EFFECTS OF MOTHER-DAUGHTER COMMUNICATION ON ADOLESCENT

DAUGHTERS' BELIEFS AND EXPERIENCES OF

TEEN DATING VIOLENCE

by

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DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

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Title: Effects of Mother-Daughter Communication on Adolescent Daughters' Beliefs and Experiences of Teen Dating Violence

Teen dating violence (TDV) affects nearly one third of adolescents in the United States and is increasingly one of the largest public health concerns of health researchers and practitioners. Parent involvement, and specifically messages communicated to children about healthy and unhealthy relationships, has potential to be a vital element of TDV prevention and intervention. Researchers have demonstrated that parent-adolescent communication has significant effects on adolescent risky behavior, but the effect of parent-adolescent communication on TDV has not been investigated. The purpose of this study was to examine the associations between mother-daughter communication quality, mothers' and daughters' beliefs about unhealthy relationships, and the dating violence experienced by adolescents. The sample was 58 adolescent daughters recruited from three rural Oregon high schools and their mothers. Self-report and observational data were collected from daughters and their mothers. It was hypothesized that (1) daughters' dating beliefs mediate the relationship between mothers' dating beliefs and daughters' experienced TDV, (2) mother-daughter communication quality mediates the relationship between mothers' dating beliefs and daughter's dating beliefs, and (3) mother-daughter

communication quality mediates the relationship between mothers' dating beliefs and daughter's TDV. Structural equation modeling was used to test three path models where mother-daughter communication was represented by three different measures: daughters' report of having a quality conversation with their mother about dating in the past year, daughters' disagreement during observed mother-daughter communication, and daughters' disagreement during observed mother-daughter communication *about* dating. All three models were a good fit with the data, and significant associations were found between measures of mother-daughter communication, daughters' beliefs about dating, and daughters' experienced dating violence. Implications of this study include mother-daughter communication, perhaps a representation of a larger construct of mother-daughter relationship quality, as a point of intervention for adolescent girls' experiences of dating violence. Future research and clinical studies are required to further examine the relationships between parent-adolescent communication and TDV and the potential affect that parents may have on rates and experiences of TDV.

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To the 1.5 million high school students that will experience physical violence from a dating partner this year, and to all the friends, teachers, clinicians, and parents who will listen, help, support, and love them through it.

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CHAPTER I

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between mothers'

beliefs, quality of mother-daughter communication, and daughters' beliefs about, and

experiences of, teen dating violence (TDV). Chapter one provides a review of the

literature and is organized as follows. First, an overview of the theoretical and empirical

literature associated with TDV prevention and intervention is provided. Second, an

outline of the research documenting parents' role in the intergenerational transmission of

gender role ideology, sexual wellness, and TDV is presented. Third, two preliminary

pilot studies on parent child communication and adolescent risk behavior are detailed,

both of which contributed to the theoretical and empirical foundation of this research

study.

Older adolescents and young adults, ages 16–25 years, are currently at greatest

risk for nonfatal partner violence (Arriaga & Foshee, 2004; Capaldi, Shortt, & Crosby,

2003; Kim & Capaldi, 2004; Renzetti, Edleson, & Bergen, 2001). Scholarly and clinical

attention has been increasingly focused on the dating violence epidemic including the

prevalence, associated risk factors and consequences, and the efficacy of school-based

interventions. Researchers have investigated many aspects of TDV, allowing TDV

research to gain national attention and funding, and facilitating cross-disciplinary

investigations that examine adolescent development and dating relationships with greater

nuance and clarity. National committees and individual authors have named many limitations of recent research in the field including a deficiency of theoretically informed studies, an absence of gendered frameworks to inform research and practice in a gendered epidemic, the use of differing TDV definitions, and a dearth of prevention focused studies (Lewis, Fremouw, & William, 2001). Intervention efforts have centered exclusively on school curriculums, and successful avenues for early prevention are still relatively unexplored and unidentified.

There has also been limited exploration of the effect parents may have on their adolescents' dating outcomes and how the parent-child relationship may be a target for intervention and prevention. This dissertation study adds to the extant research by specifically examining mother-daughter communication, a possible mediating factor not previously addressed in any published work about dating violence as well as collecting behavioral observation data to identify the relationships between mother-daughter communication and rates of TDV. A female, gendered context informed the research design, recruitment, and measurement selection, allowing for the assessment of unique communication dynamics, content, and socialization processes occurring for girls and related to being female in dating relationships.

Teen Dating Violence Prevalence and Risk

Extant research on intimate partner violence (IPV) has exposed the pervasive and prevalent nature of dating abuse during adolescence. TDV, similar to adult IPV, is conceptualized as a continuum of abuse in a dating relationship during adolescence, which includes physical, sexual, or psychological violence (Center for Disease Control

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and Prevention, 2008). National survey data show that 25% of adolescents currently in dating relationships report experiencing physical violence and nearly 30% of all adolescents report psychological or emotional abuse occurring in a dating relationship (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008; Dingfelder, 2010; Eaton, Davis, Barrios, Brener, & Noonan, 2007). In 2012, a study of 300 college students who had dated between the ages of 13-19 reflected back on their physical, sexual, and psychological abuse as adolescents. Of this sample, 65% percent of females reported dating violence victimization between age 13 and 19, with most experiencing multiple occurrences (Bonomi, Anderson, Nemeth, Bartle-Haring, Buettner, & Schipper, 2012). More than one-third of abused females had two or more abusive partners: controlling behavior (35.6 percent); put downs/name calling (37.0); pressured sex (42.9); insults (44.3); slapped/hit (50.0); and threats (62.5) (Bonomi, Anderson, Nemeth, Bartle-Haring, Buettner, & Schipper). Focus groups conducted by the Center for Disease Control in middle schools revealed that across schools and peer groups there is little or no support for dating partners to treat their boyfriend or girlfriend well, and that most youth believe and accept coercive relationships as a reality (Noonan & Charles, 2009).

Coercive relationship dynamics include unequal power, abuse of control, emotional, verbal, physical, and sexual abuse and have profound consequences throughout the lifetime. In 2006, it was estimated that there were roughly 1.5 million students who had been the victim of physical dating violence, and that these students were more likely to have sex, binge drink, get into fights, and attempt suicide than the average school population (Dingfelder, 2010). Long-term consequences for girls in

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unhealthy relationships include body image disturbances and eating disorders, substance abuse, major depression, anxiety disorders, and post-traumatic stress disorder, among other mental health outcomes (Campbell, Kub, Belknap, & Templin, 1997; Cascardi, Daniel O'Leary, & Schlee, 1999; Straus & Gelles, 1988). Scholars also have shown the profound negative influence of TDV on school engagement and academic performance (Chronister, Marsiglio, Linville, & Lantrip, 2012). Current literature highlights the severity of dating violence and demonstrates the necessity to implement prevention efforts with youth before they begin to date and form patterns and assumptions about dating. Early prevention may help avert TDV and later consequences that are correlated with this early inter-personal form of violence (Noonan & Charles, 2009).

There has been a plethora of studies recently conducted regarding TDV, including the prevalence (Dingfelder, 2010; Hickman, Jaycox, & Aronoff, 2004; Lewis & Fremouw, 2001), adolescent attitudes regarding dating relationships (Davidson, 2005), associations between dating violence and risky behaviors (Eaton, et al., 2007; Silverman, Raj, & Clements, 2004; Silverman, Raj, Mucci, & Hathaway, 2001), risk and protective factors for perpetration and victimization (Arriaga & Foshee, 2004; Foshee, et al., 2004; Maas, 2011; Reed, Silverman, Raj, Decker, & Miller, 2011), relationship characteristics that are defined as violent (Giordano, Soto, Manning, & Longmore, 2010; Jouriles, Platt, & McDonald, 2009), prevalence in same sex relationships (Halpern, Young, Waller, Martin, & Kupper, 2004), consequences of dating violence (Ackard, Eisenberg, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2007; Banyard & Cross, 2008; Foshee, Bauman, Linder, Rice, & Wilcher, 2007; Swahn, et al., 2008), and prevention strategies in schools (Jouriles, et al.,

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2009; Noonan & Charles, 2009; Schnurr & Lohman, 2008). All of these studies have added to the current understanding of the prevalence, severity, and prevention of dating violence.

Three articles published in a special issue of *Psychology of Women Quarterly* (Adolescent Dating Violence, 2009) highlighted that dating violence is not happening in a vacuum, but in a social, gendered, ecological context. These articles examined how early experiences in children's lives, gender socialization, and inter-personal lessons from peers and family contribute to dating violence risk (Wolfe, Crooks, Chiodo, & Jaffe, 2009; Zurbriggen, 2009). One way in which adolescents are socialized is through their exposure to and adoption of specific beliefs. Researchers have shown that adolescents' individual beliefs regarding healthy and unhealthy relationships may affect the level of TDV they experience (McDonell, Ott, & Mitchell, 2010). The levels of adolescents' acceptance of violence is directly correlated with their experiences of dating violence (Connolly, Friedlander, Pepler, Craig, & Laporte, 2010; Fredland, et al., 2005; Williams, Ghandour, & Kub, 2008). In 2007, researchers found that males who held more traditional views of female roles and were more accepting of the use of violence in relationships were more likely to perpetrate dating violence. Similarly, women who endorsed accepting the use of physical and psychological violence in dating relationships were more likely to have perpetrated dating violence (Sears, Byers, & Price, 2007). In another study, high acceptance of dating aggression predicted adolescents' recurrent aggression in future relationships (Williams, Connolly, Pepler, Craig, & Laporte, 2008). Both dating violence victimization and perpetration have been shown consistently to be

influenced by individuals' beliefs about violence. Recently, Temple and colleagues found that adolescent attitudes about violence and gender changed how their exposure to interparental violence predicted their own TDV perpetration (Temple, Shorey, Tortolero, Wolfe, & Stuart, 2013). Based on this research, the present study was an examination of how mothers and daughters talk about dating relationships and communicate their beliefs to one another as well as an examination of the relationship between their beliefs and violence experiences.

Although researchers have given increased attention to TDV, the relationship between mother-daughter communication and TDV risk has yet to be examined. This gap exists despite a clear and consistent association in the literature between parent-adolescent communication with many other forms of adolescent risky behavioral and relational outcomes including: adolescent risky sexual behavior (Blake, Simkin, Ledsky, Perkins, & Calabrese, 2001; Eisenberg, Sieving, Bearinger, Swain, & Resnick, 2006; Fingerson, 2005; Nappi, et al., 2009; Sneed, 2008), experience of sexual pressure (Teitelman, Ratcliffe, & Cederbaum, 2008), intention and use of contraceptives (Swain, Ackerman, & Ackerman, 2006), beliefs regarding sexuality (Sneed, Strachman, Nguyen, & Morisky, 2009; Zhengyan, Dongyan, & Li, 2007), and risky drug and alcohol use (Dishion, Nelson, & Bullock, 2004). Examination of how parent communication affects adolescents' beliefs about and experiences of TDV is in line with calls for prevention efforts that are early, contextual, broad based and include gender (Zurbriggen, 2009). Moreover, greater understanding of communication dynamics in relation to TDV outcomes has the potential to help scholars identify more specific targets for family-based

intervention and prevention. In the following section, the scholarship on parental

communication processes is reviewed, with specific attention devoted to mother-daughter

communication and adolescent risky behavior outcomes.

Mother-Daughter Communication and TDV

Many theories have been used to conceptualize family processes that may place

adolescents at risk for dating violence. Most theories, including social learning theory

(Bandura, 1986) and the family systems theory (Bowen, 1976), look at how parents

model conflictual interactions and violence. The spillover hypothesis regarding the

intergenerational transmission of violence, however, posits that interparental conflict

indirectly influences child outcomes through other elements within the parent-child dyad

(Sturge-Apple, Davies, & Cummings, 2006). That is, the spillover hypothesis suggests

that being exposed to interparental violence does not inherently place children at risk for

future violence in their dating relationships, but may affect the parents' ability to

positively interact, parent, and communicate with their children, thus affecting child

outcomes (Kim-Godwin, Clements, McCuiston, & Fox, 2009). It is these negative

interactions in the parent-child dyad, including communication interactions, which may

cause children and adolescents to be at risk for negative relational outcomes. This study

included mothers' experiences of intimate partner violence (IPV) to capture, and control

for, the relationship that parental IPV may have on mothers' beliefs about dating as well

as on the quality of mother-daughter communication.

In a recent study, Emily Rothman and her colleagues examined, for the first time,

the proportion of parents who speak to their adolescents about TDV in comparison to

other sensitive topics (Rothman, Miller, Terpeluk, Glauber, & Randel, 2011). With a sample of 500 parents, 55% reported discussing dating violence with their children in the past year. Dating violence was less likely to be discussed, however, than all other topics polled including dating relationships in general, drugs, alcohol, family finances, the economy, and sex. The authors also found that mothers were more likely than fathers to report talking with their children (both male and female) about dating violence (Rothman, et al., 2011). A limitation of Rothman et al.'s study and other extant literature is that the researchers' assessment of communication quality and its relationship with child risky behavior includes solely self-report scales or interviews. A notable exception to this trend is work done through the University of Oregon Child and Family Center and Oregon Social Learning Center, which uses direct observational family tasks to assess communication quality between children and parents as well as between parents (Capaldi, et al., 2003; Dishion, Peterson, Piehler, Winter, & Woodworth, 2006).

Evidence suggests that one reason why parents do not communicate with their children about dating violence is parents' erroneous perception of children's risk. Parents' beliefs regarding risky behaviors greatly affect parenting practices, level of involvement, and communication about risk. In 2007, surveys of more than 700 teenage girls and their parents showed that parents overwhelmingly underestimated the risks their daughters are exposed to in romantic and social relationships and that this risk underestimation is correlated with fewer positive parenting behaviors (O'Donnell, et al., 2008). Similarly, researchers found that parent-teen communication significantly increased or decreased depending on parents' beliefs about the risk involved with certain

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behaviors (Raffaelli, Bogenschneider, & Flood, 1998). These study results suggest that parents who are more concerned about topics of adolescent sex and issues around sexuality are more likely to communicate clearly or directly with their children, and in turn teens perceive and report higher levels of communication with their parents about these topics.

In a more recent study on parent-teen communication regarding condom use, parental beliefs regarding the effectiveness of condoms was significantly related to levels of parent-teen communication on this topic (Swain, et al., 2006). These results show that parents' beliefs about risky behavior consistently influence their communication about these topics with their adolescents, suggesting that parents' beliefs about dating violence might affect their communication with their children about TDV. Parent-child communication, in turn, has been shown to affect adolescent behavior, making parental beliefs about dating an important factor in examining the relationship between parental communication and adolescent behavior. In the present study, mothers' beliefs regarding TDV were assessed along with observed mother-daughter communication to investigate if, in fact, parents' beliefs and communication about TDV are related.

Parents, and specifically mothers, have long been regarded as the primary adult who transmits to children values, beliefs, and foundations of identity, including gender roles (Kwak, 2003; Moen, Erickson, & Dempster-McClain, 1997; Steinberg, 2001; Wertheim, 2002). Teenagers are more likely to communicate with their mothers than their fathers regarding sexual topics, suggesting that much of the responsibility for sexual or dating education resides with mothers (Akers, Yonas, Burke, & Chang, 2010;

Raffaelli, et al., 1998). Maternal intergenerational transfer of norms and values has been viewed as particularly influential on adolescent development, specifically engagement in risky behavior (Cooper & B., 2002; Jarvis & B., 2006; Moen, et al., 1997). Data reveal that daughters' understanding of their gender role as a female, their own sexuality, and their role in a romantic partnership is primarily communicated and modeled by their mothers.

Researchers exploring TDV have recently called for dating violence to be examined using theories and research designs that explicitly include gender rather than circumvent it (Espelage, 2011). For this dissertation study, I chose to look specifically at the intergenerational transmission of beliefs and communication about dating between mothers and daughters in order to approach dating violence within a gendered framework. In the following section I review the research conducted on the contributions of parent-child communication to the development of adolescent risky behavior.

Parent Communication and Adolescent Risky Behavior: Preliminary Studies

The following is a review of two key preliminary studies that were conducted to investigate the relationship between parent-child communication and adolescent risky sexual behavior as well as mother-daughter communication and TDV outcomes. Each study served as theoretical and methodological foundations on which the present study was constructed.

The effect of parent-child communication on reducing children's risky behaviors has been well-documented (Aspy, et al., 2007; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccard, Dittus, & Collins, 2008; Nappi, et al., 2009; Sneed, 2008). Findings indicate that parent-teen

communication, especially the quality of parent-teen communication, strongly influences adolescents' sexual behavior, sexual risk taking, and comfort with discussing sexual issues (Atienzo, Walker, Campero, Lamadrid-Figueroa, & Gutiarrez, 2009; Blake, et al., 2001; Sneed, 2008; Wilson & Donenberg, 2004). Risky sexual behavior is one element of TDV, and in many studies dating violence and risky sexual behavior are highly correlated, suggesting that these two constructs may have significant overlap (Silverman, et al., 2004; Silverman, et al., 2001; Valois, Oeltmann, Waller, & Hussey, 1999).

A NIH funded pilot study was completed in 2004 by Helen Wilson and Geri Donenberg as part of a larger, longitudinal study examining AIDS-risk behavior among adolescents. The pilot study was designed to investigate the relationship between parent communication about sex and sexual risk-taking of adolescents. Participants (N=30) were adolescents were recruited from an outpatient psychiatric clinic in urban Chicago. Adolescent and parent self-report data were collected on adolescents risky sexual behavior and the frequency with which parents brought up topics related to sex. In addition, parents and adolescents participated together in videotaped discussions of vignettes to assess communication quality. All data were collected at one time point. The fictional vignettes described situations related to sex, birth control, and AIDS/HIV and were followed by semi-structured questions to aid parent-child discussion after reading the vignette. The quality of these discussions was coded based on an observational coding system used for coding AIDS-related discussions and developed by Whalen, Henker, Hollingshead, and Burgess (1996).

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Pilot study results showed significant correlations between risky sex and parent-adolescent mutuality (.48, $p = .007$) and between risky sex and parents' disagreement (-.41, $p = .026$). Interestingly, these correlations showed that parent-adolescent dyads that engaged in the most mutual (interacted in a reciprocal fashion and shared opinions and values) communication demonstrated higher risky sexual behavior. Adolescents whose parents disagreed somewhat and were more directive during discussions of sex engaged in the least risky sexual practices. These findings are similar to previous research indicating that increased parental control (often including more direct communication) may protect troubled, urban youth from engaging in risky sexual behavior (Donenberg & Emerson, 1999). Authors of this study posit that although open, positive communication may be effective among normally developing adolescents, that this sample of adolescents from a psychiatric outpatient unit may be an example of a population that is supported better by more directive communication. More generally, Wilson and Donenberg's (2004) findings suggest that the way parents discuss sex, birth control, and HIV is related to their adolescents' sexual risk taking behavior.

In 2010, I completed a pilot study (Lantrip, Chronister, & Stormshak) similar to Wilson and Donenberg's study to look at the relationship between mother-daughter communication quality and daughters' TDV experiences. I investigated the relationship between frequency and quality of mother communication about relationships, mothers' and daughters' beliefs about dating relationships, and adolescents' dating violence experiences. Participants included 14 mother-daughter dyads; daughters were 8th graders at a public middle school in southern California. Preliminary findings included

significant, direct relationships between mothers' and daughters' beliefs about dating

relationships (i.e., what is healthy or unhealthy) and the frequency and quality with which

they communicated about these issues. Mothers' beliefs about peer and societal pressure

were directly correlated with the mother-daughter affective mutuality (shared opinions

and values) while communicating about TDV ($r = .58$, $p < .05$) and negatively correlated

with mothers' level of disagreement (behavior intended to correct discourage a different

view; $r = -.63$, $p < .05$) and withdrawal (disengagement or avoidance of interaction; $r = -.63$, $p < .05$) in her communication with her daughter. Daughters' coercive beliefs

(endorsing coercive elements of relationships as normal or acceptable) were negatively

correlated ($r = -.54$, $p < .05$) with conversation mutuality. Daughters' coercive beliefs

were also negatively correlated with mothers' directiveness ($r = -.59$, $p < .05$). In sum,

the more mutual the conversation and the more direct the mother was, the lower the

daughters' endorsement of coercive dating as normal or typical.

This pilot study revealed a similar relationship between parent-adolescent

communication and adolescent beliefs and behavior as found in Wilson and Donenberg's

study; more leading and dominant (directive) parent communication was associated with

adolescents' endorsement of lower coercive beliefs about dating relationships. More

egalitarian and shared (mutual) communication between mother and daughter, as opposed

to high levels of parents' disagreement that Wilson and Donenberg's (2004) found, was

directly correlated with adolescents' endorsement of fewer coercive beliefs about dating.

Results were similar to extant empirical findings; parents' clear expectations and

boundaries paired with non-reactive or judgmental responses to child communication and

behavior is a style of communication that leads to more positive adolescent sexual behavior and dating outcomes.

The findings of these two pilot studies indicate that parent-adolescent communication can be influential on adolescent beliefs and behavior, that parents' beliefs about dating violence risk can influence how they communicate with their daughters, and that tone and approach to communication may influence adolescent outcomes. The mechanism accounting for these preliminary findings have not been identified yet, and will be important in future work in this area. Limitations of both studies included use of a small sample size and single time point data collection. A strength of both pilot studies, and the current study, was that quality of mother-daughter communication was measured using observational tasks and coding. Additionally, this study has improved upon the pilot studies by utilizing multi-agent reporting, observational and self-report data to measure quality of communication as a multimodal construct, and multiple measures to assess each latent construct.

Summary

A plethora of research has been conducted on TDV including the prevalence, risk factors, protective factors, consequences, and the efficacy of school-based interventions. Extant research has allowed the nature and etiology of TDV to be conceptualized more contextually, and thus, more comprehensively. Successful avenues for early prevention and intervention in young girls' lives, however, are still relatively unidentified. The limitations of extant research include small sample sizes, lack of observational data, lack of access to home environments and parents' report, as well as an absence of a gendered

frame. Although there has been ample evidence to document that positive adolescent-parent communication affects adolescent risk behavior, parents' (specifically mothers') capacity to affect their adolescent's experiences of TDV, via implicit beliefs and direct communication about dating relationships, has not been researched previously.

Study Aims

The purpose of this study was to shed light on the relationship between mothers and daughters' dating beliefs, the quality of their communication, and the dating violence experienced by adolescents. The sample was 58 adolescent daughters recruited from three rural, Oregon high schools, and their mothers. A between-participants correlational design was used with exploratory and structural equation mediational model analyses to examine the relationships among study variables.

Study Aim 1: To examine the relationships between mothers' coercive beliefs about dating, daughter's coercive beliefs dating, and daughters' experienced TDV. It was hypothesized that there would be a positive, direct relationship between mothers' coercive dating beliefs and daughters' experienced TDV and a positive, indirect relationship between mothers' coercive dating beliefs, daughters' coercive dating beliefs, and daughters' experienced TDV. See Figure 1 for a visual representation of study aim 1.

Figure 1. Conceptual model 1
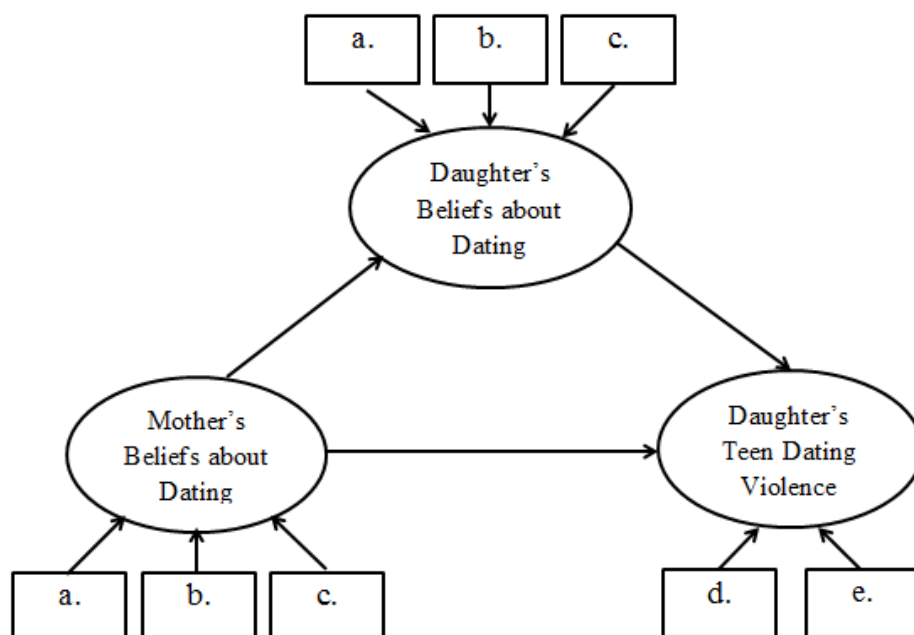
Note. a = Adolescent Attitudes Regarding Dating Relationships Scale (AARDR; Davidson, 2005). b = Inventory of Knowledge and Attitudes (IKA; Rybarik, 1995). c = Attitudes about Dating Situations (AADS; Slep, 2001). d = Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI; Wolfe, 2001). e = Abusive Behavior Inventory (ABI; Shepard, 1992).

Study Aim 2: To examine the relationship between mothers' coercive beliefs about dating, observed mother-daughter communication, and daughter's coercive beliefs about dating. It was hypothesized that there would be a positive, direct relationship between mothers' coercive dating beliefs with daughters' coercive dating beliefs, and a positive, indirect effect from mothers' coercive dating beliefs, negative mother-daughter communication, and daughters' coercive dating beliefs. See Figure 2 for a visual representation of study aim 2.

Figure 2. Conceptual model 2
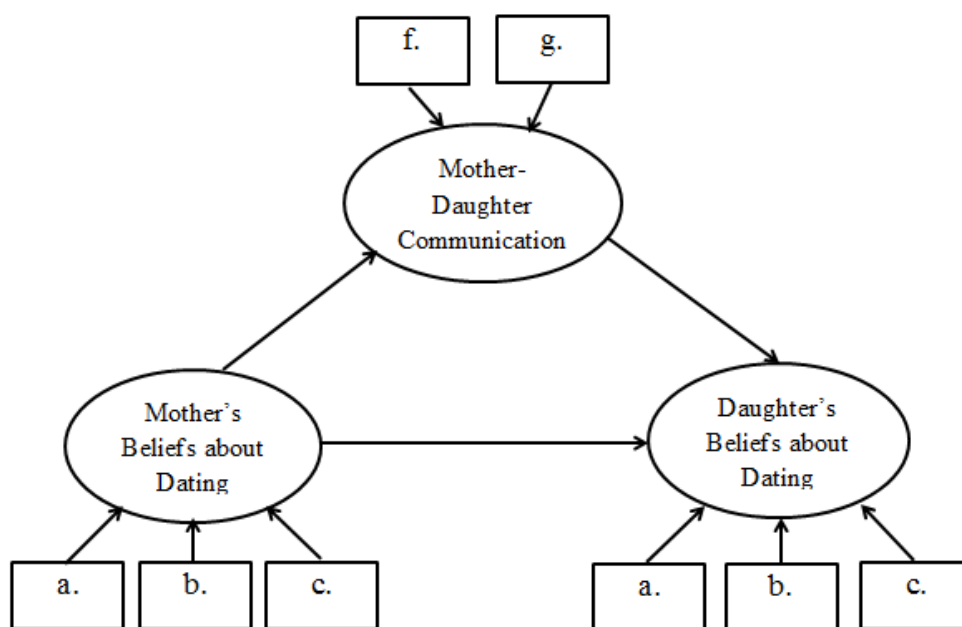
Note. a = Adolescent Attitudes Regarding Dating Relationships Scale (AARDR; Davidson, 2005). b = Inventory of Knowledge and Attitudes (IKA; Rybarik, 1995). c = Attitudes about Dating Situations (AADS; Slep, 2001). f = Self-report of frequency of communication about dating. g = Observational Coding Scheme.

Study Aim 3: To examine the relationships between mothers' coercive beliefs about dating, observed mother-daughter communication, and daughters' experienced TDV. It was hypothesized that there would be a positive, direct relationship between mothers' coercive dating beliefs and daughters' experienced TDV and a positive, indirect relationship between mothers' coercive dating beliefs, observed, negative mother-daughter communication, and daughters' experienced TDV. See Figure 3 for a visual representation of study aim 3.

Figure 3. Conceptual model 3
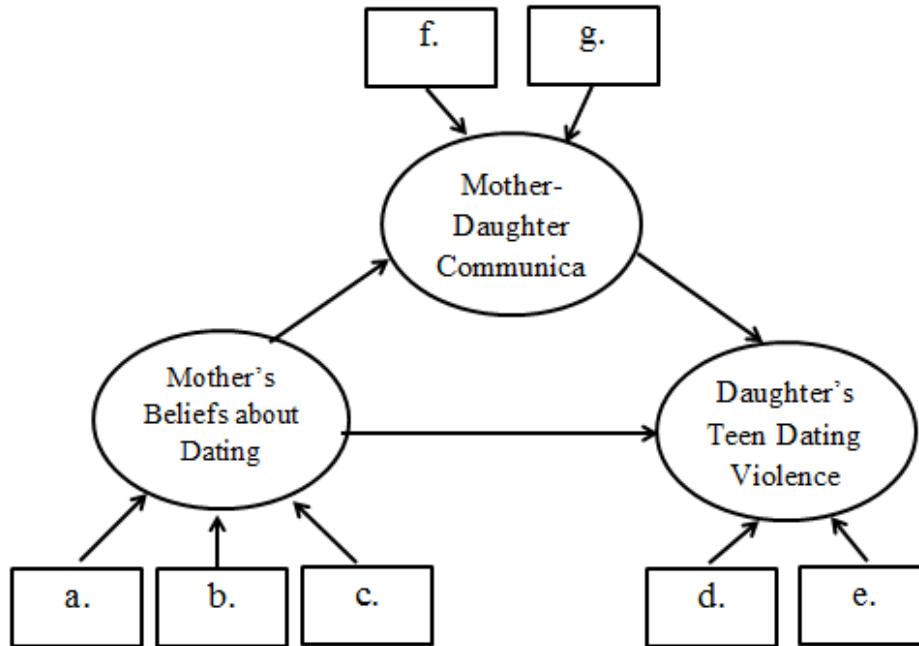
Note. a = Adolescent Attitudes Regarding Dating Relationships Scale (AARDR; Davidson, 2005). b = Inventory of Knowledge and Attitudes (IKA; Rybarik, 1995). c = Attitudes about Dating Situations (AADS; Slep, 2001). d = Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI; Wolfe, 2001). e = Abusive Behavior Inventory (ABI; Shepard, 1992). f = Self-report of frequency of communication about dating. g = Observational Coding Scheme.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

Participants

Study participants were high school female adolescents (N=58) and their mothers who were recruited from three rural, Oregon high schools: Willamette High School and Kalapuya High School in West Eugene and Hood River Valley High School in Hood River. Individual data were collected from all 116 participants, as well as dyadic data from the 58 mother-daughter pairs. Daughters were recruited in their school homerooms or P.E. classes. The inclusion criteria were a) fluency of both mother and daughter in English, b) female adolescent enrolled in one of the four participating high schools, and c) a mother (including step-mothers, adoptive mothers, or other long-term female caregivers) willing to participate in the study.

Adolescent participants ranged in age from 14 - 18 years with 23% aged 14, 23% aged 15, 19% aged 16, 25% aged 17, and 10% aged 18. Daughters reported their ethnicity with 41 girls identifying as White/Caucasian, nine Latina/Hispanic, four Asian, three African American and White, and one Native American and White. Of the total sample, 42 of the adolescent girls had dated, and 38 completed the two assessments of experienced TDV. Of the girls who reported their experiences of dating violence, 90% endorsed at least one item on the Abusive Behavior Inventory (ABI; Shepard, 1992). Common items endorsed were, "Accused you of paying too much attention to someone else" (41%), "Told you that you were a bad person" (13%), and "Threw, hit, kicked, or smashed something" (12%). Of the adolescents who reported dating experiences on the

TDV measures, 95% (N = 35) endorsed emotional abuse, 35% (N = 13) endorsed sexual abuse, and 30% (N = 11) endorsed being physically abuse by a romantic partner in the past.

Mother participants self-identified as the following: 48 identified as Caucasian or White, eight as Latina or Hispanic, and two as Asian. Mother participants also reported their relationship status as: 74% married, 9% divorced, and 12% single. Mothers' highest educational levels reached included, 4% did not have a high school degree, 16% had a high school diploma, 16% had a two-year degree, 24% had attended some college, 22% had a 4-year degree, and 17% had a professional degree. Of the total sample, 91% of mother participants endorsed at least one item on the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Straus, 1996). These relationship dynamics included items ranging from, "My partner swore at me" (73%) to "My partner threw something at me that could hurt" (17%). All mothers completed the IPV inventory (N = 58) where 67% (N = 39) endorsed emotional abuse, 28% (N = 16) endorsed physical abuse, and 7% (N = 4) endorsed sexual abuse.

Measures

A summary of all study variables and corresponding measures is provided in Table 1 and copies of the study measures are provided in Appendix A. All assessments were completed by both mother and daughter except for the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996), which was completed only by the mothers.

Beliefs regarding adolescent dating. Mother and daughter beliefs regarding dating relationships are latent constructs that were assessed using three self-report measures. All three measures were completed by mothers and daughters.

Table 1.

Summary of Constructs and Measures

Construct	Measure
Beliefs Regarding Dating	
Precursors to coercion	Adolescent Attitudes Regarding Dating Relationships Scale (AARDR; Davidson, 2005)
Peer and societal pressure	AARDR
support for healthy attitudes	AARDR
attitudes justifying dating violence	Inventory of Knowledge and Attitudes (IKA; Rybarik, 1995)
acceptance of aggression	Attitudes about Dating Situations (AADS; Slep, 2001)
Quality of Mother-Daughter Communication	
mutuality	Observational Coding Scheme (COIMP; Peterson & Piehler, 2007)
directiveness	Observational Coding Scheme
support	Observational Coding Scheme
disagreement	Observational Coding Scheme
withdrawal	Observational Coding Scheme
Teen Dating Violence Victimization	
physical abuse	Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI; Wolfe, 2001)
sexual abuse	CADRI & Abusive Behavior Inventory (ABI; Shepard, 1992)
emotional or verbal abuse	CADRI & ABI

Construct	Measure
Teen Dating Violence Perpetration	
physical abuse	CADRI
sexual abuse	CADRI
emotional or verbal abuse	CADRI
Mother's Experienced IPV	
physical & emotional abuse	Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Straus, 1996)

Adolescent Attitudes Regarding Dating Relationships Scale (AARDR). The

AARDR is a gender-specific, quantitative assessment, designed to assess high school-

aged adolescent girls' attitudes regarding dating relationships. The AARDR for girls

comprises 27 items reflecting a range of beliefs regarding dating relationships, from

healthy to verbally, physically, and sexually abusive aspects (Davidson, 2005). The

measure includes three subscales: Precursors to Coercion Beliefs, Peer and Societal

Pressure, and Support for Healthy Attitudes. Items on each scale were listed in random

order and were phrased both positively and negatively (approximately half for each) to

offset any potential response bias (Davidson, 2005). The Precursors to Coercion Beliefs

subscale was the only scale used for this study. The Precursor to Coercion Belief

subscale indicates whether the individual endorsed that it is "normal" for a dating

relationship to include controlling, coercive elements. Sample items include, "I believe

that girls always say no sex, and that a guy's role is to change their minds" and "Being a

girl means having to do things they don't want to do in order to be liked." Response

options for all three subscales range from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and

total scores are calculated by reversing particular items (1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 11, 15, 16, 18, 21,

22, 23) and then taking the sum of respondents' scores. The AARDR is a new measure,

so psychometric properties are based on Davidson's dissertation research (2005). Low

correlations were found between the three factors, indicating that each scale measures a

distinct construct. Davidson found high, statistically significant correlations between the

first and second administration ($r = .81$) over a two-week time period with 1700 high

school adolescents. Davidson (2005) calculated an internal consistency reliability

coefficient of .67 with the same high school sample on the female AARDR total scale. For this study, only the Precursors to Coercion Belief subscale was used, which had an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .89 with the sample of 58 high school daughters, and a coefficient of .85 with the 58 mothers.

Inventory of Knowledge and Attitudes (IKA). This measure was designed to assess the effectiveness of an intervention by assessing knowledge of and attitudes about dating violence. IKA was developed through a review process using a national jury of 32 experts in the areas of domestic violence, child abuse, and child development and reliability data were collected with 99 middle school male and female students (Rybarik, Dosch, Gilmore, & Krajewski, 1995). The IKA Attitudes subscale was used to assess mothers' and daughters' views toward dating violence. The Attitudes subscale comprises 12 items reflecting beliefs and intentions concerning gender-based violence. Sample items include, "If a person is jealous, it shows how much that person cares for another person" and "Sometimes, teenagers get so angry they cannot help hitting somebody" (Rybarik, et al., 1995). Participants respond on a Likert scale from 1 (*not acceptable*) to 5 (*indispensable*). The Attitudes subscale had an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .72 calculated with a sample of 99 middle school male and female students. This measure was completed by both mothers and daughters in the current study to assess for beliefs about adolescent relationships. In the current study, an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .67 was calculated with the sample of 58 high school daughters, and a coefficient of .71 with the 58 mothers.

Attitudes about Dating Situations (AADS). This gender specific measure is used to assess respondents' views on the use of physical aggression in a variety of situations that may provoke aggressive responses. The AADS includes five items that describe a male aggressing against his girlfriend, five items describe a female aggressing against her boyfriend, in potentially provocative situations, and two items describe aggression against a same-gender peer. Examples of items include, "Tony is harassing Gina about her new haircut, saying that she looks like a poodle. Gina gets really angry at Tony and pushes him" and "David is following Maria and won't leave her alone. Maria pushes him out of her way." Respondents use a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *(strongly agree)* to 6 *(strongly disagree)* to rate how much they agree or disagree with the aggressive behavior in that situation. Two-week test-retest reliability and adequate internal consistency reliability was calculated with a sample of 2313 high school students enrolled in mandatory health classes (Slep, Cascardi, Avery-Leaf, & O'Leary, 2001). In the current study, an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .85 was calculated with the sample of 58 high school daughters, and a coefficient of .84 with the 58 mothers.

Quality of mother-daughter communication. Quality of mother-daughter communication was measured using two single items and coded observational data. Single items were, "In the past 6 months, how often have you and your mother/daughter talked about; a) dating, b) gender issues, c) issues of power, control, violence or abuse, d) sex" and "Have you had one or more 'good' talks with your mother/daughter in the past year about dating? a) Yes, b) No." Both items were asked of all mothers and daughters as part of the demographic information at the beginning of the survey.

Observed communication. Four, five-minute communication tasks (shown in Appendix A) were completed by each mother and daughter during data collection appointment after all self-report measures had been completed. Dyads received specific directions for each conversational task by the PI before each task. Three tasks were from the Family Assessment Tasks at the Child and Family Center (Fosco, Doyle, Dishion, Kavanagh, Stormshak; 2010). In addition, a fourth task was a dating violence vignette to encourage the mother-daughter dyad to talk about a real-world dating situation and how they would approach the issue.

The coding worksheet and coding manual are shown in Appendix B. The coding manual includes specific codes taken from the Coder Impressions (COIMP) document designed to capture general macro-ratings or global impressions of the Project Alliance Peer Interaction Task at the Child and Family Center (Peterson & Piehler, 2007). In the past, coders' global impressions have been highly correlated with direct micro-coding of videotaped observations (Patterson & Reid, 1978). Codes chosen for this study have been used previously by researchers to capture the quality of parent-child communication about risky behavior (Wilson & Donenberg, 2004). Each coder rated participants' interactions along five observed communication dimensions using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 9 (*very much*): 1) *mutuality*, the degree to which the mother-daughter pair interacted (affect, body language, and expressed content) in a way that matched each other (coded as a dyad); 2) *directiveness*, the degree to which either was directing or giving commands (each individual coded separately); 3) *support*, the degree to which they showed encouragement to each other in the form of empathy, nonverbal

signs of engagement, verbal and nonverbal signs of attention, or acknowledgement of each other's thoughts and feelings (each individual coded separately); 4) *disagreement*, behavior intended to correct or change each other's actions or opinions, interrupt, disagree, take issue, or discourage a different view (each individual coded separately); and 5) *withdrawal*, the degree to which they disengaged from, avoided, or refused to talk to each other (each individual coded separately).

Coders. A total of 2 undergraduate and 5 graduate students served as observational task coders. Coders received counseling psychology research credit for completing three terms of training and coding. I provided training to all coders, which entailed six, two hour training sessions with all coders present in order to clarify points of confusion in the coding system. Additionally, coders practiced independently, between meetings, by coding videotapes from my pilot study (Lantrip, Chronister, & Stormshak). Following clarification and training in the codes over three months, coders were all within a one-point margin of error on all codes.

Each of the observed interactions was coded by a coder, with 20% (N = 12) coded by a second coder for reliability testing. Coding took place over a span of six months, with no follow-up trainings or group meetings. Perhaps because of this, inter-rater reliability was found to be very low and this will be discussed later in more detail. Inter-rater reliability ranged from -.12 - .86 and is presented in Table 2. Six codes showed acceptable inter-rater reliability: Daughter's Directiveness, Daughter's Support, Daughter's Disagreement, Mother's Withdrawal, Daughter's Withdrawal, and the dyad's Mutuality.

Teen dating violence.

Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI). This measure assesses for TDV that girls experienced in the past year by a current or former dating partner (Wolfe, et al., 2001). The CADRI was designed as a self-report instrument to assess multiple forms of abusive behavior that may occur between adolescent dating partners. The CADRI has five different subscales assessing different types of aggressive behavior perpetration and victimization. There are 35 items that capture aggressive behavior or perpetration of abuse and 35 items that capture victimization. Subscale categories and example questions include: "He/she kicked, hit, or punched me" (Physical Aggression), "He/she threatened to hurt me" (Threatening Behavior), "He/she kissed me when I didn't him/her to" (Sexual Aggression), "He/she said things to his or her friends to turn them against me" (Relational Aggression), and "He/she insulted me with putdowns" (Emotional and Verbal Aggression). Respondents report how often the item has happened to them by circling *never*, *seldom* (1-2 times), *sometimes* (3-5 times), or *often* (6 times or more). The total aggression/perpetration score is calculated by finding the mean across all items of perpetration, and the total victimization score is calculated by finding the mean across all items of experienced violence. Internal consistency reliability coefficient

Table 2.

Variability and Inter-Rater Reliability of Communication Variables[1]

	Mean	*SD*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*	*Inter-rater Reliability[2]*
Mother's Directiveness	22.88	11.17	12.00	59.00	-.12
Daughter's Directiveness	21.38	10.96	12.00	69.00	.51
Mother's Support	110.50	18.36	55.00	142.00	.29
Daughter's Support	98.83	21.94	40.00	138.00	.59
Mother's Disagreement	26.60	10.33	16.00	59.00	.38
Daughter's Disagreement	29.24	12.81	16.00	85.00	.62
Mother's Withdrawal	28.02	13.76	16.00	87.00	.59
Daughter's Withdrawal	41.22	17.83	18.00	90.00	.82
Mutality	105.31	21.34	30.00	141.00	.86

[1]Twenty percent of mother-daughter dyad communication was rated by two independent raters on a scale from 1 to 9 over four tasks, and summed.
[2]Cronbach's Alpha.

for the total abuse scale were high (a > .83) across all sex and grade subsamples for adolescent participants from 10 high schools (N = 1,019, 55% female; ages 14–16). In the current study, the aggression/perpetration scale had an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .77, while the victimization scale had an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .75. The internal reliability was calculated from the sub-sample of 37 high school girls who had dated, and filled out the CADRI.

Abusive Behavior Inventory (ABI). The ABI is a 30-item self-report instrument that measures both physical and psychological abuse experiences in the past year by a current or former partner (Shepard & Campbell, 1992). The ABI has physical (11 items) and psychological abuse (12 items) subscales. Items on the physical abuse subscale include, "pushed, grabbed, or shoved you," "slapped, hit, or punched you," and "pressured you to have sex in a way that you didn't like or didn't want." The psychological abuse subscale has items that include, "called you a name or criticized you," "tried to keep you from doing something you wanted to do," and "gave you angry stares or looks." Respondents indicate the frequency with which they have experienced each abuse tactic using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *very frequently*). Participants' responses on all items are added together for total scores. The ABI has had internal consistency reliability coefficients ranging from .70 to .92, as well as good criterion-related, construct, and factor validity with a sample of 100 men and 78 women in an inpatient clinic for chemical dependency (Shepard & Campbell, 1992). In the

current study, an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .87 was calculated with

from the sub-sample of 37 high school girls who had dated, and filled out the ABI.

Mother's IPV experiences.

Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2). The CTS2 is a self-report measure that asks

respondents about occurrence and frequency of the use of 19 different conflict tactics

with their current or former partner (Straus, et al., 1996). Only mother participants

completed the CTS2. There are five CTS2 subscales: physical assault, psychological

aggression, negotiation, injury, and sexual coercion. Subscale examples items include;

"My partner twisted my arm or hair" (physical assault), "I called my partner fat or ugly"

(psychological aggression, "Got information to back up your/his/her side of things"

(negotiation), "I had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my partner"

(injury), and "I made my partner have six without a condom" (sexual coercion).

Respondents are asked in a yes/no format if these tactics have ever occurred, and then

asked to record the number of times each item happened within the past year using a

Likert scale from 1= *Once in the past year to* 7= *Not in the past year, but it did happen*

before. The CTS2 is a widely used instrument for which strong validity and reliability

data have been collected with college student couples. The CTS2 is scored by adding the

midpoints for each response (happened 3-5 times: midpoint is 4) for a total score.

Researchers also have collected promising data with college students that suggest good

construct and discriminant validity of the CTS2. Internal consistency reliability

coefficients ranged from .79 to .95 with a sample of 317 college student romantic

couples. In the current study, an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .86 was

calculated from the sample of 58 mothers.

Procedures

        Participant recruitment and data collection. A total of seven high schools

were contacted to request their study participation. Although many public schools have

placed a blanket freeze on campus research because of tight budget restrictions, two

school districts expressed great interest in this dissertation study. Bethel School District

offered to take the dissertation study to their school board, and it was passed and accepted

for implementation in both of their high schools. Bethel School District is located in

West Eugene and serves over 1700 students in a traditional, and an alternative, high

school. Hood River Valley High School (HRVHS) also offered to host recruitment for

the study. HRVHS serves all 1200 high school students in the broader rural Hood River

area in Northern Oregon.

        A trained research assistant and I went into every physical education class at

Willamette High School, spoke to a general assembly of all girls at Kalapuya High

School, and went into all first period classes at HRVHS. In each setting, we outlined the

study, inclusion criteria for participation, and explained monetary compensation. After

our announcement, we passed around sheets of paper for girls, who thought they might be

interested, to write their name, mom's name, and home telephone number. Between the

three schools, 139 girls expressed interest during school recruitment. I then called each

parent from the lists to tell them about the study, screen for eligibility criteria, and offer

to schedule an appointment for data collection. A total of 73 mother-daughter dyads scheduled data collection appointments and 15 canceled or no-showed.

All participant data were collected at one time point. Data collection appointments were scheduled after school and on weekends, in high school classrooms and community conference rooms and lasted between 40 and 60 minutes. Data collection included mother and daughter participants completing all written measures and four, five-minute video-taped communication tasks. Communication tasks were video-taped using a digital camera on a tri-pod with no one in the room during the tasks. Each participant (mother and daughter) was compensated $20 at the end of the appointment. Additionally, I spent 5-10 minutes at the end of the appointment debriefing the experience with each dyad, and providing brief psycho-education about dating violence and relevant community and on-line resources.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Preliminary Study Analyses

SPSS 20.0 for Windows was used to enter all data, conduct preliminary study analyses, and test model assumptions. Descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, and frequency distributions were examined for all study variables. Means, standard deviations, and ranges of study variables are provided in Table 4. Multicollinearity was assessed by looking at the correlations between independent variables. Tolerance values (greater than .20), extreme skew and kurtosis, and influential case outliers (within the limits of $+/-2.0$) were examined prior to conducting main study analyses and multivariate normality assumptions were met (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The study sample provided adequate power for all preliminary and main study analyses.

Correlations among model variables are provided in Table 4. Daughters' coercive beliefs about dating (AARDR & AADS) were significantly correlated with daughters' one-item report of mother-daughter communication as well as with mothers' and daughters' directiveness and disagreement during the observed mother-daughter communication tasks. Mothers' coercive beliefs about adolescent dating (AARDR & IKA) were significantly correlated with mothers' and daughters' support and the dyad's mutuality during the observed mother-daughter communication. Daughters' report of mother-daughter communication was also negatively correlated with daughters' withdrawal during observed mother-daughter communication. Interestingly, no study

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variables were significantly correlated with daughters' TDV experiences. Examination of the correlations revealed that most relationships between variables were in the expected direction. Some exceptions, though not significant, included a negative association between mothers' endorsement of IPV and adolescent girls' coercive beliefs; a negative association between daughters' coercive beliefs (IKA) and daughters' observed negative communication; and a negative association between some measures of daughters' coercive beliefs and mothers' coercive beliefs.

Main Study Analyses

To include the full sample in the primary study analysis, we used maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR), which has been shown to provide unbiased estimates when data are missing at random or missing completely at random (MCAR). MLR also provides more valid estimates when dependent variables are not normally distributed but do not have significant skew, which is the case with the primary outcome, experienced TDV (Skew = .91). There was some degree of missing data in our sample (see Table 4 for valid Ns for each variable), but the data were found to be MCAR (Little's [1988] MCAR test, $\chi^2 (1281) = 0.00$, *ns*), so the missing data did not introduce bias into the analyses. Alpha (α) was set to .05.

Model fit for all analyses was examined using the chi-square statistic, Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Chi-square statistics measure the amount of discrepancy between the

unrestricted sample covariance matrix and the restricted covariance matrix. Small chi-

squares correspond to better fit to the data. CFI provides a measure of complete

Table 3.

Intercorrelations Between Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
						Mother-Daughter Dyads (*N* = 58)												
1. Daughter's Coercive Beliefs (AARDR)	—	.42**	.40**	.24	.01	.14	-.17	.36**	.12	-.20	-.06	.32*	.13	.16	.10	-.14	.15	-.07
2. Daughter's Attitudes Subscale (IKA)		—	.41**	-.11	.25	.09	-.15	-.04	-.06	-.02	.02	-.06	-.07	-.16	-.09	.01	.02	-.04
3. Daughter's Attitudes about Dating (AADS)			—	.11	-.12	-.04	-.28*	.12	.31*	-.14	-.18	.20	.32*	.03	.16	-.20	.28	-.07
4. Mother's Coercive Beliefs (AARDR)				—	.15	.18	.13	-.04	.01	-.29*	-.21	-.08	.03	.30*	.09	-.30*	.19	.03
5. Mother's Attitudes Subscale (IKA)					—	.28*	-.04	-.08	.14	-.22	-.29*	-.03	.12	.31*	.24	-.34*	-.06	.14
6. Mother's Attitudes about Dating (AADS)						—	.07	-.10	.14	.21	.10	-.05	.12	-.20	-.20	.10	.15	.11
7. Daughter's Report of Parent Communication							—	.07	-.05	.00	.10	.04	-.01	-.13	-.26*	.01	.09	-.01
8. Mothers' Observed Directiveness								—	.64**	-60**	-42**	.86**	.56**	.30*	.32*	-45**	-.22	.07
9. Daughters' Observed Directiveness									—	-.46**	-.65**	.74**	.91**	.30*	.49**	-.63**	-.03	-.12

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
										Mother-Daughter Dyads (*N* = 58)								
10. Mothers' Observed Support										—	.80**	-.47**	-.41**	-.58**	-.50**	.83**	.21	.024
11. Daughters' Observed Support											—	-.40**	-.61**	-.48**	-.68**	.89**	.07	.17
12. Mothers' Observed Disagreement												—	.76**	.31*	.35**	-.47**	-.11	-.07
13. Daughters' Observed Disagreement													—	.21	.42**	-.66**	.04	-.15
14. Mothers' Observed Withdrawal														—	.77**	-.45**	-.05	-.08
15. Daughters' Observed Withdrawal															—	-.57**	-.02	-.18
16. Mother-daughter Observed Mutuality																—	.09	.12
17. Teen Dating Violence (factor score)																	—	-.09
18. Mother's Domestic Violence (CTS)																		—

Note. Correlations were calculated using a Pearson's *r*. *p*-values are two-tailed. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

Table 4.

Descriptive Statistics for Each Measure

Indicator	All				White/Caucasian				Ethnic Minority			
	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	N
1. Daughters' Coercive Beliefs (AARDR)	20.30	10.36	3-41	50	20.71	9.79	3-41	38	19.00	12.35	5-40	12
2. Daughters' Attitudes Subscale (IKA)	11.58	5.61	1-24	55	11.27	5.25	3-19	41	12.50	6.69	1-24	14
3. Daughters' Attitudes about Dating (AADS)	14.68	7.62	0-33	53	15.13	7.27	1-33	40	13.31	8.79	0-25	13
4. Teen Dating Violence (Factor Score)	.00	1.00	-1.27-2.34	37	-.00	.98	-1.27-2.20	29	.00	1.16	-1.27-2.34	8
5. Daughters' Report of Parent Communication	.79	.41	0-1	57	.81	.39	0-1	43	.71	.47	0-1	14
6. Observed Daughters' Disagreement	29.24	12.81	16-85	58	30.47	13.98	16-81	43	26.07	.41	16-41	14
7. Mothers' Coercive Beliefs (AARDR)	10.71	7.74	1-36	56	10.98	7.36	2-36	47	9.33	9.87	1-29	9
8. Mothers' Attitudes Subscale (IKA)	6.26	8.16	0-31	56	7.57	5.20	0-25	47	11.22	10.10	0-31	9
9. Daughters' Attitudes about Dating (AADS)	5.63	5.38	0-24	57	5.49	4.97	0-18	47	6.30	7.29	0-24	10
10. Mothers' Experienced DV	18.83	18.51	0-92	53	17.93	17.13	0-92	44	23.22	24.97	0-84	9

covariation of a hypothesized model with the independent model; values greater than

0.95 indicate good fit to the data (Bentler, 1992). RMSEA values less than 0.05 indicate

good model fit, and values up to 0.08 represent reasonable errors of approximation

(Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Standardized Root Mean Square Residual is an index of

absolute model fit defined as the standardized difference between the observed and predicted correlation; values less than .08 are generally considered good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Measurement Models

Correlations among the three indicators of participants' beliefs about dating ranged from $r = .32$ to .42 for daughters (i.e., indicators were AARDR, IKA, and AADS) and from .15 to .28 for mothers (i.e., indicators were AARDR, IKA, and AADS). With correlations between these variables of modest magnitude and in the expected direction we moved on to the creation of a latent variable. The strength and appropriateness of each latent variable was verified using a principal axis factor analysis of each latent construct prior to testing the models using SEM.

The three-indicator CFA model of mother's beliefs about dating provided excellent fit to the data: $\chi^2 (0) = 0.00$, CFI = 1.00 and RMSEA = 0.00. Standardized regression weights ranged from 0.30 to 0.56, indicating that all factors contributed to the latent construct (Kline, 2010). The three-indicator CFA model of daughters' beliefs also provided excellent fit to the data: $\chi^2 (0) = 0.00$, CFI = 1.00 and RMSEA = 0.00. Standardized regression weights were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and ranged from 0.63 to 0.65 indicating that all factors contributed to the latent construct. Both measurement models provided good fit to the data and provided adequate factor loadings.

The two indicators of TDV (Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory, CADRI and the Abusive Behavior Inventory, ABI) were strongly correlated at $r = .51$, $p < .01$. Provided that experienced TDV was comprised of only two indicators, a

factor score was created using a principal axis factor analysis with each indicator given equal weighting.

Cross Sectional Path Models

Once the measurement model analyses were completed and acceptable fit found, the study variables were entered into a path model to test the following hypotheses: (1) Daughters' dating beliefs mediate the relationship between mothers' dating beliefs and daughters' experienced TDV, (2) Mother-daughter communication about dating relationships mediates the relationship between mothers' dating beliefs and daughter's dating beliefs, and (3) Mother-daughter communication about dating relationships mediates the relationship between mothers' dating beliefs and daughter's TDV.

Preliminary analyses and examination of the correlations between the variables indicated no significant direct effects between mothers' dating beliefs and daughters' experiences of TDV. Thus, we focused on the joint significance of the paths between the purported "mediators," also referred to as an intervening variable effect. Some have argued that traditional conceptualizations of mediation are too restrictive, and that intervening variable effects can reflect important indirect pathways between variables (e.g., MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). The hypothesized intervening variable effects were tested for significance using the Model Indirect command in Mplus.

Model #1. A path model was constructed to test the first hypothesis: mother's dating beliefs are related to daughter's experience of TDV, mediated by daughter's dating beliefs. This model had poor model fit [$\chi^2(12) = 20.98$, CFI = 0.61, RMSEA = 0.11,

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SRMR = 0.08] despite adequate construction of the latent variables. In an attempt to improve model fit, we used only a single measure (AADS) to assess the latent variable of daughters' dating beliefs because this measure was strongly correlated with TDV and had the strongest factor loading for this latent variable. These modifications improved the model fit and revealed a significant relationship between daughters' dating beliefs and experienced TDV (χ^2 (8) = 3.81, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.00, SRMR = 0.06). We proceeded with our model building process by adding a one-item measure of daughters' reports of how often they had quality conversations with their mothers about dating in the past year. This item had not been included in hypothesized models, but was asked on both mothers' and daughters' demographic forms in order to gather self-reports of the frequency and quality of mother-daughter communication about dating. In the process of improving model fit, adding daughters' perception of the existence, and quality, of these conversations seemed consistent with published research (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Hunter, 1985; Lambert & Cashwell, 2005) and our hypotheses. Inclusion of daughters' report of mother-daughter communication about dating resulted in excellent model fit (χ^2 (10) = 6.20, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.00, SRMR = 0.05) so we proceeded by examining the results of the path model presented in Figure 4.

Coefficients of the model (Figure 4) are provided in Table 5. Two paths of interest were found to be significant: Daughter's report of mother-daughter communication about dating significantly predicted daughter's dating beliefs ($B = -5.68$, $SE = 2.52$, $\beta = -.32$, $p = .024$) and daughters' dating beliefs significantly predicted her experienced TDV ($B = .05$, $SE = .02$, $\beta = .36$, $p = .003$). The intervening variable effect

of mothers' beliefs about dating on daughters' experienced TDV, by way of daughters'

beliefs about dating, was not significant ($B = -.01$, $SE = .04$, $\beta = -.03$, $p = .744$).

However, the intervening variable effect of daughter reported mother- daughter

communication about dating on daughters' experienced TDV, through daughters' beliefs

about dating, was significant: ($B = -.27$, $SE = .12$, $\beta = -.11$, $p = .033$).

The results of these intervening variable effect analyses are presented in Table 5.

Mothers' experiences of DV were included in the model to control for any effects on

mothers' and daughters' beliefs about dating. Daughters' age and mothers' and

daughters' ethnicity were entered as covariates but were not significant and did not

improve model fit; thus, participants' age and ethnicity were not retained in the final

model.

To test how daughters' perpetration of TDV would fit in the model as an

alternative outcome, we replaced daughters' TDV with daughters' perpetration of TDV.

This model did not have adequate model fit and daughters' perpetration was not

significantly related to any other study variables: [χ^2 (25) = 50.50, CFI = 0.17, RMSEA =

0.14, SRMR = 0.17]. Girls' perpetration of TDV was not retained, and TDV

victimization was used as the only outcome in the final models.

Figure 4. Path model 1
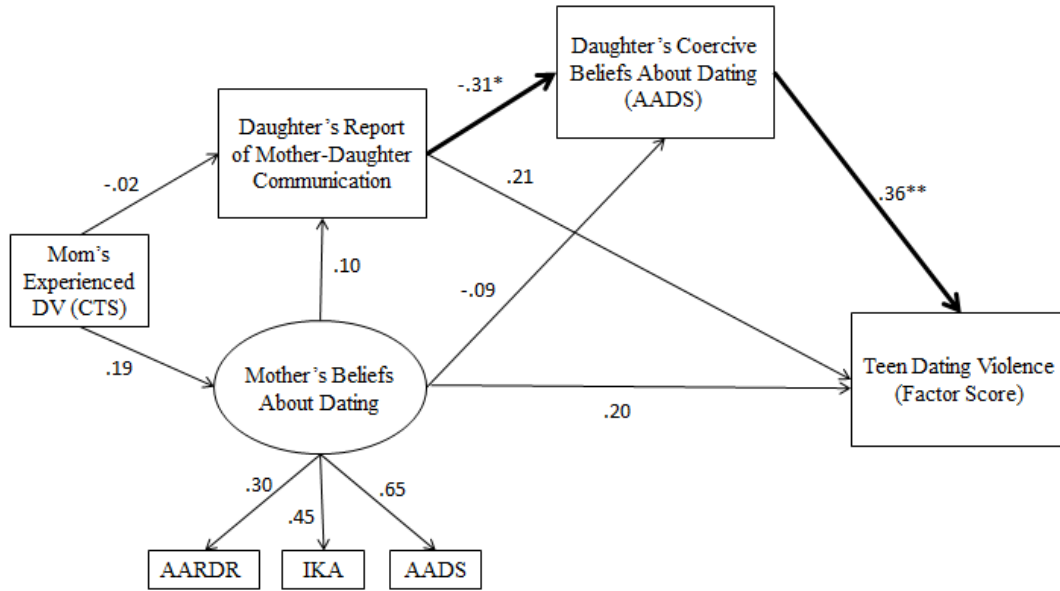
Note. Standardized weights are reported. Bold paths with asterisks indicate *p* < .05.

Table 5.

Results of Path Analysis – Model 1

Mother-Daughter Dyads *N* = 58				
				95% credibility
Model path	*B*	S.E.	β	interval
Mother's DV → Mother's beliefs about dating	.03	.03	.19	−.040 | .088
Mother's beliefs about dating → Daughter's beliefs about dating	-.29	.87	-.09	−1.986 | 1.411
Mother's beliefs about dating → Experienced TDV	.08*	.16	.20	-.221 | .386
Mother's beliefs about dating → Daughter's report of mother-daughter talks	.02	.03	.10	-.039 | .070
Mother's DV → Daughter's report of mother-daughter talks	−.00	.00	−.02	−.040 | .074
Daughter's report of mother-daughter talks → Daughter's beliefs	-5.68**	2.52	-.31	-10.611 | -.746
Daughter's beliefs about dating → Experienced TDV	.05***	.02	.36	.016 | .078
Daughter's report of mother-daughter talks → Experienced TDV	.50*	.38	.21	-.240 | 1.232
Indirect effects				
Mother's beliefs → Daughter's beliefs → TDV	−.01	.04	−.03	−.094 | .067
Mother's beliefs → Daughter's report of talks → Daughter's beliefs → TDV	-.00	.01	-.01	−.020 | .011
Daughter's report of talks → Daughter's beliefs → TDV	-.27**	.12	-.11	−.509 | -.022

Note. TDV = Experienced Teen Dating Violence; *** *p* < .01; ** *p* < .05; * *p* < .10.

Model #2. The second and third study hypotheses included observed mother-daughter communication as a mediator of the relationship between mothers' beliefs about dating and daughters' beliefs about dating, as well as a mediator of the relationship between mothers' beliefs about dating and experienced TDV. All four of these variables were positioned as intervening variables in the path model presented in Figure 5. First, each of the mother and daughter communication codes (support, mutuality, disagreement, directiveness, withdrawal, and a combined negative communication score) was entered into the model. The codes were entered one at a time, including a combined negative communication factor score, due to the already low power of the model and the poor reliability of many codes. The only observed communication code that provided adequate model fit was daughter's observed disagreement, which was retained in the model as the observed communication variable. Mother's experienced DV was included in the model as a covariate. Mothers' and daughters' ages and ethnicities were entered as covariates but were not significant, did not improve the fit, and thus were not retained in the final model. This model provided adequate fit to the data ($\chi^2 (10) = 6.086$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.00, SRMR = 0.05) (see Figure 5). We proceeded by examining the results of the path model.

Figure 5. Path model 2

Note. Standardized weights are reported. Bold paths with asterisks indicate *p* < .05.

The path coefficients for the model in Figure 5 are provided in Table 6. The

direct path between daughters' observed disagreement and daughters' beliefs about

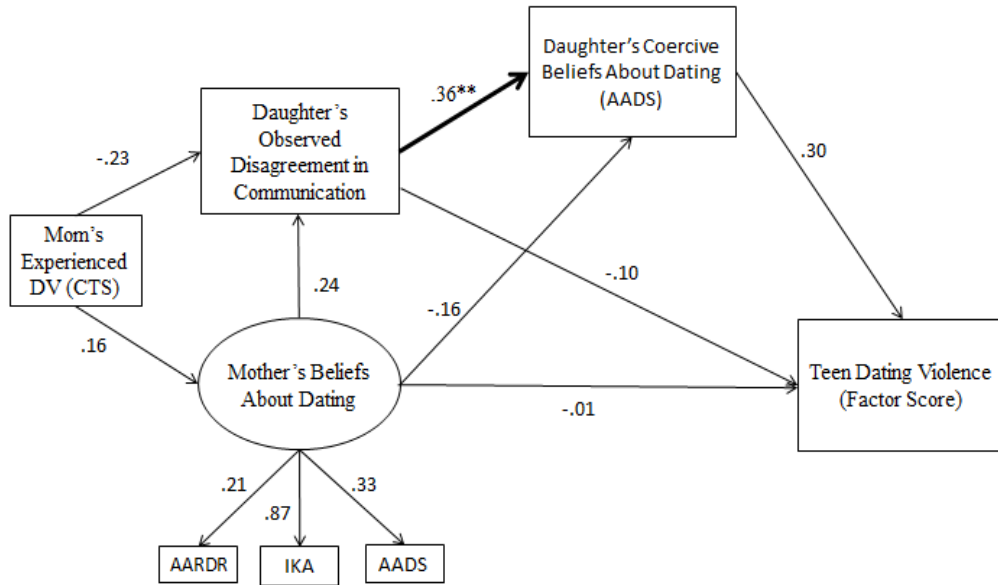dating was significant (B = .08, SE = .03, β = .36, p = .004). The intervening variable

effects of interest in the second and third hypotheses were not significant. The results of

the intervening variable effect analyses are presented in Table 6.

Model #3. A third model was tested in order to identify any differences in

observed mother-daughter communication, and its relationship with the other study

variables, when only mother-daughter communication *during the dating violence task*

was included. During the coded, observed communication tasks, one conversation task

required mother and daughter to read a hypothetical vignette, which involved an

adolescent's experience of TDV, and were asked to talk about what they would both do

in the given scenario. To test if the content of mother-daughter communication was

significantly related to other study hypotheses, daughters' disagreement during the TDV

Table 6.

Results of Path Analysis – Model 2

Mother-Daughter Dyads N = 58				
Model path	*B*	S.E.	β	95% credibility interval
Mother's DV → Mother's beliefs	.01	.05	.16	-.080 | .109
Mother's beliefs → Daughter's beliefs about dating	-.78	1.79	-.16	-4.276 | 2.719
Mother's beliefs → Experienced TDV	-.01	.29	-.01	-.578 | .563
Mother's beliefs → Observed daughter's negative communication	5.20	7.30	.24	-9.110 | 19.510
Mother's DV → Observed daughter's negative communication	-.43	.25	-.23	-.920 | .066
Observed daughter's negative communication → Daughter's beliefs	.08***	.03	.36	.025 | .132
Daughter's beliefs about dating → Experienced TDV	.04*	.02	.30	-.001 | .076
Observed daughter's negative communication → Experienced TDV	-.00	.01	-.10	-.014 | .008

Model path	B	S.E.	β	95% credibility interval
Indirect effects				
Mother's beliefs → Observed daughter's negative communication → TDV	-.02	.03	-.02	−.080 | .049
Mother's beliefs → Observed daughter's negative communication → Daughter's beliefs → TDV	.02	.02	.02	−.028 | .059
Observed daughter's negative communication → Daughter's beliefs → TDV	.00*	.00	.10	-.001 | .007

Note. TDV = Experienced Teen Dating Violence; *** $p < .01$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$.

Figure 6. Path model 3
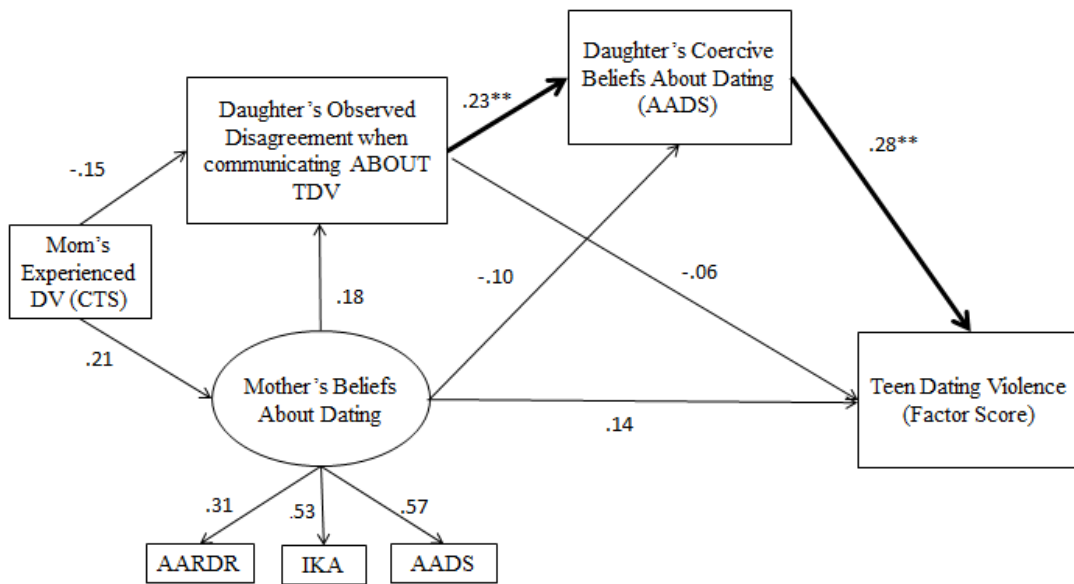
Note. Standardized weights are reported. Bold paths with asterisks indicate *p* < .05.

conversation was substituted for daughters' disagreement across all four tasks in this model. Daughters' disagreement was kept as the code representing communication due to its adequate reliability and significance in the previous model. This model provided adequate fit to the data (χ^2 (10) = 4.779, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.00, SRMR = 0.05). We then proceeded by examining the results of the path model.

The path coefficients for the model (Figure 6) are provided in Table 7. Two direct paths of interest were found to be significant: Daughters' observed disagreement during the TDV conversation significantly predicted daughters' dating beliefs (*B* = .48, *SE* = .24, β = .23, *p* = .046) and daughters' dating beliefs significantly predicted their experienced TDV (*B* = .04, *SE* = .02, β = .28, *p* = .054). The intervening variable effect of daughters' disagreement during the communication on daughters' experienced TDV,

Table 7.

Results of Path Analysis – Model 3

	Mother-Daughter Dyads *N = 58*			
Model path	*B*	S.E.	β	95% credibility interval
Mother's DV → Mother's beliefs	.03	.03	.21	-.038	.076
Mother's beliefs → Daughter's beliefs about dating	-.33	1.14	-.10	-2.559	1.892
Mother's beliefs → Experienced TDV	.06	.20	.14	-.325	.446
Mother's beliefs → Obs. daughter's negative communication about TDV	.27	.20	.18	-.917	1.463
Mother's DV → Obs. daughter's negative communication about TDV	-.03	.02	-.15	-.069	.008
Observed daughter's negative communication about TDV → Daughter's beliefs	.48**	.24	.23	.008	.951
Daughter's beliefs about dating → Experienced TDV	.04**	.02	.28	-.001	.075
Observed daughter's negative communication → Experienced TDV	-.02	.07	-.06	-.145	.111

Model path	B	S.E.	β	95% credibility interval
Indirect effects				
Mother's beliefs → Obs. daughter's negative communication about TDV →TDV	-.01	.02	-.01	−.043 | .034
Mother's beliefs → Obs. daughter's negative communication about TDV → Daughter's beliefs → TDV	.01	.01	.01	−.017 | .027
Obs. daughter's negative communication about TDV → Daughter's beliefs → TDV	.02**	.01	.06	.001 | .034

Note. TDV = Experienced Teen Dating Violence; *** *p* < .01; ** *p* < .05; * *p* < .10.

through daughters' beliefs about dating was significant: ($B = .02$, $SE = .01$, $\beta = .06$, $p = .037$). The results of the intervening variable effect analyses are presented in Table 7.

Summary

The three path models all had adequate power and showed good fit to the data. For all three path models, results showed significant paths between mother-daughter communication (represented by different variables in each model) and daughters' beliefs about dating. Models 1 and 3 included mother-daughter communication about dating violence specifically, and results showed significant, direct paths between daughters' beliefs about dating and experienced TDV and indirect paths between mother-daughter communication and daughter's experienced TDV, via daughter's beliefs about dating. The original study hypotheses were not supported by the results due to the lack of significant associations between mothers' beliefs and any other variables. However, the hypothesized relationships between mother-daughter communication, daughters' beliefs, and experienced TDV were supported by the results.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between mother-daughter communication about teen dating violence (TDV), mothers' and daughters' beliefs about coercive dating, and daughters' experiences of TDV. It was hypothesized that mother-daughter communication and daughters' coercive beliefs about dating would mediate the relationship between mothers' coercive beliefs about dating and their daughters' experiences of TDV. SEM analyses were used to test study hypotheses and results were as follows: (a) self-report and observed measures of mother-daughter communication were associated with daughters' coercive beliefs about dating, (b) daughters' coercive beliefs about dating were associated with daughters' experienced TDV, and (c) although mother-daughter communication was not directly related to daughters' experienced TDV, the indirect path between self-report and observed mother-daughter communication, daughters' coercive dating beliefs, and experienced TDV was significant.

This study built on the initial pilot study I conducted (Lantrip, Chronister, & Stormshak, 2010) by examining the proposed relationships with a larger sample, identifying directionality, and looking at how mother-daughter communication and mother and daughter dating beliefs are related to daughters' experiences of TDV, a new outcome variable. Ultimately, these dissertation study results showed that the quality of mother-daughter communication may impact the beliefs that daughters hold about dating, which in turn, could influence their experiences of TDV victimization.

Mother-Daughter Communication and Dating Beliefs

One of the most notable study findings was the significant relationship between mother-daughter communication and daughters' beliefs about dating. A large body of cross-disciplinary literature has delineated the role of parents, and specifically mothers, in the transmission of children's values, beliefs, and identity development, including gender roles (Kwak, 2003; Moen, Erickson, & Dempster-McClain, 1997; Steinberg, 2001; Wertheim, 2002). With this study, two mechanisms by which mothers may transmit their dating beliefs to their daughters were examined: via mothers' own dating beliefs and via the quality with which mothers communicated with their daughters about dating violence. Study results showed that only the daughters' observed communication and daughters' report of mother-daughter communication quality were significantly and directly related to daughters' coercive dating beliefs.

These data are hopeful in that they suggest that parent–child communication is a useful target for assessment and intervention, regardless of mother's experiences of violence. Parents and children can be provided with specific feedback about their communication dynamics and taught new communication skills. Evidence of such effective, assessment-driven interventions like the Family Check-Up (Dishion & Stormshak, 2007) have proven that providing parents with communication and relational skills can positively influence adolescent risky behaviors. It is changes in parent-child communication dynamics that may have a greater and more proximal effect on adolescent TDV outcomes than more distal factors such as mothers' domestic violence history.

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Preliminary analyses of the current study showed that while positive aspects of both mothers' and daughters' communication (support and mutuality) were correlated with more positive, less coercive beliefs for mothers, only negative aspects of mothers' and daughters' communication (directiveness and disagreement) were correlated with daughters' dating beliefs. More mother and daughter negative communication was directly associated with more coercive beliefs about dating for the daughters. In study path analyses, it was also a negative aspect of daughters' communication (disagreement) that was significantly associated with daughters' coercive dating beliefs and daughters' experienced TDV. Negative communication, such as arguments or interruptions, may be easier to notice, and code reliably, than more nuanced aspects of positive communication such as support and empathy. It may be important to find ways to capture positive aspects of communication with more clarity. Notwithstanding measurement concerns, these results suggest that negative aspects of communication, or relationship quality, between a parent and adolescent can significantly affect the adolescent's beliefs about other relationships, and the other relationships that she engages in during her adolescence.

Present study results also show that regardless of the mother-daughter conversation content, interactions characterized by less arguing or disagreement were associated with daughters' lower endorsement of coercive and potentially abusive dating dynamics. These findings are congruent with results from Wilson and Donenberg's pilot study (2004) and child and family system theories. Child and family health is thought to be enhanced when clear parent expectations and boundaries are paired with non-reactive

or judgmental parent responses to child behavior (Bögels, Lehtonen, & Restifo, 2010; Fowles & Kochanska, 2000). Wilson and Donenberg examined parent communication about sexual risk-taking with a diverse, urban sample and found that when parent communication was more open, comfortable, friendly, less dramatic, contentious, or judgmental, adolescents demonstrated more responsible sexual behavior (Wilson & Donenberg, 2004). The authors also used observational codes (mutuality, support, directiveness, withdrawal, and disagreement) similar to what was used in the current study; however, they only coded mothers' communication. A unique and important contribution of this study is the measurement of daughters' perception of, and participation in, communication. Although other measures of communication quality were entered into SEM analyses, it was only daughters' perceptions of communication that were significant. These findings support the significance of parent-adolescent communication established in the sexual risk-taking literature and underscore the importance of measuring daughters' perceptions when studying parent communication about dating violence and adolescent dating beliefs. An important area of further research will be to examine the unique contributions of mothers' and daughters' perceptions of communication quality to adolescent coercive dating beliefs and TDV risk.

Another important contribution of this study was the coding of different mother-daughter communication dynamics. Observed mother-daughter communication involved coding mothers' and daughters' directiveness, disagreement, support, withdrawal, and the dyad's mutuality. Correlations between mother-daughter communication codes and adolescents' coercive beliefs about dating replicated pilot study results; that is, dyad

mutuality was negatively correlated with daughters' coercive beliefs and mother directiveness was negatively correlated with daughters' coercive beliefs. Although these elements of communication may seem contradictory, it also seems fitting that communication that is open and accepting, yet also displays a clear parental hierarchy that allows for the mother to take charge of the conversation and articulate her expectations for her daughter may help reduce risk for some adolescents. Healthy, supportive communication will look differently for different populations depending on cultural norms and unique communication styles. It is important to consider that this study sample was characterized by lower risk in terms of socioeconomic status, mother and daughter availability to participate in this study, and the fact that they reported they had conversations about dating 'all the time.' As such, mother-daughter mutuality was likely reflected in mothers' and daughters' agreement along more pro-social beliefs and communication about their relationship and the topics being discussed.

The single code of 'observed daughters' disagreement' that was used to represent mother-daughter communication in the path models was the only code that provided adequate model fit, and was significantly related to any other model variables. One explanation for the lack of significance and poor model fit of the other observational codes may be low inter-rater coding reliability. Inter-rater reliability was consistently lower for mothers' communication codes versus daughters' communication codes. All coders were between the ages of 20 and 28, were not mothers, and may have identified more with the adolescents than the mothers. Additionally, it may have been more difficult for coders to assess mothers' interactions if their demonstration of disagreement

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and/or directiveness was inhibited by a heightened awareness of the camera, awareness of the intentions of the research project, or feelings of being judged as parents. This identification bias could have led coders to interpret adolescent communication with more clarity and accuracy and/or to misunderstand or be inconsistent with their interpretations of mothers' communication.

Coders were trained over a four-month span that included group training, group practice and coding comparisons, and individual practice. Additional group training sessions occurred at the end of each month to compare codes that were coded unreliably, find consensus on elements of definitions, and practice coding reliably as a team. At the end of the four months, coders were all within a one-point margin (coded from 1-9) on each code. Coding video recorded conversations between mothers and daughters occurred over the next six months without any further communication between coders. Possibly, this elapsed time between training and the end of coding could have resulted in coder drift. Additionally, coders were trained on videos from the pilot study where mothers and daughters only participated in one communication task, and for this study, there were four tasks to code for each family. This discrepancy in format between training and the coding for this study could have decreased coder reliability.

One additional factor that possibly contributed to low inter-rater reliability is the construction of the codes. While training coders for my pilot and dissertation studies, coders disagreed with each other on elements of how connected, empathetic, or withdrawn (to name a few) the mother-daughter dyads were. Many of the codes included elements of body language, eye contact, leading and initiating conversation, or drawing

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on personal experience, that are culturally bound forms of communication. Additionally, the codes were developed at the Child and Family Center (Peterson & Piehler, 2007) and have been used with families that often included fathers and male children and adolescents. It is possible that many of the codes used in this dissertation study were not as easy to assign reliably to mother-daughter communication. It may be helpful to look further at the gendered and culturally constructed forms of communication across populations, and to find codes that may capture the unique ways that mothers and daughters communicate with each other, across cultures. In order to intervene with mothers and daughters, it will be important to build on the unique strengths of gendered communication, and find accurate ways of capturing "positive" and "negative" communication.

Coercive Dating Beliefs and Experiences of TDV

Study findings suggest that adolescents' beliefs about dating are significantly associated with their experiences of TDV. Researchers recently have given more attention to exploring the relationship between adolescents' beliefs about, and endorsement of, coercive dating dynamics and findings are that higher levels of coercive dating beliefs increase adolescents' risk of both TDV perpetration and victimization (Connolly, Friedlander, Pepler, Craig, & Laporte, 2010; Fredland, et al., 2005; J. R. Williams, Ghandour, & Kub, 2008). The present study findings are congruent with extant research; a higher endorsement of coercive beliefs about dating was related to higher levels of TDV victimization.

This relationship between coercive beliefs about dating and experienced TDV was significant in three different models, which included three indicators of mother-daughter communication. For the two models that included mother-daughter communication as coded during the *dating violence discussion task*, the relationship between daughters' coercive beliefs about dating and their experienced TDV was statistically significant. For the model that included mother-daughter communication as coded across *all communication tasks*, the relationship between dating beliefs and experienced TDV was nearly statistically significant. The relationship between coercive dating beliefs and TDV would likely become significant with a larger sample size and more statistical power. The current study results are congruent with extant research on parent-adolescent communication about risky sexual behavior, which has shown that the topic of conversation is an important element of prevention and intervention in adolescents' beliefs and their risky behavior (Leftkowitz, Kahlbaugh, Au, & Sigman, 1998; Miller, Kotchick, Dorsey, Forehand, & Ham, 1998). Adding content specific information, beliefs, thoughts, strategies, or reactions into communication between mothers and daughters may provide daughters with added support and resources to challenge or shape her beliefs about dating, and in turn affect her decisions in dating relationships. Having communication centered around dating content, takes mother-daughter communication quality from being a proxy for general relationship quality, to also being a mode of transmitting values, beliefs, and dating information.

Originally, daughters' beliefs about dating were measured using a latent variable with three indicators. Two of the three measures of daughters' beliefs (AARDR &

AADS) were significantly correlated with communication variables in preliminary analyses, and all three measures had adequate internal reliability. However, the Attitudes about Aggression in Dating Situations (Slep; AADS) was the only measure of dating beliefs that had adequate model fit and was significantly associated with the other model variables. The AADS included items like: "Mark calls Tina a slut in front of their friends. Tina slaps him," and asked daughters to mark how much they disagree or agree with the reaction in the scenario. The measures that did not end up being used in the model included items like: "When a boyfriend is jealous, it means he cares about the relationship" (AARDR) and "Sometimes, teenagers get so angry they cannot help but hit someone" (IKA). All three measures involved indirect assessment of beliefs (i.e. asking about situations involving someone else), a tactic that has been employed frequently by scholars to reduce social desirability bias, or error in self-report measures resulting from the desire of respondents to project a favorable image to others (Fisher, 1993). However, the AADS was unique in its use of names and short, vignette-like scenarios. Embree and Whitehead (1993) looked at social desirability bias in the endorsement of alcohol use and found that using vignettes to assess self-report uniquely addressed the problem of respondents answering in a socially desirable. It is possible that the use of names and vignettes on the AADS allowed participants to respond with less bias and report coercive beliefs with greater accuracy. The means for the three measures cannot be directly compared because they did not have the same response scale, but future data should look at the difference in self-report on vignette scenarios versus other types of self-report scales to further explore these data.

Coercive beliefs, including the specific measures used, have been linked in the literature with dating violence perpetration. Several researchers have found that women who endorsed accepting the use of physical and psychological violence in dating relationships were more likely to perpetrate dating violence (Sears, Sandra Byers, & Lisa Price, 2007; Williams, Connolly, Pepler, Craig, & Laporte, 2008). Present study findings did not confirm this relationship. When perpetration of TDV was entered as the outcome variable, the model was no longer a good fit to the data, and the relationship between daughters' beliefs and TDV was no longer significant. Out of the adolescent study participants who had dated, 88% (N = 34) endorsed perpetration of some form of TDV on the CADRI (including emotional, physical, and/or sexual abuse). Despite the frequency of perpetration (which was slightly lower than the frequency of victimization), daughters' TDV perpetration was not significantly correlated with mother-daughter communication or daughters' beliefs about dating.   Frequencies of perpetration and victimization for this sample, which are discussed further in the study implications section, show a range of participant experiences and confirm findings that have shown increasingly complex and more mutual perpetration of dating violence in opposite sex adolescent dating relationships (Hamby, 2009). However, the relationships between communication, beliefs, and TDV for this sample, revealed a unique relationship between daughters' coercive beliefs about dating and the experience of victimization only. Perhaps, for this sample, the experience of being a victim of dating violence was more largely affected by parental relationships and the transmission of beliefs about dating. Communication about dating violence in this study was about victimization, and

presumably most mother-daughter communication that occurs in families about TDV is about avoiding victimization, and not necessarily about perpetration. The content of mother-daughter communication and the process of transmitting beliefs from mothers to daughters may lend themselves to a unique relationship with adolescent victimization. Additionally, this sample was from a comparatively high SES background and was racially homogeneous and more communicative about dating violence, which may have affected model results.

Mother-Daughter Communication and TDV

This study, to our knowledge, is the first to examine the relationship between mother-daughter communication and TDV. Despite no significant correlation or direct model pathway between mother-daughter communication and daughters' experienced TDV; there was a significant relationship between the variables when daughters' coercive beliefs about dating were included as an intervening variable. This indirect relationship between mother-daughter communication and TDV suggests that extant research, theory, and practice that has found significant relationships between parent-adolescent communication and adolescent behavioral outcomes may be able to be applicable to TDV research and intervention.

In the second model, where mother-daughter communication was represented by daughters' disagreement during all of the conversation tasks, the indirect effect between mother-daughter communication and TDV was not significant. The indirect relationship was close to being significant in this model (p = .055) and may have had significance with a larger sample and, possibly, more reliable inter-rater coding of the observed data.

Despite this one model that did not meet significance, the indirect relationship between mother-daughter communication and TDV, through daughters' beliefs, is a key finding of this study. It is most likely that mother-daughter communication is a proxy measure for a broader construct of parent-adolescent relationship quality – an important factor to include in investigations of dating violence.

Mothers' Experienced IPV and Beliefs

A particularly interesting study finding was that mothers' experienced IPV was not directly associated with any other study variables. Of the mothers in the study, 67% endorsed experiencing some form of emotional or psychological abuse, 28% reported being physically assaulted, and 7% reported being sexually assaulted by a romantic partner at some point in her past. In preliminary analyses, mothers' IPV was not correlated with any other study variables, and in primary analyses, mothers' IPV improved model fit, but was not significantly related with any other model variables. The improved model fit suggests that mothers' IPV was, in some way, affecting her beliefs about dating as well as her communication with her daughter. However, mothers' IPV did not significantly predict the quality of mother-daughter communication, and in turn, did not predict daughters' beliefs or experienced TDV. These results place mothers' experienced IPV as a distal predictor, and mother-daughter communication and daughters' beliefs as the proximal predictors of daughters' experienced TDV. It is important to note that this measure assessed IPV over mothers' lifetime, and may have not been occurrences during the lifetime of, or witnessed by, their daughter. These

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findings, however, affirm the ability to intervene and adjust parenting variables in order to affect daughters' relational outcomes.

These data confirm literature that has cited a more indirect path from parents' IPV, rather than a direct link between mothers' IPV and the violence their daughters experience. The spillover hypothesis posits that interparental conflict *indirectly* influences child outcomes through other elements within the parent-child dyad (Sturge-Apple, Davies, & Cummings, 2006). This hypothesis offers a framework for understanding these study results. Mothers' past experiences are related to her current beliefs and communication, but it is her communication with her daughter that significantly affects her daughter's outcomes. Researchers recently found that adolescent attitudes about gender and violence changed how their exposure to interparental violence predicted their own TDV perpetration (Temple, Shorey, Tortolero, Wolfe, & Stuart, 2013). The current study findings show similar relationships where adolescent beliefs about gender and violence (aspects of the measure of coercive beliefs) are directly related to adolescents' experienced TDV, not the past experiences of their mothers. These findings confirm that children of parents who have experienced IPV are not destined to be victims or perpetrators of such violence because of these experiences; rather, the quality of mother-daughter communication, or relationship quality, can change the future outcomes for adolescents. Increasing the quality of mother-daughter communication may, in turn, influence daughters' coercive beliefs about dating and intervene in the cycle of violence in families.

In addition to mothers' experienced IPV, we measured mothers' beliefs about coercive adolescent dating to gather data about what beliefs, and in turn, what messages and values mothers were passing on to their adolescent daughters. We hypothesized that mothers' beliefs about coercive dating would be associated with all other study variables. Mothers' beliefs were significantly correlated with daughters' and mothers' observed support, and the dyad's observed mutuality during mother-daughter communication. Despite these significant correlations, and other study variables being associated in predicted ways in the statistical models, mothers' beliefs were not significantly related to any other variables in the final study analyses. Multiple measurement and procedural limitations could explain these results. Mother's beliefs about adolescent dating were measured using adjusted adolescent belief scales. Many mothers expressed confusion about who they were answering for, and from what perspective. Additionally, these measures asked mothers about their adolescent dating beliefs (what they think is happening for teenagers), but did not assess their own dating beliefs, which may or may not have been the same as their beliefs about adolescent dating. The intent was to ask mother and daughter about their beliefs around adolescent dating themes in order to assess for what beliefs mothers may be conveying to their daughters. Confusing measurement instructions and administration procedures may have introduced measurement error.

Clinical and Research Implications

Dissertation study findings confirm, and add to, literature documenting a relationship between parent communication and adolescent behavioral outcomes as well

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as literature revealing a relationship between beliefs about dating and experienced TDV. The findings of this study demonstrate that parent-adolescent communication should be included in future research and practice that addresses TDV.

The effect of quality parent-adolescent communication on adolescent behavior has been well established in the literature, is theoretically grounded, and has been a target for adolescent risk prevention and intervention efforts. These dissertation study results provide evidence that, with some populations, these same parent-adolescent communication theories may apply to the TDV literature and body of inquiry. In addition, study results suggest that parents, specifically mothers, may have an important role in reducing adolescent dating violence risk. Currently, most TDV prevention and intervention efforts occur in schools, using school-wide healthy dating curriculums to teach new norms and healthy dating behaviors to adolescents (Jouriles, et al., 2009; Noonan & Charles, 2009; Schnurr & Lohman, 2008). More research must be done on the relationship between the quality of parent-adolescent communication and TDV outcomes in order to test the unique impact that parent relationship quality and communication may have on the adolescent dating relationships. This work must happen while still considering the impact that peers, and other contextual factors, have on parent-adolescent relationships, adolescents' beliefs, as well as on TDV outcomes.

Numerous researchers have examined the changing landscape of gender and violence in adolescent dating (Archer, 2000; DeKeseredy, 2006; Hamby, 2009; Osthoff, 2002). Some researchers have shown that dating violence during adolescence is more mutual in nature than previously conceptualized, and have argued that violence is fairly

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symmetrical between adolescent males and females (Archer, 2000; DeKeseredy, 2006; Straus & Gelles, 1990). Other researchers have argued that levels of female perpetration have been inflated by the exclusion of sexual assault, measures of self-defense, and assessment for injury, as well as false positives including elements of "horseplay" being captured by TDV assessments (Hamby, 2009; Osthoff, 2002). Of the daughters in this study who had dated, 88% endorsed at least one item of TDV perpetration and 90% endorsed at least one item of TDV victimization. However, only 9% endorsed perpetrating physical violence, compared with 20% who endorsed being a victim of physical violence. Hamby (2009) argues that many statistics do not include sexual assault, and that this skews the picture of gender symmetry in perpetration. For this sample, 5% of girls endorsed perpetrating sexual assault, while 23% reported being victim to sexual assault by a partner. All self-report measures of perpetration and victimization lack contextual information. This study sample was not asked to report on fear, self-defense, the order of violence (who initiated), power, or experiences of dominance – all aspects of gender dynamics in our culture. Additionally, this sample only included women, making it problematic to conclude anything about violence gender symmetry.

Despite adolescent girl participants endorsing both perpetration and victimization of dating violence, final path models did not show that daughters' observed disagreement with mothers or daughters' coercive beliefs were significantly related to TDV perpetration, the way they were to victimization. Factors including peer influence, school environment, and adolescents' mental health were missing from the current study models

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and may have influence the relationship between study variables and the unique construct of perpetration. It will be important for future studies to include further contextual factors to examine the unique relationships between perpetration, versus victimization, and relevant peer and familial factors.

There are exciting clinical implications of this study. Because less disagreement by daughters in mother-daughter communication was significantly related to lower levels of coercive beliefs about dating, and in turn less experienced TDV, future clinical interventions might target the communication between parent and adolescent, and tracking changes in adolescents' beliefs about dating. By utilizing an assessment-driven intervention where quality relationship and communication skills were taught to both parents and adolescents, changes in communication quality and adolescents' beliefs about dating could be assessed and monitored. Observed and coded communication tasks could be used to track changes and progress, and could also be used to show parent-adolescent dyads examples of their communication and aid in the intervention. A similar model of a brief assessment-driven intervention with families is the Family Check-Up (Dishion & Stormshak, 2007). This intervention has been modified as a relationship check-up (Dishion & Chronister) to assess and intervene in unhealthy couple dynamics including substance use. Following this model, an assessment intervention could be created to intervene in the dating violence epidemic, as well as continue to gather data on how parent-adolescent relationships influence adolescents' beliefs about dating and their experienced TDV.

Strengths and Limitations

There are several study contributions worth noting. This is the first study to replicate research conducted in the area of risky sexual behavior to the area of adolescent TDV risk. A combination of interdisciplinary literatures informed the assessment of mother-daughter communication quality and parents' and adolescents' experienced TDV. In addition, a primary strength was the use of multi-agent reporting, observational and self-report data, and multiple measures to assess latent constructs and factor scores. Observational data are rarely used because participant recruitment and data analysis is much more difficult and labor intensive.

There are also important study limitations to consider; including the small sample size, observation coding inter-rater reliability, recruitment and sample bias, the English language participant eligibility requirement, and the use of a non-experimental research design. This sample only included 58 mother-daughter dyads, and TDV outcomes were only based on the 42 adolescents who had dated at the time of data collection. Although the statistical power was adequate for the SEM models to converge, the low power may have affected what variable relationships were identified as significant. Greater statistical power allows for significance of relationships to remain even when variance is being shared between multiple variables in a path analysis model.

Measurement of mothers' beliefs about coercive dating need to be improved in future research. Measuring mothers' beliefs about adolescent dating using the same measurements as were given to the daughters caused confusion and, ultimately, an unreliable source of information. The AARDR, IKA, and AADS used in this study were

measures for which normative data with adolescents had been collected. Additionally, future measurement of mothers' experienced IPV should include an assessment of abuse witnessed by their children in order to assess for the difference that it makes in TDV outcomes when children directly experience and/or witness parental IPV. Greater accuracy in the measurement of mothers' beliefs and IPV experiences will be vital to examining parental experiences effect on adolescent outcomes.

Poor inter-rater reliability on multiple observed communication codes was also a limitation of this study. The observational data were a unique contribution of this study, and it was a substantial limitation that only four out of nine codes had adequate inter-rater reliability, and only one was significant in the models. Possible issues with coder training including time elapsed between training and actual coding for the study and a possible rating bias between mother codes and daughter codes may have led to inconsistent coding. Additionally, gendered communication between mothers and daughters about dating may not have effectively been factored into code construction, and may have led to lower reliability when translated to this project. How mothers' beliefs were measured was also a study limitation. Despite all three measures having adequate internal reliability and combining to create a consistent and reliable latent construct, the construct was not significantly related to anything that we had hypothesized. All three measures asked mothers to report on their beliefs of adolescent dating; a task that mothers seemed to struggle with. It may be that the measures were reliable at capturing something, but it was not mothers' own, personal beliefs about dating relationships. Based on participant comments during data collection, it is possible

that mothers were answering the way they thought their daughters would behave and/or how their daughters would answer the questions, rather than answering based on their own beliefs about adolescent dating.

This study included significant sampling bias. Participants were recruited from three high schools, which involved reaching more than 1400 adolescent girls with the study recruitment announcement. Out of reaching 1400 girls, 139 girls expressed interest in the study and signed up for their mothers' to be contacted. By design, this study only reached girls who were willing to speak with their moms about dating as part of a research study, and mothers who were then willing to participate with their daughters in such a study. Many mothers and daughters reported while I was debriefing after data collection, that they, "Talk about these things all of the time!" or "Have very open communication about sex and dating." Recruitment in the schools offered access to a large pool of participants, but may have, by asking girls for their interest, also limited access to a more generalizable population. Future research should consider other recruitment options, including offering a parent-adolescent assessment intervention service as part of the data collection in order to reach parents who might feel like they are struggling with elements of communication and relationship quality with their adolescents.

Additionally, an eligibility requirement for study participation was English fluency. In the rural areas from where I recruited, many of the lower income families, possibly at increased risk for dating violence, spoke Spanish. Future research should include Spanish-speaking families to widen the recruitment and inclusion criteria in order

to have a more inclusive sample and generalizable findings. A limitation of this preliminary study is the non-experimental, relational, one time-point design. Due to the correlational, single time-point nature of this study, no predictions or causations can be claimed by the model results. These study results can only reveal relationships and associations between the study variables, for the given sample population. Additionally, based on these results, limited mechanisms, or mediators, have been identified for why these relationships exist. Future studies should look at various mechanisms for how these variables predict TDV, over time, in order to fully capture parents' influence on intervening in this epidemic.

Recommendations for Future Research and Practice

Researchers can improve on the current study by recruiting a larger sample using increased incentives or alternative recruitment methods that allow for a more representative, diverse U.S. sample to be included. A more diverse sample can also be supported by the inclusion of Spanish-speaking families with proper translations of materials and Spanish-speaking research assistants and observational coders. Additionally, it is important to use observational codes that are informed by sociocultural factors including, gender socialization and cultural values and norms. Future studies should find a way to more accurately capture mothers' beliefs about dating. Further, it would be helpful to capture longitudinal data to examine how these factors *predict* TDV, and to better guide intervention and perhaps allow for early prevention.

There are several new areas that will be critical for researchers to consider in the future. It may be important to look at the second parent, in two-parent households to

account for the larger parental influence on adolescent TDV. This might also be important in order to capture gendered communication and parenting in families with a male and female parent. Additionally, it will be important to include adolescent boys in data collection in order to more comprehensively capture gender dynamics related to TDV. Future research should include peer relationships, and school context to get a broader, contextual view of what relationships are influencing adolescents' beliefs and behaviors and how peer relationships interact with parent relationships in these processes.

These preliminary study results suggest that a possible area for future work is in clinical interventions. Family interventions that include assessment and data collection on the relationship between parent-adolescent communication and TDV outcomes, including coercive beliefs about dating, are needed to further understand the relationship between these variables. Intervention studies have the unique potential to shift parent communication skills and assess for the way that changing parenting skills may affect adolescent beliefs, and TDV outcomes. Additionally, it is important that future work in this arena take into account that 'quality' communication or effective parental relationships may look different with more at-risk populations. For instance, in Wilson and Donenberg's (2004) pilot study looking at risky sexual behavior in an urban psychiatric outpatient unit, it was more direct parent communication that significantly predicted less risky sexual behavior. It will be vital that observational communication codes, assessment measures, and future interpretations to reflect an inclusive understanding of what quality communication looks like in different gendered relationships and in diverse populations.

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Summary and Conclusions

TDV affects nearly one third of adolescents in the United States and is increasingly one of the largest public health concerns facing young women. The impact of TDV on adolescents is devastating and has long-term consequences on body image, substance abuse, and many mental health outcomes. Although scholarly and clinical attention has been increasingly focused on the dating violence epidemic including the prevalence, associated risk factors and consequences, and the efficacy of school-based interventions, there has been limited exploration about parents' potential to affect their adolescents' dating outcomes. No previous research has involved the examination of how the parent-adolescent relationship, specifically communication, may be a target for intervention and prevention.

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between mothers' and daughters' dating beliefs, the quality of their communication, and the TDV experienced by adolescents. Results showed significant relationships between the quality of mother-daughter communication and coercive dating beliefs held by daughters; beliefs held by daughters and daughters' experienced TDV; and an indirect relationship between mother-daughter communication and daughters' experienced TDV when this relationship was mediated by daughters' beliefs about dating. The present study provides evidence for the potential role that parents, specifically mothers, may play in affecting the beliefs and experiences of TDV in their adolescents' lives. It is recommended that future research build on the preliminary findings of this study in order to test, confirm, and utilize parents

as a point of intervention with their adolescents' beliefs and views about dating as well as

their experiences of dating violence.

MEASURES

INFORMATION ABOUT MYSELF - Daughter

A.   Name: _____

B.   Age: _____

C.   Race/Ethnicity
(please write in how you define your race/ethnicity and please be specific) (e.g.,
White/Caucasian, Cherokee with tribal affiliation, Latina):

    _____

D.   In the past 6 months, how often have you and your mother talked about the
following things (Circle your answer):

    Dating: Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

    Gender issues/expectations (being a woman):

                                            Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

    Issues of power, control, violence or abuse:

                                            Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

    Sex/sexual behavior:

                                             Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

E.   Have you had one or more 'good' talks with your mother in the past year about

dating?

    Circle: Yes   No

F.   Have you ever dated anyone?
    Circle: Yes   No
(If no, you may skip questions in the following questionnaires that pertain to dating
partners)

INFORMATION ABOUT MYSELF - Mother

1. Name: _____

2. Age: _____

3. Mailing address where you may receive materials related to this project. If you do not have a mailing address where you may receive study materials, we can make other arrangements:

4. Phone number where it is best to call you: _____

    Okay to leave a message at this number?   Yes   No

5. Race/Ethnicity
(please write in how you define your race/ethnicity and please be specific) (e.g., White/Caucasian, African American, Latina):

    _____

6. Your <u>current</u> relationship status (check and write in length of time):

    _____   Married   (years ____ months____)

    _____   Single, not dating   (years ____ months ____)

    _____   Single, living w/ partner   (years ____ months____)

    _____   Single, dating, not living w/ partner (____ years; ____ months)

	Separated	(___ years; ___ months)
	Divorced	(___ years; ___ months)
	Widowed	(___ years; ___ months)

_____

7. How many children/dependents do you have?

8. Circle the highest level of education you have received to date:

a) Some grade school   e) 2-yr. college degree
b) Finished grade school   f) Some college, no degree
c) Some high school   g) Bachelor's (4-yr.) college degree
d) Finished high school/GED   h) Professional degree (MA, Ph.D., etc.)

9. Are you currently employed (circle)? Yes   No

10. What occupation do you spend the majority of your time doing? (please be very specific):

_____

11. Are you currently in an intimate relationship that you would consider unhealthy?

Circle: Yes   No

12. How often do you speak to your daughter about the following topics (circle)?

Dating: Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

Gender issues/expectations (being a woman): Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

Issues of power, control, violence or abuse: Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

Sex/sexual behavior: Often   Sometimes   Rarely   Never

13. Have you had one or more 'good' talks with your mother in the past year about dating?   Circle: Yes   No

Adolescent Attitudes Regarding Dating Relationships Scale (Davidson; AARDR)

To be completed by both mother and daughter about perceptions of teenage dating.
Instructions: Using the scale below as a guide, respond to each statement by circling the number that indicates how much you agree with it.

0------------------1------------------2------------------3------------------4------------------5
Strongly Disagree
Strongly Agree

1. If my boyfriend/girlfriend really loved me, they would want to spend all of their time with me.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

2. It is a sign of caring when a guy insists on knowing where his girlfriend is at every moment.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

3. When a boyfriend is jealous, it means he cares about the relationship.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

4. Most parents have talked to their teenagers about healthy dating relationships.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

5. It is OK for a boy's girlfriend to tell him which girls he/she can and cannot talk to.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

6. It is normal for a girl's boyfriend/girlfriend to want to know where she is at all times.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

7. Guys pressure their guy friends into being sexually active.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

8. The old double standard still exists—guys who have sex are seen as studs, girls who have sex are seen as sluts.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

9. In movies, girls are shown as wanting to be forced into sex.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

10. The peer pressure to <u>not</u> be a virgin is very strong.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

11. Guys getting a little physically rough with girls is just a normal part of dating relationships.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

12. Scoring with as many girls as possible makes guys more popular.　　　　0　1　2　3　4　5

13. Music videos show girls wanting to be forced into sex.   0 1 2 3 4 5

14. It seems like everywhere I look, I am being given messages to have sex.   0 1 2 3 4 5

15. Wanting to know your boyfriend/girlfriend's class and work schedules is a normal part of relationships.   0 1 2 3 4 5

16. It is OK for a guy to ask his friends to keep tabs (keep track of, keep an eye out) on his girlfriend.   0 1 2 3 4 5

17. The lyrics of today's songs make me feel like everyone is sexually active.   0 1 2 3 4 5

18. If a girl really likes her boyfriend/girlfriend, she will always want to be touching them.   0 1 2 3 4 5

19. My family has instilled values in me about dating relationships and sexual behavior.   0 1 2 3 4 5

20. When I hang out with my friends, we often talk about sexual things like making out, hooking up, having sex, etc.   0 1 2 3 4 5

21. It is OK for a girl to ask her friends to keep tabs (keep track of, keep an eye out) on her boyfriend/girlfriend.   0 1 2 3 4 5

22. When a guy gets jealous when his girlfriend is talking to another guy, it shows he *really* likes her.   0 1 2 3 4 5

23. If a guy/girl really likes you, he/she will always want to be touching you.   0 1 2 3 4 5

24. My teachers have taught me to respect myself and my body.   0 1 2 3 4 5

25. Guys threaten to break up with girls if girls don't do sexual things with them.   0 1 2 3 4 5

26. Most teens think about what their parents have taught them when in a sexual situation.   0 1 2 3 4 5

27. Girls hook up with guys so they won't get teased by guys.   0 1 2 3 4 5

Attitudes subscale of the Inventory of Knowledge and Attitudes (Rybarik; IKA)

Not Acceptable	Somewhat Acceptable	Acceptable	Very Acceptable	Indispensable
1	2	3	4	5

Circle the number that describes how you feel about each statement (strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, or strongly disagree)

Regardless of the circumstances involved, males who hit, slap, kick, punch, pinch, or shove females are acting violently.   1 2 3 4 5

Regardless of the circumstances involved, females who hit, slap, kick, punch, pinch, or shove males are acting violently.   1 2 3 4 5

There is never a good reason for one person to slap another person.   1 2 3 4 5

If a male hits a female he/she loves because he/she is jealous, it's ok.   1 2 3 4 5

If a person is jealous, it shows how much that person cares for another person.   1 2 3 4 5

There is not justifiable reason for one person to hit another person.   1 2 3 4 5

It is no one else's business if a husband hits his wife.   1 2 3 4 5

Females should be sensitive, compassionate, caretakers, supportive, responsible for raising children and doing housework.   1 2 3 4 5

Males should be logical, strong, not show feelings in public, take control in relationships, initiate sexual activity, be the breadwinner, and be head of the household.   1 2 3 4 5

. In serious relationships between males and females, males should be the leaders and decision makers.   1 2 3 4 5

. Sometimes, teenagers get so angry they cannot help hitting somebody.   1 2 3 4 5

. A person who acts violently while under the influence of alcohol   1   2   3   4   5
   or other intoxicants is not responsible for that violent behavior.

. When there is violence between a male and a female who are   1   2   3   4   5
   dating, it is likely that there will be less violence if they get
   married.

Attitudes about Aggression in Dating Situations (Slep; AADS)
Below is a list of situations and peoples' reactions to them.
How much do you agree or disagree with the reaction that is underlined?


```
 0------------------1------------------2------------------3------------------4------------------5
```
Strongly Disagree   Strongly Agree

1. Mark calls Tina a slut in front of their friends. Tina slaps   0 1 2 3 4 5
him.

2. David is following Maria and won't leave her alone.   0 1 2 3 4 5
Maria pushes him out of her way.

3. Tony is harassing Gina about her new haircut, saying that   0 1 2 3 4 5
she looks like a poodle. Gina gets really angry at Tony and
pushes him.

4. Tom and Yolanda are having an argument. Things are   0 1 2 3 4 5
getting out of hand and Tom starts pushing and shoving
Yolanda. When he/she won't stop, Yolanda slaps him.

5. Michelle gets really angry at Carlos for ignoring her, so   0 1 2 3 4 5
she hits him to get his attention.

6. Jeff finds out that Debbie has been seeing someone else   0 1 2 3 4 5
behind his back. he/she gets really mad and he/she slaps
her.

7. Lisa won't stop making fun of Charlie in front of their   0 1 2 3 4 5
friends. Charlie loses his temper and pushes her.

8. Jenny and Dan are arguing because Jenny wants to see   0 1 2 3 4 5
other guys. She gets really mad and starts to hit Dan. Pan
grabs Jenny and pushes her away.

9. John catches Janet flirting with Tyrone. John gets really   0 1 2 3 4 5
mad and hits Tyrone for flirting with Janet.

10. Peter gets really angry at Patti and slaps her when she   0 1 2 3 4 5
threatens to break up with him.

11. Karen is teasing Frank at a party about being too stupid   0 1 2 3 4 5
to pass English. When she won't stop Frank just loses it and
hits Karen.

12. Keisha sees Rick flirting with Angie. Keisha gets mad   0 1 2 3 4 5
and hits Angie and tells her to keep her hands off Rick.

Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (Wolfe; CADRI)

The following questions ask you about things that may have happened to you with your boyfriend while you were having an argument. Check the box that is your best estimate of how often these things have happened with your current or ex-boyfriend in the past year. Please remember that all answers are confidential. As a guide use the following scale:

Never: this has never happened in your relationship
Seldom: this has happened only 1-2 times in your relationship
Sometimes: this has happened about 3-5 times in your relationship
Often: this has happened 6 times or more in your relationship

During a conflict or argument with your boyfriend/girlfriend in the past year:

I gave reasons for my side of the argument.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she gave reasons for his side of the argument.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I touched him sexually when he/she didn't want me to.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she touched me sexually when I didn't want him to.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I tried to turn his friends against him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she tried to turn my friends against me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I did something to make him feel jealous.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she did something to make me feel jealous.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I destroyed or threatened to destroy something he/she valued.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often

He/she destroyed or threatened to destroy something I valued.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I told him that I was partly to blame.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she told me that he/she was partly to blame.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I brought up something bad that he/she had done in the past.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she brought up something bad that I had done in the past.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I threw something at him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she threw something at me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
I said things just to make him angry.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she said things just to make me angry.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I gave reasons why I thought he/she was wrong.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she gave reasons why he/she thought I was wrong.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I agreed that he/she was partly right.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she agreed that I was partly right.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I spoke to him in a hostile or mean tone of voice.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she spoke to me in a hostile or mean tone of	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often

voice.

. I forced him to have sex when he/she didn't want to.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she forced me to have sex when I didn't want to.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I offered a solution that I thought would make us both happy.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she offered a solution that he/she thought would make us both happy.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I threatened him in an attempt to have sex with him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she threatened me in an attempt to have sex with me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I put off talking until we calmed down.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she put off talking until we calmed down.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I insulted him with put-downs.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she insulted me with put-downs.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I discussed the issue calmly.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she discussed the issue calmly.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I kissed him when he/she didn't want me to.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she kissed me when I didn't want him to.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often

. I said things to his friends about him to turn them against him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she said things to my friends about me to turn them against me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I ridiculed or made fun of him in front of others.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she ridiculed or made fun of me in front of others.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I told him how upset I was.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she told me how upset he/she was.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I kept track of who he/she was with and where he/she was	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she kept track of who I was with and where I was.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I blamed him for the problem.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she blamed me for the problem.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I kicked, hit or punched him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she kicked, hit or punched me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I left the room to cool down.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she left the room to cool down.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I gave in, just to avoid conflict	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often

He/she gave in, just to avoid conflict	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I accused him of flirting with another girl.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she accused me of flirting with another guy.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I deliberately tried to frighten him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she deliberately tried to frighten me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I slapped him or pulled his hair.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she slapped me or pulled my hair.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I threatened to hurt him	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she threatened to hurt me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I threatened to end the relationship.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she threatened to end the relationship.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I threatened to hit him or throw something at him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
He/she threatened to hit me or throw something at me.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
. I pushed, shoved, or shook him.	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often

He/she pushed, shoved, or shook me.   Never   Seldom Sometimes Often

. I spread rumors about him.   Never   Seldom Sometimes Often

He/she spread rumors about me.   Never   Seldom Sometimes Often

Abusive Behavior Inventory (Shepard; ABI)
Here is a list of behaviors that some individuals experience in their dating relationships.
Your answers are strictly confidential.
Adolescents: *Circle the number* that's your best guess regarding how often the behavior
described happened in the past year by a current or former partner.
Mothers: *Circle the number* that's your best guess regarding how often the behavior
described happened in the past year in your daughter's dating relationships.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently	Very

Frequently

. Called you names and/or criticized you	1	2	3	4	5
. Tried to keep you from doing something you wanted to do	1	2	3	4	5
(example: going out with friends, going to classes)					
. Gave you angry looks	1	2	3	4	5
Ended a discussion with you and made the decision for him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Threatened to hit or throw something at you	1	2	3	4	5
Pushed, grabbed, or shoved you	1	2	3	4	5
Put down your family or friends	1	2	3	4	5
Accused you of paying too much attention to someone or something	1	2	3	4	5
else					
Said things to scare you (examples: told you something "bad" would	1	2	3	4	5
happen, threatened to commit suicide)					
Slapped, hit, or punched you	1	2	3	4	5
Made you do something humiliating or degrading (example: making	1	2	3	4	5
you beg for forgiveness) 12. Checked up on you (examples:					
Listened to your phone calls, checked your e-mail)					
. Drove recklessly when you were in the car	1	2	3	4	5
. Pressured you to have sex in a way that you didn't like or want.	1	2	3	4	5
. Threatened you with a knife, gun, or other weapons	1	2	3	4	5
. Spanked you	1	2	3	4	5

. Told you that you were a bad person   1   2   3   4   5

. Stopped you or tried to stop you from going to work or school.   1   2   3   4   5

. Threw, hit, kicked, or smashed something   1   2   3   4   5

. Kicked you   1   2   3   4   5

. Physically forced you to have sex   1   2   3   4   5

. Threw you around   1   2   3   4   5

. Physically attacked the sexual parts of your body   1   2   3   4   5

. Choked or strangled you   1   2   3   4   5

. Used a knife, gun or other weapon against you   1   2   3   4   5

Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus; CTS2)

No matter how well a couple gets along, there are times when they disagree, get annoyed with the other person, want different things from each other, or just have spats or fights because they are in a bad mmod, are tired, or for some other reason. Couples also have many different ways of trying to settle their differences. This is a list of things that might happen when you have differences. Please circle how many times you did each of these things in the past year, and how many times your partner did them in the past year. If you or your partner did not do one of these things in the past year, but it happened before that, circle "7."

How often did this happen?
1 = Once in the past year
2 = Twice in the past year
3 = 3-5 times in the past year
4 = 6-10 times in the past year
5 = 11-20 times in the past year
6 = More than 20 times in the past year
7 = Not in the past year, but it did happen before
0 = This has never happened

I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
My partner showed care for me even though we disagreed.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
I explained my side of a disagreement to my partner.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
My partner explained his or her side of a disagreement to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
I insulted or swore at my partner.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
My partner did this to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
I threw something at my partner that could hurt.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
My partner did this to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
I twisted my partner's arm or hair.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
. My partner did this to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
. I had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my partner.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
. My partner had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
. I showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

. My partner showed respect for my feelings about an issue.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I made my partner have sex without a condom.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I pushed or shoved my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I used a knife or gun on my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I passed out from being hit on the head by my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner passed out from being hit on the head in a fight with me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I called my partner fat or ugly.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner called me fat or ugly.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I destroyed something belonging to my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I went to a doctor because of a fight with my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner went to a doctor because of a fight with me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I choked my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I shouted or yelled at my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I slammed my partner against a wall.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I said I was sure we could work out a problem.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. My partner was sure we could work it out.   1 2 3 4 5 6   7 0

. I needed to see a doctor because of a fight with my partner, but   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
  I didn't.

. My partner needed to see a doctor because of a fight with me,   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0
  but didn't.

. I beat up my partner.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

. My partner did this to me.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

Observational Tasks

This will take about 30 minutes. The goal of these discussions is to learn a little about how your family works. There is no right or wrong way to talk about these topics. Please remember the videotape and your conversation are kept confidential. Each discussion will be 5 minutes long; I will explain the topic and give you a reminder card. I will also be telling both of your role in the discussion. Please speak up as much as possible during the discussions so we can make sure we record everything that you talk about. Please talk to each other and not to the camera, try and ignore it as much as possible.
If you get done before the time is up, go ahead and talk about whatever you like. However, please try to use the full five minutes to talk about the task.
Do you have any questions?

Task #1: Monitoring
To adolescent: *It is common for teenagers to spend more and more time with friends when adults aren't around. Please talk about a time in the last month when you spent at least an hour with friends without an adult around. Go into as much detail as you'd like, starting from the beginning and going to the end, describing where you were, who you were with and what you were doing.*
To mother: *Please first listen to (adolescent) and then comment or gather any other information you may be interested in.*
Is that clear? Do you have any questions? Here is a card to follow along. You have 5 minutes for this discussion.

Task # 2: Limit Setting
To mother: *Now it is your turn to start while your daughter listens. Setting limits can be challenging. I'd like you to talk to your daughter about an event that occurred within the last month when you felt you needed to set a limit on her behavior. Describe what the situation was and what you did. If you did not set a limit, talk about what you might do in the future.*
To adolescent: *When your mom is finished, comment, get more information, or talk about ways to avoid this problem in the future.*
Is that clear? Do you have any questions?

Task #3: Vignette discussion
Jamie has always loved clothes and likes to wear different outfits to school, but recently Jamie's mom has noticed that all she is wearing is baggy sweatshirts. Jamie's mom

overheard Jamie telling a friend that her new boyfriend doesn't like her wearing certain outfits. Jamie's mom is concerned about this boyfriend and wants to talk to Jamie about him, but is nervous that Jamie will not listen or feel that she is prying.

Please discuss: What might Jamie's mom want to say to her? How can her mom bring up the subject? How might Jamie respond?

Is that clear? Do you have any questions? Here is a card with the vignette. You have 5 minutes for this discussion

.

Task # 4: Plan a fun family activity

For the last five minutes, I'd like you to plan a fun family activity. It doesn't have to cost any money just something you would enjoy doing together and are pretty sure you'll be able to do in the next week. Please take the whole time and try to plan in as much detail as possible.

Is that clear? Do you have any questions? Here is a card to follow along. You have 5 minutes for this discussion.

OBSERVATIONAL CODING WORKSHEET AND MANUAL

Video Dyad Coder Worksheet

*Family ID: CAB __ __

Coder initials: __ __   Date coded (today): ___ / ___ / _____   (M/D/Y)

Cal ☐ or Rel ☐ (To be checked by PI)

Very much				Somewhat				Not at all
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Answer all questions for both Mother (M) and Daughter (D)   **M   D**

Directiveness		
Discouraged or dismissed the suggestions of the other		
Was directing or giving commands		
Tended to focus on her own ideas and experiences rather than the other's (e.g., self-focusing, interrupting, dominating, or dwelling on personal issues).		

Support		
Was responsive to the other's questions, comments, and behavior (includes both verbal and nonverbal signs of attention and listening, as well as acknowledging and responding relevantly to comments.)		
Seemed interested and engaged in the other's ideas and experiences (e.g., discusses the other's ideas and experiences).		
Empathy or understanding of other		
Nonverbal expressions of engagement (e.g., body posture, eye contact, touching)		

Disagreement		
Disagreed with, discouraged, or dismissed the ideas of the other		

	M	D
How much conflict is present in the task (e.g., arguing, hostile tone, tension)?		
Interrupted		
Reactive (e.g., being defensive, angry, upset, or defiant)		

Very much				Somewhat				Not at all
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

	M	D
Withdrawl		
Participant did not discuss topic realistically and honestly (e.g., her behavior was uninformative or does not seem representative of how she thinks or feels.)		
Seemed to be reluctant to talk about the topic, or uninterested in topic.		
Participant seemed inattentive to the discussion and preoccupied (e.g., ate food or talked on cell phone during the task; focused on discussion not related to task).		
Nonverbal expression of disengagement		

Mutuality	
How behaviorally reciprocal is the dyad (e.g., eye contact, oriented posture)	
How verbally reciprocal is the dyad (e.g., turn taking, equal amounts of time talking)?	
Does the dyad demonstrate matched affect (e.g., laughing or showing excitement at the same time)?	
To what extent does the dyad share attitudes, beliefs, and values about the topics discussed?	

	M	D
Conversation Content - Dating		
Emphasized personality or interpersonal positive qualities of partners or potential partners.		
Discussed mostly negative aspects of past or current relationships.		
Suggested ways to constructively change or improve a relationship.		
Emphasized positive strategies for successful relationships (e.g., respect, commitment, acceptance).		

General Impressions		
Seemed inhibited during the task, because of videotaping.		
Seemed to have difficulty sitting still; fidgeted, stood up or otherwise		

moved around.		
Seemed to have an imaginary audience; participant seemed to be performing rather than having a discussion.		
Endorsed any form of physical or psychological abuse.		

Coding Manual

This training manual includes specific codes taken from the Coder Impressions (COIMP) document designed to capture general macro-ratings or global impressions of the Project Alliance Peer Interaction Task (Peterson & Piehler, 2007). The specific codes used for this Dissertation Study have been chosen to represent five themes: mutuality, directiveness, support, disagreement, and withdrawal. These themes have been used in the literature to capture the quality of parent-child communication about risky behavior (Wilson & Donenberg, 2004). In the past, coders' global impressions have often highly correlated with direct micro-coding of videotaped observations (Reid, 1978).

Procedures

The items in the study are rated on a nine-point scale, where 1 corresponds to "not at all" and 9 corresponds to "very much." If an item asks about a behavior that does not come up or is not apparent in the task, it should be scored as "not at all."

Assessing Inter-Observer Reliability

Reliability between observers is measured for 100% of the entire sample. This means that 100% of the total number of dyads will be coded twice. The first coder's data is the calibrator (cal), and is the "real" data used for the study. The second coder's data is the reliability (rel), and is only used for comparison.

Questions

All questions are to be answered for both mother and daughter except for the Mutuality section which will be answered about the dyad.

<u>Directiveness</u>

Discouraged or dismissed the suggestions of the other

The amount that the comments or suggestions by the other person were dismissed by the target individual (e.g., cutting off, saying they are wrong, ignoring and moving on…).

 (1-3) would be given when less than a third of the other's opinions or sharings where discouraged or dismissed

(4-6) when comments seemed to be dismissed or discouraged by the target individual about half the time

(6-9) is given when nearly everything or everything that the other said, the target individual discouraged or dismissed.

Was directing or giving commands

The frequency that the target individual directed the conversation (e.g., told the other person what to say or do, changed or turned the topic of conversation unnaturally, controlled how the conversation went, directed what the other person was to say or express).

(1-3) would be given when less than a third of the input the person gave seemed directive in nature

(4-6) when comments seemed directive about half the time.

(6-9) is given when nearly everything or everything that the target individual said seemed controlling or directing.

Tended to focus her own ideas and experiences rather than the other's (e.g., self-focusing, interrupting, dominating, or dwelling on personal issues).
Self-centeredness: The level of focus on one's personal experiences, affective state, and ideas. To what extent does the target member of the dyad inappropriately focus on his or her own experiences and ideas? For example, interrupting or intruding personal experiences and thoughts into the conversation, dominating the conversation, dwelling on personal issues, interrupting the natural "flow" of the conversation with personal information.

(1) No evidence of self-centeredness - focuses a normal amount on personal ideas and experiences; seems to be able to put his or her needs and interests aside while listening to the friend.

(5) Moderate amounts of self-centeredness- regularly redirects the conversational flow to focus on his or her personal ideas, attitudes, and experiences. Seems to dwell on personal issues.

(9) Completely self-centered throughout- discusses only his or her personal experiences and ideas in a dominating and inappropriate fashion throughout the entire interaction, seemingly ignoring his or her partner.

<div align="center">Support</div>

Was responsive to the other's questions, comments, and behavior (includes both verbal and nonverbal signs of attention and listening, as well as acknowledging and responding relevantly to comments.)
Responsiveness to other's questions, comments, and behaviors: The 'listening behavior' of the target individual in response to the other's comments. This includes both verbal

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(e.g., relevant or appropriate responses) and non-verbal (e.g., eye contact, head nodding) signs of attention and listening to the other. How responsive is the target individual to their family member? Do they ignore the comments or give irrelevant or unrelated responses? Do they respond to the other by acknowledging or answering relevantly? Does the target individual show non-verbal behavioral signs of listening to the other (e.g., eye contact and head nodding)?

(1) Rarely responds or attends to the other's comments, questions, and behaviors, even to those that directly invite a response and predominately responds with irrelevant comments. Does not demonstrate non-verbal listening behavior.

 (5) A moderate amount of responsiveness, responds with relevant responses or non-verbal listening behavior to about half of other's comments and questions, and behaviors, although some responses may be delayed.

 (9) Always responds immediately and relevantly to the other; expands on many comments made by the other; seems to carefully attend to what the other's statements and experiences are, considering the meaning of their statements. Regular non-verbal listening behavior.

Seemed interested and engaged in the other's ideas and experiences (e.g., discusses other's ideas and experiences).
Other-mindedness: The level of interest and engagement in the experiences (e.g., mental states, affective state, ideas and views on topics being discussed) of the dyadic partner. How much other-mindedness does the target member of the dyad exhibit? Does the target individual make specific references to the other's thoughts, feelings, opinions or experiences? Do the references show insight or refer to the other's mental states?

(1) No evidence of other-mindedness- does not make any specific references to the other's ideas and experiences.

 (5) Moderate amounts of other-mindedness – some regular contributions regarding the ideas and experiences of the other.

 (9) Completely other-minded throughout- makes very frequent and insightful references to the other's experiences and ideas throughout the interaction.

Empathy or understanding of other
Level of empathy is demonstrated by behaviors such as restating, summarizing, or indicating understanding of the other person via skills such as active listening and "feeling for the other."

 (1) The target individual conveyed no empathy.

(5) A moderate amount of empathy was displayed – e.g., some restating occurs but the interaction lacks a deeper emotional empathy.

 (9) Empathy was shown by the target individual the majority of the time including multiple instances of restating and summarizing as well as using active listening skills for the majority of the time.

Nonverbal expressions of engagement (e.g., body posture, eye contact, touching)

(1)   No nonverbal expressions of engagement were present – individual looks and seems disengaged the entire time.

(5) Nonverbal expressions of engagement were moderate – e.g. the person was turned towards the other but stared at the table the entire time.

(9) The target individual's body language indicated engagement through the entire task – displaying multiple nonverbal signs that they were paying attention and interested.

<div align="center">Disagreement</div>

Disagreed with, discouraged, or dismissed the ideas of the other
The amount that the comments or suggestions by the other person were disagreed with by the target individual (e.g., believing something different (content), or cutting off, saying they are wrong, ignoring and moving on…).

 (1) The target individual did not disagree or dismiss the other's opinions or sharings.

(5) The target individual disagreed or dismissed the other's comments about half the time.

(9) Everything that the other said, the target individual disagreed with or dismissed.

How much conflict is present in the task (e.g., arguing, hostile tone)?
Conflict: How much and what level of conflict is present? Minor or major disagreement, including shared negative affect, arguing, hostile tone, etc.

(1) No evidence of conflict during task

(5) Moderate amounts of conflict – evidence of conflict or disagreement occurs regularly

(9) Highly conflicted interaction for entire task with high levels of negative affect

Interrupted

How often did the target individual interrupt or cut the other person off while they were talking?

(1)   Never interrupted.

(5) Midrange of interruptions – vacillated between listening and cutting the other person off.

(9) Interrupted consistently throughout the entire video segment regardless of the content or specific situation

Reactive (e.g., being defensive, angry, upset, or defiant)
Was the individual highly reactive, accusatory, defensive, or un-duly hurt by things that the other person said?

(1)   Was not reactive: took in feedback and disagreements calmly and without becoming defensive.

(5) Stayed calm and present for about half the time, but also became angry or defensive occasionally about comments made by the other person.

(9) Reacted to every comment made by the other by either becoming angry, defensive, or otherwise escalated.

<div align="center">Withdrawal</div>

Participant did not discuss topic realistically and honestly (e.g., his or her behavior was uninformative or not representative of how they think or feel.)

(1) Seemed to be completely honest and realistic in discussing topic; participant approached topic in a serious way which seemed representative of their true feelings.

(5) Discussed topic somewhat realistically and honestly, with a moderate amount of information included.

(9) Discussion seemed completely unrealistic and dishonest; participant seemed to be telling stories rather than describing thoughts, feelings, and experiences.

Seemed to be reluctant to talk about the topic, or uninterested in topic.

(1)   Not at all reluctant to discuss topic and seemingly interested in topic throughout conversation.

(5) Somewhat reluctant to talk about topic and/or somewhat uninterested in topic.

(9) Completely avoids discussing topic, or expresses blatant disinterest in topic.

Participant seemed inattentive to the discussion and preoccupied (e.g., ate food or talked on cell phone during the task; focused on discussion not related to task).

(1)   Fully engaged in discussion related to task; not at all distracted by objects or other topics of conversation.

(5) Moderate amounts of inattention and preoccupation; somewhat distracted by objects and/or unrelated topics (maybe ran out of things to say and became distracted at the end).

(9) Completely inattentive to the discussion; talked on phone, ate, and/or focused on off-topic conversation throughout entire task.

Nonverbal expression of disengagement
Nonverbal expressions of disengagement includes slouching, turning away, rolling eyes, crossing arms, lack of eye contact, or fidgeting.

(1)   The target individual had no expressions of disengagement and seemed nonverbally focused on the other person.

(5) Moderate amounts of disengaged body language – e.g. was turned towards other and making eye contact, but rolled eyes when the other was talking.

(9) The individual looked disengaged the entire time, including multiple nonverbal signs of disengagement for the entire task.

Mutuality

How behaviorally reciprocal is the dyad (e.g., eye contact, oriented posture)?
Behavioral reciprocity. Do the two demonstrate eye contact? Do they orient their posture towards the other as the seating arrangement allows? Do they mimic the other's interpersonal, non-verbal actions and behavior?

(1) No evidence of reciprocity- dyad shows no behavioral awareness of each other.

(5) Moderate levels of reciprocity- multiple instances of eye contact and possible posture orientation towards partner.

(9) Highly integrated and reciprocal - constant posture orientation towards partner and nearly continuous eye contact.

How verbally reciprocal is the dyad (e.g., turn taking, equal amounts of time talking)?

Verbal Reciprocity. How present is a "turn taking" (i.e. conversation-like) quality and flow to the interaction? Is the conversation symmetrical? Are their frequent long pauses or gaps? Do they engage the other with questions and comments intended to produce a response?

(1) No evidence of reciprocity- conversation has little to no regular turn taking with many long gaps in conversation, and no questions inviting a response.

(5) Moderate levels of reciprocity- "conversation-like" interaction for around half of the task, with some regular gaps and pauses. Multiple comments from each person inviting a response.

(9) Highly integrated and reciprocal – "Conversation-like" flow for entirety of interaction, with no pauses or gaps in the conversation. Questions and comments intending to produce a response by each partner at very regular intervals.

Does the dyad demonstrate matched positive or neutral affect (e.g., both participants laughing, showing excitement, or expressing no emotion at the same time)?
Affective reciprocity. Do the two demonstrate matched positive or neutral affect? Do they both laugh or show excitement or happiness at the same time in the interaction? Do they demonstrate neutral affect at the same time? Are there delays in responding to the other's affect?

(1) No evidence of reciprocity- dyad shows virtually no matched positive or neutral affect throughout the interaction.

(5) Moderate levels of reciprocity- dyad shows a few/several instances of unmatched positive or neutral affect.

(9) Highly integrated and reciprocal – dyad shows matched positive and neutral affect throughout the interaction with no delays.

To what extent does the dyad share attitudes, beliefs, and values about the topics discussed?

(1) Low mutuality in attitudes, beliefs, and/or values regarding the topic. Mom and daughter show disagreement or confusion at the others' expressed beliefs throughout the entire task.

(5) Moderate amounts of shared understanding. Either beliefs and attitudes seemed to be superficially agreed upon throughout or dyad agreed about half of the time.

(9) High level of shared beliefs and values. Both members of the dyad honestly and seriously spoke about the topic drawing on similar beliefs and values. Content seemed shared and agreed on throughout the task.

<u>Conversation Content – Dating</u>

Emphasized personality or interpersonal positive qualities of partners or potential partners.

(1) No discussion of personality or interpersonal positive qualities of participant's partners or potential partners occurred during the task.

(5) Some emphasis of personality or interpersonal positive qualities occurred during the task; may be somewhat vague.

(9) Much emphasis of personality or interpersonal positive qualities occurred during the task; discussion was specific and detailed.

Discussed mostly negative aspects of past or current relationships.

(1) Negative aspects of past or current relationships were never mentioned during the task.

(5) Some discussion of negative aspects of past or current relationships occurred during the task; may be somewhat vague.

(9) Negative aspects of past or current relationships were emphasized; almost all discussion of past or current relationships focused on negative aspects.

Suggested ways to constructively change or improve a relationship.

(1) No methods for constructively changing or improving a relationship are mentioned.

(5) Some ways to improve a relationship are suggested; may be somewhat vague.

(9) Multiple methods were indicated for improving a relationship; suggestions are thoughtful and specific.

Emphasized positive strategies for successful relationships (e.g., respect, commitment, acceptance).

(1) No positive strategies are mentioned for fostering successful relationships.

(5) Some positive strategies are suggested for fostering successful relationships; may be somewhat vague.

(9) Multiple strategies were emphasized for successful relationships; suggestions are thoughtful and specific.

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