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Perceptions of General and Situational Influence in Predicting Negative Conflict Behavior: The Moderating Role of Attachment Style

Amy Newberg
University of Massachusetts Amherst

PERCEPTIONS OF GENERAL AND SITUATIONAL INFLUENCE IN PREDICTING NEGATIVE CONFLICT BEHAVIOR: THE MODERATING ROLE OF ATTACHMENT STYLE

A Thesis Presented

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AMY L. NEWBERG

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Approved as to style and content by:

_____

Paula Pietromonaco, Chair

_____

Brian Lickel, Member

_____

Lisa Harvey, Member

_____

Caren Rotello, Department Head

Department of Psychological and

Brain Sciences

ABSTRACT

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AMY L. NEWBERG, B.S., FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

M.S., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Directed by: Professor Paula R. Pietromonaco

Because of the numerous ways to operationalize power, much of the literature about power in relationships has not been cohesive. However, to understand when and how perceptions of power are associated with behaviors in relationships, multiple conceptualizations of power must be considered along with personal characteristics. The present study tested how perceptions of general power and situational power interact to predict negative behaviors during relationship conflict for people of various attachment orientations. Additionally, we tested if effects remained stable or changed over the early years of marriage. We found that low general and low situational influence did interact to predict less hostility than different combinations of influence, which did not support my hypothesis. Largely, we did not find systematic support that attachment style was a relevant moderator in considering influence and negative conflict behavior, with one interaction between general influence, situational influence, gender, and avoidance as an exception. Finally, we found that the proposed effects did not differ over time.

Keywords: relationship power, influence, conflict, adult attachment

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

To have social influence, individuals must be able to change others' thoughts or behavior and resist influence from others. Having influence is particularly important in romantic relationships: partners have joint goals, interact frequently, and are interdependent. Thus, it is very important for partners to negotiate, compromise, and make joint decisions (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). Research on power and influence within romantic relationships suggests that partners often negotiate and influence each other to elicit desired changes or outcomes (Simpson, Farrell, Oriña, & Rothman, 2015). Unlike other types of relationships where there are clear power dynamics, such as in the workplace, power structures within romantic relationships are often unclear and vary based on the individuals or particular contexts.

Many couples report some inequality (Bentley, Galliher, & Ferguson, 2007), and inequality in relationships has been associated with less marital satisfaction (Aida & Falbo, 1991; Gray-Little & Burke, 1983), violence and abuse within relationships (Grose & Grabe, 2014; Bentley, Galliher, & Ferguson, 2007), and symptoms of depression (Mirowsky, 1985; Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 1999). Understanding power dynamics in relationships is central in understanding relationship functioning generally, such as conflict resolution, communication, and sexual health behavior. For example, when people had low power compared to their partner, their partner's intentions to use condoms were more predictive than their own intentions and the couple's joint intentions (VanderDrift, Agnew, Harvey, & Warren, 2013). Level of power in relationships has also been shown to affect methods of communication during conflict or

negotiations (Falbo & Peplau, 1980). One particularly interesting example is a set of studies that explored how having low power, in relationships generally and in relationship situations, can lead people to act aggressively, such as communicating using hostility, being hurtful to a partner, and being unsupportive (Overall, Hammond, McNulty, & Finkel, 2016). In this research, Overall and colleagues found that men with low relationship power and low power in the situation (i.e., during an in-lab negotiation) demonstrated significantly more aggressive behavior, such as aggressive communication during the in-lab discussion and self-reported daily aggressive behaviors toward the partner, than men who did not experience both low relationship power and low situational power (Overall, Hammond, McNulty, & Finkel, 2016). As demonstrated in this research, power, specifically multiple types of power considered concurrently, has important effects on relationships.

Much of the past research centered on interpersonal power has defined it as the ability to influence or affect others' thoughts and behavior, as well as resist influence attempts from others (Simpson et al., 2015). However, as illustrated in Overall et al.'s work, power is not a singular construct and can be defined in many different ways. Past research has used many different indices to determine power: access to resources, decision-making capabilities across various domains, and social and cultural norms are some examples (Simpson et al., 2015). Many of these ways to measure influence operate differently and independently from each other. For example, a person may have the ability to make decisions in her relationship across many specific domains but have less influence than her male partner culturally. Furthermore, perceptions of relationship influence in general may not coincide with influence in any particular situation. Past

research shows that global and specific perceptions can operate separately (Davis, Morris, & Kraus, 1998; Overall et al., 2016) and feeling influential generally in a relationship may lead to different behaviors than feeling influential in a particular situation, such as while discussing conflict. This effect was demonstrated in Overall et al.'s work showing that only when men felt low in both general influence and situational influence was there an increase in aggressive behavior (Overall et al., 2016). Work such as this emphasizes the importance of assessing global perceptions of influence in addition to situational influence to predict behavior.

1.1 Effects of Different Types of Power and Conflict Behavior

Overall et al. (2016) indicated the importance of considering both general and situational relationship power in predicting conflict behavior. Across five studies, they demonstrated that men who perceived themselves as having low power generally in their relationships and also had low situational power behaved more aggressively, including observer-rated aggressive discussion, self-reported daily aggression, self-reported aggressive feelings, and daily descriptions of aggressive behavior toward a partner (Overall et al., 2016). Work such as Overall et al. (2016) demonstrates how possessing low general power and low situational power, in even seemingly benign laboratory discussions, can have implications for severe behaviors in relationships, such as psychological aggression or intimate partner violence. While Overall et al.'s research explores how low relationship power or low situational power may be moderated by gender in predicting aggressive behavior, there are many other individual differences that may affect these associations. Additionally, Overall and colleagues do not test how feelings of both general and situational influence may cause behaviors to become more

intense over time. (Although the authors tested these hypotheses over the course of a three-week period in some studies, they do not inform us about how feelings of low general power or low situational power may affect conflict in marriage over the longer-term.) Other work must continue to explore bases for low general and low situational power, such as individual or contextual differences, as well as explore how the differences in these types of power might interact to inform us about relationship behaviors over a longer period of time.

The current work provides a conceptual replication of Overall et al. (2016) by examining the joint effects of general relationship power and situational power. Furthermore, it extends this prior work by examining (1) whether attachment orientations moderate the effects, and (2) whether the observed patterns remain stable or shift over the early years of marriage.

1.2 Attachment Orientations and Power

How people perceive their level of influence may be shaped by other individual difference factors. Attachment style is a key individual difference that likely affects how people behave when considering both perceptions of general influence as well as ability to influence in specific discussions with a partner. It functions as a lens through which people understand and interpret relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), and so people with different attachment orientations perceive relationships and behave in relationships differently. Anxiously attached individuals desire an excessive amount of responsiveness and they fear rejection or abandonment from their partners. Due to this preoccupation with rejection, they tend to experience hyperactivation in response to threats indicating relationship dissolution or abandonment. Conversely, people who are high in avoidance

desire self-reliance and are uncomfortable with closeness. Because avoidant individuals strive to maintain individuality and autonomy in relationships, they tend to be less active in relationship conflicts and disengage in response to relationship threat, but are concerned about threats to independence and self-reliance (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Securely attached individuals, who are low in both anxiety and avoidance, are comfortable with intimacy and relying on their partner when needed, and are also comfortable with independence or brief separation from a partner.

As a large body of research has indicated, attachment style shapes people's views and expectations of relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Pietromonaco & Beck, 2015). Insecurely attached individuals were more likely to perceive low-support messages, ostensibly from their partners, more negatively and performed significantly worse on a task after receiving the message, compared to secure individuals who received the same message (Collins & Feeney, 2004). Anxiously attached people perceive themselves as having more conflicts with partners and perceive those conflicts as more severe (Campbell, Simpson, Boldry, & Kashy, 2005), while avoidant individuals perceive their partners as experiencing more intense negative emotions during conflict than their partners reported experiencing (Overall, Fletcher, Simpson, & Fillo, 2015). Findings such as these indicate that attachment influences perceptions of various components of relationships.

Surprisingly, to our knowledge, no studies have investigated the impact of attachment style on individuals' perceptions of influence in relationships generally as well as perceptions of situational influence. It is likely that people with insecure attachment orientations, particularly anxiously attached individuals, may respond

differently than securely attached individuals when they possess low general and low situational power.

1.3 Attachment and Perceptions of Relationship Influence

Attachment style may shape how perceptions of influence (both general and situational) interact to predict conflict behavior. For anxiously attached individuals, having control over partners may allow them to minimize relationship threats. Anxious individuals are overly concerned with intimacy and closeness in relationships, as well as are hypervigilant to relationship threat. For example, research has suggested that anxiously attached individuals pay more attention to an attachment figure's name, whether the context is threatening or pleasant (Dewitte, De Houwer, Koster, & Buysse, 2007). Anxious people may generally monitor their partners more and pay more attention to them, therefore may be more interested in feeling influential to romantic partners than those with other attachment orientations. Research also shows that when anxious individuals are hurt by partners, they engage in more behaviors that elicit partners' guilt (Overall, Girme, Lemay, & Hammond, 2014), which is an additional finding that illustrates anxiously attached individuals' preoccupation with controlling or influencing partners' thoughts or emotions.

As past work has shown, perceptions of general power and situational power in relationships interact in predicting men's aggressive behavior during conflict (Overall et al., 2016). Overall and colleagues show in their research that the tendency for men with low general and low situational power to behave aggressively during conflict is related to threats to masculinity. Other researchers have found that both chronically low-power men and women report more willingness to use power to harass subordinates and even coerce

sex when they are placed in acute high-power positions (Williams, Gruenfeld, & Guillory, 2016). In these studies by Williams and colleagues, the effect was mediated by desire from chronic low-power individuals to be more powerful, so that chronically low power people in high power positions were more willing to endorse harassment because they were motived to seek more power (Williams et al., 2016). People's motives to seek more power or mitigate threat (such as threats to masculinity) when they are low in power seem to operate generally, but threats such as these may be especially concerning to anxious individuals. Having low power in a relationship is likely to be threatening, and anxious individuals would find this threat more concerning than secure or avoidant individuals. Following from Overall and colleagues' work, they then should attempt to take control by behaving in a more negative way than those of other attachment styles.

Because of their goals of autonomy and distance from romantic partners, avoidant individuals are unlikely to place importance on the ability to influence partners' decisions or beliefs. Thus, it is possible that they may not perceive being low power as especially threatening and would react similarly to secure individuals in conflict. As a result, avoidance may not moderate the interaction between general influence and situational influence in predicting aggressive behavior. However, when avoidants have both low general and low situational power, it is also possible that they might feel as if their independence is threatened and behave more negatively to attempt to secure more influence. Because there is not a strong theoretical background driving one particular prediction, we will test the moderating role of attachment avoidance as an exploratory analysis.

1.4 Stability or Change in Relationship Influence Over Time

Studying couples in the "newlywed stage" can be a particularly suitable period to assess change in relationships: it ensures that all participants are in the same phase of their relationships, and most newlyweds report generally high quality relationships and high relationship satisfaction. For example, Karney and Bradbury (2007) found that newlywed couples reported high satisfaction at Time 1 (using multiple measures of marital satisfaction), but relationship satisfaction tended to decline over time (Karney & Bradbury, 2007).

Perceptions of influence are likely to become more integral to relationship satisfaction over the course of a relationship. As past research has suggested, low general power can frustrate people and has been shown to interact with low situational power in association with aggressive behavior in relationships (Overall et al., 2016) but can also interact with high situational power in endorsement of less prosocial behavior, such as harassment, through feelings of frustration with their chronic low power (Williams et al., 2016). It is quite possible that low general power over time may lead to increased severity of adverse behaviors (i.e. hostility and distress maintaining attributions) because of similar feelings of frustration studied in past work. Thus, it is possible that the predicted patterns will become stronger over time. The current work will test whether the interaction between general and situational power is associated with more negative behavior in a stable, consistent manner over time, or whether it becomes stronger over the first three to four years of marriage.

1.5 The Present Study

The goals of the present study were to extend the prior literature in three ways. First, the study sought to provide a conceptual replication of Overall et al. (2016) by

examining the joint effects of general relationship power and situational power in relation to negative behavior during conflict. Second, it extended prior work by examining whether attachment orientations moderated the interactive effects. Third, it examined the extent to which the observed patterns remained stable or shifted over the early years of marriage. Because previous research has largely focused on studying power in relationships by assessing perceptions of power in general, this work expands the literature by testing how different conceptualizations of relationship influence work together to predict behavior in conflict between partners. It also added attachment, a construct from one of the most expansive theories in relationship science, into the discussion of power dynamics in relationships, which had not been done previously to our knowledge. Because attachment style shapes thoughts, behaviors, and attitudes about relationships, it can be informative in understanding how influence in relationships may relate to destructive communication. This study also investigated how these negative behaviors may change or become more common as couples extend past the "newlywed phase" of their marriage, which provides a more comprehensive understanding of how influence is perceived and operates in relationships.

As the literature suggests, there are a number of questions about the function of attachment style when evaluating different conceptualizations of power and behavior that may relate to feelings of power. The present work explored these potential associations and addressed three research questions:

Research Question 1a. Do general relationship power and situational power interact to predict negative conflict behavior (hostility and distress maintaining attributions)? Addressing this question will provide a conceptual replication of Overall et

al. (2016). Similar to results found in Overall et al., 2016, we hypothesized that perceptions of low general power and low situational power would interact to predict more negative behavior (hostility and distress maintaining attributions) in conflict.

Research Question 1b: Does gender moderate any of the effects? As noted earlier, Overall et al. (2016) found that men with low general and low situational power behaved more aggressively; however, this pattern was not found for women. Following from this prior work, we examined whether gender moderates any of the predicted effects.

Research Question 2. Does attachment style moderate the interaction between general relationship power and situational power to predict negative conflict behavior? It was thought that attachment anxiety would be likely to moderate the effects of general and situational influence as predictors of negative behaviors in conflict. Because anxious individuals are likely to consider being influential to be very important in relationships, when anxious people are low in both general and situational power, we hypothesized that they would react even more negatively than secure or avoidant individuals. It was unclear, however, whether attachment avoidance would moderate these associations. Thus, we explored the role of avoidance as a moderator. One possibility was that avoidant individuals would show patterns similar to those of secure individuals, if low power was not particularly threatening to them. Another possibility was that the lack of power would also be threatening for avoidant individuals, and therefore their responses would parallel those of anxiously attached individuals.

Research Question 3. Do the observed patterns remain stable or shift over the early years of marriage? Much of the research about negative behaviors related to low

power found that frustration or threat operated as a mediator (Overall et al., 2016; Williams et al., 2016). Feelings of frustration or threat were thought to build over time if these perceptions of low power are chronic or long lasting. I hypothesized that over the early years of marriage, the predicted pattern of anxiety as a moderator of the interaction between general and situational power would be associated with more negative behavior over time.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Participants

Participants were 229 couples (458 individuals) recruited from Western Massachusetts to participate in a larger longitudinal study assessing growth in the early years of marriage. To be eligible for the study, participants had to be between the ages of 18 to 50 years old, married for no more than 7 months, were both in their first marriage, and did not have any children at the time of the first laboratory visit. Time 2 occurred, on average, 19 months after the couple's first laboratory visit, and Time 3 occurred, on average, 37 months after the couple's first visit. Each individual was paid $50 for participating at Time 1, $70 for participating at Time 2, $80 for participating at Time 3, and $25 for completing all three time points.

There were 229 couples that came to the first laboratory session at Time 1. Three couples were dismissed from the study at Time 1 because at least one partner could not produce saliva and one couple opted to discontinue participation. At Time 2, 41 couples discontinued their in-person participation: eight couples were divorced, thirteen couples were too busy to come to the lab at Time 2 and did not return the online surveys that were sent to them, and twenty couples completed survey measures that were sent to them but did not participate in person. At Time 3, 61 couples that participated at Time 1 did not participate at Time 3: 33 couples refused participation, five couples had divorced, and 23 couples completed survey measures that were sent to them but did not participate in person. 164 couples attended the session at Wave 3 (72.8% of the sample at Time 1). Table 1 shows the attrition throughout the three time waves of the study.

At Time 1, husbands' average age was 29.06 years (SD = 5.23) and wives' average age was 27.66 years (SD = 4.77). The majority of participants had a Bachelor's degree or higher (62.4% of husbands and 78.2% of wives), and most identified as white (95.6% of husbands and 92% of wives).

2.2 Procedure

Couples participated in three laboratory sessions. Each session was held roughly 19 months apart, and the procedure for each laboratory session was almost identical. At the beginning of the study, an experimenter gave general information about the procedure to participants. Participants responded to survey items, including attachment, general influence, relationship satisfaction, and other measures not analyzed in the current study. While completing questionnaires, partners were separated by a partition, and they were asked not to talk with each other while completing the survey measures. Participants then participated in a 15-minute discussion in which they discussed an unresolved problem in their marriage. After the discussion, spouses rated their perceptions of influence, control, and power during the discussion. At the end of the session, couples also had a positive discussion to ensure that they left the lab after a positive experience with their spouse. (The participants also provided saliva samples throughout the session, but these data were not relevant for this project.) At the end of each session, participants were thanked for their participation and compensated.

2.3 Materials and Measures

2.3.1 Attachment Style. To assess attachment style, participants completed the Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). The items were phrased to assess attachment toward the spouse. This measure includes items

that assess avoidance and anxiety on a 7-point Likert scale (1 being “Disagree Strongly” and 7 being “Agree Strongly”). For example, a statement assessing the anxiety dimension reads “I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner”, and a statement assessing avoidance reads “I try to avoid getting too close to my partner.” Attachment style was measured at each time point, but the ECR at Time 1 only is used in the current study to assess attachment.

2.3.2 RMICS behavior codes. The conflict discussions were coded by trained observers using the Rapid Marital Interaction Coding System (Heyman, 2004). In the Rapid Marital Interaction Coding Scheme, hostility and distress maintaining attributions are categorized as negative behaviors (Heyman, 2004). Behaviors such as greater hostility and distress maintaining attributions in particular have been shown in the literature to identify distressed compared to non-distressed couples (Heyman, Feldbau–Kohn, Ehrensaft, Langhinrichsen–Rohling, & O'Leary, 2001). The proportion of negative codes (the frequency of each negative behavior divided by the total number of behaviors) from the RMICS was be used as an outcome in investigating whether attachment moderates the interaction of perceptions of general influence and situational influence in predicting behavior during relationship conflict and examining whether that moderated interaction changed (i.e. exacerbated the use of less constructive behavior) over time.

2.3.3 Perceived General Influence. Participants responded to 1 item assessing which partner (the participant or the partner) is more influential in general in the relationship (“In general, in your relationship, who do you feel has more influence?”). This was assessed at each time point and determines perceptions of general influence. This was a relative measure of power, in which participants report their perceptions of

their own power in comparison to their partners. Perceptions of general influence at each time point (in tandem with specific influence at each time point) were used to predict behavior at each time point (Research Questions 2 and 3).

2.3.4 Perceived Influence Post-Discussion. Three items assessing perceptions about how influential, powerful, and in control each person was during the discussion will be averaged and used as a measure of perceived situational influence. This was assessed at each time point and was a relative measure of power, in which participants reported their perceptions of their own power in comparison to their partners. Perceptions of specific influence at each time point (in tandem with general influence at each time point) were used to predict behavior at each time point (Research Questions 2 and 3).

2.3.5 Gender. Because similar work had found gender as a relevant moderator (Overall et al., 2016), it was important to consider gender as a moderator of the predicted effects.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 Analytic strategy

Multilevel modeling for repeated measures within dyads was used to analyze the data (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006). Analyses were performed using the MIXED feature in SPSS 21. The data were structured in a person-period format such that there was one case for each couple member for Wave 1 analyses, and three cases for each couple member for analyses including all three waves.

We calculated proportions for the two dependent variables (DVs) by dividing the number of instances the behavior occurred (hostility or distress maintaining attributions) by the total number of behaviors coded. These variables were positively skewed, but neither a square root transformation nor a log transformation assisted in normally distributing the variables. Thus, all analyses were performed with untransformed variables. All independent variables were grand mean-centered prior to analyses.

3.2 General Power and Situational Power in Predicting Negative Conflict Behavior

To assess whether perceptions of general relationship power and situational power interact to predict hostility, we regressed the proportion of hostility on gender, general influence, situational influence, and the interaction between the two types of influence at Time 1 (Table 8). Gender was a significant predictor of hostility. Wives were significantly more hostile than husbands during the conflict discussion (B = -0.013, SE = .004, p = .001). There was a significant interaction between general influence and situational influence (B = -0.006, SE = .003, p = .029), so that those with low general influence and low situational influence were less hostile during conflict than all other

perceptions of influence combinations (Figure 1). When general influence was low (i.e., 1 SD below the mean), less situational influence was significantly associated with less hostility (B = .013, SE = .004, p = .001), but when general influence was high (i.e., 1 SD above the mean), the effect of situational influence was not associated with hostility in the conflict discussion (B = .002, SE = .004, p = .660). This finding revealed a pattern opposite to our prediction that those with low general and low situational power would show more hostility in relationship conflict. We tested this model again with attachment anxiety and avoidance as controls and the pattern of results did not change.

To assess whether perceptions of general relationship power and situational power interact to predict distress maintaining attributions, we regressed the proportion of distress maintaining attributions on gender, general influence, situational influence, and the interaction between the two types of influence at Time 1 (Table 9). Gender also significantly predicted distress maintaining attributions, so that wives made significantly more distress maintaining attributions in conflict (B = -0.009, SE = .003, p = .002). We also found a significant main effect of situational influence (B = .006, SE = .002, p = .005). People who reported higher situational influence made more distress maintaining attributions while discussing conflict with a spouse. There was, however, no significant interaction between general and situational influence. These findings did not support our prediction that perceptions of low general power and low situational power would interact to predict more distress maintaining attributions.

We also tested this model again with attachment anxiety and avoidance as control variables and the results did not change. There was, however, a significant effect of attachment anxiety, so that people reporting higher attachment anxiety made more

distress maintaining attributions (B = .005, SE = .002, p = .018).

3.3 Gender, General Power, and Situational Power in Predicting Negative Conflict Behavior

To assess whether gender moderated the interaction of general relationship power and situational power to predict hostility, we regressed the proportion of hostile behaviors on gender, general influence, situational influence, a three-way interaction of general influence, situational influence, and gender, and all lower order interactions at Time 1 (Table 10). We found, again, a main effect of gender on hostility (B = -0.014, SE = .004, p = .001). Wives were significantly more hostile than husbands. The interaction between general and situational influence found to predict hostility in the previous model was marginal when the interactions including gender were added, but followed the same pattern that participants reporting low general and low situational influence were less hostile than participants with other levels of influence (B = -.007, SE = .004, p = .069). There were no other significant effects, so our hypothesis that men with low general and low situational power would be more hostile than women with low general and low situational power was not supported.

We ran the same analysis described above using distress maintaining attributions as the dependent variable (Table 11). There was a significant interaction between general influence and gender (B = -0.010, SE = .004, p = .007) (Figure 2). Men who reported high general influence made more distress maintaining attributions than men with lower general influence (B = .005, SE = .003, p = .058). Women who reported higher general influence also made more distress maintaining attributions than women who reported lower general influence (B = -.005, SE = .002, p = .025), but they also made significantly

more distress maintaining attributions than men with higher general influence (B =-.018, SE = .005, p < .001).

3.4 Attachment Style and Types of Relationship Power Predicting Conflict Behavior

To assess whether attachment style moderated the interaction of general relationship power and situational power in predicting hostility, we regressed proportion of hostile behaviors on gender, general influence, situational influence, the 5-way interaction of general influence, situational influence, avoidance, anxiety, and gender, and all lower order interactions at Time 1 (Table 12). Again, gender significantly predicted hostility, so that wives were significantly more hostile in the conflict discussions than husbands (B = -0.012, SE = .004, p = .02). There were no other significant effects.

To assess whether attachment style moderated the interaction of general relationship power and situational power in predicting distress maintaining attributions, we regressed proportion of distress maintaining attributions on gender, general influence, situational influence, the 5-way interaction of general influence, situational influence, avoidance, anxiety, and gender, and all lower order interactions at Time 1 (Table 13). Gender marginally predicted distress maintaining attributions, so that wives made more distress maintaining attributions (B = -0.006, SE = .003, p = .068), and anxiety marginally predicted distress maintaining attributions, so that more anxious individuals made more distress maintaining attributions (B = 0.012, SE = .006, p = .053).

There was a significant 4-way interaction between general influence, situational influence, gender, and avoidance (B = -0.020, SE = .009, p = .030). The pattern is depicted in Figure 3. There was a significant interaction of gender and general influence

for participants higher in avoidance (1 SD above the mean) and situational influence (1 SD above the mean) (B= -.021, SE = .007, p = .002). When participants higher in avoidance reported low general influence and high situational influence, men and women did not differ in their distress maintaining attributions (B = .022, SE = .013, p = .102). When participants higher in avoidance reported high general influence and high situational influence, however, women made more distress maintaining attributions than men, B = -.018, SE = .010, p = .051.

For participants who were higher in avoidance but reported lower situational influence, there was no significant association with gender and general influence in predicting distress maintaining attributions (B = -.012, SE = .007, p = .116).

For participants who were lower in avoidance but reported higher situational influence, there was no significant association with gender and general influence in predicting distress maintaining attributions (B = .005, SE = .009, p = .579).

For participants who were lower in avoidance and situational influence, there was a marginally significant association with gender and general influence in predicting distress maintaining attributions (B = -.016, SE = .010, p = .084). When participants lower in avoidance reported low general and low situational influence, there was no significant difference between men and women's distress maintaining attributions (B = .002, SE = .010, p = .817). When participants lower in avoidance reported high general and low situational influence, women made more distress maintaining attributions than men (B = -.029, SE = .015, p = .052).

These findings did not support the prediction that attachment anxiety would interact with perceptions of power (general and situational) and gender; in particular, we

had hypothesized that anxious individuals, in particular anxious men, would react most negatively in conflict when they had low general and low specific influence. Although analyses for attachment avoidance were exploratory, avoidance did interact with perceptions of power (general and situational) and gender. These findings indicated that women, not men, made the most distress maintaining attributions under two conditions: (1) when they had both high general and high situational influence and were higher in avoidance, and (2) when they had high general and low situational influence and were lower in avoidance.

3.5 Stability or Change in Conflict Behavior Over Time

We tested the interaction of general and situational influence to predict hostility and distress maintaining attributions at Time 2 independently and Time 3 independently. These analyses mirrored those for Time 1: we regressed the proportion of hostility on gender, general influence, situational influence, and the interaction between the two types of influence to assess whether perceptions of general relationship power and situational power interact to predict hostility, and then to predict distress maintaining attributions.

At Time 2, when predicting hostility, there was a main effect of situational influence, so that participants who reported more situational influence were more hostile than participants who reported less situational influence ($B = .014$, $SE = .004$, $p = .001$). There was no significant interaction between general and situational influence in predicting hostility at Time 2.

At Time 2, when predicting distress maintaining attributions, there was a main effect of gender, so that wives were significantly more hostile than husbands ($B = -0.007$, $SE = .003$, $p = .016$) and a main effect of situational influence, so that participants who

reported more situational influence made more distress maintaining attributions than participants who reported less situational influence (B = .005, SE = .002, p < .010).

At Time 3, there was a main effect of gender on hostility, so that wives were significantly more hostile than husbands (B = -0.019, SE = .008, p = .013) and a main effect of situational influence, so that participants who reported more situational influence were more hostile than participants who reported less situational influence (B = .028, SE = .006, p < .001). There was no significant interaction between general and situational influence in predicting hostility.

At Time 3, there was a main effect of situational influence, so that participants who reported more situational influence made more distress maintaining attributions than participants who reported less situational influence (B = .007, SE = .002, p = .001). There was no significant interaction between general and situational influence in predicting distress maintaining attributions at Time 3.

Finally, to test the extent to which hostility remained stable or changed over the early years of marriage, we regressed proportion of hostility on gender, general influence, situational influence, time, the 3-way interaction of general power, situational power, and time, and all lower order interactions (Table 14). We found a main effect of gender, so that wives were significantly more hostile (B = -0.013, SE = .004, p = .001). Time significantly predicted hostility, so that participants were more hostile over time (B = 0.001, SE = .0001, p < .001). Lastly, situational influence marginally predicted hostility, so that participants who reported more situational influence were marginally more hostile (B = .007, SE = .004, p = .058).

There was a significant interaction between situational influence and time in

predicting hostility (B = .004, SE = .0001, p = .009). This interaction is depicted in Figure 4. Over all three time points, individuals reporting more situational influence were more hostile than those reporting less situational influence (B_{T1} = .008, SE = .003, p =.018; B_{T2} = .014, SE = .004, p = .001, B_{T3} = .028, SE = .006, p < .001). Although individuals with either high or low situational influence were more hostile over time, those with high situational influence showed a more pronounced increase in hostility across all time points (B = .001, SE = .0002, p < .001) than did those with lower situational influence (B = .0004, SE = .0002, p = .032) (Figure 4). This finding was not expected, as we were predicting an increase in hostile behavior over time for those both low in general and situational influence, and general influence did not predict hostility in these findings.

To test the extent to which distress maintaining attributions remained stable or changed over the early years of marriage, we regressed proportion of distress maintaining attributions on gender, general influence, situational influence, time, the 3-way interaction of general power, situational power, and time, and all lower order interactions (Table 15). We found main effects of gender and situational influence and a marginal effect of time. Wives made significantly more distress maintaining attributions than husbands (B = -0.007, SE = .002, p < .000) and participants who reported more situational influence made more distress maintaining attributions than those who had less situational influence (B = .005, SE = .002, p = .003). Time also marginally predicted distress maintaining attributions, so that participants made fewer distress maintaining attributions over time (B = -0.001, SE = .0001, p = .079). We found no other significant or marginal effects. These findings did not support our hypothesis that negative conflict

behavior would increase over time for those with low general and low situational power.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL DISCUSSION

4.1 Operationalizations of Power and Negative Behavior During Conflict

The first goal of this research was to conceptually replicate previous findings suggesting that men with low general and low situational power behave more aggressively than men who perceive their relationship power differently (i.e., lower in general power but high in situational power, or higher in general power with any value of situational power). We did not replicate this result. Instead, we found that participants with low general and low situational power were less likely to be hostile than participants with other levels of influence. This effect did not differ by participant gender, which did not support our predictions.

These findings do suggest that perceptions of general and situational influence are important to consider together when investigating negative conflict behavior in relationships. Individuals who were low in both general and situational influence showed less hostility than individuals who reported higher levels of any type of power. It is possible that when participants perceive themselves as low in both general and situational influence, they feel that they are at the whim of their more influential partners and should behave in non-confrontational ways to achieve the best outcome for themselves. However, when participants feel as if they have some leverage (generally influential in their relationship, or influential in the particular discussion), they have license to be more hostile to their partners. This explanation is speculative, and further research should test mediators of this interaction to understand why participants with both low general and

low situational influence demonstrate less hostility than other participants with differing influence.

4.2 The Role of Attachment In Predicting Conflict Behavior

Another goal of this study was to extend these findings by testing the association of attachment (interacting with general and specific influence) and negative conflict behavior. We found a 4-way interaction between general influence, situational influence, gender, and avoidance. Women higher in avoidance who perceived themselves as higher in general and situational influence made a higher proportion of distress maintaining attributions than men with similar perceptions of influence or other participants who were higher in avoidance, higher in situational influence, and perceptions of either lower or higher general influence. Additionally, when participants lower in avoidance reported low general and low situational influence, there was no significant difference between men and women's distress maintaining attributions, but when participants lower in avoidance reported higher general and lower situational influence, women made more distress maintaining attributions than men. There were no significant effects of testing low avoidance and high situational influence or higher avoidance and lower situational influence.

While this finding suggests that attachment avoidance may be related to perceptions of influence and negative behavior during conflict, we did not find other effects of attachment. For example, we hypothesized that effects of general and situational influence would be stronger for participants high in anxiety in particular. We did not find support for this prediction.

Generally, the pattern that high general influence and high situational influence are associated with more distress maintaining attributions coincides with our other findings that participants with low general and low situational influence demonstrated less hostility than participants with differing perceptions of their influence. However, we find that high general and situational influence is associated with distress maintaining attributions for women higher in avoidance. Women higher in avoidance may use distress maintaining attributions in conflict to avoid intimacy. When a person makes a distress maintaining attributions, they credit people's behavior to negative intentions or reasons (Heyman, 2004). These thoughts may come more easily to avoidant individuals because they tend to make more pessimistic attributions (Pietromonaco & Beck, 2015), and we find that women generally make more distress maintaining attributions across our analyses. Distress maintaining attributions might be an attractive option to keep partners distant and not too intimate for women higher in avoidance.

However, we also found that women lower in avoidance (more secure women) with higher general influence and lower situational influence were marginally more hostile than women lower in avoidance with low general and situational influence or men lower in avoidance with any combination of general influence and high situational influence. When women are more secure (low avoidant), they may be more willing to express negativity/distress in the interaction when they perceive themselves to have lower power in the interaction but have power in general. Women lower in avoidance may feel frustrated with the interaction if they have low power during the interaction and have more license to express it if they have higher power overall in the relationship. In contrast, women lower in avoidance with lower general power and lower situational

influence (influence in the discussion) may similarly feel frustrated but feel like they have less ability or license to express it, particularly in a more negative way, without another source of influence or leverage. For men lower in avoidance with lower situational influence, it is possible that making distress maintaining attributions is a less appealing way to communicate frustration to their partners, or that having lower situational influence in the conflict discussion is less concerning for men generally. For women higher in avoidance with lower power in the discussion, they may not make the effort or engage enough to make distress maintaining attributions.

Again, the reasoning for both of these findings is speculative and future research should test if women high in avoidance use distress maintaining attributions as a strategy to keep romantic partners distant, and why men higher in avoidance do not show this same tendency. Also, future research should test if women lower in avoidance, lower in situational influence, and higher in general influence make more distress maintaining attributions out of frustration.

While this finding is interesting, it is also curious that we did not find the predicted effects of influence for anxious participants. We expected that anxious people would respond negatively to situations where they have low influence, considering their hypervigilance and reluctance to allow partners to be autonomous (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Other research should attempt to replicate our findings to further establish the effects that we found and further investigate the relationship between attachment anxiety and influence.

4.3 Stability or Change Over Time

Finally, our last goal was to test the extent to which effects may change over time or if they remain stable in the early years of marriage. In particular, we did not find evidence for the prediction that perceptions of low general and situational influence over time would be related to increased severity of negative behaviors. While we found that situational influence was related to more hostility over time, this did not coincide with our prediction that the interaction between both types of power would predict negative behavior and the hypothesis that this association would be stronger over time. The interactive effects of influence (general and situational) on hostility were only significant at Time 1. Thus, it seems that considering both general and situational influence to understand partners' negative behavior in conflict might not be as informative as time goes on, and situational influence, which was related to hostility at all three points, is more important to predict behavior in the conflict. Again, on average, Time 2 of the study occurred a year and a half after Time 1, and Time 3 occurred three years after Time 1. While the samples across the five studies in Overall and colleagues' work varied, they tended to include either newlywed couples (Studies 2 and 5) or couples in which the mean relationship length was under 3.5 years ($M_{Study\ 1}$ = 2.81 years, 61% married or cohabiting; $M_{Study\ 3}$ = 2.57 years, 44% married or cohabiting; $M_{Study\ 4}$ = 3.28 years, 13% married and 36% cohabiting). The participants in our study had generally been in a relationship longer than the participants in these studies (M_{T1} = 59.66 months). It is possible that general and situational influence is important to be considered together when relationships are newer, and general influence is less influential for behavior in a particular interaction when the relationship is older.

Little work has explored the impact of multiple conceptualizations of power and how power functions as a relative process (Simpson et. al., 2014). Additionally, our results do not replicate other findings that men with low general and low situational influence are more aggressive (Overall et. al, 2016). One possibility is that both power and behavior were operationalized differently in our work than in Overall and colleagues' work. For example, their operationalizations of general power across the five studies included incorporating the partner in one's identity more than the partner includes the self in his or hers and experiencing more rewards from the relationship than the partner does in addition to self-reported perceptions of influence and decision making. Their measures of situational influence included influence attempts in a conflict discussion as well as needing support from the partner in the discussion, while our study utilized self-reported power, control, and influence in the discussion. Finally, their behavioral measures were observed-coded aggression (derogation and autocracy) and self-reported aggression toward the partner, while our measures of hostility and distress maintaining attributions were observed coded and are generally milder behaviors than what Overall et al. observed. This idea suggests that researchers should continue to test different operationalizations of power to further understand how various types of power may be associated with different behaviors, and also may be a reason why we did not replicate Overall et al.'s work.

4.4 Limitations and Future Directions

The proposed work is limited by a few factors. First, while the proposed work focuses on attachment style as a particularly relevant individual difference in moderating the relationship between various perceptions of power and conflict behavior, we did not

find consistent evidence for the moderating role of attachment style. However, there are many other individual differences that may also moderate these outcomes, such as endorsement of traditional gender roles. Future research should continue exploring potential individual differences in relation to the model tested here. Additionally, work could explore other relationship outcomes, such as the impact of low power for anxious individuals on caregiving or careseeking behaviors. Another limitation is that the behaviors (hostility, distress maintaining attributions) occurred at a low frequency, which may have made it difficult to detect differences. Using a different coding scheme (e.g., coding the degree of hostility in interactions) or using tasks that increase the frequency of the target behaviors (e.g., tasks involving competition) may provide a better test of the hypotheses.

Future research should also make use of other measures to expand this model. For example, studies could make use of the hormone testosterone (T). High T levels are associated with general dominance (Mazur & Booth, 1998), and potentially play a role in relationship power as well. Similarly, future work could make use of cortisol to test if couples in which a partner perceives himself or herself as low power experiences increased cortisol levels prior to and during the negotiations with a partner.

Additionally, the sample in this study is mostly white and well educated. It will be important to further this work to more diverse samples to determine the extent to which the findings are generalizable. It is also important to test whether individuals with low power in society might be more or less affected by power differentials in their closest relationships.

4.5 Concluding Remarks

In sum, the current research provides further insight into the combined role of different operationalizations of power and behavior during marital conflict. Although the findings do not replicate Overall et al. (2016), and more research should be conducted to precisely understand the examined effects, they do offer evidence that perceptions of power are related to negative behavior in conflict. Specifically, general and situational influence should be tested in tandem when investigating their roles in relationship behavior. Additionally, variables such as gender and adult attachment (particularly avoidance) should also be considered as moderators of the impact of different conceptions of influence and behavior in relationships.

APPENDIX A

TABLES

Table 1. Brief Sample Retention from Time 1 to Times 2 and 3

	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
	225 couples		
Couples Retained: In Lab or Survey		204 couples 91%	187 couples 83%
Couples Retained: In Lab		184 couples 82%	164 couples 73%

Table 2
Detailed Sample Retention from Time 1 to Times 2 and 3.

	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
Lab Session	225 couples[1]	184 couples	164 couples[2]
	450 individuals	368 individuals	328 individuals
One or both spouses participated via online survey		20 couples[3]	23 couples[3]
		37 individuals	39 individuals
Lost at follow-up because declined (reasons included too busy, moved, could not reach)		13 couples	33 couples
Lost at follow-up due to divorce		8 couples	5 couples
Proportion of Couples from Wave 1 retained for Lab sessions		184 couples	164
		81.7%	72.8%
Proportion of Couples from Wave 1 retained either in the lab or via online survey		204 couples	187 couples*
		90.6%	83.1%

[1] At the first wave, 229 couples initially came to the lab; however, 3 couples did not complete the first lab session because at least one partner was unable to generate saliva (a critical component for the larger project) and 1 couple opted to discontinue participation.
[2] Two couples who did not complete Time 2 were recovered at Time 3.
[3] At Time 2, 17 couples and 3 individual wives completed the questionnaires online; at Time 3, 16 couples, 5 individual wives and 2 individual husbands completed the questionnaires online.
*180 couples with both partners; 7 individuals representing 7 couples

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of Variables at Time 1

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Hostility	450	0.052	0.075
Distress Maintaining Attributions	450	0.025	0.037
Avoidance	449	1.72	0.638
Anxiety	449	2.61	0.945
Situational Influence	450	3.91	0.746
General Influence	450	4.02	0.945

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations of Variables at Time 2

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Hostility	366	0.066	0.092
Distress Maintaining Attributions	366	0.027	0.041
Avoidance	366	1.81	0.682
Anxiety	366	2.61	0.917
Situational Influence	366	3.90	0.913
General Influence	365	4.05	1.07

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations of Variables at Time 3

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Hostility	328	0.083	0.092
Distress Maintaining Attributions	328	0.017	0.035
Avoidance	328	1.86	0.793
Anxiety	328	2.66	0.971
Situational Influence	328	3.87	0.759
General Influence	328	3.95	1.03

Table 6
Bivariate Correlations of Variables at Time 1

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Avoidance	-					
2. Anxiety	.356**	-				
3. General Influence	-.120*	-.153**	-			
4. Situational Influence	-.033	.021	.339**	-		
5. Gender	.193**	-.130**	-.097*	-.086	-	
6. Proportion of Hostility	.025	.111	.017	-.004	-.102*	-
7. Proportion of Distress Maintaining Attributions	.056	.167**	.058	.132**	-.127**	.288**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 7
Bivariate Correlations of Variables at Time 2

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Avoidance	-					
2. Anxiety	.376**	-				
3. General Influence	-.147**	-.159**	-			
4. Situational Influence	-.099	-.073	.297**	-		
5. Gender	.195**	-.189**	-.087	-.084	-	
6. Proportion of Hostility	.127*	.096	-.008	.040	-.045	-
7. Proportion of Distress Maintaining Attributions	.061	.136**	.025	.069	-.103*	.466**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 8
Bivariate Correlations of Variables at Time 3

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Avoidance	-					
2. Anxiety	.314**	-				
3. General Influence	-.002	-.126*	-			
4. Situational Influence	.007	.027	.267**	-		
5. Gender	.200**	-.133*	-.127*	-.127*	-	
6. Proportion of Hostility	.158**	.190**	-.005	.076	-.109*	-
7. Proportion of Distress Maintaining Attributions	.031	.205**	.044	.119*	-.087	.380**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 9
Proportion of Hostility as a Function of General and Situational Influence

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.051	10.46***	0.006
Gender	-0.013	-3.32**	0.004
General Influence	0.006	2.40*	0.002
Situational Influence	0.007		0.003
General X Situational Influence	-0.006	2.37* -2.19*	0.003

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Table 10
Proportion of Distress Maintaining Attributions as a Function of General and Situational Influence

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.028	10.75***	0.003
Gender	-0.009	-3.12**	0.003
General Influence	-0.001	-0.24	0.002
Situational Influence	0.006		0.002
General X Situational Influence	0.002	3.04**	0.002
		1.41	

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Table 11
Proportion of Hostility as a Function of General and Situational Influence, Moderated by Gender

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.060	10.47***	0.006
Gender	-0.014	-3.40**	0.004
General Influence	0.007	1.44	0.005
Situational Influence	0.003	0.55	0.006
General X Situational Influence	-0.007†	-1.83	0.004
General Influence X Gender	-0.002	-0.24	0.007
Situational Influence X Gender	0.007	0.90	0.008
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender	0.004	0.75	0.005

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 12
Proportion of Distress Maintaining Attributions as a Function of General and Situational Influence, Moderated by Gender

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.035	7.02***	0.005
Gender	-0.008	-2.68**	0.002
General Influence	0.016	2.51	0.006
Situational Influence	0.001	0.17	0.008
General X Situational Influence	0.007	1.37	0.005
General Influence X Gender	-0.011	-2.72**	0.004
Situational Influence X Gender	0.003	0.64	0.005
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender	-0.004	-1.02	0.004

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Table 13
Proportion of Hostility as a Function of General and Situational Influence, Moderated by Gender and Attachment

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.057***	8.83***	0.006
Gender	-0.013*	-2.35*	0.005
General Influence	0.010	1.71	0.006
Situational Influence	0.005	0.60	0.009
Avoidance	-0.013	-1.27	0.010
Anxiety	0.006	1.22	0.005
General Influence X Gender	-0.009	-1.05	0.008
Situational Influence X Gender	0.010	0.84	0.011
Gender X Avoidance	0.017	1.57	0.011
Gender X Anxiety	-0.011	-1.71	0.006†
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender	0.015	1.71	0.009†
Situational Influence X Gender X Avoidance	-0.018	-0.77	0.023
Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety	0.011	1.11	0.009
General Influence X Gender X Avoidance	0.016	1.19	0.013
Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.004	-0.41	0.010
General Influence X Situational Influence	-0.012	-1.67†	0.007

General Influence X Avoidance	-0.007	-0.6	0.012
General Influence X Anxiety	-0.001	-0.30	0.003
General Influence X Situational Influence X Avoidance	0.006	0.51	0.013
General Influence X Situational Influence X Anxiety	-0.001	-0.03	0.006
General Influence X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.003	-0.38	0.008
Situational Influence X Avoidance	0.002	0.11	0.019
Situational Influence X Anxiety	0.005	0.82	0.006
Situational Influence X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.005	-0.55	0.010
Anxiety X Avoidance	0.001	0.17	0.008
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender X Avoidance	-0.016	-1.11	0.015
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety	0.009	0.81	0.011
Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	0.010	0.57	0.017
General Influence X Situational Influence X Anxiety X Avoidance	0.001	0.18	0.007
General Influence X Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.001	-0.05	0.011
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.002	-0.17	0.012

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 14
Proportion of Distress Maintaining Attributions as a Function of General and Situational Influence, Moderated by Gender and Attachment

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.027***	8.55***	0.003
Gender	-0.006	-1.83†	0.003
General Influence	0.003	0.93	0.003
Situational Influence	0.005	0.96	0.005
Avoidance	0.001	0.23	0.006
Anxiety	0.007	2.50*	0.003
General Influence X Gender	-0.008	-1.67†	0.005
Situational Influence X Gender	0.005	0.70	0.007
Gender X Avoidance	0.003	0.40	0.007
Gender X Anxiety	-0.005	-1.29	0.004
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender	0.003	0.6	0.006
Situational Influence X Gender X Avoidance	-0.004	-0.32	0.014
Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety	0.007	1.10	0.006
General Influence X Gender X Avoidance	-0.003	-0.45	0.008
Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.014	-2.19*	0.006
General Influence X Situational Influence	0.004	0.95	0.004

General Influence X Avoidance	0.002	0.25	0.007
General Influence X Anxiety	0.001	0.09	0.002
General Influence X Situational Influence X Avoidance	0.007	0.97	0.007
General Influence X Situational Influence X Anxiety	0.001	0.10	0.003
General Influence X Anxiety X Avoidance	0.008	1.80†	0.005
Situational Influence X Avoidance	-0.004	-0.35	0.011
Situational Influence X Anxiety	-0.003	-0.99	0.003
Situational Influence X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.001	-0.04	0.006
Anxiety X Avoidance	0.008	1.8†	0.004
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender X Avoidance	-0.020	-2.18*	0.009
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety	0.004	0.61	0.007
Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.001	-0.11	0.011
General Influence X Situational Influence X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.006	-1.47	0.004
General Influence X Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.010	-1.59	0.006
General Influence X Situational Influence X Gender X Anxiety X Avoidance	-0.001	-0.08	0.008

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 15
Proportion of Hostility as a Function of General and Situational Influence over Time

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.050	8.97***	0.005
Time	0.001	-2.30***	0.0001
General Influence	0.004	3.833	0.003
Situational Influence	0.008	0.3*	0.004
General Influence X Situational Influence	-0.005	0.52	0.003
General Influence X Time	-7.88E-05	-0.94	0.0001
Situational Influence X Time	4.38E-04	0.53**	0.0001
General Influence X Situational Influence X Time	6.17E-06	-1.03	0.0001

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Table 16
Proportion of Distress Maintaining Attributions as a Function of General and Situational Influence over Time

Fixed Effects	B	t	SE
Intercept	0.029	11.93***	0.002
Time	-0.007	-2.89***	0.002
General Influence	-0.0001	-1.92†	8.11E-05
Situational Influence	0.0002	1.71**	0.002
General Influence X Situational Influence	0.006	1.22	0.002
General Influence X Time	-1.07E-05	1.59	0.002
Situational Influence X Time	-3.90E-06	-2.17	6.27E-05
General Influence X Situational Influence X Time	-9.80E-05	-1.33	8.51E-05

Note. For gender 1 = men, 0 = women.
† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

APPENDIX B

FIGURES

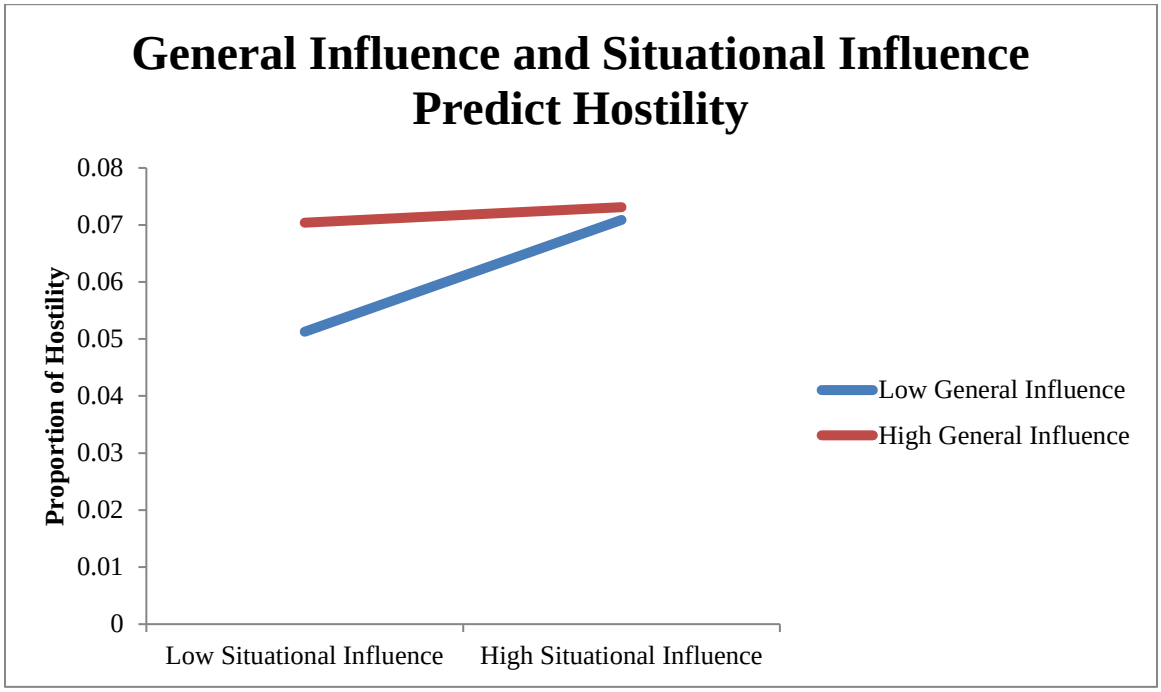

Figure 1. Interaction between general influence and situational influence to predict proportion of hostility in the conflict discussion. Participants who reported low general and low situational influence were significantly less hostile than participants who reported high general and low situational power or participants who reported high situational power with any level of general influence.

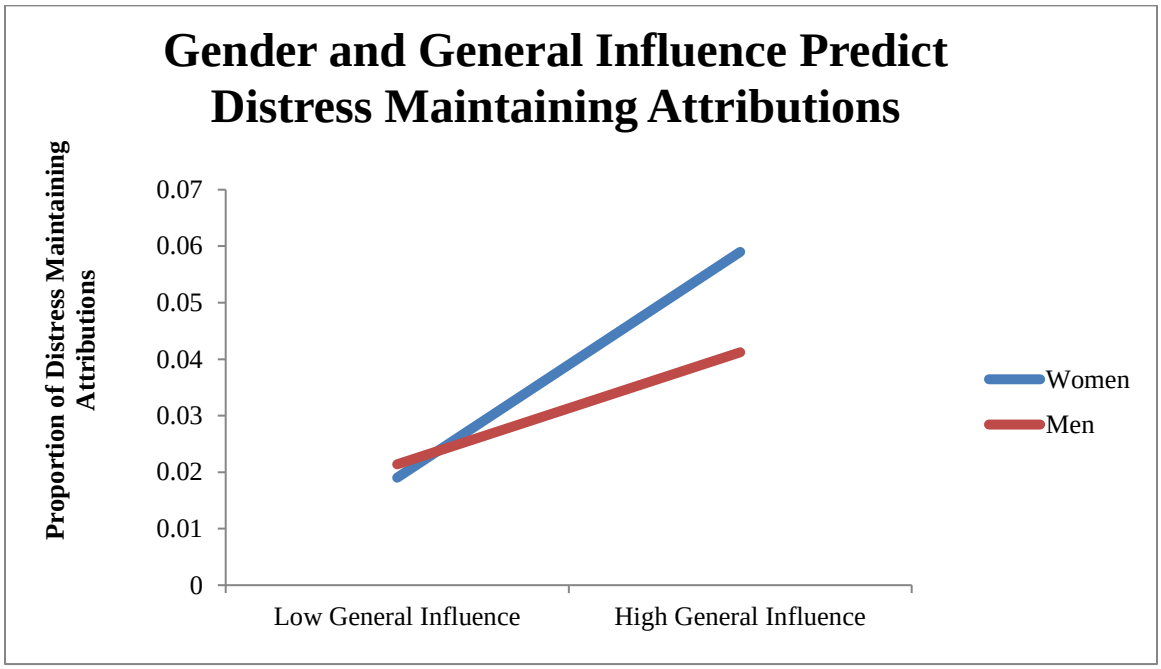

Figure 2. Interaction between general influence and gender to predict proportion of distress maintaining attributions in the conflict discussion. Men who reported high general influence made significantly more distress maintaining attributions than men with lower general influence. Women who reported higher general influence also made more distress maintaining attributions than women who reported lower general influence, but they made significantly more distress maintaining attributions than men with higher general influence.

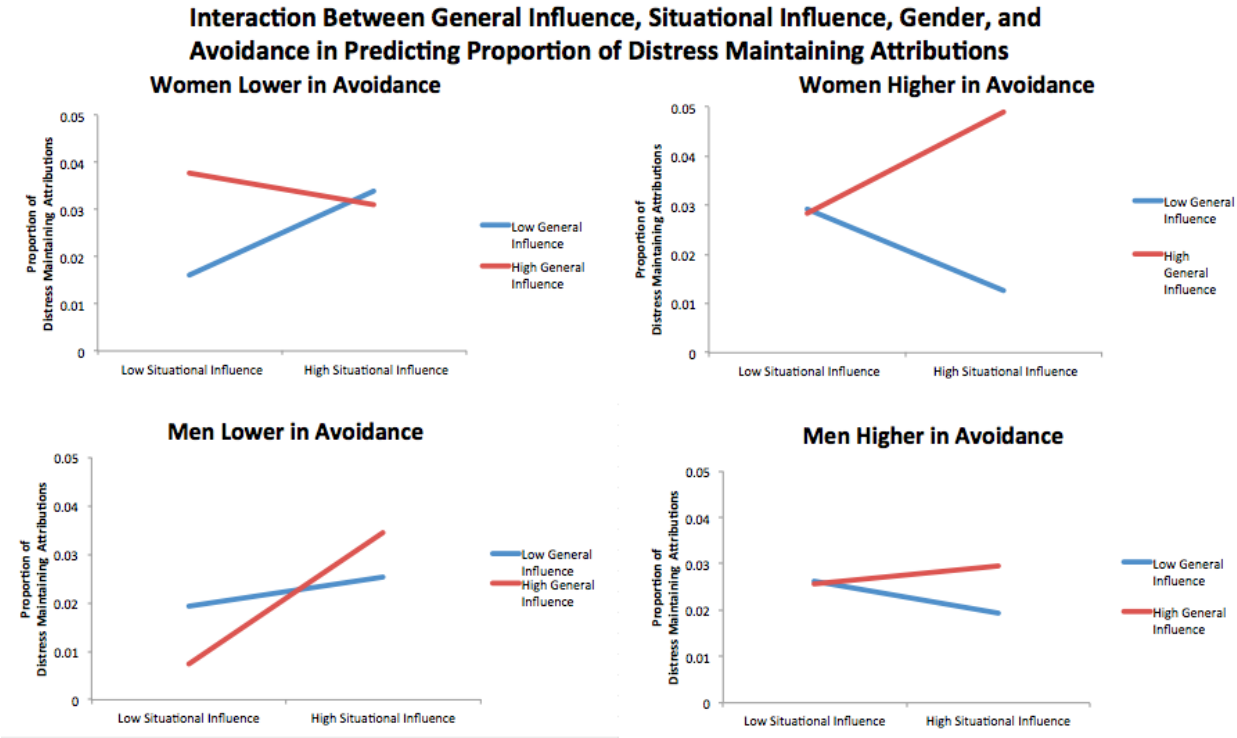

Figure 3. Interaction between general influence, situational influence, gender, and avoidance in predicting proportion of distress maintaining attributions. When participants higher in avoidance reported low general influence and high situational influence, men and women did not differ in their distress maintaining attributions. When participants higher in avoidance reported high general influence and high situational influence, however, women made more distress maintaining attributions than men. There were no significant effects for participants higher in avoidance and lower in situational influence or for participants lower in avoidance and higher in situational influence. There was a marginal association with gender and general influence in predicting distress maintaining attributions for participants lower in avoidance and lower in situational influence, so that women lower in avoidance, high in general influence, and low in situational influence made more distress maintaining attributions than men lower in avoidance, high in general influence, and low in situational influence.

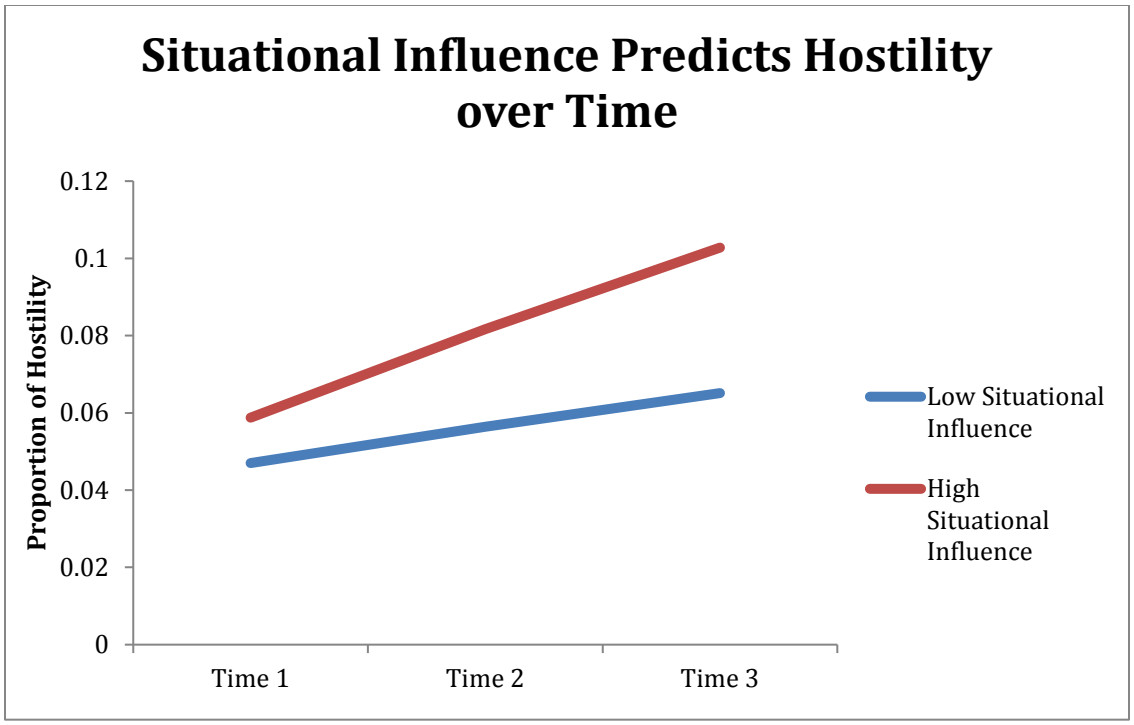

Figure 4. Effect of situational influence in predicting hostility over time. While high situational influence was associated with more hostility at all three time points than low situational influence, high situational influence was also associated with a stronger increase in hostility than low situational influence.

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