprocating partner behavior may be influenced by either prosocial or antisocial motivations (Kilpatrick, et al., 2002).

Rusbult and colleagues (1991) reported good correspondence between self-report and behavioral measurements that found individuals who were willing to respond with accommodation exhibit higher pro-relationship as well as prosocial motivations. Such

individuals tend to be more committed, have a higher investment in their relationships, express greater relationship satisfaction as well as state that their relationship gives meaning to their lives. Moreover, this willingness was also found in partners with high expectations for their relationship. These findings are suggestive that motivation to accommodate is related to the mental model of attachment; therefore, it is beneficial to consider the association between one's attachment style and reactions to interpersonal threat (Gaines, et al., 1997).

Accommodation and Attachment Styles. As previously mentioned, accommodative dilemmas activate feelings of threat for the individual as well as doubts about the relationship security. The level of threat from a destructive behavior correlates to the level of dependence within a relationship, the greater the dependence on a partner, the greater the threat. When relationship threat, real or perceived, is experienced, one's attachment system is activated and the internal working model influences behavior towards or away from proximity-seeking. Secure individuals were found to implement more of the constructive and proximity-seeking strategies of accommodation, while insecure partners were more likely to exhibit destructive behaviors as a defense against proximity-seeking (Gaines, et al 1997).

In terms of gender, men with a secure attachment were found to have a positive association with voice, whereas loyalty was positively related to secure women; moreover, a negative association was found between exit and secure attachment for both men and women (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995). In terms of insecure attachments, while both preoccupied men and women were negatively related to neglect, those with a

fearful attachment were reported to have a positive association with the neglect typology. However, only women with a dismissing style were found to have a negative association with voice (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995). In general, individuals with an anxious attachment are more likely to interpret an accommodative dilemma as an act of betrayal by the partner (Gaines, et al 1997). This belief corresponds with their history and expectation of partner unresponsiveness, which may contribute to the increased likelihood of using destructive behaviors as retaliation for a partner's destructive engagement; thereby perpetuating the conflict and validating their negative feelings towards self and dependence on others (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995). In contrast, those with secure attachment tend to react to negative partner behavior with behavior to protect the relationship as well as enhance the quality of the relationship (Gaines, et al 1997). This reaction to accommodative dilemmas communicates the secure individual's low level of anxiety and comfort with closeness as well as desire to trust and be open with their partner (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995).

In summary, when one partner engages the other with destructive behavior, the other has a choice about how to respond. Retaliating with destructive behavior appears to be the initial reaction when treated negatively by a partner (Arriaga & Rusbult, 1998); however, when the partner inhibits that impulsive tendency and instead engages with constructive behavior, this interaction is considered to be accommodative (Kilpatrick, et al., 2002). The manner in which an individual chooses to respond can impact relationship functioning. When a partner responds constructively to a destructive partner, the functioning of the relationship is enhanced, but if the partner retaliates with

reciprocal destructive behavior, then there is a decrease in the functioning (Rusbult, et al., 1991). Furthermore, in contrast to accommodating behaviors, destructive behaviors are more likely to escalate the conflict between partners and result in dissatisfaction of both individuals (Rinaldi & Howe, 2003). It has been suggested that destructive acts may be more salient than constructive ones and as a consequence that negative presence has a greater impact on relationship satisfaction (Gaines, et al., 1997). A destructive interactive pattern commonly found in romantic relationships is demand-withdraw.

Demand-Withdraw

When couples are not able to constructively communicate and mutually engage in conflict resolution, they tend to resort to negative communication and destructive behavioral patterns (Christensen & Heavey, 1990). In the absence of constructive interventions, couples may attempt to manage the conflict in their relationship by engaging in behavior that could be classified as either demanding or withdrawing. This engagement creates a dyadic cycle of interaction that is mutually escalating such that one partner reacts to the other while the other partner's behavior is cued by the first. This communication pattern is also known as demand-withdraw (Christensen, 1988). Three behavioral patterns are considered characteristic of a demand-withdraw interaction. First, the person demanding is more likely to initiate the discussion of problems, whereas the one withdrawing tends to avoid discussions of that nature. Second, during discussion of problems, the one demanding takes the role of nagging and insisting, while the one withdrawing tends to be silent and disengaged. Lastly, the one demanding is typically characterized as being more critical, which tends to complement the defensive

characterization of the one who withdraws (Christensen & Heavey, 1993). This destructive behavioral interaction of demand-withdraw is the foremost relationship pattern studied in marital research (Bradbury, et al., 2000).

The literature tends to link gender differences to the demand-withdraw pattern, supporting that women are more likely to demand and men are more likely to withdraw when attempting to manage conflict in their relationship (Christensen, 1988; Heavey, et al., 1995; Sagrestano, et al., 1999; Caughlin & Vangelisti, 2000). Christensen and Heavey (1993) investigated married and cohabitating couples and found approximately 60% of the couples engaged in woman-demand/ man-withdraw behavioral roles. Researchers have also examined other perspectives to explain the engagement of demand-withdraw behavior. In addition to gender differences, explanations tend to be categorized into conflict structure, social structure and individual differences (see Eldridge & Christensen, 2002 for an overview). Both conflict and social structures involve the desire to change the status quo. Conflict structure explores the structure of the conversational topic (Klinetob & Smith, 1996), while the social structure category focuses on the societal and tradition marital roles and positions of power and status of the couple. In general the man is afforded a higher position of status and power and therefore typically takes on the role of withdraw and his partner, who has less power, takes on the demanding role (Christensen, 1988).

The perspective of individual differences involves differences of personality characteristics, which may be connected to gender (Elderidge & Christensen, 2002). One example of individual differences that commonly evokes demand-withdraw

behavior is the desire for closeness versus that of independence. In this situation, regardless of gender, the individual who wants closer proximity demands, while the other withdraws in order to maintain independence or distance (Caughlin & Vangelisti, 2000). Overall, regardless of the perspective, researchers have found that individuals who desire change tend to be the initiator of the discussion and is, therefore, in the demand role, while the ones who want to maintain the status quo respond in the withdraw role (Klinetob & Smith, 1996). When achieving a desired goal requires cooperation from both partners, the couple is more likely to engage in demand-withdraw behavior as compared to when the goal can be unilaterally accomplished. In other words, when a partner needs the other to actively participate, he or she tends to demand, whereas, if the other is satisfied with the status quo, then that person tends to withdraw (Christensen & Heavey, 1993).

In summary, the engagement of this demand-withdraw pattern may be influenced by gender, power struggles or individual differences (Elderidge & Christensen, 2002). This interactive pattern is activated during a conflict-laden topic in which one partner pressures and the other retreats (Christensen & Heavey, 1990). This pattern of interaction during a threatening and stressful incident may be broadened to suggest an association between demand-withdraw communication and the activation of an individual's attachment system (Feeney, et al., 1994; Pistole, 1994; Creasey, 2002). Previous researchers have applied attachment theory as a framework for understanding adult relationships (e.g. Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Collins, 1996; Feeney, 1999). Currently, researchers are beginning to relate attachment to

conflict resolution behaviors because a central tenet of the theory is during interactions with attachment figures, an individual's affect and behavior is guided by the internal working model (Creasey, 2002).

Demand-withdraw and Attachment. As referenced earlier, individuals' attachment styles are correlated with their ability to regulate affect during conflict (Creasey, 2002). Therefore, is it likely that interactive patterns, such as demand-withdraw, during conflict are influenced by one's attachment (Feeney, et al., 1994). For example, an anxious or preoccupied individual experiences heightened awareness of negative affect and as a result, tends to be hypersensitive to conflict and reacts in a counterproductive manner such as using coercion (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004); whereas an avoidant individual attempts to regulate affect by denying or indirectly expressing negativity in an effort to avoid or withdraw from conflict (Feeney, et al., 1994). In general, individuals with an insecure attachment tend to escalate rather than assuage conflict situations (see Pietromonaco, et al., 2004 for a review). As a result, problems are perpetuated, as partners are unable to resolve their relationship or personality differences (Feeney, et al., 1994).

A perpetual problem experienced in most relationships is the attempt to balance partners' respective desires for closeness and independence (Christensen, 1988). As previously mentioned, the desire for closer proximity is linked to the demand role, while the desire to retain or maintain independence is related to the withdraw role (Christensen & Heavey, 1993). This interactive exchange is likely sparked when the individual desiring closeness perceives some degree of threat to the relationship security. It is

within this context that the attachment system is activated and the desire for proximity becomes more pronounced (Creasey, 2002). As a result, a demand-withdraw cycle develops.

Pistole (1994) describes this relationship struggle as an interaction of an activated attachment system and individual differences impacting response and reaction. More specifically she suggests that preoccupied or anxious individuals, as a result of unpredictable relationships and a fear of abandonment (Simpson, et al., 1996) are hypervigilant to threats of separation and are more likely to react with neediness and attempts to cling on to one's partner. Consequently, anxious individuals are more likely to pursue or demand attention from their partner. In contrast, avoidant individuals are more inclined to withdraw from partner advancement to avoid intense emotions and intimacy (Pistole, 1994). In general, research findings support that highly anxious or avoidant individuals exhibit deficient conflict management skills and as such, tend to engage in destructive patterns, such as attacking one's partner or withdrawing from contact (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004). As a result, another major focus of researchers has been the impact of demand-withdraw on relationship satisfaction (Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Heavey, Layne & Christensen, 1993; Heavey, et al., 1995).

Demand-Withdraw and Satisfaction. Couples who experience conflict and relational distress tend to exhibit demand-withdraw behaviors. The association between the presence of demand-withdraw and low levels of marital satisfaction is consistently supported by empirical research, in which both self-reports and observational data were utilized (Elderidge & Christensen, 2002). Marital satisfaction may be influenced by

several factors or aspects of the relationship including the short-term versus long-term impact of demand-withdraw behaviors, the history of the conflict and the length of the marriage. First, in consideration of the short-term versus long-term effects, Gottman and Krokoff (1989) suggested a negative association between wife-demand/ husband-withdraw communication and the wife's satisfaction. In the short-term, the wives' relationship satisfaction reportedly decreases, whereas long-term, wife-demand/ husband-withdraw is positively correlated with an increase in the wife's satisfaction. The short-term dissatisfaction seems to be a result of the wife's engagement in conflict; however, such engagement appears to contribute long-term to improvement in the relationship.

Second, the history of the couple's conflict is an important consideration in predicting satisfaction. Heavey, et al. (1995) found a decline in the female's satisfaction was reliably predictable when she was attempting to discuss an issue and either the man would withdraw, or the pattern of woman demand/ man withdraw was engaged. When the man initiated the topic, there were no significant associations found. In contrast, when a man would engage in a demand role during a topic broached by the woman, the researchers found that the woman's satisfaction would increase, however the man would experience a decrease in his relationship satisfaction. A possible explanation for the increase in the woman's satisfaction is her positive reaction to the partner's involvement or willingness to discuss an issue of conflict (Elderidge & Christensen, 2002). These findings also seem to suggest that the husband's issues tend to be resolved, therefore, there is less conflict when he brings up an issue and such discussions would not as likely

evoke demand-withdraw behavior, which is in contrast to the situation of an issue initiated by the wife (Klinetob & Smith, 1996). When the wife brings up an issue, which may have a longer history of difficulty, the demand-withdraw behavior is more likely to be enacted and evoke conflict (Elderidge & Christensen, 2002). As a result of this asymmetrical behavior, wives' issues tend to remain unresolved and therefore when her issues are broached, the spouses become more rigid in their positions and polarized in this demand-withdraw behavior (Elderidge & Christensen, 2002). This increase in polarization is associated with destructive functioning within the relationship and a decline in marital satisfaction (Heavey, et al., 1995).

The third aspect of a couple's relationship that may influence the link between demand-withdraw communication patterns and satisfaction is the length of the couple's marriage. When studying distressed couples, Elderidge and Christensen (2002) found distressed couples married less than 8.5 years were more likely to engage in role reversal, respective to the issue at hand. For instance, if the husband brings up an issue, then he will be in the demand role, whereas the opposite would be true when the issue related to the wife. Couples who were married over 8.5 years exhibited more rigidity in their communication styles. In other words, those married longer tended to be influenced more by gender-stereotyped roles of demand-withdraw rather than the topic of discussion. As a result, couples become more polarized in their demand-withdraw roles and their interactive pattern becomes more asymmetrical, which is negatively associated with relationship satisfaction (Klinetob & Smith, 1996). In summary, marital satisfaction is negatively associated with demand-withdraw behaviors (Heavey, et al.,

1995). In general, wives typically have a lower status or position of power and desire change. As a result, researchers have found that it is the wives who typically engage in demanding behaviors (Christensen, 1988). This pattern of interaction is responded by spousal withdraw and the wives' issue not being addressed or resolved. As a result, wives tend to experience a reduction in marital satisfaction, as well as, both spouses are more likely to become more rigid in their stance, which results in polarization of demand-withdraw behaviors (Elderidge & Christensen, 2002).

Chapter Summary

Attachment is an important concept to examine when attempting to understand or explain a couple's interactive pattern (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Collins, 1996; Feeney, 1999). Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory suggests that the quality of the early parent-child relationship creates a framework of internalized expectations and beliefs about the self and the self in relation to others. This framework creates a working model or knowledge structure of attachment, which consists of cognitive and behavioral scripts about patterns of interpersonal relationships (Fishtein, et al., 1999). While attachment theory suggests that internal representations developed during the primary parent-child relationship, they continue to be influential throughout an individual's lifespan (Bowlby, 1988). Beliefs and expectations of self and others are used in new relationship situations to predict and explain interpersonal behaviors of self and others so that an individual can prepare or react to expected outcomes (Collins & Read, 1990). Therefore, attachment theory provides researchers with the framework to better understand the process and influence of personal and interpersonal histories on

new relationships (Collins, 1996).

An individual's attachment system can be activated when encountering a situation that threatens the self or the romantic relationship, for example situations of conflict (Feeney, 2002). Conflict is inevitable in a romantic relationship. The impact of conflict on the relationship depends on the manner in which partners handle their respective negative emotions during their interactions (Markman, 1991). As a result, this study examines married individuals to investigate the role of attachment in responses to relationship conflict. In other words, the current research examines attachment styles and the association between styles of conflict engagement. The two forms of conflict interaction studied are accommodation and demand-withdraw behaviors. These interactions occur during a conflictual situation, however, in the former, the individual resists the impulse to respond destructively to a partner's negative behavior (Rusbult, et al., 1991); while in the later, the individual responds negatively to the partner's destructive behavior, mutually escalating the situation (Christensen, 1988). In contrast to demand-withdraw interactions, partners who chose to accommodate, exhibit constructive behavior and consequently are attempting to reduce conflict and enhance their relationship (Rusbult, et al., 1991). However, it seems that destructive acts are more salient than constructive ones and as a consequence appear to have a greater impact on relationship satisfaction (Gaines, et al., 1997). Therefore, investigating the possible relationship between these two variables may lead to a greater understanding of individual differences, engagement of interactive patterns and the overall influence on satisfaction.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Methods

Participants

The sample consisted of 207 married individuals (92 males and 115 females). Participants were recruited from groups such as alumni associations, rotary clubs, church groups, mother's day out groups and student organizations. Possible participants were approached via two avenues: in person or email requests. The inclusion criteria for the individuals selected were as follows: must be married, must be in a heterosexual relationship and only one member of a household may complete the survey. Demographic information was gathered on all participants and Table 1 displays the summary of demographic statistics for male and female participants.

Procedure

In order to have consistency between in-person and email groups, when addressing the in-person group, the introduction and explanation came from the introductory letter and visual display of all the surveys that were to be completed. Groups were told the entire process would take 10-15 minutes to finish, were reminded to read through the information sheet and to check answers to be sure every item had been completed.

Participants who were approached in person were given an introductory letter, information and demographic sheets and five surveys (Relationship Scales Questionnaire, Accommodation Scale, Conflict Pattern Questionnaire, Communication

Pattern Questionnaire Revised and the Quality Marriage Index). Volunteers were also given a self-addressed stamped envelope to return their materials. Participants who were approached on-line received the same materials, but were given the option to return the surveys through an on-line email attachment or a hard copy printout, to be mailed back to the researcher.

Table 1
Demographic Statistics

	Total Sample (N=207)		
	N	%	
Gender			
Male	92	44.4%	
Female	115	55.6%	
<u>Ethnic Group</u>			
African American	5	2.42%	
Asian	5	2.42%	
Caucasian	184	88.89%	
Hispanic	11	5.31%	
American Indian	1	0.48%	
	1	0.48%	
<u>Level of Education</u>			
High School or Equivalent	8		
Vocational./Technical School/ Some College/ Associates Degree	44	21.26%	
Bachelor's Degree	80	38.65%	
Master's Degree	46	22.22%	
Doctoral Degree	14	6.76%	
<u>Continuous Variables</u>			
	Range		
	Minimum	Maximum	
Age	21	78	45.14
Marital Status	6	636	207.88
Number of Marriages	1	3	1.25
Number of Children	1	8	1.65
			Median
			46
			144
			1.00
			2.00

All surveys and demographic information were anonymous. Appendix A contains a copy of the introductory letter given to participants on-line. Appendix B contains the information sheet, as per IRB approval, response to the survey constituted informed consent, and Appendix C is the Demographic Questionnaire.

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire. Demographic data about subjects were obtained through completion of a questionnaire. Participants were requested to provide the following information: gender, age, ethnic group, marital status (including length of marriages, number of marriages, number of children and if other than first marriage, number of stepchildren), level of education and area of residence.

Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ: Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). The RSQ is a self-report, 30-item, short statement questionnaire that is rated on a 5-point scale ranging from *not at all like me* (1) to *very much like me* (5). Participants rate each statement based on their characteristic style within close relationships. The items are comprised of statements taken from three sources: Hazan and Shaver's (1987) attachment measure, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) Relationship Questionnaire and Collins and Read's (1990) Adult Attachment Scale. However, unlike Hazan and Shaver's (1987) three category scale (Secure, Anxious- Ambivalent and Avoidant) and Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) four- category scale (Secure, Fearful, Preoccupied and Dismissing), this scale was not designed as a categorical measure of attachment. Instead, attachment pattern subscales, as defined by Bartholomew (1990), are created to reflect the continuous measure of felt security, fearfulness, preoccupiedness and

dismissingness. Subscales are created by seventeen of the thirty items. Secure items are defined by questions 3, 9 (Reverse), 10, 15, and 28 (Reverse); Fearful items are defined by questions 1, 5, 12, and 24; Preoccupied items are defined by questions 6 (Reverse), 8, 16, 25; and Dismissing items are defined by questions 2, 6, 19, 22, and 26.

In the current study, as recommended, the scores were measured dimensionally according to Kurdek (2002), to derive the two underlying dimensions of attachment: self (anxiety) and other (avoidance). These two dimensions exist in the context of close relationships such that the former relates to degree to which someone has internalized his or her own self-worth and maintains the expectation that a partner will respond to him or her in a positive manner, while the latter suggests that which a partner is expected to be supportive and available to the self. An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted to determine which items would substantiate the two dimensions. Using a scree plot and eigenvalue > 1 , two factors were found by the researcher. Criteria were considered to load on a factor if they were greater than .60 and were excluded from a factor if values were less than .30. Items that appeared to load on multiple factors were excluded from this analysis. The first factor counted for 25.83% of variance and was named attachment dimension 1, anxiety, while the second factor, named attachment dimension 2, avoidance, accounted for 11.83% of the variance. The attachment dimension 1, anxiety (or model of self), was supported by items 9, 11, 16, 21, 23 and 28 ($\alpha = .83$). Attachment dimension 2, avoidance (or model of other), contained items 1, 7, 10, 12, 26, and 27 ($\alpha = .81$). Alphas, respectively, were .83 and .81, which is consistent with previous research (Simpson, Rholes & Nelligan, 1992).

Individual Accommodation (Rusbult, et al., 1991). The Individual Accommodation scale measures an individual's suppression and expression of feelings and behaviors in response to his or her partner regarding accommodation. It is a 16-item self-report that includes four incidences, in which the partner engaged in rude or inconsiderate behavior, thereby creating an opportunity for accommodation. These incidences are combined, in a random order, with the four accommodation responses – exit, voice, loyalty and neglect (Kumashiro, et al., 2002). *Exit* is an active and destructive response and represented by items 1,9,13, and 14; *Voice* is an active and constructive response that is determined by items 2,6,10, and 15; *Loyalty* is a passive, yet constructive response contrived of items 3,7,11, and 16; and *Neglect* is a passive and destructive response, which is represented by items 4,5,8, and 12 (Rusbult, 1993). Participants rated their accommodative responses on a scale from 0 (*I never do this*) to 8 (*I constantly do this*). Reliability analysis completed on the data set indicated it was a reliable measure of the construct ($\alpha = .83$). Total accommodation is determined by summing up voice, loyalty, and reverse scored exit and neglect.

Demand-Withdraw subscale of the Communication Pattern Questionnaire (CPQ: Christensen & Sullaway, 1984). The CPQ *Total amount of demand-withdraw communication* subscale was used in order to capture the participant's amount of demand-withdraw communication in his or her marriage. Participants were asked to indicate on a scale from 1 (“Very Unlikely”) to 9 (“Very Likely”) how you and your partner typically deal with problems in your relationship. Two sections of the CPQ are included in this subscale: “When some problem in the relationship arises” and “During a

discussion of a relationship problem” and areas regarding Discussion/Avoidance, Demand/Withdraw, and Criticize/Defend were rated ($\alpha = .65$).

In the current study, since surveys were distributed to large groups of participants with mixed gender, the specific focus of the questions: “A. Man criticizes while Woman defends herself” and “B. Woman criticizes while Man defends himself” were replaced with a general focus: “A. I criticize while my partner defends his/herself.” and “B. My partner criticizes while I defend myself.” The ratings were scored by summing up the total ratings for the six items, according to Christensen and Sullaway (1984) scoring instructions for *Total Amount of Demand/ Withdraw Communication* (a reverse score was utilized to correct for the gender of the participant). Discriminant validity of the CPQ was also supported by a study conducted by Noller and White (1990), which found that scores from the questionnaire were able to discriminate between couples who were happy and unhappy in their marriages.

Conflict Pattern Questionnaire (Descriptors were based on the Demand-Withdraw definitions used in Christensen & Sullaway's (1984) Communication Patterns Questionnaire (CPQ): B5. “Demand-Withdraw. Man nags and demands while Woman withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further” and “Woman nags and demands while man withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further”). This one-item, self-report question instructs participants to indicate the number which best describes the degree of demand or withdraw the individuals engages in during a conflicting discussion of a relationship problem. This number is based on a continuum ranging from 1 (“I withdraw, become silent and/ or refuse to further discuss

the matter further) to 7 (“I am persistent and/ or demand attention”). This one-item question was used in conjunction with the *Total amount of demand-withdraw communication* subscale to determine the participant’s degree of demand-withdraw behavior in conflictual marital situations ($\alpha = .60$).

Quality Marital Index (QMI: Norton, 1983). The QMI is recommended as a measure of marital satisfaction because it is a global measure of satisfaction as well as routinely used in research (Bradbury, et al., 2000). The QMI evaluates the “goodness” of a relationship by considering it as a whole (Norton, 1983). Participants are asked to rate the degree to which they agree with seven statements about the quality of their marriage (i.e., “My relationship with my partner is very stable”, “My relationship with my partner makes me happy”, etc.), based on a scale that ranges from 1 (*very strong agreement*) to 7 (*very strong disagreement*). This measure also has high reliability ($\alpha = .96$). In addition, concurrent validity has been established based on high correlations ($\alpha = .94$) between the QMI and the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale as adequate measures of marital quality (Calahan, 1997).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

The data set was examined for outliers and violations to the assumptions of multivariate normality. Univariate normality was assessed through the use of SPSS, which yielded measures of skewness that ranged from $-.811$ to 2.009 and measures of kurtosis that ranged from $-.798$ to 7.530 . As such, all variables met standards of univariate normality as outlined by Kline (1998) and Stevens (2002). More comprehensive normality characteristics are available in Table 2. To test the hypotheses, bivariate correlations were used to examine the associations among the variables in the structural equation model. These results are presented in Table 3.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was individual's attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are inversely correlated with marital satisfaction. The correlation between the attachment dimension of anxiety and marital satisfaction was negative, in the expected direction, $r = -.30$, and statistically significant, $p < .01$. This indicates that perceived self-worth is related to marital satisfaction. Statistical significance, $p < .01$, was also found in the negative correlation between the attachment dimension of avoidance and marital satisfaction, $r = -.24$, which suggests as an individual's perception of a partner's availability is also related to marital satisfaction.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S. E.	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender	0	1	0.44	0.03	0.50	0.23	-1.97
Age	21	78	45.14	1.01	14.53	0.26	-1.20
Length of Marriage	6	63	207.88	12.23	176.02	0.69	-0.80
Number of Marriages	1	3	1.25	0.04	0.51	2.01	3.22
Number of Children	0	8	1.65	0.09	1.31	0.84	1.85
Secure Composite	2	5	3.62	0.04	0.61	-0.22	-0.11
Fearful Composite	1	4	2.14	0.05	0.73	0.46	-0.36
Preoccupied Composite	1	4	2.53	0.04	0.59	-0.02	-0.20
Dismissing Composite	1	5	2.99	0.05	0.67	-0.05	0.32
Anxiety Dimension	6	28	11.24	0.32	4.50	1.11	1.42
Avoidance Dimension	8	25	16.90	0.19	2.79	0.11	0.27
Loyalty Composite	0	32	16.65	0.41	5.88	-0.18	0.02
Voice Composite	0	32	21.00	0.39	5.57	-0.50	0.53
Exit Composite	8	32	25.82	0.33	4.77	-0.81	0.61
Neglect Composite	9	32	22.84	0.39	5.49	-0.18	-0.67
Total Accommodation	39	114	86.31	0.94	13.53	-0.44	0.45
Demand-Withdraw Composite	-22	17	-1.36	0.45	6.42	-0.14	0.62
Quality of Marriage	6	42	38.00	0.40	5.73	-2.41	7.53

Table 3
Bivariate Correlations among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Gender	1.0000								
2 Age	0.2261**	1.0000							
3 Length of Marriage	0.2636**	0.8351**	1.0000						
4 Number of Marriages	-0.0885**	0.2352**	-0.1250**	1.0000					
5 Number of Children	0.2531**	0.4595**	0.5243**	0.0630*	1.0000				
6 Secure Composite	0.0207	0.0233	0.0651*	-0.0846**	0.0402	1.0000			
7 Fearful Composite	0.1168**	0.0202	0.0023	0.0399	0.0315	-0.6023**	1.0000		
8 Preoccupied Composite	-0.2814**	-0.1792**	-0.1339**	-0.0592*	-0.0462	-0.1689**	0.1056**	1.0000	
9 Dismissing Composite	0.1643**	0.0828**	0.0434	0.0338	0.0165	-0.2658**	0.5045**	-0.2374**	1.0000
10 Anxiety Composite	-0.0381	-0.0534	-0.1299**	0.1278**	-0.0406	-0.1313**	0.4031**	0.2358**	0.2289**
11 Avoidance Composite	0.0800**	-0.0260	0.0110	-0.0239	-0.0372	-0.2969**	0.6964**	0.1188**	0.6205**
12 Loyalty Composite	0.2935**	0.1873**	0.2109**	-0.0293	0.1268**	-0.0420	0.0657*	0.0460	0.0726*
13 Voice Composite	-0.0052	0.0184	0.0221	-0.0339	-0.0699*	0.2644**	-0.3064**	0.0242	-0.1963**
14 Exit Composite	0.0461	-0.1503	-0.1424**	0.0057	0.0170	-0.3546**	0.3428**	0.1475**	0.2249**
15 Neglect Composite	0.1666**	0.0795**	0.0718*	-0.0178	0.1572**	-0.3644**	0.3632**	0.1680**	0.1630**
16 Total Accommodation	0.0415	0.1097**	0.1218**	-0.0215	-0.0435	0.3637**	-0.3660**	-0.0903**	-0.1947**
17 Total Demand-Withdraw	0.1191**	-0.1140**	-0.0498	-0.1269**	-0.0045	-0.2820**	0.2611**	0.2581**	0.1538**
18 Quality of Marriage Index	-0.1150**	0.0435	0.0254	0.0614	0.0852**	0.2772**	-0.3595**	-0.0399	-0.2273**

Notes: N= 207.

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

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

Table 3
Continued

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 Gender									
2 Age									
3 Length of Marriage									
4 Number of Marriages									
5 Number of Children									
6 Secure Composite									
7 Fearful Composite									
8 Preoccupied Composite									
9 Dismissing Composite									
10 Anxiety Composite	1.0000								
11 Avoidance Composite	0.3018**	1.0000							
12 Loyalty Composite	-0.0388	0.1596**	1.0000						
13 Voice Composite	-0.1948**	-0.1477**	0.1793**	1.0000					
14 Exit Composite	0.2417**	0.2849**	-0.0279	-0.5531**	1.0000				
15 Neglect Composite	0.1541**	0.2226**	0.4273**	-0.3793**	0.4994**	1.0000			
16 Total Accommodation	-0.2449**	-0.1823**	0.3447**	0.8388**	-0.7952**	-0.5526**	1.0000		
17 Total Demand-Withdraw	0.1486**	0.2461**	0.0845**	-0.2620**	0.4597**	0.4326**	-0.4089**	1.0000	
18 Quality of Marriage Index	-0.3035**	-0.2435**	0.0471	0.3567**	-0.4988**	-0.3631**	0.4907**	-0.2857**	1.0000

Notes: N= 207.

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

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

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis was individual's attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are negatively correlated to their level of total accommodation. Both relationships were statistically significant, $p < .01$. The correlation between the attachment dimension of anxiety and total accommodation was negative, in the expected direction, $r = -.24$. This indicates individual's feelings of self-worth are associated with accommodation behavior in marriage. There was also a negative correlation found between the attachment dimension of avoidance, $r = -.18$, which suggests an individual's perception of partner availability is also related to their accommodation behavior in marriage.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis was attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are related to the likelihood of engaging in either demand or withdraw behavior with their partners. The results obtained for both the anxiety, $r = .15$, and the avoidance, $r = .25$, dimensions of attachment and demand-withdraw behavior were statistically significant, $p < .01$. This indicates that individuals' level of anxiety as well as their comfort of closeness is related to their interactive pattern of demand-withdraw.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis was total accommodation was positively related to marital satisfaction. The correlation between marital satisfaction and total accommodation was positive, in the expected direction, $r = .49$, and was statistically significant at $p < .01$. This

indicates that as the amount of total accommodation in a marriage increases so does the marital satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis was likelihood of engaging in demand-withdraw behaviors is inversely correlated with marital satisfaction. The correlation between demand-withdraw behavior and marital satisfaction was statistically significant, $r = -.29$, $p < .01$. This suggests that the engagement in demand or withdraw behaviors within a marriage, negatively impacts marital satisfaction.

Structural Equation Models

To examine more directly the hypothesized mediating pathways and the validity of the proposed model as a whole, structural equation modeling analyses were conducted in two phases to answer separate research questions: Question 1: What is the relationship among the variables of attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw and quality of marriage? Question 2: What is the relationship between an individual's total accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict style? Question 3: What relationship does an individual's length of marriage have on accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict styles? Question 4: Is there a moderator model between the modes of delivering surveys to participant (in-person versus email)? Given that my model included both observed and latent variables, I chose to conduct these tests with AMOS, even for the analyses involving only observed variables, for ease of comparison across analyses.

Question 1: What are the relationships among the variables of attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw and quality of marriage?

Structural equation modeling with AMOS (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999) was used to explore a model of the relationships among attachment styles, interactive conflict styles and marital satisfaction. The model converged and all estimates were within bounds. Model fit was evaluated with multiple indicators of model fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) values above .95 and RMSEA values less than .06 represent an acceptable fit. Fit indices all met these pre-established criterion values and indicated an excellent model fit for the data, $\chi^2(81)=135.42$, $p<.001$, CFI=.95, TLI=.93, RMSEA=.05 (see Figures 3 and 4).

Gender. I examined whether gender affected the structural relations of the paths in the model. I used a multi-group comparison analysis within AMOS to examine whether model fit was invariate across gender groups. A χ^2 difference test, (χ^2 diff (10) = 7.106, $p = .715$, revealed that the unconstrained model ($\chi^2(163) = 230.881$, $p < .001$; TLI=.92, CFI=.94; RMSEA=.05) did not provide a significant increment in fit over the constrained model, $\chi^2(173) = 237.987$, $p < .001$; TLI=.93, CFI=.94, RMSEA=.04, indicating that model fit is invariant across genders.

Question 2: What is the relationship between an individual's total accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict style?

The relation between the observed variables of an individual's total accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict styles was examined first. As anticipated, total accommodation was associated with lower levels of demand-withdraw ($\beta = -.15$, $CR = -4.76$, $p < .001$). Thus a significant path between total accommodation and demand- withdraw was established. The fit of the model was good, $\chi^2(81, N = 207)$

= 135.42, $p = <.001$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .95, root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06 (see Figures 3 and 4). This indicates that as the amount of accommodating and constructive behavior increases, the level of destructive, demand-withdraw behavior decreases.

Question 3: What relationship does an individual's length of marriage have on total accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict styles?

I also examined whether length of marriage moderated model fit. I used a multi-group comparison analysis within AMOS to examine whether model fit was invariate across marital length. Length of marriage was divided into two groups: less than or equal to five years of marriage and greater than five years of marriage. A χ^2 difference test, $\chi^2_{\text{diff}}(8) = 17.56$, $p = .02$, revealed that the unconstrained model for the length of marriage, $\chi^2(163) = 255.47$, $p < .001$; TLI = .89, CFI = .92; RMSEA = .05, provided a statistically significant increment in fit over the constrained model for the length of marriage, $\chi^2(171) = 273.05$, $p < .001$; TLI = .88, CFI = .91, RMSEA = .05. An examination of critical ratios for differences between structural parameters and covariances found only one covariance that differed across those married less than or equal to 5 years and those married for more than 5 years. In each case the observed difference was in the strength of the association, not in the direction. Specifically, the covariance between demand-withdraw conflict style and quality of marriage ($r = -.221$ for less or equal to 5 years of marriage and $r = -.385$ for more than 5 years of marriage; critical ratio = -2.364) differed between the two groups. This finding implicates that the number of years of marriage is inversely related to the interactive pattern of demand-withdraw behavior.

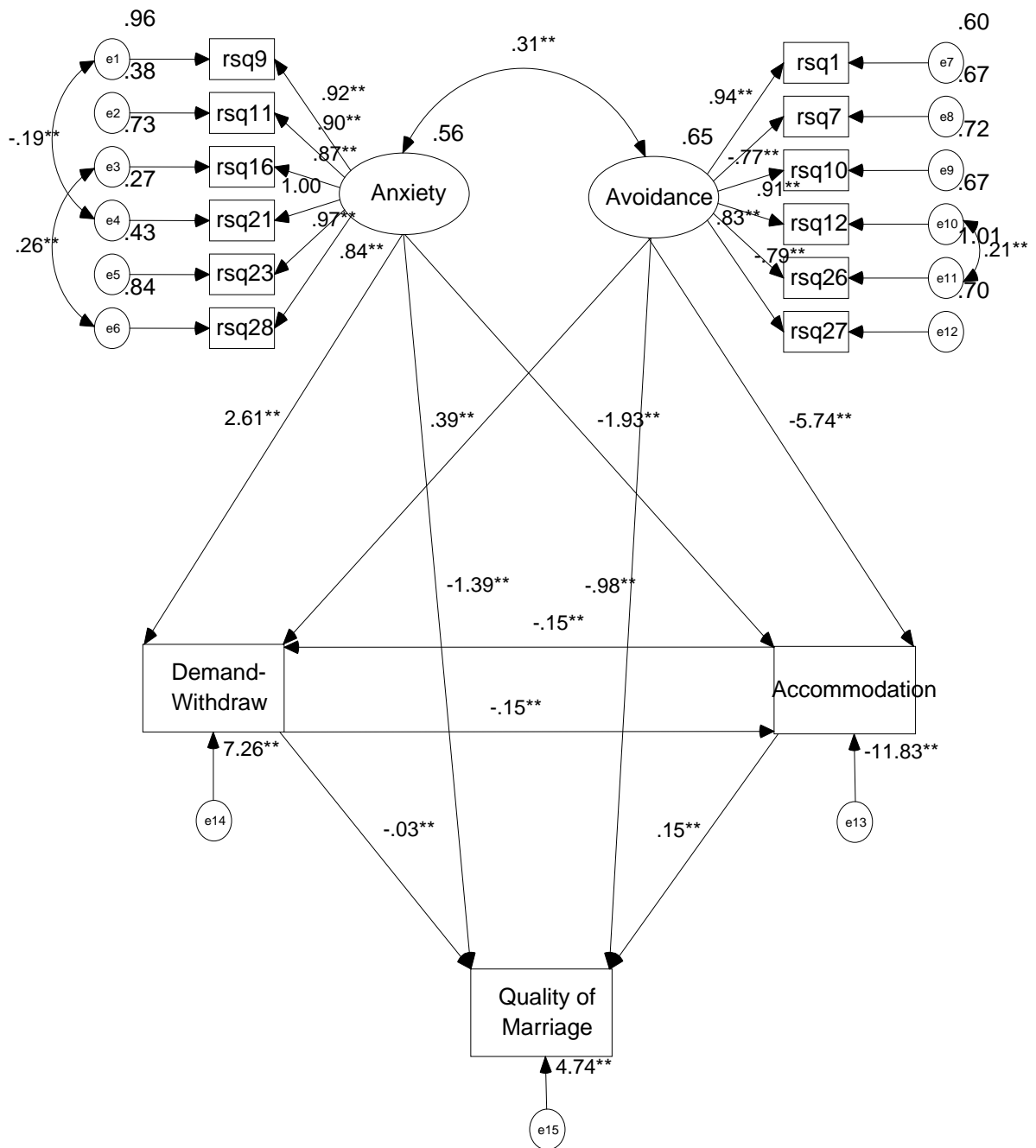


Figure 3. Unstandardized Estimates

Notes:

- * values are statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level.
- ** values are statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level.

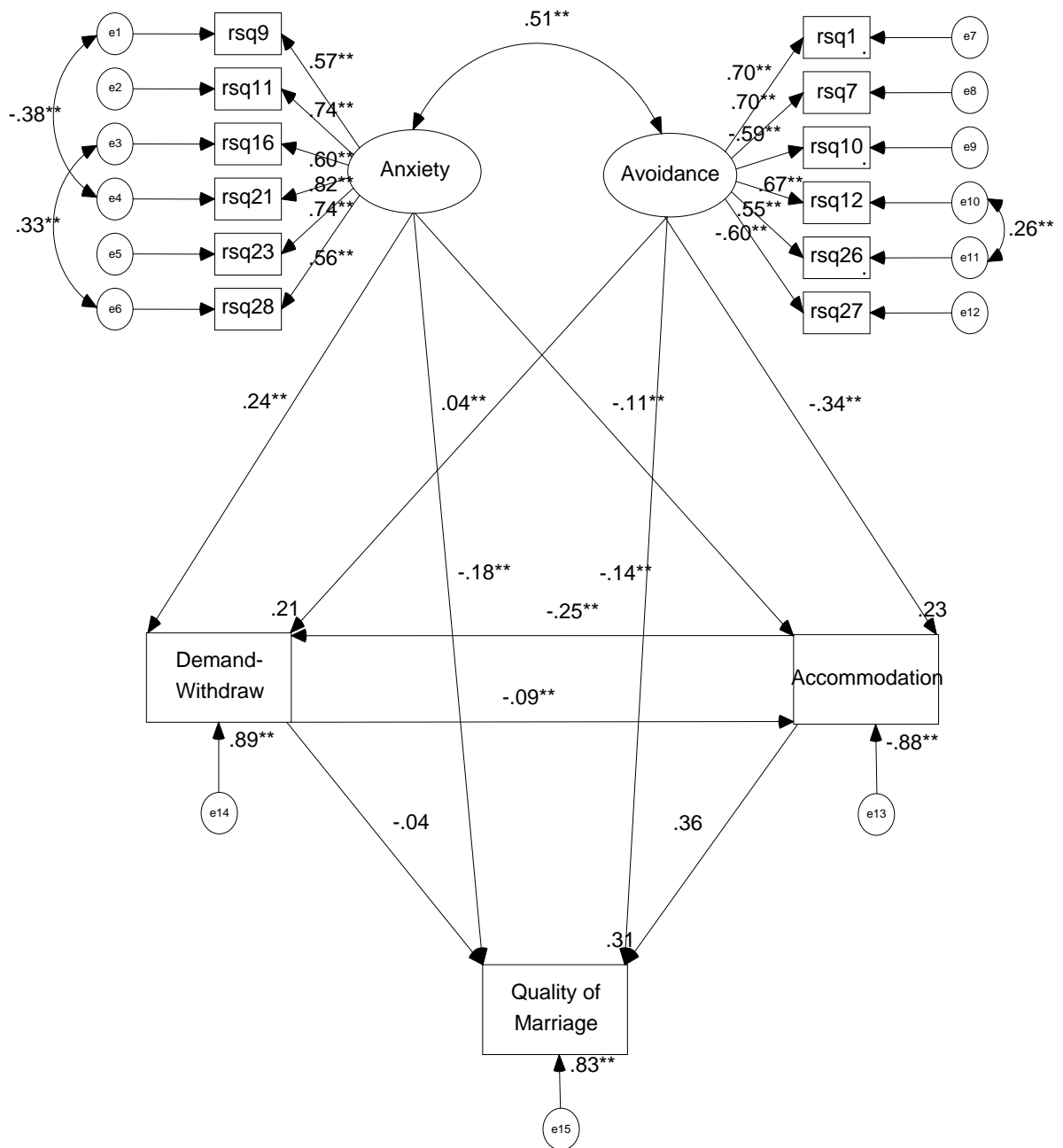


Figure 4. Standardized Estimates

Notes:

- * values are statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level.
- ** values are statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Question 4: Is there a moderator model between the modes of delivering surveys to participant (in-person versus email)?

The effect of method of delivery was examined and moderator model -SEM. A χ^2 difference test, χ^2 diff (8)=12.65, revealed that the unconstrained model (in which structural paths were allowed to differ for email versus in-person delivery), χ^2 (163)=229.38; $p<.001$; TLI=.92, CFI=.93; RMSEA=.05; did not provide a significant increment in fit over the constrained model (in which structural paths are constrained to be the same for method of delivery), χ^2 (171)=242.03, $p<.001$; TLI=.92; CFI=.93; RMSEA=.05. In other words, a moderator means that the relationship for one group is not the same as the relationship for another. Therefore, this research questions wonders if email vs. in-person path coefficients differed from each other and from this data, there was no evidence for moderation. Thus, the hypothesized model is an equally good fit for either mode of questionnaire delivery.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The current study examined individual attachment and the association between styles of conflict engagement and the influence on marital satisfaction. Building on previous research that suggested attachment theory provided a framework that clarified individual differences and an individual's process of perceiving and reacting to conflict, I specifically addressed two forms of conflict engagement, accommodation and demand-withdraw, and their association with attachment and marital satisfaction. Married individuals (92 males and 115 females) completed five surveys that measured attachment, accommodation, total demand-withdraw behaviors and global marital quality. A factor analysis was completed and a two-dimensional measure of attachment was assessed and AMOS was used to conduct structural equation modeling. Based on the model, bivariate correlations were computed to determine the relationship between the constructs. In the introduction, I hypothesized the relationships between attachment and accommodation, demand-withdraw and marital satisfaction. In addition, the relationships between marital satisfaction and accommodation as well as with demand-withdraw were also postulated.

Adult Romantic Attachment

The first hypothesis stated that attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are inversely correlated with marital satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported by the data, in that the relationship between both dimensions of attachment and marital satisfaction were found to be statistically significant. These findings suggest that

individuals' perception of self and others are strong determinants in understanding marital satisfaction. This seems consistent with recent research on attachment affective reactivity and regulation. This suggests individuals with high anxiety exhibit more frequent affective reactivity. As a result, they tend to engage in behaviors to restore feelings of security. The behaviors the individuals engage in are dependant on the level of avoidance (Pietromonaco, et al., 2006). Consequently, this could impact their degree of marital satisfaction.

The second hypothesis, which stated an individual's attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are negatively correlated to their level of total accommodation, was also supported. These results indicate that there is a negative relationship between an individual's attachment dimensions and the decision to respond constructively to a spouse's destructive behavior. More specifically, individuals' feelings of self-worth and the perception of a partner's availability are both related to their level of accommodation in the marriage. These findings support previous studies, which have stated the level of perceived threat, to self or the relationship, in reaction to a partner's destructive behavior, is correlated to the level of dependence within a relationship (Gaines, et al., 1997). Moreover, it is consistent with previous research that found those with secure attachment tend to react to negative partner behavior with constructive behavior to protect the relationship as well as enhance the quality of the relationship (Gaines, et al., 1997). This reaction communicates the secure individual's low level of anxiety and comfort with closeness as well as desire to trust and be open with the partner (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995).

The third hypothesis stated the attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance are related to the likelihood of individuals engaging in either demand or withdraw behavior with their partners. The data supported this hypothesis. These results suggest that individual's level of anxiety as well as his or her comfort of closeness is related to the interactive pattern of demand-withdraw, which further supports research on attachment and conflict behavior. According to previous research, anxiety is more likely to be associated with demand behaviors, while avoidance is more likely to be connected to withdraw behaviors (Simpson, et al., 1996). In general, research findings support that highly anxious or avoidant individuals exhibit deficient conflict management skills and as such, tend to engage in destructive patterns, such as attacking one's partner or withdrawing from contact (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004).

Interactive Conflict Styles

The fourth hypothesis stated total accommodation is positively related to global marital satisfaction. The hypothesis was supported by the data. This finding is consistent with previous studies of accommodation and marital satisfaction indicating that constructive behavior, in response to a partner's destructive initiation, enhances relationship functioning; whereas, in contrast, when an individual reciprocates in a destructive manner, relationship functioning is decreased (Rusbult, et al., 1991).

The fifth and final hypothesis was an individual's likelihood of engaging in demand- withdraw behaviors would be inversely correlated with marital satisfaction. The data also supported this hypothesis and is consistent with prior research that found, through both self-report and observational data, the association between the engagement

of demand-withdraw behaviors and low levels of marital satisfaction (Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Heavey, et al., 1993; Heavey, et al., 1995; Elderidge & Christensen, 2002).

The current study supported all five hypotheses and as a result, the data is consistent with previous research on attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw behavior and marital satisfaction. In addition to supporting prior findings, this study also has several unique contributions. One contribution is the development of a path model for the variables of attachment, accommodation, demand-withdraw and marital satisfaction. This display of variables is useful in showing the bidirectionality of constructive and destructive behaviors in marriage. It further demonstrates support of the current literature on couples, which states the quality of marriage increases with not only the decrease in negative and destructive behaviors, but also with the increase of positive and constructive ones (Epstein & Baucom, 2002).

This study is also unique in demonstrating a relationship between accommodative and demand-withdraw behavior. The second research question investigated the relationship between an individual's total accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict style. A statistically significant relationship was found between the two interactive patterns, such that total accommodation was associated with lower levels of demand-withdraw. This finding reinforces previous studies that found individuals who accommodate, inhibit their impulsive tendencies to respond negatively to a partner's destructive behavior and instead respond with positive behavior (Kilpatrick, et al., 2002). Therefore, these findings support the concept that the presence of

constructive, accommodative behavior reduces destructive interactive behaviors.

Another unique contribution of this study is the focus on the number of years married and its impact on total accommodation and demand-withdraw conflict styles. The results suggested that a difference exists between those married less than or equal to five years and those married for more than five years. Specifically, the difference between the two groups was the interaction between the demand-withdraw conflict style and the quality of marriage. This supports previous research that suggested that destructive acts are more salient than constructive ones and as a consequence appear to have a greater impact on relationship satisfaction (Gaines, et al., 1997). Based on longitudinal research, Markman (1991) found that after five years of marriage, high levels of negative communication was a strong predictor of low levels of relationship satisfaction.

In the current research, demand-withdraw behavior was found to be less or lower after five years of marriage. One explanation for the current findings might be that couples whose interaction during conflict includes destructive demand-withdraw behavior, may end up divorcing before or during their fifth year of marriage. This explanation is consistent with previous research based on longitudinal findings that the ability of a couple to handle conflict was a predictor of relationship distress or divorce versus a happy and stable relationship after six years of marriage (Markman, 1991). An alternative reason might be, among couples entering marital therapy, the average duration of distress prior to seeking therapy was six years. In other words, those couples who might exhibit higher levels of demand-withdraw behavior, in the first five years of marriage, may seek therapy to intervene and as a result, their conflictual interactions will

be less destructive and have less of an impact on their overall level of marital satisfaction (Epstein & Baucom, 2002). Finally, this study also provides continued support for the use of electronic delivery of surveys for research purposes. No differences were found in the quality of the data from participants who received the surveys in-person compared to those who received it electronically through e-mail. This finding seems consistent with previous research involving modes of distribution (e.g. Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Dillman, 1999). In summary, the present study supported current research findings as well as contributed unique findings to the literature. The remainder of this chapter will focus on research implications, limitations of this study and directions for future research.

Research Implications

The current study, by taking into consideration the interaction patterns of individual spouses, provides information for improving therapeutic intervention of distressed marriages, primarily because interactional patterns are considered the most changeable feature of individuals or couples (Christensen, 1988). Possible interventions include teaching couples how to manage conflict constructively (Stanley, Markman & Whitton, 2002) through constructive communication and the development of conflict management skills (Arellano & Markman, 1995), as well as conveying the importance of expressing feelings, yet managing negative affect and facilitating effective problem-solving, especially in men. This ability to problem-solve could likely reduce the reaction of withdrawing when a topic of discussion is broached and consequently, improve the quality of the marital relationship. A desirable outcome would be that couples gain an

understanding that the impact of conflict is dependant on how feelings are expressed and received (Markman, 1991). Additionally, the present findings support the importance of both increasing positive interactions, as well as, reducing negative ones to have a positive impact on marital satisfaction (Epstein & Baucom, 2002). The respective increases and decreases help create a relational environment to allow vulnerability, self-disclosure and acceptance (Stanley, et al., 2002). One possible target for clinical or therapeutic intervention is fostering constructive communication, such as validation and negotiation, to reduce and ideally replace patterns of demand-withdraw communication (Heavey & Christensen, 1996). Moreover, the results are theory-based, which fosters a background for practitioners to better understand and explain couples' sources of conflict and interactive conflict patterns (Feeney, 2002). In other words, the current findings may be beneficial to practitioners in their intervention dealing with destructive interactions in a marriage.

Another research implication is that a majority of the current literature explores attachment and conflict management styles (Creasey, 2002), conflict resolution skills (Simpson, et al., 1996), and closeness-distance struggles (Pistole, 1994), rather than the specific interactive behavior of demand-withdraw, which was the focus of this study. The current findings may help to establish similarities and/or consistencies among attachment styles and conflict behavior discussed in previous studies. Furthermore, the current study investigated married participants, whose length of marriage ranged from six months to fifty-three years. Prior studies primarily utilized college populations of dating or cohabitating individuals or newlywed couples (see Feeney, 1999, for

overview). However, since the findings of this current study were consistent with previous research findings, this contributes to the overall generalizability of the relationships between attachment and accommodation, attachment and conflict patterns and attachment and relationship satisfaction.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The present study is consistent with previous research findings, as well as, contributed unique findings to the literature; however, generalizations should be made with caution. The population studied was from a community sample, primarily composed of Caucasian participants. African-American, Hispanic, Asian and Indian populations were underrepresented in this sample, and consequently, generalizations to specific groups are limited. It would be beneficial for future research to examine diverse ethnicities and explore possible cultural differences impacting constructive and destructive communication styles. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, the sample is representative of a community population. In other words, the participants are considered nondistressed as compared to distressed. In addition, based on the nondistressed classification, physically violent or other abusive relationships were not measured in this study. Another possible direction for future research would be to sample distressed or clinical populations of individuals and couples.

There is a growing research base of self-report relational measures. For example, with specific reference to attachment, researchers have found that interpersonal behaviors are related to attachment styles determined through self-reports (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2004). Moreover, researchers have determined there are high levels of

convergence between an observer's rating of participants' traits and the attachment styles established through self-report (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). While self-reports are recognized as yielding valuable data, one limitation of this may be the exclusive use of self-report measures. A difficulty in only utilizing self-report instruments is the risk that participants may respond to questions with bias. Bias may be a result of the participant's desire to feel socially competent, feeling in that particular moment, rather than his or her reflecting on the situation measured (i.e. conflictual situations), or recollection of his or her most salient recent experience (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2004).

Another possible limitation of self-report measures is that participants most likely completed the surveys in a neutral, non-threatening environment, which lacked the current emotional context explored in the measure. As a result, their activation systems were not likely aroused to elicit their actual interactive patterns of conflict; thereby reducing their ability to accurately define their engagement in a conflictual situation (Mikulincer, et al., 2003). Similarly, another explanation might be that participants may have thought of a conflictual issue that may be deemed as a challenging problem rather than a relationship issue. Consequently, this would not be a situation that elicits a threat to the self or the relationship and accordingly, one's attachment system would not be activated (Pietromonaco, et al., 2006). Additionally, when participants are instructed to report how they typically respond to conflict, they may not have an awareness of their patterns of interaction and as a result, not accurately report their behaviors on a self-report instrument (Pietromonaco, et al., 2004).

Another possible limitation of this study was that the sequence of the measures did not vary. This decision was based on feedback from participants in an informal pilot study. One participant expressed disappointment that the Quality Marital Index was not first in the order because it made him feel good about his marriage and as a result, believed he would have responded differently on the previous surveys. In response, it was decided to maintain the order of the surveys, with the Quality Marital Index last, so as not to influence the respondent's responses. Regardless of the reasoning, it is possible that this lack of counterbalancing may have confounded the participant's responses to the surveys (Heppner, Kivlighan & Wampold, 1999). Future studies might benefit from alternating the order of such surveys and randomize the sequence among participants.

An additional limitation was that each construct, with exception of the demand-withdraw construct, was measured by only one instrument. Previous studies, such as those investigating demand-withdraw interaction patterns, have found reliable results through both self-report and observation (Christensen & Heavey, 1993) and it would be beneficial for future studies to include multi-method data collection. Other modes of gathering data might include behavioral observations of marital interaction, perhaps during both conflictual and non-conflict situations, or multiple forms of data collection such as interviews along with self-reports. This use of multiple methods would provide researchers with more inclusive and ideally accurate data to support previous findings in the research literature. Finally, the results of this study should be applied with caution since the data is cross-sectional (Feeney, 2002). Correlational data analysis was utilized and, as a result, this study did not ascertain causal relationships. A direction for future

research would be to measure couples longitudinally to better establish developmental trends in marriage.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTRODUCTORY LETTER: EMAIL

Hello,

My name is Anne Crowley and I am a 3rd year Counseling Psychology doctoral student at Texas A&M, College Station. The following information is for my dissertation. I hope you will consider participating in my study, which will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. Thank you in advance for your time.

If you do choose to participate, please be sure to first read through the information sheet and remember

- 1) You must be married to participate in this study
- 2) Only one spouse can complete the questionnaire (for statistical reason)
- 3) This study is completely anonymous – your name will not be affiliated with your survey

Then, please complete the demographic sheet and 5 surveys. You may either choose to email them to me at akleffingwell@hotmail.com (If sending an email, you may choose to **highlight**, underline or **change the color** of your answer) or if you would prefer, you may mail them to my home:

Anne Crowley
808D San Pedro
College Station, Texas 77845

Please be sure to answer each item and every survey!

Thank you SO MUCH for helping me collect my data!

Much Appreciation,

Anne Crowley

APPENDIX B
INFORMATION SHEET

Information Sheet

Attachment Styles and Marital Satisfaction: The Impact of Accommodation, Power and Conflict Styles

Individuals have been asked to participate in a dissertation study of attachment, accommodation, and conflict styles. They were selected to be a possible participant due to membership with this pre-established religious or community group and because they are married. A total of 200 married individuals have been asked to participate in this study. The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between an individual's attachment style, accommodation type and demand/withdraw conflict style and their impact on marital satisfaction.

If individuals agree to participate in this study, they will be asked to complete a demographic sheet and five short questionnaires exploring attachment, accommodation, conflict style and marital quality. This study will only take 10-15 minutes. The risks associated with this study are none.

This study is anonymous. The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely and only Anne Crowley and her doctoral committee (Dr. Michael Duffy, Dr. Collie Conoley, Dr. Victor Willson and Dr. Douglas Snyder) will have access to the records.

An individual's decision whether or not to participate will not affect his or her current or future relations with Texas A&M University, or his or her religious organization or community group. If he or she decides to participate, he or she is free to refuse to answer any of the questions that make one feel uncomfortable. Participants can withdraw at any time without relations with the university, job, benefits, etc being affected.

Contact Anne Crowley or Dr. Michael Duffy with any questions about this study.

This research study has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board –Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research-related problems or questions regarding subjects' rights, the Institutional Review Board may be contacted through Ms. Angelia Raines, Director of Research Compliance Office of Vice President for Research at (979) 458-4067 (araines@vprmail.tamu.edu).

Participants have read and understand the explanation provided and all questions have been answered.

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APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX D
COVARIANCE MATRIX

Correlations of Estimates (Default model)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
A	1							
par_2	0.008	1						
par_3	0.005	0.332	1					
par_4	0.011	0.522	0.364	1				
par_5	0.02	0.297	0.402	0.365	1			
par_6	-0.002	0.342	0.434	0.326	0.365	1		
par_7	-0.001	0.005	0.004	0.004	0.002	0.007	1	
par_8	0.006	-0.001	-0.001	0.002	0.001	-0.006	-0.499	1
par_9	0.004	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.005	0	0.492	-0.426
par_10	0.007	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.002	0	0.44	-0.4
par_11	0.01	0.001	-0.003	0	0	-0.003	-0.386	0.381
par_12	-0.002	-0.127	-0.175	-0.121	-0.162	-0.21	-0.321	0.323
par_13	0.055	0.161	0.151	0.18	0.173	0.129	0.005	-0.013
par_14	-0.009	-0.073	-0.139	-0.094	-0.118	-0.079	-0.052	0.05
par_15	-0.099	-0.036	-0.05	-0.047	-0.098	-0.027	-0.002	0.005
par_16	0.284	-0.042	-0.025	-0.053	-0.035	-0.007	0.021	-0.001
par_17	-0.002	0.006	0.025	0.016	0.015	-0.005	0.007	-0.002
par_18	-0.015	0	0.001	0.007	0.025	-0.014	-0.239	0.234
par_19	0.019	0.046	0.088	0.132	0.157	-0.168	-0.004	0.007
par_20	-0.005	-0.167	-0.061	-0.17	-0.053	-0.047	-0.003	-0.001
par_21	-0.012	0	0.001	-0.001	-0.004	0.004	-0.045	0.041
par_22	-0.08	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	0.006	-0.003	0.009	-0.026
par_23	0.081	-0.028	-0.015	-0.03	-0.023	-0.011	0	-0.001
par_24	-0.001	0	-0.014	-0.003	-0.008	0.002	0.024	-0.019
par_25	0.02	0.017	0.021	0.021	0.02	0.005	-0.001	0.005
par_26	-0.006	0.005	0	0.003	-0.008	0.006	0.034	-0.022
par_27	-0.01	-0.382	-0.506	-0.421	-0.485	-0.498	-0.004	0.001
par_28	0.001	-0.002	-0.002	-0.001	-0.001	-0.004	-0.628	0.557
par_29	-0.002	-0.149	-0.035	-0.076	-0.01	-0.052	-0.002	0.001
par_30	0.007	-0.037	-0.222	-0.037	-0.011	-0.049	-0.002	0
par_31	0.02	0.266	0.329	0.317	0.281	0.221	0.008	-0.002
par_32	-0.005	-0.099	-0.059	-0.192	-0.077	-0.016	-0.001	-0.003
par_33	-0.021	0.034	0.028	-0.03	-0.196	0.084	0.003	-0.002
par_34	0.009	-0.052	-0.038	0.002	0.035	-0.213	-0.006	0.006
par_35	0	-0.006	-0.005	-0.005	-0.001	-0.007	-0.288	0.104
par_36	-0.002	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.006	0.29	-0.277
par_37	0.007	0	0.001	0.004	0.002	-0.004	-0.1	0.241
par_38	-0.008	0.001	0.002	-0.001	-0.006	0.005	-0.015	-0.004
par_39	-0.01	0	0.001	0	-0.001	0.002	-0.044	0.051
par_40	0.012	0.002	-0.002	0.001	0.002	0	0.101	-0.039

	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
A								
par_2								
par_3								
par_4								
par_5								
par_6								
par_7								
par_8								
par_9	1							
par_10	0.57	1						
par_11	-0.384	-0.328	1					
par_12	-0.269	-0.273	0.259	1				
par_13	-0.005	-0.007	-0.015	-0.05	1			
par_14	-0.013	-0.034	0.009	0.073	-0.056	1		
par_15	0.006	-0.023	-0.007	0.073	-0.039	0.04	1	
par_16	0.035	0.041	0.008	-0.025	-0.547	0.011	-0.015	1
par_17	-0.057	-0.015	0.066	0.023	0.014	-0.506	-0.015	-0.015
par_18	-0.217	-0.167	0.207	0.125	0.007	-0.001	-0.558	-0.019
par_19	0.003	0.001	0.003	0.031	0.087	-0.076	-0.064	-0.045
par_20	0	-0.001	-0.001	0.004	-0.087	0.005	-0.002	0.04
par_21	-0.205	-0.237	-0.006	0.033	0.017	0.009	0.031	-0.039
par_22	-0.003	-0.007	-0.015	-0.009	-0.001	-0.004	0.053	-0.026
par_23	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	0.004	-0.055	0.009	-0.003	0.041
par_24	0.008	0.014	-0.003	-0.007	-0.004	0.02	0.002	0.001
par_25	0.002	0.003	0.005	-0.003	0.022	-0.228	-0.006	0.024
par_26	0.014	0.024	0.001	-0.01	0.001	0.004	0.01	0.005
par_27	-0.002	-0.001	0.001	0.518	-0.187	0.131	0.07	0.035
par_28	-0.596	-0.511	0.51	0.615	-0.004	0.029	-0.01	-0.024
par_29	0	-0.001	-0.001	0.01	-0.055	-0.006	-0.007	0.024
par_30	0.001	0	0.003	0.026	0.004	0.06	-0.014	-0.007
par_31	0.004	0.002	-0.002	-0.082	0.195	-0.119	-0.058	-0.069
par_32	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.005	-0.079	0.015	0.004	0.038
par_33	-0.005	-0.001	-0.002	-0.004	-0.032	0.017	0.072	0.011
par_34	0.001	0	0.003	0.053	0.006	-0.023	-0.033	-0.014
par_35	-0.036	-0.064	-0.033	0.063	-0.003	0.052	0.018	-0.003
par_36	0.262	0.238	-0.162	-0.15	0.006	-0.042	0.015	0.003
par_37	-0.031	-0.073	0.048	0.105	-0.014	0.042	0.016	0.021
par_38	-0.251	-0.105	-0.013	-0.017	0.013	-0.015	0.002	-0.027
par_39	-0.088	-0.213	0.001	0.048	0.012	0.019	0.035	-0.03
par_40	0.072	0.064	0.166	-0.011	-0.015	-0.017	0.001	0.034

	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
A								
par_2								
par_3								
par_4								
par_5								
par_6								
par_7								
par_8								
par_9								
par_10								
par_11								
par_12								
par_13								
par_14								
par_15								
par_16								
par_17	1							
par_18	0.039	1						
par_19	0.034	0.034	1					
par_20	-0.002	0.002	-0.051	1				
par_21	-0.009	-0.028	-0.007	0.001	1			
par_22	-0.008	-0.119	0.006	0.003	0.03	1		
par_23	-0.002	-0.003	-0.019	0.025	0.001	-0.007	1	
par_24	0.042	-0.006	-0.014	-0.005	-0.003	0	0.001	1
par_25	0.011	0.005	0.023	-0.011	-0.007	-0.004	-0.015	-0.013
par_26	0.34	0.017	-0.01	-0.007	-0.015	-0.026	-0.004	0.026
par_27	-0.016	-0.008	-0.09	0.076	0	-0.001	0.022	0.008
par_28	0.056	0.293	0.002	0	0.064	-0.015	0	-0.013
par_29	0.004	0.005	0.009	0.51	0	0.002	0.017	-0.005
par_30	-0.022	0.01	-0.027	-0.003	-0.002	0.002	-0.006	0.015
par_31	0.032	0.015	-0.064	-0.148	0	0.002	-0.043	-0.015
par_32	-0.007	-0.003	-0.095	0.518	0.001	0.002	0.021	-0.002
par_33	-0.002	-0.034	-0.149	-0.018	0.006	-0.009	0.008	0.004
par_34	0.018	0.023	-0.071	0.008	-0.006	0.004	-0.001	-0.007
par_35	-0.094	0.013	0.004	0.004	-0.01	0.006	0	-0.024
par_36	0.041	-0.139	-0.003	-0.001	-0.093	0.022	0	0.02
par_37	-0.053	0.048	0.008	-0.002	-0.002	-0.022	-0.001	-0.014
par_38	0.023	-0.014	-0.008	0	0.489	0.024	0.001	0.003
par_39	-0.024	-0.025	-0.003	0.001	0.488	0.02	0.001	-0.006
par_40	0.033	-0.011	0.001	-0.002	-0.069	-0.005	-0.001	0.009

Correlations of Estimates (Default model)

	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
A								
par_2								
par_3								
par_4								
par_5								
par_6								
par_7								
par_8								
par_9								
par_10								
par_11								
par_12								
par_13								
par_14								
par_15								
par_16								
par_17								
par_18								
par_19								
par_20								
par_21								
par_22								
par_23								
par_24								
par_25	1							
par_26	0.312	1						
par_27	-0.019	0	1					
par_28	0.002	-0.016	0.09	1				
par_29	-0.006	-0.006	0.044	0.001	1			
par_30	-0.009	-0.001	0.064	0.001	-0.001	1		
par_31	0.038	-0.001	-0.321	-0.004	-0.085	-0.124	1	
par_32	-0.011	-0.005	0.075	0	0.155	-0.004	-0.145	1
par_33	-0.007	0.014	0.014	-0.001	-0.047	-0.074	-0.027	0.026
par_34	0.006	-0.008	0.034	0.003	0.036	0.019	0.012	-0.029
par_35	0	-0.039	0.004	0.08	0.004	0.003	-0.008	0.003
par_36	-0.002	0.023	-0.003	-0.284	-0.001	-0.001	0.006	0
par_37	0.005	-0.014	-0.001	0.079	0.001	-0.001	0.002	-0.004
par_38	-0.005	-0.003	0	0.048	-0.001	-0.004	-0.001	0.001
par_39	-0.005	-0.016	0	0.045	0	-0.001	0	0.001
par_40	0.005	0.017	0	-0.043	-0.002	0.004	0.001	-0.001

Correlations of Estimates (Default model)

	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
A								
par_2								
par_3								
par_4								
par_5								
par_6								
par_7								
par_8								
par_9								
par_10								
par_11								
par_12								
par_13								
par_14								
par_15								
par_16								
par_17								
par_18								
par_19								
par_20								
par_21								
par_22								
par_23								
par_24								
par_25								
par_26								
par_27								
par_28								
par_29								
par_30								
par_31								
par_32								
par_33	1							
par_34	-0.114	1						
par_35	-0.005	0.006	1					
par_36	0.001	-0.005	-0.117	1				
par_37	-0.003	0.006	0.068	-0.115	1			
par_38	0.009	-0.006	-0.043	-0.07	-0.049	1		
par_39	0.002	-0.003	0.014	-0.066	0.027	0.135	1	
par_40	-0.003	0.001	-0.121	0.063	-0.013	-0.064	-0.043	1

VITA

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Education

B.A., Psychology and Speech Communications, Texas A&M University, 1998
 M.S., Counselor Education, University of North Texas, 2001
 Ph.D., Counseling Psychology, Texas A&M University, 2006

Professional Interests

Interpersonal Dynamics, Family of Origin, Gender Issues and Communication Styles

Professional Positions

08/05-08/06 Texas State University, San Marcos Counseling Center, Psychology Intern
 05/01-05/02 Logan Heights Family Counseling Center, MFT Registered Intern
 05/99-01/00 Green Oaks Psychiatric Hospital, Mental Health Tech
 10/98-12/99 The Nelson Residential Treatment Center, Residential Counselor

Research Experience

01/04-12/05 Ph.D. Dissertation Research studying the complex relationship between attachment, accommodation, conflict styles and marital satisfaction
 9/03-8/03 Research Team Examining Factors of Domestically Violent Males
 11/02-08/05 Research Team on Effective Responses to Teasing

Presentations

Crowley, A. (Oct., 2005). *Got Stress? Get Relief: Get Sleep and Get Exercise*. Presentation at the Stress Symposium, Texas State University.

Crowley, A. (Sept., 2005). *Intergenerational Transmission of Divorce*. Presentation for the Sociology Department, Texas State University.

Barnes, A., Rivera, S., & Leffingwell*, A. (July 2004). *Changes in male partner abuse attachment style in group treatment*. Presentation at the national conference of the American Psychological Association in Honolulu, Hawaii.

Collie, C., Leffingwell*, A., Madkins, J, Hershberger, M., Moudouni D., & Rinker, S. (Nov., 2004). *Teasing: The dynamics, victims, and treatment*. Presentation at the annual convention of the Texas Psychological Association in San Antonio, Texas.

Honors

Kappa Delta Pi

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