

Approaching Rejection Sensitivity from a Multidimensional Perspective:
Predicting Romantic Maladjustment, Targets of Romantic Attraction,
and Depression in Middle Adolescence

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ABSTRACT

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The associations between rejection sensitivity and romantic maladjustment were examined along three lines of inquiry. The first addressed whether the various dimensions of rejection sensitivity (i.e., reactive anxiety, reactive anger, and harboring the expectation of rejection) were differentially associated with the use of physical coercion, verbal/emotional coercion, and compliance in romantic relationships. The second examined whether patterns of assortative romantic attraction were present among rejection-sensitive and other at-risk youth. Finally, the third line of inquiry explored whether the associations between rejection sensitivity and depression were mediated by adolescents' involvement in maladjusted romantic relationships. Three hundred and thirty two senior high school students (188 girls, mean age = 16.7 years) completed questionnaires assessing (a) attachment style with parents and peers, (b) rejection sensitivity with parents and peers, (c) the use of coercion and compliance in romantic relationships, (d) targets of romantic attraction, and (e) depression. Results indicated that, above and beyond the effects of attachment, angry rejection sensitivity with peers positively predicted the use of physical and verbal/emotional coercion in romantic relationships. On the contrary, anxious rejection sensitivity with peers was found to negatively predict the use of physical and verbal/emotional coercion in romance. The use of compliance in romantic relationships was not associated with rejection sensitivity with either parents or peers. In examining the second series of questions, results revealed that

adolescents who expected rejection within the peer domain were increasingly attracted to others who shared similar rejection concerns. Moreover, boys who employed physical coercion in romance were increasingly attracted to girls who employed physical as well as verbal/emotional coercion in romantic relationships. Girls, however, regardless of their own level of maladjustment, did not show a preference for maladjusted boys. Finally, regarding the third line of inquiry, results indicated that the associations between rejection sensitivity and depression were partially mediated by adolescents' involvement in maladjusted romantic relationships. Findings support approaching the construct of rejection sensitivity from a multidimensional perspective to fruitfully predict romantic maladjustment, assortative patterns of romantic attraction among at-risk youth, and the increased likelihood of depressive outcomes in middle adolescence. Results are discussed in terms of a unifying model of socialization across development.

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Introduction

Romantic relationships are an integral and defining feature of social development in adolescence (Connolly & Johnson, 1996). Virtually all adolescents express an interest in dating, and by late adolescence, the majority have experienced an exclusive romantic relationship that has lasted from several months to one year (Feiring, 1996). Classical developmental theorists contend that early romantic experiences play a critical role in the achievement of both autonomy and identity, and may subsequently shape the developmental course of adult romantic relationships (Erikson, 1968; Sullivan, 1953). Due to the fundamental importance of romantic relationships, it is of primary interest to shed light on the social-developmental systems that contribute to healthy romantic growth.

Although romantic activity represents a normative facet of adolescent development, how adolescents approach and experience romantic relationships¹ are subject to a great deal of individual variability. For some adolescents romantic relationships are linked to higher self esteem and an increased sense of well being (Samet & Kelley, 1987), whereas for others, romantic relationships are linked to increased psychological and behavioural difficulties (Cauffman & Steinberg, 1996; Joyner & Udry, 2000; Neemann, Hubbard, & Masten, 1995). Achieving a greater understanding of individual differences in adolescent romantic development remains an

¹Broadly defined, romantic relationships, also called dating relationships in the current context, refer to dyadic peer associations that are typically perceived by the participants and their peers to include strong mutual feelings of liking and caring, and in which there exists at least the potential for sexual activity (Brown, 1999). It is important to note that, although romantic development continues to be largely studied from a heterosexual perspective (for an exception see Diamond, Savin-Williams, & Dubé, 1999), the current prepositions are thought to also include the experiences of sexual minority youth. Attempts will be made to avoid potentially heterosexist preconceptions, biases and assumptions.

important challenge for contemporary developmental scholars (Brown, Feiring & Furman, 1999).

Introduction to Rejection Sensitivity

Recently, Downey and her associates have proposed a theoretical framework for conceptualising individual differences in adolescent romantic expectations, attitudes and behaviours (Downey, Bonica, & Ricon, 1999). The proposed model is anchored on two basic assumptions that stem from classical attachment theory (Bowlby, 1973, 1980), social-cognitive theories (Bandura, 1986; Mischel & Shoda, 1995), and interpersonal perspectives (Bradbury & Fincham, 1988). The first assumption reflects one of relational continuity: Past relationships serve as building blocks for future ones in that they influence how individuals think, feel, and behave in subsequent close relationships. The second premise relates to the mechanisms that propel relational continuity across development. It states that continuity across relationships hinges upon and is ultimately fuelled by individuals' basic expectations about attaining acceptance and avoiding rejection in close relationships. It is hypothesised that adolescents who have experienced a legacy of rejecting experiences, first from parents and later from peers, may enter subsequent close relationships, namely romantic relationships, with heightened expectations of rejection. In turn, heightened expectations of rejection are believed to shape developmental trajectories within romantic spheres (Downey et al., 1999).

Individuals who have come to anxiously or angrily expect, readily perceive, and react intensely to rejection are referred to as rejection sensitive (Downey et al., 1999; Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey, Freitas, Michaelis, & Khouri, 1998; Downey, Lebolt, Rincon, & Freitas, 1998; Feldman & Downey, 1994). According to Downey and

associates (1999), two general romantic strategies are likely to be used by rejection-sensitive youth. The first, labelled *romantic avoidance*, occurs when individuals employ tactics of actual or emotional distancing from romantic experiences in the service of shielding themselves from potentially rejecting situations. By avoiding age-appropriate or emotionally-invested dating, the rejection-sensitive individual maladaptively minimises the probability of experiencing romantic rejection.

A second strategy, referred to as *romantic overinvestment*, occupies the primary focus of the current work. When rejection-sensitive adolescents do invest in romance, it is believed that strategies of romantic overinvestment are employed in an often desperate attempt to prevent, contain and control situations that trigger rejection concerns.

Romantic overinvestment is exemplified by the use of coercive or compliant tactics in romantic relationships (Downey et al., 1999). Coercion occurs when individuals attempt to force their partners to accede to their wishes through threats or tactics of guilt induction (Patterson, 1982). Examples of coercive tactics include (a) the use of aggression or threats of aggression to induce partners to remain in the relationship for fear of the consequences of leaving, (b) regulating partners' social contacts in order to keep them dependent on the relationship, or (c) employing threats of self harm to keep the partner in the relationship (Downey et al., 1999).

Conversely, compliance occurs when individuals attempt to change or alter aspects of themselves and their behaviour in order to comply with partners' expressed or imagined wishes in the aim of preventing rejection (Downey et al., 1999). Examples of compliant tactics include (a) tolerating behaviour that may compromise personal safety and well-being (e.g., emotional or physical abuse), (b) engaging in forms of sexual

intimacy when one does not feel ready to do so, or (c) engaging in harmful behaviours to achieve ideal standards of physical beauty such as excessive exercise or dieting (Downey et al., 1999). Thus, motivated by the desire to protect themselves from further rejecting experiences, this time within newly developing romantic arenas, rejection-sensitive youth approach, experience, and behave differently in dating relationships relative to their peers. It is within this general framework that the objectives of the current work are presented.

Current Goals

The present study aims to explore the impact of rejection sensitivity on adolescent romantic relationships and experiences by addressing some of the empirical and theoretical gaps in knowledge that currently exist. The first objective is to evaluate the utility of Downey and colleagues' (1999) model of rejection sensitivity in the prediction of romantic overinvestment among high-school students, a task that, to date, has not been endeavoured. Very few studies have sought to examine the romantic strategies employed by rejection-sensitive youth. Among those that have, the focus has been almost exclusively on college-aged samples². Moreover, virtually all noted studies have been conducted by the same research teams (Ayduk, Downey, Testa, Yen, Shoda, 1999; Downey et al., 1999; Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey et al., 1998; Feldman & Downey, 1994). In brief, although the proposed theoretical model may have important implications for understanding individual differences in romantic development, little is known regarding its validity in middle adolescence.

²A exception is a study conducted by Purdie & Downey (2000), which examined relationship-centred difficulties in 154 middle-school girls. The majority of the sample was assessed for rejection sensitivity in grade six, while the remaining girls were assessed in either grade seven or eight.

In examining strategies of romantic overinvestment, the first overall objective is to shed light on the associations between rejection sensitivity and the use of coercion and compliance in adolescent romantic relationships. In so doing, attempts will be made to address three conceptual and methodological concerns associated with traditional measures of rejection sensitivity. Specifically, the first concern stems from the need to empirically distinguish rejection sensitivity from broader constructs of attachment. The second concern stems from the need to explore the domain specificity of rejection sensitivity, that is, to explore whether rejection sensitivity in one social domain (e.g., with parents) has differential romantic implications than does rejection sensitivity in others (e.g., with peers). Finally, the third concern stems from the need to approach rejection sensitivity from a multidimensional perspective; that is, to examine the unique predictive utility of the construct's distinct components in the assessment of dating maladjustment.

Following this, a second overall objective is to address the virtually unexplored question of assortative partner selection, or more specifically, assortative partner attraction among youth at risk for dating maladjustment. It is thought that preoccupation with issues of acceptance and rejection may lead adolescents to overvalue partners who are attentive, who deeply need them, and who seek a rapid intensification of commitment early in the relationship (Downey et al., 1999). Although such attributes may initially help allay rejection concerns, they may also lead to high levels of dependency and may presage jealous and controlling behaviours that increase the probability of experiencing unhealthy, potentially detrimental romantic relationships. The second series of hypotheses will examine whether rejection sensitivity predicts romantic attraction to similar others, and more globally, whether youth who already manifest dating

maladjustment show selective attraction to other maladjusted youth at such early stages of romantic development.

Finally, the third main objective is to examine the associations between rejection sensitivity, romantic maladjustment, and depression in middle adolescence. It is currently hypothesised that both rejection sensitivity and involvement in maladjusted dating, as measured by levels of romantic coercion and compliance, are directly associated with heightened levels of depressive symptomatology. In addition, it is also thought that abusive³ dating experiences will mediate, at least in part, the association between rejection sensitivity and depressive outcomes. Thus, although both conditions are expected to directly and uniquely threaten adolescents' affective well being, the models proposed in the present work will also explore potential mediating processes. The following sections address the theoretical underpinnings and specific hypotheses associated with the three main lines of inquiry delineated above.

The Development and Maintenance of Rejection Sensitivity

Encompassing a wide range of inappropriate caregiver behaviours, all forms of child maltreatment⁴ involve injuring the integrity of the developing self through subtle or blatant messages of parental rejection (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Lewis, 1992). The assertion that early experiences of childhood rejection set the stage for a host of interpersonal difficulties has precedents in several classical theories of personality.

Erikson (1964, 1968), for example, has proposed that a basic mistrust of others,

³Although words such as "abuse" and "victimization" are used in the current work, it is important to be mindful of overpathologizing experiences that may be relatively common in adolescence (Feiring, 2003).

⁴Child maltreatment has been defined along a continuum of caregiving injuries (Sameroff & Chandler, 1975), which supports the notion that children who are identified as maltreated may be those who fall at more extreme ends of the spectrum. This view further implies that a sizeable proportion of other youth experience events that may be less extreme or identifiable, but who nonetheless endure a significant degree

stemming primarily from poor parent-child relations, later compromises one's ability to achieve personal and interpersonal fulfilment. In a similar vein, Sullivan (1953) has claimed that generalised expectations or "personifications" of significant others as punitive, disapproving, or rejecting impacts how individuals come to perceive and relate to others across development.

Of all classical teachings, however, Bowlby's (1969, 1973, 1980) attachment theory provides the most widely cited model for linking early experiences of parental rejection with later interpersonal functioning. Attachment theory contends that developing individuals make assumptions about the degree to which they are worthy of love and affection, and the degree to which significant others are viewed as loving and affectionate through early patterns of parental availability and emotional responsiveness. It is through these early parent-child dynamics that children learn what to expect in close relationships. These lessons about the self and others are carried forward by *internal working models*, which are defined as cognitive structures that organise and guide expectations, assumptions and behaviours within close relationships. Responsive and available parenting promotes a secure attachment style, while insensitive or rejecting parenting promotes an insecure attachment style or orientation (Ainsworth, Blehar, Walters, & Wall, 1978; Karavasilis, Doyle, & Markiewicz, 2003).

The vast literature on attachment has demonstrated that, in the absence of important environmental shifts or changes in patterns of parental responsiveness, working models of relationships remain relatively stable over the course of development (Elicker, Englund, & Sroufe, 1992; Waters, Merrick, Treboux, Crowell, & Albersheim, 2000).

of maltreatment that may result in developmental effects over time (e.g., public shaming, random punishment contingencies) (Dutton, Van Grinkel, & Starzoski, 1995).

Within interpersonal contexts, evidence has shown that parent-child attachment predicts peer representations (Wartner, Grossmann, Fremmer-Bombik, & Suess, 1994), the quality of friendships during childhood and adolescence (Berlin & Cassidy, 1999; Lieberman, Doyle, Markiewicz, 1999; Sroufe, Egeland, & Calson, 1999), adolescents' sexual attitudes and romantic adjustment (Feeney, Peterson, Gallois, & Terry, 2000; Furman, Simon, Shaffer, & Bouchee, 2002), and satisfaction in love relationships during adulthood (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; for review see Shaver & Hazan, 1994). Despite some evidence to the contrary (see Weinfield, Sroufe, Egeland, & Carlson, 1999), it is generally proposed that a secure attachment orientation reflects an organisation of behaviour that facilitates interpersonal adjustment both concurrently and prospectively, while an insecure attachment orientation is likely to hinder interpersonal functioning across development (Allen & Land, 1999).

The fundamental principle of relational continuity, emphasised by pioneers like Erikson, Sullivan, and Bowlby, initially set the stage for the unifying perspective known as developmental psychopathology. With its emphasis on the study of developing systems, developmental psychopathology defines normal growth in terms of a series of interrelated social, emotional, cognitive, and social-cognitive competencies (Cicchetti, Toth, & Bush, 1988; Rogosch, Cicchetti, & Arber, 1995; Wolfe, Wekerle, Reitzel-Jaffe, Lefebvre, 1998). An individual's failure to acquire competencies at one stage of development is thought to increase the probability of failure at subsequent stages. Accordingly, prominent disturbances in the parent-child relationship place children at a disadvantage, not only for developing an insecure attachment bond, but for negotiating

competencies or challenges that emerge at later stages of development (Carlson & Sroufe, 1995; Wolfe & Wekerle, 1997).

Beyond attachment, developmental psychopathology theory stresses the importance of other psychological mechanisms that affect personal resources and well being. Examples of such mechanisms include cognitive-affective processing dispositions, attributional biases, and the ability to effectively regulate emotional and behavioural responses to various experiences⁵ (Baldwin, 1992; Bandura, 1986; Crick & Dodge, 1994; Dweck & Laggert, 1988; Mischel & Shoda, 1995). When the latter mechanisms go awry, they can become maladaptive by further thwarting children's ability to master social competencies across relational contexts (e.g., with peers and friends), thus compounding, and perhaps even more proximately accounting for, interpersonal difficulties across development (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999).

It is thought that maltreated youth develop a hypervigilance to environmental cues connoting rejection, hostility or aggression (Downey et al., 1999). For instance, displays of inter-adult anger leave maltreated children significantly more distressed than their non-maltreated counterparts (Hennessy, Rabideau, Cicchetti, & Cummings, 1994). Moreover, ambiguous cues are also more likely to be interpreted negatively by maltreated individuals. Research has shown that toddlers who have experienced different forms of parental maltreatment are more likely than others to display neutral or negative affect upon seeing the reflection of their rouge-marked faces in a mirror (Schneider-Rosen, & Cicchetti, 1991). Cicchetti & Toth (1995) have suggested that such heightened emotional

⁵Emotional regulation involves the awareness, expression, and control of all aspects of an affective experience (Garber & Dodge, 1991; Keiley & Seery, 2001). In general, affect is regulated to reduce unfavourable conditions and increase favourable ones, thus allowing individuals to endure or tolerate their

reactivity may forecast a generalised sense of low self-worth brought on by injurious attacks on the child's global sense of self.

Through learning, ill-treated children become strongly "tuned-in" and affected by verbal and physical cues ranging from non-acceptance to hostile rejection (Wolfe & Wekerle 1997; Downey et al., 1999). School-aged children who angrily expect rejection, for example, manifest increased distress following peer interactions that ambiguously connote rejection (Downey et al., 1998). According to the authors, individuals who manifest heightened sensitivity to rejection also behave more aggressively, experience increased interpersonal difficulties, and show significant declines in academic performance over time.

In line with Dodge's (1980) views, rejection-sensitive children are thought to behave aggressively because they attribute others' negative and ambiguous behaviour towards them as motivated by hostile or malevolent intent, justifying aggressive retaliations. Research suggests that aggressive children selectively attend to cues of hostility, become angry when they perceive hostility, readily generate aggressive solutions to interpersonal problems, and overestimate the potential efficacy of aggressive solutions (Crick & Ladd, 1990; Graham, Hudley, & Williams, 1992; Perry, Perry, & Rasmussen, 1986). Such information-processing biases have been shown to partially mediate the link between rejecting parenting and subsequent aggressive behaviour (Dodge, Petit, Bates, & Valente, 1995).

Information-processing biases and impairments in the regulation of negative arousal, especially deficits in anger modulation, interfere with healthy peer relationships

feelings. The ability to tolerate affective states then allows individuals the time and space essential for competent decision-making about how to react and behave across situations (Magai, 1999).

and impede competency-building experiences conferred within the peer domain (Downey et al., 1999; Hubbard & Coie, 1994). By missing opportunities to hone skills associated with reciprocity, interpersonal closeness, mutual affection, companionship, intimacy, and conflict negotiation, at-risk children's relational impairments become aggravated and their social skill deficits heightened (Furman, 1999; Scharf & Mayseless, 2001). In turn, these deficits exacerbate maladaptive behaviour, namely aggressive and/or withdrawn behaviour, further promoting the likelihood of peer rejection and poor friendship relations across time (for review see Rubin, Bukowski & Parker, 1998).

The social provisions typically conferred through group and dyadic peer relations, especially friendships, equip individuals with the tools necessary for promoting healthy romantic development (Furman & Wehner, 1994, 1997). Among the many competencies that may be acquired through experiences with peers, two in particular, namely those associated with intimacy and conflict resolution, are thought paramount to healthy romantic growth (Feiring, 1996; Taradash, Connolly, Pepler, Craig, & Costa, 2001). Romantic intimacy converges on two central themes: Closeness, which fosters feelings of mutual support, love, and security, and individuality, which refers to a distinct and separate sense of self (Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Shulman, Levy-Shiff, Kedem & Alon, 1997). True or "mature" intimacy requires the balance of closeness with another without interpersonal enmeshment, allowing "fusion without fear of ego loss" (Erickson, 1968; p. 264).

The subset of rejection-sensitive individuals who do pursue romantic involvement may display important deficits in negotiating true romantic intimacy. Less than optimal family and peer relations, and the associated negative view of the self that arises from

such relations, place rejection-sensitive youth at risk for romantic difficulties. In the current context, it is believed that negative romantic outcomes stem from a heightened desire for intimacy that overvalues interpersonal closeness while devaluing individuality. Borrowing Erickson's words, rejection-sensitive individuals may seek interpersonal "fusion" as a means of "ego loss", that is enmeshment as a means of losing one's self in the other (Erickson, 1968; p.264). As such, when they do pursue romance, these individuals may be at risk of becoming overly dependent in romantic relationships and on romantic partners. It is thought that this excessive dependency, characterised by important feelings of insecurity and neediness may promote strategies of romantic overinvestment⁶ characterised by the maladaptive use of coercion or compliance.

In addition to difficulties with intimacy, poor conflict resolution skills may also threaten the romantic well being of rejection-sensitive youth. It is believed that the potential for maladaptive, even violent, conflict-resolution strategies increases significantly from middle to late adolescence for both sexes (for review see Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). Explained as a function of increased jealousy and from heightened pressures to negotiate competing needs, the ability to develop effective and appropriate conflict resolution skills can be challenging, even for adjusted youth. Those exposed to rejecting parenting characterised by poor conflict-resolution training, and those further disadvantaged by poor social-skill training within the peer domain are at risk for employing tactics that push normative romantic conflicts into violent exchanges (Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). For rejection-sensitive teens, normative pressures on romantic

⁶Although rejected youth may also develop a more dismissive interpersonal style characterised by an overly inflated sense of self and penchant towards individuality over closeness, such youth may not consciously manifest "sensitivity" to rejection as captured by traditional measures. Moreover, they may defensively

relationships may become intolerable as a result of limited problem-solving abilities and abnormal expectations vis-à-vis acceptance and rejection in close relationships (i.e., low threshold for perceiving rejection and overreaction when it is perceived). It is believed that a combination of such factors may prove particularly powerful in the prediction of adolescent romantic violence (for review see Lewis & Fremouw, 2001; Wolf et al. 1998).

Research has demonstrated that rejection-sensitive women adopt inept conflict negotiation tactics characterised by heightened hostility, volatile emotional dysregulation, and diminished partner support (Ayduk et al., 1999; Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey et al., 1998). Interestingly, rejection-sensitive women do not display increased levels of baseline hostility across situations, but only selectively when feelings of rejection are elicited (Ayduk et al., 1999). In a similar vein, studies using a diary method have also shown that rejection-sensitive women report increased hostility towards romantic partners following experiences of perceived rejection, but not necessarily otherwise (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey et al., 1998).

For men, experiences of perceived rejection have been linked to increased jealousy and partner devaluation, which in turn has been associated with higher levels of aggression, relationship dissatisfaction, and rates of relationship termination (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey et al., 1998). More recently, however, Downey, Feldman, & Ayduk (2000) have provided direct evidence linking rejection sensitivity to males' perpetration of violence in romantic relationships. In a sample of 217 male college students, men scoring high in rejection sensitivity and romantic investment (as measured by the perceived importance of establishing romantic relationships, and motivation to

avoid investing, let alone overinvesting, in romance. Romantic overinvestment, according to Downey et al. (1999), is a necessary condition for coercive or compliant outcomes as defined by the model.

pursue such relationships) were more likely than others to behave violently in romantic contexts. Among the men who reported low levels of investment in romance, rejection sensitivity predicted reduced involvement in close relationships with friends and romantic partners and, more generally, increased avoidance of social situations.

As previously stated, the only known study examining the links between adolescent rejection sensitivity and romantic well being focussed on female middle-school students (Purdie & Downey, 2000). It showed that relative to others, rejection-sensitive girls were more distressed and insecure about their boyfriends' commitment to them. It also showed that they were increasingly prepared to do something "wrong" to maintain romantic relationships (e.g., skip school), and to use physical and non-physical forms of aggression against partners during conflicts. Patterns of romantic coercion and compliance, it seems, may begin to emerge in the earliest stages of romantic development. The use of such tactics may prove rewarding as adolescents learn that they can "successfully" achieve, at least temporarily, some degree of control in romantic relations. This, paired with an increased sense of self-efficacy that results from attaining a desired goal may prove particularly powerful in reinforcing negative behavioural patterns (Gelles & Straus, 1988).

Introduction to Dating Violence: Patterns of Coercion and Compliance in Romantic Relationships

Dating violence, also labelled dating or romantic coercion in the current context, refers to any abuse of power designed to control a romantic partner through physical, sexual, or psychological harm (Dutton, 1995). Dating or romantic compliance, on the other hand, is understood as the extent to which an individual experiences physical,

sexual or psychological maltreatment from romantic partners. Focussed primarily on the victimization of women, the vast majority of literature on adult romantic violence has yielded alarming results. Approximately 35% of all women report having been physically assaulted by a romantic partner, while 18% of men report having used physical violence against a partner since leaving high school (DeKeseredy, 1997). In a nation wide survey of 12, 300 Canadian females over the age of 18, nearly 29% reported having experienced at least one incident of physical assault at the hands of their husbands or common law partners (Statistics Canada, 1993). With the latter definitions of assault concordant with those outlined in the Criminal Code of Canada, violence in intimate relationships (physical and otherwise) has, justifiably, become recognized as a social problem of considerable proportion.

More recently, research on the prevalence of adolescent dating violence has yielded similarly disturbing findings. According to results from the National Longitudinal Study on Adolescent Health, approximately 32% of all high school students report experiencing some type of physical or sexual dating violence in the previous 18 months (Tucker-Halpern, Oslak, Young, Martin, & Kupper, 2001). Correspondingly, Jackson, Cram, & Seymour (2000) report that roughly 18% of girls have experienced physical dating violence, while 25% have experienced some form of sexual violence. When definitions of violence are expanded to include verbal/emotional injury characterised by insults and degradation, the authors indicate that the vast majority of girls, over 82%, have experienced such incidents at least once. Despite changing prevalence rates that stem largely from malleable definitions of violence (which can range from broad to narrow in scope), teen dating violence is by no means a rare occurrence.

Violence in romantic relationships, especially when it is directed towards girls, has been associated with a host of detrimental outcomes including substance abuse, unhealthy weight control, sexual risk behaviour, unwanted pregnancy, and suicidality (Silverman, Raj, Mucci, & Hathaway, 2001). Female victims of dating violence are more likely to be seriously injured (Morse, 1995) and, according to some, more detrimentally affected by romantic violence than are male victims (Jackson et al., 2000; Wolfe et al., 2001). That being said, evidence suggests that boys are not immune to romantic maltreatment. In fact, whereas 13% of male high school students report incidence of physical abuse, 76% report being the recipients of verbal/emotional harm (Jackson et al., 2000). In addition to this, studies have revealed a sex-difference favouring (or perhaps disfavoring) boys, in which adolescent males are at increased risk, relative to their female age-mates, of experiencing physical and emotional abuse at the hands of romantic partners (Jezl, Molidor, & Wright, 1996; O'Keefe, 1997).

Interestingly, several researchers have begun to call attention to the notion that adolescent romantic violence is predominantly a reciprocal affair, rarely involving a categorical aggressor and a categorical victim over time (Gray & Foshee, 1997; Jonson-Reid & Bivens, 1999; Tucker-Halpern et al. 2001). Evidence has shown that adolescent "victims" and "offenders" show similarly violent profiles, and that within the romantic dyad males and females are equally as likely to inflict physical and emotional harm as they are to sustain it (Avery-Leaf, Cascardi, O'Leary, & Cano, 1997). Thus, within violent adolescent couples, it appears that males and females are likely to be both perpetrator and victim for at least some forms of romantic violence (Feiring, Deblinger, Hoch-Espada, & Haworth, 2002).

Developmental Pathways to Adolescent Dating Violence

Not surprisingly, childhood maltreatment is the most commonly cited precursor to adolescent dating violence (Banyard, Arnold, & Smith, 2000; for review see Wolfe & Wekerle, 1997; Wolfe et al., 1998; Wekerle, Wolfe, Hawkins, Pittman, Glickman, & Lovald, 2001; Wolfe, Scott, Wekerle, & Pittman, 2001). A variety of theories including psychoanalytic theory (e.g., identification with the aggressor), social-learning theory (e.g., learned helplessness), and self theories (e.g., deficits in self-esteem, self-efficacy) have been used to explain the links between childhood maltreatment and later involvement in violent intimate relationships (for review see Messman & Long, 1996, 2000).

Of primary interest is the notion that maltreated children cope by developing relational strategies to manage the emotional effect elicited from generally frustrating and often fear-inducing caregiving behaviours (Davies & Cummings, 1994). It is thought that maltreated youth are particularly prone to developing relational strategies that involve extreme power differentials at their base. Central to this claim is the observation that ill-treated children tend to either inhibit, and ultimately deny, feelings of anger by adopting a stance of compulsive compliance and servitude to others; or on the other hand, fail to make such transitions leaving them highly oppositional and resistant (Crittenden & Ainsworth, 1989). Maltreated children alternate between intense and minimal affect, compulsive compliance and rebellious aggression, with coercive control often as a running theme (Crittenden, 1988; Wolfe et al., 1998).

Rooted in the principles of attachment, compulsive compliance is associated with an internal model of the other as powerful and hostile and the self model as lovable and

worthy only when compliant or “good” (Crittenden, Partridge, & Claussen; 1991). This style of adaptation may lead to the experience of anxiety and repressed anger in relationships. In contrast, overt resistance is associated with an internal model of the other as negative and the self as including justifiable anger. Such a pattern of adaptation may, in turn, carry over into peer and romantic relationships, whereby overt anger may characterise the victimizer role, and displaced and denied anger the victim role (Crittenden et al., 1991). These contingencies foster future conflict resolution strategies characterised by approach/avoidance tactics where the individual plays out the role of victim and victimizer, alternating between being the aggressor and being the victim (Cicchetti & Howes, 1991; Crittenden & Ainsworth, 1989; Dodge, Petit, & Bates, 1997).

Beyond attachment vulnerabilities, developmental trajectories towards relational difficulties are compounded by various types of cognitive-emotional disturbances (Cicchetti & Toth, 1995; Wolfe & Wekerle, 1997). For example, it has been suggested that the relationship between childhood maltreatment and feelings of lowered competency in romance is partially mediated by adolescents’ self-blame and hostile attributional biases (Feiring, Rosenthal, & Taska, 2000). In a related vein, Dutton and colleagues have demonstrated that random punishment, public criticism, and attacks on global self-concept during childhood are highly predictive of later feelings of shame and consequent rage experiences in a sample of abusive husbands (Dutton, Van Grinkel, & Starzowski, 1995). However, when caregivers’ shaming behaviours were statistically controlled, the effect of parental maltreatment on batterers’ abuse perpetration was significantly and sizeably reduced. According to the authors, parental shaming generates adult tendencies to avoid shame. By externalizing blame and developing a hostile

attributional bias, which is directly linked to increased aggression (Dodge & Coie, 1987; Dodge & Crick, 1990), shame-prone persons are better equipped to avoid re-experiencing shame, and ultimately protecting an already damaged and vulnerable sense of self.

Attachment insecurity, rejection sensitivity, and more recently shame-proneness share a number of similar properties (e.g., anxiety in interpersonal relationships) and predict similar response tendencies (e.g., defensiveness against appearing vulnerable). As described by Reyes (1998), a potential liability of working with constructs with conceptual similarities is the important overlap that may exist between them. When a substantial overlap is observed between constructs, several possible scenarios may arise. One is that a single construct is being identified by different labels, reflecting a case of undetected redundancy. Another scenario is that different variables tap into different aspects of some unacknowledged but unifying construct (Garber & Strassberg, 1991). According to Reyes (1998), attachment and rejection sensitivity correlate in a reasonable manner that supports the overarching categorical descriptor (e.g., “interpersonal processing variable”), yet demonstrate sufficient differences to support their validity as distinct constructs. Questions concerning the overlap between attachment and rejection sensitivity will be addressed in the first of three avenues of inquiry described below.

Downey's Model of Rejection Sensitivity: Avenues of Inquiry and Gaps in Knowledge

The association between attachment and rejection sensitivity. Although believed to be conceptually and empirically linked to, yet distinct from, prototypes of attachment, rejection sensitivity is understood as the cognitive-affective sequelae of insecure attachment (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Feldman & Downey, 1994). Whereas attachment focuses on internalized representations of relationships, rejection sensitivity and other

aspects of social cognition are believed to more proximately and precisely influence appraisals of others' intentions and behaviour, directly impacting individuals' social response strategies (Downey & Feldman, 1996). In acknowledging an important overlap between the two constructs, evidence has shown the unique predictive utility of rejection sensitivity. For example, research has shown that the association between exposure to family violence and adult attachment behaviour is largely mediated by the development of rejection sensitivity (Feldman and Downey, 1994). Similarly, the authors have also shown that rejection sensitivity predicts attributions of harmful intent from romantic partners above and beyond topologies of attachment (Downey & Feldman, 1996).

Only a handful of scholars have examined the association between attachment, rejection sensitivity and interpersonal development. Among those that have, a distinction between the constructs has been emphasised. Reyes (1998), for example, has demonstrated that maltreated children's attachment insecurity and rejection sensitivity account for unique variance in the development of trauma symptoms, and that collectively, both constructs positively predict the probability of deleterious outcomes over time. In direct investigations of adolescent conflict resolution in romance, variables associated with excessive interpersonal sensitivity and personal resources, such as self-efficacy and social expectations, have been found to uniquely predict dating violence above and beyond attachment for boys and girls (Wolfe et al., 1998). Interestingly, however, different patterns of results emerged for males and females. For boys, insecure attachment and over-sensitive reactivity uniquely added to the prediction of romantic abuse perpetration; supporting a straightforward additive model. For girls, feelings of hostility and over-sensitive reactivity were found to mediate the impact of maltreatment

and attachment on offending behaviour (Wolfe et al., 1998). Thus, although attachment and rejection sensitivity are expected to predict dating violence, the patterns of association may be different for males and females.

Currently, it is difficult to draw firm conclusions about the specific links between attachment and rejection sensitivity. One reason for this stems from researchers' use of problematic measurement techniques. For example, Feldman and Downey (1994) measured attachment using Hazan and Shaver's (1987) forced-choice technique, which is limited for a number of reasons. First, its categorical nature assumes that individual variability within the discrete categories is unimportant or does not exist, and that categories of attachment profiles are strictly mutually exclusive (Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990). Second, its test-retest reliability has been measured at only 70%, indicating that roughly 30% of individuals change their attachment-style classification over a period of time ranging from one week to one month (Baldwin & Fehr, 1995). Third, the measure's three-category classification approach may inherently obscure relevant information provided by more sensitive four-category measures of attachment orientation (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; for review see Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994).

It is important to clarify the latter point. Building on more traditional topologies of attachment that differentiate between secure, anxious-ambivalent or avoidant orientations (Ainsworth et al., 1997), Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991) proposed a four-category model of attachment based on two dimensions: (a) positivity of an individual's model of self, and (b) positivity of an individual's model of other. The latter dimensions are thought to provide a clearer picture of attachment. Not only do they provide

information about the respondent's self-identified attachment style, but in addition, provide an index of a person's valuation of self in relationships, termed "Model of Self", and "Model of Other".

Individuals providing ratings that imply a positive valuation of self are deemed "secure" if their valuing of others is positive, and "dismissive" if their valuing of others is negative. Individuals providing ratings that imply a negative valuation of self are deemed "preoccupied" if their valuing of others is positive, and "fearful" if their valuation of others is negative. In line with the seminal ideas that (a) the formation of adult romantic relationships is a biosocial attachment process akin to the development of child-caregiver bonds (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), and the idea that (b) competing demands for interpersonal closeness (relatedness) and autonomy (individuality) represent the root of most romantic disturbances (Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995), Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) have extended the attachment-theoretical framework to fruitfully predict adult romantic outcomes.

To illustrate, studies have shown that secure adults enjoy more stable and satisfying romantic relationships characterised by a healthy balance of interpersonal closeness and individuality (Brennan & Bosson, 1998; for review see Crowell, Fraley, & Shaver, 1999; Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994). Preoccupied individuals, on the other hand, are likely to experience stormier romances as their excessive desire for closeness and extreme fears of abandonment impede the development true intimacy (Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Shaver & Hazan, 1994). Dismissing individuals who emphasise individuality at the expense of closeness seem prone to multiple short-term relationships characterised by little emotional investment (Simpson &

Gangestad, 1991). Mature romantic intimacy is encumbered by their tendency towards suspicion, jealousy, and emotional unavailability (Shaver & Hazan, 1994). Finally, fearful individuals appear to be interpersonally paralysed by anxiety; often opting to forgo negatively-arousing romantic involvements all together (see Collins & Sroufe, 1999).

In summarising findings from the adult romantic literature, it appears that attachment and rejection sensitivity are conceptually overlapping constructs. Although the few studies that have attempted to disentangle the two have shown discriminate validity, measurement shortcomings have rendered firm conclusions elusive. For example, although Downey and Feldman (1996) later rectified some of the aforementioned shortcomings by utilising continuous attachment measures (i.e., The Adult Attachment Style Questionnaire, Levy & Davis, 1988), they continued to approach attachment from a three-category perspective (see Wolfe et al., 1998). Thus, possibly veiling the specific links between, and unique contributions of, attachment and rejection sensitivity on interpersonal functioning. In testing Downey and associates' (1999) model of rejection sensitivity with adolescents, the present work aims to control for the effects of attachment using Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) continuous, four-category measure of attachment orientation.

The domain specificity of rejection sensitivity. Conceptualised as a global cognitive-affective processing disposition, rejection sensitivity is construed as a stable way of interpreting and reacting to social cues within different types of social relationships. Although interrelated, relationships with parents, peers, friends, and romantic partners differ in both form and function (Sullivan, 1953). These inherent

differences may lead individuals to develop different expectations, beliefs and assumptions regarding different types of interpersonal relationships. As such, the emergence of rejection sensitivity in one type of relationship or domain (e.g., with parents) may not necessarily generalise to, or spill over into, other types of relationships or domains (e.g., with peers).

By integrating neo-Sullivanian principles with insights from adult attachment theory, Furman and Wehner (1994, 1997) contend that romantic relationships are shaped by multiple, hierarchical, and interdependent types of relationships. In underscoring peers as important socialisation agents in romantic development, the authors highlight the differential contributions of both parent-child and peer relations as laying the foundations for a multitude of intimacy-related issues in romantic development. At the core of Furman and Wehner's framework is the premise that individuals come to form hierarchical, yet interrelated views about particular relationships, types of close relationships, and more broadly, views about relationships in general. By views, the authors describe conscious and unconscious⁷ cognitive-affective representations of relationships that encompass an individual's tacit knowledge, assumptions, and expectations about personal relationships and personal phenomena.

It is thought that views of relationships overlap as a function of the overlap between the behavioural systems that become activated within them (Furman & Wehner, 1994, 1997; Furman & Simon, 1999). A behavioural system is defined as a goal-

⁷Distinguishing between conscious and unconscious perceptions of relationships is important because their degree of correspondence has been controversial (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998). Although it is generally thought that they mutually influence each other in important ways, interview techniques required to assess unconscious perceptions, which are akin to Bowlby's working models, and questionnaire techniques employed to assess conscious perceptions do not necessarily yield identical information (for review see Crowell, Fraley, & Shaver, 1999).

corrected system that functions to maintain a relatively steady state between the individual and his/her environment (Bretherton, 1985). Because different behavioural systems are designed to (a) monitor the fulfilment of specific social needs, and that (b) lessons about the likelihood of fulfilling specific social needs are taught primarily across different types of key relationships, it is expected that individuals develop different views about different types of close relationships. Simply put, the co-ordination of relational views across different types of relationships is thought to depend on the behavioural systems that are shared between them (Furman & Wehner, 1994; 1997).

Four basic behavioural systems, namely the attachment, caregiving, affiliation, and sexual systems are expected to be activated in romantic relationships. It has been suggested that complete behavioural systems' integration, in which romantic partners become key figures in fulfilling attachment, caregiving, affiliation, and sexual needs, is not expected until the emergence of long-term, stable romantic relationships typically reserved for older adolescents and young adults (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994). During early and middle adolescence, the sexual and affiliative systems are expected to play a greater role than the attachment and caregiving systems in shaping romantic relationships (Feiring, 1996; Furman & Simon, 1999). Because of the centrality of affiliation and sexual needs, and because these needs are met primarily within the peer domain, agemates are expected to exercise a greater impact on romantic views than are parents at this stage of development. Thus, in sum, peers are expected to play a more pivotal role in shaping adolescent romantic views than parents because of the increased overlap between the behavioural systems involved in romantic and friendship relations, compared to those involved in parent-child relations (Connolly et al., 2000; Furman & Simon, 1999).

Research has generally supported the latter propositions. Furman and Wehner (1994, 1997), for example, have shown that, relative to other types of close relationships, views of best friendships were most highly correlated with views of romantic relationships. Moreover, Shulman and Scharf (2000) have suggested that the affective intensity in adolescent romantic relationships is related to concurrent appraisals of affective intensity in friendships but not parent-child relationships. Finally, Furman (1999) has demonstrated that the kind of support obtained from romantic partners is similar to that obtained from friends, but dissimilar from the type of support obtained from parents. In sum, Furman and Wehner's propositions provide a valuable framework for understanding the relational continuities and discontinuities between different types of close relationships across development.

By accounting for the similarities and dissimilarities across different types of relationships, predictions can be made about how experiences with peers and parents differently impact adolescent romantic adjustment. This assumption, however, has not been explored within the study of rejection sensitivity. A case in point, the most commonly cited measure of rejection sensitivity, the Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire (RSQ) (Downey & Feldman, 1996), assesses a global, composite score of rejection sensitivity by amalgamating ratings obtained across 18 items involving different social actors such as parents, peers, friends, romantic partners and teachers. Despite reports of high internal reliability ($\alpha = .83$), the actual correlation between items on the RSQ has been calculated to be relatively weak ($r = .25$), reflecting an average of about 6% of shared variance between any two items.

Building from the insights of Furman and Wehner (1994, 1997), the implications of such modest correlations are twofold: First, heightened expectations of rejection in one type of relationship or social domain may not be associated with heightened expectations of rejection in others, and second, romantic outcomes may be differentially predicted by rejection sensitivity in different types of social domains. As such, an aim of the current work is to examine whether rejection sensitivity across different social domains, namely with parents and peers, differentially impacts adolescents' romantic adjustment. In accordance with Furman and Wehner's perspective, it is expected that rejection sensitivity to peers will more powerfully predict the use of coercion and compliance in dating than rejection sensitivity to parents in middle adolescence.

A multidimensional approach to examining rejection sensitivity. Across all 18 items on the RSQ, respondents make a request of a significant other (e.g., "You ask a friend to do you a big favour"). For each situation, respondents indicate the degree of concern or anxiety they would feel, in that given moment, regarding whether or not their request will be granted (e.g., "How concerned or anxious would you be over whether or not your friend would want to help you out?"). Respondents then indicate the actual perceived likelihood of an accepting or rejecting outcome (e.g., "I would expect that my friend would be willing to help me out"). The RSQ is traditionally scored by weighting the affective dimension of concern/anxiety with the cognitive dimension of rejection expectation (i.e., the extent to which one expects a rejecting outcome to occur) across each scenario. As stated earlier, responses to all 18 situations are then averaged to generate an individual's index of global rejection sensitivity.

The Children's Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire - Part 1 (CRSQ - Part 1, Downey et al., 1998), parallels the RSQ in both form and function. Developed originally with children averaging 11.5 years of age, the CRSQ - Part 1 consists of 12 items designed to assess children's affective reactivity to, and cognitive expectations of rejection. Developed after the RSQ, the CRSQ - Part 1 was expanded to include anger as a possible affective reaction to perceived rejection. Consistent with research on emotion, anxiety and anger are both expected reactions in threatening situations (Lang, 1995). As with the RSQ, items on the CRSQ - Part 1 involve potentially rejecting scenarios (e.g., "Imagine that you had a really bad fight with your friend. Now you have a serious problem and you wish you had your friend to talk to. You decide to wait for your friend after class and talk with him/her. You wonder if your friend will want to talk to YOU"). Children are asked to indicate how nervous they would feel in the given scenario, how mad they would feel, and the degree to which they expect the a rejecting outcome to occur.

Traditionally, the CRSQ - Part 1 is scored by collapsing across the affective dimensions of anxiety and anger, and then averaging the resulting score with the cognitive dimension of rejection expectation (Downey et al., 1998). It is thought that anxiety and anger share similar features, for example, they both involve high arousal, negative valence, and stem from a defensive reaction to a perceived threat (Lang, 1995). However, it seems reasonable to suggest that responses of anxiety and responses of anger have different implications for individuals' short- and long-term adjustment. Although interrelated, overt anger may be more closely associated with increased aggression and more externalizing types of difficulties (for review see Loeber & Coie, 2001), whereas

anxiety may be more closely associated with increased withdrawal, and more internalizing types of difficulties (Rubin & Burgess, 2001; for review see Zahn-Waxler, Klimes-Dougan, & Slattery, 2000). Accordingly, anxious and angry reactions to potential rejection may differentially predict the use of coercion and compliance in dating relationships. At present, it is expected that angry rejection sensitivity will promote romantic coercion, and that anxious rejection sensitivity will promote romantic compliance.

A third aim in testing Downey and associates' (1999) model is to examine whether the predictive utility of rejection sensitivity is enhanced by approaching the construct from a multidimensional perspective. This notion is based on two observations. The first is that the individual components (i.e., dimensions) of rejection sensitivity fail to covary in a systematic manner (Downey & Feldman, 1996). The second is that researchers have voiced the need to examine "whether anxious and angry expectation of rejection promote different behavioural responses" (Downey, Khouri, & Feldman, 1997; p.106). As such, the current work aims to examine whether the prediction of romantic maladjustment is improved by weighing the three dimensions of rejection sensitivity separately. The three dimensions of rejection sensitivity will be labelled as (a) anxious rejection sensitivity (Anxious RJS), (a) angry rejection sensitivity (Angry RJS), and (c) expectation rejection sensitivity (Expectation RJS).

Romantic Attraction Among At-Risk Youth

Influenced by biological and psychological variables, proximal relationships in family and peer groups, and sociocultural factors (e.g., race, religion, and the media), the dynamics of romantic attraction are far from straightforward (Miller & Fox, 1987).

According to Bruce and Sanders (2001), attempts to clarify the complexities of romantic attraction have fallen into several broad categories, namely (a) ethnographic and psychological studies (Hatfield & Rapson, 1996; Goodwin, Fiske, Rosen, & Rosenthal, 2002), (b) anthropological and cross-cultural studies (Jankowiak & Fischer, 1998), as well as (c) evolutionary investigations (Buss, 1994). With the vast majority of research focussing on adults, however, comparatively less is known about the dynamics of romantic attraction in adolescence.

This relative paucity is especially apparent when it comes to studying actual romantic attraction between adolescents and their peers. In predicting assortative patterns of who will become attracted to whom within the peer network, two hypotheses are of central importance. The first, referred to as the similarity-attraction hypothesis, posits that individuals seek out similar others due to the inherently rewarding properties that these relationships entail (Rosenbaum, 1986; Rubin, Lynch, Coplan, Rose-Krasnor & Booth, 1994). Borrowing from the peer literature, evidence suggests that individuals select friends who are (a) concordant on demographic traits like age, sex and race (Kupersmidt, Derosier, & Patterson, 1995), (b) on the basis of common interests and activities (Dishion, Andrews, & Crosby, 1995), and (c) on the basis of reputationally-salient social behaviours such as those associated with aggression and withdrawal (Hartup, 1996). In short, whereas evidence suggests that prosocial individuals tend to befriend similarly prosocial others, maladjusted individuals tend to befriend similarly maladjusted others (Kupersmidt et al., 1995; Poulin, Cillessen, Hubbard, & Coie, 1997).

Building from the similarity-attraction, and by extension, the dissimilarity-repulsion hypothesis, Boivin, Dodge & Coie (1995) have described a notion of “fit”

between individuals as a critical feature of the process of liking. This is of particular salience in predictions pertaining to attraction, romantic or otherwise, among at-risk youth. By matching each others' negative behaviours, maladjusted individuals may provide one another with a guide for behavioural standards that reinforce and normalise maladjusted tendencies, possibly exacerbating them to levels which may not have been reached individually (Coie, Cillessen, Dodge, Hubbard, Schwartz, Lemerise, & Bateman, 1999; Vitaro, Tremblay, & Bukowski, 2001). Within romantic contexts, such relational processes may translate into potentially disastrous outcomes for dyads that show similar tendencies towards abusive or violent behaviour in close relationships.

The second hypothesis guiding predictions about adolescent romantic attraction is referred to as the need-fulfilment hypothesis. In the ultimate service of identity formation and individuation, the specific functions of, motives for, and dynamics of attraction change over the course of development (Brown, 1999; Connolly & Goldberg, 1999). As such, valued partner characteristics are expected to differ significantly across different stages of growth. Younger adolescents, for example, may place more importance on gaining status and approval by others (e.g., partners must be well liked by peers). In contrast, middle adolescents may weight personality and relational characteristics more heavily, while older individuals may focus on features central to establishing committed, long-term bonds (Brown, 1999; Roscoe et al., 1987). Said differently, romantic partners are thought to fulfil different needs within the developing self which, to varying degrees, shapes and guides attraction contingencies.

Compared with younger adolescents, middle adolescents seek increased closeness and substance from their romantic relationships (Feiring, 1996). Middle adolescence is a

time when the desire for romantic intimacy prompts the revamping of interpersonal boundary lines between the self and the other. In healthy development, this process represents the foundation of how individuals come to negotiate mature romantic intimacy. For rejection-sensitive youth, such stage-salient tasks may be particularly daunting as prior social-developmental needs, such as those associated with achieving a sense of belonging, acceptance, mutual regard, and ultimately an integrated and coherent sense of identity, may have gone largely unfulfilled (Erikson, 1964, 1968; Sullivan, 1953).

Rejection-sensitive youth who are motivated to pursue dating may do so in an attempt to compensate for prior unfulfilled needs within the newly developing context of romantic relations. Propelled by overcompensatory dynamics, rejection-sensitive youth may “dive” into romantic liaisons with a heightened sense of romantic dependency, neediness, and a general stance that promotes patterns of romantic overinvestment. According to Downey and associates (1999), these individuals seek a rapid intensification and commitment in romantic relationships, which may lead them to overvalue partners who are extremely present, extremely attentive, and who display a deep need for them. All these characteristics may, in time, promote patterns of jealous or deleterious controlling behaviours (Downey et al., 1999).

The similarity-attraction and need-fulfilment hypotheses are by no means mutually exclusive. According to both frameworks, it is expected that rejection-sensitive and other at-risk youth will show a heightened frequency of attraction to one another relative to their peers. However, according to each perspective the later phenomenon occurs for different reasons, and by extension, carries different implications for rejection-

sensitive adolescents. The similarity-attraction perspective predicts that romantic overinvestors that show patterns of coercion and compliance will respectively be attracted to others who show patterns of coercion and compliance. Simply put, coercion will attract coercion, while compliance will attract compliance. The need-fulfilment perspective, on the other hand, predicts that coercion will attract compliance and that compliance will attract coercion as a means to satisfy deep-seated relational needs.

In sum, the second overall objective of the present work is to explore assortative attraction among youth at risk for dating maladjustment. Although it is expected that rejection-sensitive adolescents will show a preference for other rejection-sensitive youth, and that those who manifest maladaptive dating practices (i.e., the use of coercion and compliance) will show a preference for others who show the same, the exact nature of the attraction remains unknown. The differential predictions made by the similarity-attraction and need-fulfilment hypotheses will be examined to clarify the dynamics of romantic attraction during adolescence.

Trajectories of Adolescent Depression

Depression among adolescents has emerged as a major mental health concern in the past two decades (Marcotte, Fortin, Potvin, & Papillion, 2001). It is estimated that 20-35% of boys and 25-40% of girls experience depressed mood (Petersen, et al., 1993), while 8-18% of all youth manifest clinical levels of depressive symptoms (Reynolds, 1992). Although the prevalence of depressive disorders is difficult to assess precisely, it is believed that approximately 10.4% of Canadians meet criteria for clinical depression (DeMarco, 2000). Recognised as particularly high in Quebec at 16%, the rate of depression and associated prevalence of suicidality among adolescents are considered

alarming by social scientists and mental health practitioners alike (Marcotte, 1996; Pronovost, Cote, & Ross, 1990).

Besides the extreme occurrence of suicide, depressive episodes have been linked to a host of negative consequences including dropping out of school, strained peer relations and poor friendships, poor self-esteem, delinquency, as well as early marriage and marital dissatisfaction (Lewinsohn, Gotlib, & Seely, 1995; Owens, 1994). These difficulties, in turn, are thought to increase levels of depression creating an on going negative cycle of life events across adolescence and into adulthood (Compas, Connor, & Hinden, 1998). Such bleak forecasts are not only reserved for youth who manifest clinical levels of depression. Young people who exhibit elevated, but subclinical levels of depressive symptomatology also present with many of the same social, clinical, and behavioural problems as do youth who meet diagnostic criteria (Gotlib, Lewinsohn, & Seeley, 1995). Therefore, it is critically important to shed light on the etiology and developmental trajectories associated with depression, as well as depressive symptomatology more broadly defined.

Although the etiology of depressive outcomes stems, in part, from genetic and physiological mechanisms, a substantial portion of the variance is unexplained by these factors (Jacobson & Rowe, 1999). In line with the growing recognition that depressive outcomes are influenced by, and emerge within, interpersonal contexts, increased attention has been directed toward clarifying the role of family and peers processes (Sheeber, Hops, & Davis, 2001; McFarlane, Bellissimo, & Norman, 1995).

Conceptualised as originating within the family context and later spilling over into the peer domain, mechanisms associated with the outcome of adolescent depression have

been identified as (a) stress/support, (b) social-interactional processes, (c) faulty or maladaptive cognitive styles, and (d) affect regulation impairments (for review see Sheeber et al., 2001).

Falling under the rubric of stress/support, it is widely recognised that adolescent depression is directly related to adverse family environments characterised by low levels of support and elevated levels of conflict (for reviews see Katz, 1998; Gotlib, Sommerfeld, & Caplan, 1999). Data from both clinical and community-based samples have demonstrated that adolescent depression is inversely related to levels of parental support, secure attachment, and approval provided within the family environment (Avison & McAlpine, 1992; McFarlane, Bellisimo, Norman, & Lange, 1994). Using multisource assessments, compelling evidence has shown that an overall latent construct of parental acceptance is inversely predicative of adolescent internalizing difficulties in the general population (Faubert, Foreland, Thomas, & Weirson, 1990).

Also investigated primarily within the context of the family, social-interactionist models posit that depressive behaviour may be functional, and to some degree adaptive, in its capacity to elicit desirable social consequences. Depressive behaviour has been shown to elicit help and support both currently and prospectively (for review see Sheeber et al., 2001). Within the context of parent-child relations specifically, adolescent depressive symptoms may act to suppress or constrain levels of aversive or undesired parental behaviours (e.g., those associated with control or dominance) (Dadds, Sanders, Morrison, & Rebgetz, 1992). For example, research has shown that mothers and daughters report increased maternal submissive behaviour in parent-child interactions when adolescent internalizing symptoms increase over time, *when and if* the adolescents

were experiencing high levels of symptoms at the time of the initial assessment (Powers & Welsh, 1999). In their interpretation of results, the authors suggest that daughters' depressive symptomatology may have been reinforced and maintained over time by increased maternal submissiveness.

In addition to effectively constraining levels of unwanted parental behaviour, evidence from adult literatures has shown that women's depressive behaviour may act to reduced levels of aggression from spouses and romantic partners (Biglan, Hops, Sherman, Friedman, Arthur, & Osteen, 1985). Although maltreatment from parents, peers, and romantic partners has been widely associated with depressive outcomes (see Downey et al., 1994; Craig, 1998; Migeot & Lester, 1996), the potential utility of manifesting depressive behaviour, especially in abusive relationships, is only beginning to be understood. In brief, social-interactionist models provide a compelling and provocative account for explaining how adolescent depression emerges and is maintained within different types of relationships or social domains.

The last two mechanisms, namely those associated with cognitive vulnerabilities and affect-regulation impairments, have also been directly linked to depressive susceptibility in young people. Within the cognitive spectrum, dysfunctional attitudes, greater pessimism about the future, more frequent polarized construing, and having an external locus of control have all been directly associated with depression (Hammond & Romney, 1995; Williams, Connolly, & Segal, 2001). Within the affective spectrum, difficulties in maintaining temporal continuity of positive emotions and poor management of negative arousal have shown similar associations (Garber, Braafladt, & Weiss, 1995). Cognitive biases and poor affect regulation may not only represent direct

hallmarks of depression, they may also impact it indirectly by creating maladaptive behavioural repertoires that further the probability of experiencing rejecting and victimizing interpersonal relationships.

Central to current hypotheses, recent evidence has suggested that involvement in romantic relationships is directly related to depressive symptomatology for at least some adolescents. Brendgen, Vitaro, Doyle, Markiewicz, & Bukowski (2002), for example, have shown that romantic involvement predicts depressive outcomes for young adolescents who are unpopular with their peers, but not for those who enjoy more positive peer relations. In a similar vein, Galliher, Rostosky, Welsk, & Kawaguchi (1999) have shown that adolescents who feel less powerful than their romantic partners, by virtue of imbalances in emotional involvement and decreased decision making, showed elevated depressive symptoms relative to others. The latter findings are relevant to rejection-sensitive youth, as they are likely to be both unpopular with peers and experience low levels of subjective interpersonal power and control in close relationships. Combined, these factors are thought to elevate one's risk of developing potentially abusive over-compensatory strategies in romantic relationships.

However, despite the above rationale, virtually no studies have been conducted to clarify the specific links between rejection sensitivity, maladjusted dating, and depression in adolescent populations. Among related studies, the most proximal stems from the work of Ayduk, Downey, & Kim (2001), who recently examined the associations between rejection sensitivity, romantic termination, and depressive symptoms among undergraduate women. Results from their 6-month longitudinal study indicate that females high in rejection sensitivity were at greater risk for depression than others when

experiencing a partner-initiated breakup, but not when experiencing a self- or mutually initiated breakup. In their interpretations of results, the authors suggest that depression in high rejection-sensitive women is a reaction to increased feelings of loss surrounding the failure to achieve one of their most valued goals, the prevention of rejection in close relationships.

In addressing the third and final series of hypotheses, the main objective is to clarify the specific links between rejection sensitivity, maladjusted dating, and depressive outcomes in middle adolescence. It is expected that rejection sensitivity with parents and peers, and involvement in maladjusted dating will directly predict depression. However, it is also expected that the relationship between rejection sensitivity and depression will be mediated, in part, by maladjusted dating, as measured by the use of coercion or compliance in romantic relationships.

Overview of the Current Study

The current research seeks to achieve three broad objectives. The first is to test the assumption that, relative to others, rejection-sensitive youth are more likely to employ overinvestment strategies of coercion and compliance in romantic relationships. In pursuing this first objective, attempts will be made to bridge three gaps in knowledge. The first stems from the need to clarify the differential impact of attachment and rejection sensitivity in the prediction of romantic maladjustment. The second stems from the unexplored assumption that domain-specific indices of rejection sensitivity with parents and peers will differentially impact romantic outcomes. The third gap arises from the equally unexamined premise that approaching rejection sensitivity from a multidimensional perspective will increase its predictive utility in romantic contexts.

Specific hypotheses associated with the first series of questions are as follows: (a) compared to others, rejection-sensitive youth will report an increased frequency of coercion and compliance in dating relationships, (b) above and beyond attachment, rejection sensitivity will be uniquely associated with the use of coercion and compliance in dating, (c) in middle adolescence, rejection sensitivity to peers will have a stronger association with romantic difficulties than will rejection sensitivity to parents, and (d) relative to other dimensions of rejection sensitivity, angry rejection sensitivity (Angry RJS) will be more powerfully associated with the use of coercion, while anxiety rejection sensitivity (Anxious RJS) will be more powerfully associated with the use of compliance in dating relationships.

The second broad objective is to demonstrate assortative attraction among rejection-sensitive and other at-risk youth. Specifically, it is expected that (e) adolescents' rejection sensitivity scores will be positively associated with those of romantic targets (i.e., targets of romantic attraction), (f) adolescents' rejection sensitivity scores will be positively associated with romantic targets' use of coercion and compliance, and (g) adolescents' use of coercion and compliance will be associated with similar strategies in romantic targets. That is, through processes of similarity-attraction, in which adolescents' coercion or compliance respectfully matches that reported by romantic targets; or through processes related to need-fulfilment, in which adolescents' levels of coercion match romantic targets' levels of compliance and vice-versa.

The third and final overall objective is to examine the links between rejection sensitivity, dating maladjustment and depressive outcomes in middle adolescence. It is expected that (h) rejection sensitivity to parents and peers will be directly and positively

associated with depressive symptomatology, (i) dating maladjustment, as measured by coercion and compliance, will be directly and positively associated with depressive symptomatology, and (j) the relationship between rejection sensitivity and outcomes of depression will be partially mediated by the involvement in maladjusted dating.

Method

Participants

Participants were 332 senior high school students (mean age = 16.7 years) recruited from four English-speaking secondary schools located in the greater Montreal area. Predominantly of Western European descent, the 188 girls and 144 boys generally originated from working- to middle-class families as measured by the socioeconomic index for occupations in Canada (Blishen, Carroll, & Moore, 1987). Specifically, fathers' socioeconomic status (SES) averaged 42.72 (SD = 13.79), which is characteristic of salespeople, mechanical repairers, and financial collectors, while mothers' SES averaged 42.03 (SD = 10.23), which is characteristic of secretaries, claim adjusters, and statistical clerks. Of the pool of available participants, 94% of students consented to participate (for consent form see Appendix A). Additional demographic characteristics of the sample are detailed in Table 1.

Consistent with past studies on romantic development, the majority of participants were involved, or had been involved, in one or more dating relationships that had lasted several months in duration (Feiring, 1996). Approximately half of the boys and two thirds of the girls were, at the time of assessment, involved in a romantic relationship that ranged from casual to serious in nature. In contrast, however, approximately 17.6% of the boys and 11.5% of the girls reported having never been involved in a romantic

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics by Sex

<u>Demographic Characteristics</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Age		
Mean (<i>SD</i>) yrs.	16.74 (.80)	16.80 (.70)
Range	14 - 19 yrs.	15 - 19 yrs.
Mother SES		
Mean (<i>SD</i>)	41.01 (9.74)	43.05 (10.54)
Range	22.08 - 63.64	21.37 - 75.60
Father SES		
Mean (<i>SD</i>)	42.75 (13.46)	42.71 (14.07)
Range	21.37 - 74.67	21.86 - 101.31
First Language		
English	83.8%	78.7%
French	12.7%	13.8%
Other	3.5%	7.5%
Ethnic Descent		
Western European	83.8%	90.4%
*Other	16.2%	9.6%
Religion		
Christian	85.2%	87.3%
Muslim	1.4%	1.1%
Hindu	.7%	2.7%
Buddhist	.7%	0%
Jewish	0%	1.1%
Other	12.0%	7.8%

Note. *Due of the frequency of dual ethnicity, a dichotomous classification system of “Western European” and “Other” was employed to reduce the total number of variables.

Percentages and other statistics are based on the entire sample of $N = 332$.

relationship. Also consistent with past research, almost half of the girls and boys had experienced sexual intercourse (Ministry of Health and Social Services of Quebec, 1989). See Table 2 for additional information regarding participants' dating status and sexual experience.

Measures

Instruments designed to assess (a) demographic information, (b) attachment orientation, (c) rejection sensitivity, (d) coercion and compliance in dating, (e) the identity of persons to whom adolescents' felt romantically attracted, and (f) depressive symptomatology were used in the current study (see Appendices B through G).

Demographic information. Each participant provided general information about their age, sex, school, academic performance, parents' marital status and social economic status, number of siblings, ethnic/cultural background, and current living situation.

The Relationship Questionnaire. To assess attachment orientation with mother, father, best friend, and romantic partner, participants completed a Relationship Questionnaire for each target relationship (RQ) (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Each counterbalanced RQ consisted of four descriptive paragraphs that reflect an attachment-style prototype: Secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing. Using 7-point scales, participants were instructed to rate the extent to which each paragraph described the quality of the target relationship under investigation. In order to control for, and avoid the describing of hypothetical relationships, participants were asked to identify the actual target person (e.g., mom or stepmom, dad or stepdad, current or most recent romantic partner). If actual relationships were non-existent (e.g., loss of a parent during

Table 2

Dating and Sexual Experience by Sex

<u>Dating and Sexual Experience</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Current Dating Status		
Seriously Dating	23.3%	39.4%
Casually Dating	22.5%	22.2%
Not Currently Dating	54.2%	38.4%
Typical Dating Status		
Seriously Dating	13.4%	26.4%
Casually Dating	49.3%	35.7%
Rarely Dating	19.7%	26.4%
Never dating	17.6%	11.5%
Longest Dating Relationship		
If Applicable		
One year or more	25.4%	16.1%
Less than 1 year	26.8%	18.3%
Less than 6 months	7.7%	6.5%
Less than 3 months	40.1%	59.1%
Age at First Dating Relationship		
If Applicable		
11 - 12 yrs.	14.1%	13.0%
13 - 14 yrs.	22.5%	13.2%
15 - 16 yrs.	35.5%	35.1%
17 - 18 yrs.	27.7%	38.7%
Have Engaged in Sexual Intercourse	44.3%	48.9%
Age at First Intercourse		
If Applicable		
Mean (SD) yrs.	15.00 (1.67)	15.23 (1.13)
Number of Sexual Partners		
If Applicable		
Mean (SD)	3.14 (2.84)	2.05 (1.80)

Note. Percentages and other statistics are based on the entire sample of $N = 332$.

adolescents' early childhood, or no romantic relationships to speak of) participants were asked skip the corresponding RQ.

In order to reduce the number of predictors into meaningful variables, the continuous ratings of secure, dismissing, preoccupied and fearful were combined into the two underlying dimensions of attachment: Model of Self and Model of Other (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). The Model of Self dimension is obtained by summing the ratings of the two attachment orientations with positive self models (secure and dismissing) and subtracting the ratings of the two orientations with negative self models (preoccupied and fearful). The Model of Other dimension is obtained by summing the ratings of the two attachment orientations with positive other models (secure and preoccupied) and subtracting the ratings of the two orientations with negative other models (dismissing and fearful). Reflecting the overall attachment quality of close relationships, the resulting Model of Self and Model of Other was computed for each target relationship. Means and standard deviations for girls' and boys' Model of Self and Model of Other for each target relationship are presented in Table 3.

The RQ has been validated against self-report measures of self-concept and interpersonal functioning (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), and has shown significant correspondence with other self-report measures of attachment security (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998). The RQ can be worded to assess attachment orientation in general, or attachment orientation within specific relationships (Bartholomew, 1996). The practice of using the RQ to measure older adolescents' attachment with multiple targets has been supported as both valuable and psychometrically sound (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994; Trinke & Bartholomew, 1997).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Models of Self and Models of Other with Mother, Father, Best Friend and Romantic Partner for Boys and Girls

<u>Models of Self and Other</u>	<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>		<u>Combined</u>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Model of Self with Mother	4.18	3.77	3.82	3.80	3.98	3.78
Model of Other with Mother	1.55	4.13	2.69 ^a	4.55	2.22	4.39
Model of Self with Father	3.26	3.84	2.61	4.25	2.88	4.09
Model of Other with Father	.42	4.24	.75	4.87	.65	4.62
Model of Self with Friend	3.64	3.60	3.40	3.78	3.49	3.70
Model of Other with Friend	1.33	4.23	3.25 ^c	3.72	2.43	4.04
Model of Self with Partner	2.83	3.63	2.22	4.40	2.50	4.07
Model of Other with Partner	3.41	4.14	2.70	4.30	2.98	4.24

Note. Means and standard deviations are based on different sample sizes; $n = 306$

for models with mother, $n = 299$ for models with father, $n = 316$ for models with best friend, and $n = 208$ for models with romantic partner.

^a mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .05$

^b mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .01$

^c mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .001$

The Adolescent Rejection Sensitivity Survey. This measure was designed to assesses adolescents' affective reactivity to rejection as well as their cognitive expectations of rejection by combining applicable items from the Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire (RSQ) (Downey & Feldman, 1996), the Children's Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire - Part 1 (CRSQ - Part 1) (Downey et al., 1998), and other relevant items designed to assess rejection concerns (Margolese, 2002). Paralleling Downey and colleagues' measures, participants were presented with a series of potentially rejecting scenarios. Respondents were then asked to indicate on a 7-point scale ranging from "not at all" to "very", how (a) nervous (i.e., anxious) they would feel in the given scenario, how (b) mad (i.e., angry) they would feel in the given scenario, and (c) the extent to which they would expect a rejecting outcome to actually occur.

The Adolescent Rejection Sensitivity Survey, however, differed from Downey and associates' measures (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey et al., 1998) in two important ways. First, it aimed to assess relationship- or domain-specific measures of rejection sensitivity with mother, father, best friend, and romantic partner. Adolescents were instructed to report on parents or stepparents, on the individual they considered to be their best friend, and on their current or most recent romantic partner. Those with no dating experience were instructed to imagine themselves in the given scenarios with a hypothetical boyfriend or girlfriend. Three identical scenarios were used to assess rejection sensitivity to mother and father, while the four scenarios employed to assess rejection sensitivity to best friends and romantic partners were contextually unique.

Second, unlike previous measures, the Adolescent Rejection Sensitivity Survey was designed to assess rejection sensitivity from a multidimensional perspective. Unlike

traditional measures that collapse across indices of affective and cognitive reactivity to rejection to create a composite, overall score of rejection sensitivity, the Adolescent Rejection Sensitivity Survey aimed to assess the unique contributions of the construct's central components, namely Anxiety RJS, Anger RJS, and Expectation RJS. The 3 components of rejection sensitivity were first computed separately for each type of relationship. That is, means for Anxiety RJS, Anger RJS, and Expectation RJS were computed separately for scenarios involving mother, father, best friend, and romantic partner. Then, in order to reduce the total number of variables, as well as to maximize internal reliability coefficients, the individual components of rejection sensitivity were respectively collapsed across peer and parent relationships. The resulting three measures of parent rejection sensitivity, and the three measures of peer rejection sensitivity ranged from $\alpha = .70$ to $\alpha = .79$, with the exception of Expectation RJS within the peer domain, which yielded a lower, albeit still marginally acceptable score of $\alpha = .62$. For additional information, including central descriptive statistics, see Table 4.

Behaviours in Dating Questionnaire. The latter 17-item measure was designed to assess Physical Coercion, Verbal/Emotional Coercion, and Compliance in dating relationships. Adapted for use with adolescents, it was borrowed largely from the physical assault and psychological aggression subscales of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2) (Straus, Hamby, McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996). Items such as "I have kicked, punched or bit my boyfriend/girlfriend" assessed Physical Coercion, while items such as "I have called my boyfriend/girlfriend mean names and/or criticised some aspect of his/her appearance" assessed Verbal/Emotional Coercion. Using 6-point scales ranging from "never happened" to "happened over 10 times", respondents' indicated how often

Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics and Internal Reliability Coefficients for Components of
Rejection Sensitivity within Parental and Peer Domains for Boys and Girls*

<u>Components of Rejection Sensitivity</u>	<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>		<u>Combined</u>		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α
Parent Anxiety RJS	2.67	1.29	2.97 ^a	1.31	2.85	1.30	.72
Parent Anger RJS	3.27	1.37	3.67 ^a	1.48	3.50	1.44	.79
Parent Expectation RJS	2.64	1.33	2.52	1.16	2.57	1.23	.70
Peer Anxiety RJS	3.52	1.21	4.09 ^c	1.16	3.86	1.21	.74
Peer Anger RJS	3.31	1.15	3.67 ^c	1.21	3.52	1.20	.78
Peer Expectation RJS	2.93 ^b	1.09	2.59	.81	2.73	.95	.62

Note. Means and standard deviations are based on the entire sample of $N = 332$.

^a mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .05$

^b mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .01$

^c mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .001$

they behaved coercively in romantic relationships during the previous two years. Both the physical and psychological subscales of the CTS2 have demonstrated sound psychometric properties, including high internal reliabilities, $\alpha = .86$ and $\alpha = .79$ respectively, as well as good construct and discriminant validity (Straus et al., 1996). In the current sample, the 3-item Physical Coercion subscale and the 3-item Verbal/Emotional Coercion subscale yielded reliability coefficients of $\alpha = .84$ and $\alpha = .74$ respectively.

Approximately 16% of boys and 40% girls sampled admitted having perpetrated Physical Coercion against romantic partners at least once within the last two years. For example, 4% of boys and 18% of girls report having slapped their partners with the intention of causing harm, while 5% of boys and 14% of girls report having kicked, bit, or punched their boyfriend or girlfriend with injurious intent. Relative to Physical Coercion, the perpetration of Verbal/Emotional Coercion was more common for both sexes. The majority of adolescents, 66% of males and 75% of females, reported having employed Verbal/Emotional Coercion against partners. To illustrate, as many as 34% of boys and 47% of girls admitted belittling partners by calling them names and criticising aspects of their appearance.

Compliance, on the other hand, was measured by reversing selected items from the CTS2 to assess how often respondents have been the targets, that is the recipients, of romantic partners' coercive behaviours. Reflecting psychological, physical, and sexual forms of acquiescence, and in more extreme cases what would be considered victimization, the Compliance subscale included items such as "I have put up with a boyfriend/girlfriend who has been physically abusive to me", and "Although I did not

really want to, I have engaged in sexual activity to please my partner”. As described above, all items were rated on 6-point scales ranging from “never happened” to “happened over 10 times”. The 9-item Compliance subscale yielded a reliability coefficient of $\alpha = .80$.

Incidences of romantic Compliance were far from rare within the current sample. Whereas 26% of boys and 19% of girls reported having tolerated some form of physical abuse, 31% of boys and 38% of girls described having put up with a romantic partner who has made them feel bad about themselves. In addition, over 26% of males and 30% of females reported having engaged in sexual activity before feeling ready to in order to please a dating partner. See Table 5 for additional descriptive information concerning boys’ and girls’ use of Physical and Verbal/Emotional Coercion, as well as Compliance in dating relationships.

Peer attraction nomination technique. Each respondent was given a list of the names and corresponding identification numbers of all grademates attending their school. From this list, participants were asked to nominate the person they felt the most attracted to romantically. One hundred and forty-five participants, 72 boys and 73 girls, identified a romantic target; among these, three identified a same-sex peer. Those not identifying a romantic target either reported not being attracted to same-school grademates, or simply left the question blank. Interestingly, participants reported romantic attraction for a wide range of different individuals. Only six boys and two girls received more than 2 nominations each, with the most desired boy receiving a total of 5 nominations and the 2 most desired girls receiving a total of 3 nominations each.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Physical Coercion, Verbal/Emotional Coercion and Compliance in Dating for Girls and Boys

<u>Behaviour in Dating</u>	<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>		<u>Combined</u>		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>
Physical Coercion	.17	.64	.43 ^b	.87	.31	.79	.84
Verbal/Emotional Coercion	.83	1.05	1.17 ^b	1.20	1.02	1.15	.74
Compliance	.92	.87	.96	.95	.94	.92	.80

Note. Means and standard deviations are based on the entire sample of $N = 332$.

^a mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .05$

^b mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .01$

^c mean statistic higher than other sex $p > .001$

The Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale. This 20-item self-report measure is designed to assess depressive symptomatology in the general population (CES-D) (Radloff, 1977, 1991). Items assess symptoms such as sadness, lethargy, impairments in concentration, as well as changes in sleep and eating patterns. Examples of items include “I felt like I could not shake of the blues even with help from my family and friends” and “I felt like everything I did was an effort”. Using a 4-point rating scale ranging from “Rarely or None of the Time” to “Most or All of the Time”, participants indicated the frequency of depressive symptoms in the last 7-day cycle. Average scores on the CES-D were computed by reversing all positively worded items (4 in total), adding each item’s numerical value, and dividing the sum by the total number of items on the scale⁸.

The CES-D has demonstrated good test-retest reliability, construct and discriminant validity, as well as good internal consistency in community and clinical samples alike; alpha coefficients were measured at $\alpha = .85$ and $\alpha = .90$ respectively (Radloff, 1977, 1991; Zimmerman & Coryell, 1994). Moreover, the CES-D has been found suitable for use with adolescents (Mojarrad & Lennings, 2002; Radloff, 1991). As expected, the current sample showed good internal consistency, $\alpha = .88$. Descriptive statistics showed that boys’ depression scores averaged $M = .73$ ($SD = .53$), while girls’ scores averaged $M = .85$ ($SD = .54$). Consistent with past research, a significant sex difference, $t(320) = -2.0$, $p < .05$, revealed that depressive symptomatology was more frequent in girls relative to boys (for review see Hankin & Abramson, 2001).

⁸ When clinical cutoffs are of interest, the CES-D is scored by reversing all positively worded items, rendering the directionality of responses uniform, and then adding the numerical values associated with each item to obtain a score ranging from 0 to 60. A CES-D score of 16 or greater is typically associated with the presence of depression.

Procedures

Three of the four recruited schools allocated in-class testing time, whereas the fourth authorised a take-home procedure. In the first three schools, two 45-minute class periods were reserved for testing. The first period was comprised of a 10- to 15-minute information session, followed by a 30-minute testing session. During the information session, students were informed of the nature, purpose, and goals of the project, and explicitly informed of the voluntary and confidential nature of the study. Students were also informed that, in order to promote thoughtful, accurate responding, they would each receive a 10\$ gift certificate from a leading Canadian music retailer for their participation, regardless of whether they choose to leave questions blank and/or discontinue testing at any time. Ethical approval for the current research was obtained from the schools' respective administering boards, as well from the institutional review board of Concordia University.

Prior to commencing in-class testing, students from the first three schools were instructed to displace their desks to ensure privacy, were briefed on the logistics of the multiple-answer type questionnaire, and encouraged to raise their hand should they have questions during the session. A questionnaire booklet and consent form was distributed to each student, those wishing not to participate were instructed to work quietly at their desk for the remainder of the class period. Towards the end of the session, a large brown envelope was distributed to each participant. To ensure confidentiality, as well as the smooth redistribution of questionnaires during the second testing session, students were instructed to place their booklets inside the envelopes, to seal them, and to print their names across the flaps. At the beginning of the second in-class testing session, which

took place within the next seven-day cycle, envelopes were distributed back to students who were then given the rest of the class period to complete their questionnaires. Virtually all students completed testing during the allocated time period, those that did not were scheduled for a follow-up testing session in the following days.

The logistics of the take-home procedure differed from those of the in-class procedure. With the help of official class lists, take-home packages complete with questionnaire booklets, consent forms, and additional instructions, were prepared for each senior student attending the participating school. To keep track of potential participants, students' names were printed on the envelopes containing the materials, but not on the actual materials per se, which were identified only with serial numbers. Students received a 15-minute information session during a general assembly in their auditorium. Upon their dismissal, students who wished to participate were asked to pick-up their packages, which were alphabetically displayed on large tables at the exits. As instructed, students were to return their completed materials in sealed unmarked envelopes, which were provided, to a designated area over their lunch hour two days later. Upon returning their questionnaires, students received a 10\$ gift certificate. Of the pool of available participants, 91% of students collected their questionnaires, of these, 73% returned their packages at the designated time or through their school counsellor at a later point. Besides yielding a lower return rate, no other significant differences were found between participants who completed questionnaires at home versus those who did so in class.

A final debriefing session was made available to all participants. Students were provided with follow-up information, given the opportunity to ask questions, as well as encouraged to provide written and/or verbal feedback concerning the study. Moreover, all

participants were reminded of the many resources available to them, including the coordinates of the primary researcher, should they wish to further discuss any of the issues highlighted in the study.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Before addressing central questions, three preliminary correlation matrices were computed to examine the interrelationships between subscales on principle measures of attachment, rejection sensitivity, and dating maladjustment. Beginning with measures of attachment, the first correlation matrix examined the association between Models of Self and Models of Other across, as well as within, target relationships. As illustrated in Table 6, low- to medium-sized positive correlations emerged between Models of Self in all relationships. For Models of Other, a different pattern of results emerged. While Model of Other with mother, father, and best friend were positively correlated with one another, only Model of Other with best friend was associated with Model of Other with romantic partner ($r = .20$). In addition, within-relationship observations revealed positive associations between Model of Self and Model of Other with mother ($r = .29$), and with father ($r = .31$), but not with best friend or with romantic partner. Thus, although Models of Self are associated with Models of Other in parent-child relationships, these models appear to be orthogonal within the peer domain.

A second correlation matrix was computed to examine the relationship between dimensions of rejection sensitivity with parents and peers. As expected, patterns of medium- to large-sized positive correlations were generally revealed (see Table 7). For example, Anxious RJS to parents correlated positively with Anxious RJS to peers ($r =$

Table 6

Correlations between Model of Self and Model of Other with Mother, Father, Best Friend, and Romantic Partner

<u>Models</u>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Self with Mother							
2. Other with Mother	.29***						
3. Self with Father	.33***	.08					
4. Other with Father	.22***	.22***	.31***				
5. Self with Friend	.31***	.03	.33***	.06			
6. Other with Friend	.09	.23***	.03	.20**	.09		
7. Self with Partner	.20**	-.07	.27***	.08	.35***	.02	
8. Other with Partner	-.02	-.04	.06	.03	.04	.20**	.08

Note. Correlations are based on different sample sizes; $n = 306$ for models with mother, $n = 299$ for models with father, $n = 316$ for models with best friend, and $n = 208$ for models with romantic partner.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 7

Correlations between Components of Rejection Sensitivity with Parents and Peers

<u>Components of RJS</u>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Parent Anxiety RJS					
2. Parent Anger RJS	.40***				
3. Parent Expectation RJS	.25***	.06			
4. Peer Anxiety RJS	.40***	.27***	.05		
5. Peer Anger RJS	.23***	.56***	-.03	.53***	
6. Peer Expectation RJS	.04	-.01	.32***	.20***	.04

Note. Means and standard deviations are based on the entire sample; $N = 332$.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

.40), with similar cross-domain associations being uncovered for Angry RJS ($r = .56$), and Expectation RJS ($r = .32$). In addition, within-domain observations revealed relatively high positive correlations between Anxious and Angry RJS to parents ($r = .40$), and between Anxious and Angry RJS to peers ($r = .53$)⁹.

Following this, a third correlation matrix was computed to explore the associations between measures of Physical Coercion, Verbal/Emotional Coercion and Compliance in dating. Positive correlations emerged for all three indices of dating maladjustment. Thus, not only was Physical Coercion found to be strongly associated with Verbal/Emotional Coercion ($r = .52$), as one might expect, but both forms of coercion were also found to be positively associated with Compliance (see Table 8). In other words, respondents who employ coercive tactics, regardless of whether they are physical or verbal/emotional in nature, also report being the recipients of their partners' coercive behaviours.

Once the intra-measure analyses were conducted, a final correlation matrix was computed to examine the associations between measures of attachment and rejection sensitivity. As expected, results revealed general patterns of small- to medium-sized negative correlations (see Table 9). Models of Self in close relationships, relative to Models of Other, were most consistently associated with indices of rejection sensitivity. As expected, Models of Self with mother and father were more closely associated with dimensions of rejection sensitivity to parents, while Model of Self with romantic partner

⁹ Interestingly, the affective components of rejection sensitivity (Anxiety RJS and Angry RJS) were differentially associated with the cognitive component of rejection sensitivity (Expectation RJS) in both social domains. Adolescents' who react anxiously to potential rejection, whether it be from parents or peers, also expect rejection to actually occur. However, adolescents who react angrily to potential rejection, whether it be from parents or peers, do not necessarily expect rejecting outcomes to occur. The lack of systematic variance between the components of rejection sensitivity adds credence to the notion that weighting components uniquely may increase the construct's predictive utility.

Table 8

Correlations between Physical Coercion, Verbal/Emotional Coercion, and Compliance in Romantic Relationships

<u>Maladaptive Strategies</u>	1	2
1. Use of Physical Coercion		
2. Use of Verbal Coercion	.52***	
3. Use of Compliance	.30***	.50***

Note. Means and standard deviations are based on the entire sample; $N = 332$.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 9

*Correlations between Models of Self and Models of Other with Dimensions of Rejection**Sensitivity within Parental and Peer Domains*

<u>Models of Self and Other</u>	Parent Anxiety RJS	Parent Anger RJS	Parent Exp. RJS	Peer Anxiety RJS	Peer Anger RJS	Peer Exp. RJS
Model of Self with Mother	-.18**	.00	-.35***	-.08	-.02	-.07
Model of Other with Mother	-.11	.00	-.35***	.08	.12*	-.17**
Model of Self with Father	-.31***	-.06	-.28***	-.11	-.04	-.06
Model of Other with Father	-.09	.02	-.30***	-.07	-.04	-.08
Model of Self with Friend	-.21***	-.13*	-.14*	-.21***	-.18**	-.19**
Model of Other with Friend	-.01	.03	-.23***	.09	.04	-.21***
Model of Self with Partner	-.05	-.05	-.11	-.23**	-.17**	-.28***
Model of Other with Partner	.05	.00	.00	-.02	.01	-.04

Note. Correlations are based on different sample sizes; $n = 306$ for models with mother, $n = 299$ for models with father, $n = 316$ for models with best friend, and $n = 208$ for models with romantic partner.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

was most closely associated with dimensions of rejection sensitivity to peers.

Interestingly, however, Model of Self with best friend was associated with indices of both parental and peer rejection sensitivity. In brief, whereas perceptions of the self with parents are related to rejection sensitivity to parents, and perceptions of the self with romantic partners are related to rejection sensitivity to peers, only perceptions of the self with best friend are related to rejection sensitivity in both social domains. The data support the notion that friends may, to some degree, act as a relational bridge between parents and romantic partners. Following these preliminary observations, attention was redirected towards primary objectives.

General Analytic Strategy

Results are organised into three main sections designed to address each of the central lines of inquiry. The first section examines the unique contributions of rejection sensitivity and attachment in predicting romantic maladjustment. In these analyses, the construct of rejection sensitivity is approached from a multidimensional perspective in which the components of Anxiety RJS, Anger RJS, and Expectation RJS are measured separately within parental and peer domains.

The second section of results investigates romantic attraction among rejection sensitive and at-risk youth. To this end, three levels of analyses are conducted. The first level examines the association between adolescents' and romantic targets' rejection-sensitivity scores, while the second examines the association between adolescents' rejection-sensitivity scores and romantic targets' use of coercion and compliance in dating. Lastly, the third level of analyses investigates the associations between

adolescents' and romantic targets' use of coercion and compliance in romantic relationships.

The third and final section of results explores the associations between rejection sensitivity, dating maladjustment, and depressive symptomatology. Using structural equation modeling, path models will test the specific contributions of parental and peer rejection sensitivity, and coercion and compliance in dating, in the prediction of depressive outcomes. Three separate path analyses will be conducted. The first two models will investigate the impact of peer and parental rejection sensitivity, respectively. Based on these results, a third model will be conducted in which significant findings from the earlier analyses are consolidated.

Predicting Dating Maladjustment from Attachment and Rejection Sensitivity

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to examine the contributions of attachment and rejection sensitivity in predicting (a) Physical Coercion, (b) Verbal/Emotional Coercion, and (c) Compliance in dating. In order to investigate the unique effects of rejection sensitivity in the most conservative manner possible, three regression analyses were conducted for each of the three outcome measures. For each outcome, the first and second regression models examined the predictive effects of attachment separately for peers and parents. The third and final model tested the unique effects of rejection sensitivity while controlling for all significant effects of attachment found in both prior regression analyses.

The perpetration of Physical Coercion. A six-step regression analysis was conducted to examine whether attachment to peers, as measured by Models of Self and Other with best friend and romantic partner, predicted Physical Coercion in dating. Sex

was entered on the first step, while the duration of participants' longest dating relationship, used as a control measure for Dating Experience, was entered on the second step. All four main effects of Model of Self and Other with best friend, and Model of Self and Other with romantic partner were entered on the third step. On the fourth step, the interactions between Model of Self and Model of Other with best friend, and the interaction between Model of Self and Model of Other with romantic partner were entered. Next, all two-way interactions between Sex and Models of Self, and Sex and Models of Other were entered on the fifth step. Finally, three-way interactions between Sex, Model of Self, and Model for Other were entered separately for best friend and romantic partner on the sixth step of the analysis. All results pertaining to attachment are discussed below, while any main effects of Sex and Dating Experience are discussed in the third and final regression model for each outcome.

As presented in Table 10, results indicated a negative main effect of Model of Self in romantic relationships on the final step of the equation ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$). Adolescents' who hold a more negative Model of Self in romantic relationships are more likely to employ Physical Coercion against romantic partners, while those who hold a more positive Model of Self are less likely to do so. No main effects were found for Models of Self or Other with best friend, nor were any interaction effects revealed in the current analysis.

Following this, a second six-step regression model was conducted to examine whether attachment to parents, as measured by Models of Self and Other with mother and father, predicted Physical Coercion in dating. Predictors' order of entry was identical to that described in the prior analysis, with Sex entered on the first step and the three-way

Table 10

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Physical Coercion in Romantic Relationships from Models of Self and Models of Other with Best Friend and Romantic Partner

	<u>Models of Self and Other</u>			<u>Upon Entry</u>		<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	T	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2			
<u>Step 1</u> Sex	.13	1.80(*)	.02(*)	.09	1.25	.01			.01		
<u>Step 2</u> Dating Experience	.15	2.17*	.02*	.19	2.61**	.03**	.03*	.02*			
<u>Step 3</u> Model of Self with Friend	-.10	-1.40	.01	-.08	-1.66	.01	.11**	.07**			
Model of Self with Partner	-.17	-2.30*	.03*	-.16	-2.00*	.02*					
Model of Other with Friend	-.15	-2.10*	.02*	-.12	-1.42	.01					
Model of Other with Partner	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00					
<u>Step 4</u> Model of Self X Other with Friend	.07	.86	.00	.07	.90	.00	.12	.01			
Model of Self X Other with Partner	.06	.76	.00	.07	.87	.00					

Table 10 continued

<u>Models of Self and Other</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	T	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2	
Step 5									
Model of Self with Friend X Sex	-.04	-.56	.00	-.05	-.59	.00	.12	.00	
Model of Self with Partner X Sex	.02	.30	.00	.02	.20	.00			
Model of Other with Friend X Sex	.04	.48	.00	.03	.35	.00			
Model of Other with Partner X Sex	.04	.60	.00	.03	.43	.00			
Step 6									
Model of Self X Other with Friend X Sex	-.02	-.24	.00	-.02	-.24	.00	.12	.00	
Model of Self X Other with Partner X Sex	-.04	-.59	.00	-.04	-.59	.00			

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 202$.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

interactions between Sex, Model of Self, and Model of Other for mother and father entered on the final step of the analysis. Results revealed no significant main or interaction effects for Model of Self or Model of Other with either mother or father, indicating that attachment to parents does not predict the use of Physical Coercion in middle adolescents' dating relationships.

Finally, a third seven-step regression model was computed to examine the unique predictive effects of rejection sensitivity on Physical Coercion, while controlling for the effects of attachment in close relationships. Because Model of Self with romantic partner was the only measure of attachment that significantly predicted Physical Coercion in prior regressions, it was the only variable retained for analysis in the present model. Sex and Dating Experience were entered on the first step and second steps respectfully, while Model of Self with romantic partner was entered on the third step. Next, Anxious RJS, Angry RJS, and Expectation RJS were entered separately for parents and peers on the fourth step. On the fifth step, the two-way interactions between Anxiety RJS and Expectation RJS, and between Anger RJS and Expectation RJS were entered with respect to parents and peers. Again, entered separately by social domain, all two-way interactions between Sex and the components of rejection sensitivity were entered on the sixth step. Finally, the three-way interactions between Sex, Anxiety RJS, and Expectation RJS, and between Sex, Anger RJS, and Expectation RJS were entered, separately for parents and peers, on the seventh step of the model.

In interpreting the third regression model, a slightly different rationale was employed. Instead of interpreting results at the final step of entry, as in the case of the two first regression analyses, findings were interpreted at the last step of main effects;

that is, *unless* significant interaction effects rendered later steps significant (as measured by a significant ΔR^2). Reasons fuelling the latter rationale are twofold. First, all central hypotheses aim to explore the predictive effects of rejection sensitivity on dating outcomes from a multidimensional perspective; that is, by examining the differential impact of its distinct components, all weighted and entered as main effects. Second, all two- and three-way interaction effects, namely those between the affective and cognitive components of rejection sensitivity, as well as all those with Sex, were included more as measures of control than measures bearing direct predictive saliency.

Because no significant interaction effects emerged in predicting Physical Coercion, results of the third overall regression model were interpreted at the fourth step of analysis, the final step of analysis for main effects (see Table 11). Again, results revealed a significant negative main effect for Model of Self with romantic partner ($\beta = -.15, p < .05$), indicating the poorer one's Model of Self in romance, the more likely one will use Physical Coercion against partners. More importantly, above and beyond the effect of attachment, results also revealed a main negative effect for Anxious RJS ($\beta = -.21, p < .05$), and a main positive effect for Angry RJS ($\beta = .30, p < .01$) within the peer domain. Relative to others, anxious rejection sensitive adolescents employ less Physical Coercion, while angry rejection sensitive adolescents employ more Physical Coercion. Hence, not only do angry and anxious dimensions of rejection sensitivity to peers differentially predict Physical Coercion, they predict it in an inverse, or opposite manner. Finally, in other findings, results indicated a positive main effects for Sex ($\beta = .15, p < .05$), and for Dating Experience ($\beta = .18, p < .05$). The latter results suggest that girls perpetrate more Physical Coercion than boys, and that youth with more dating

Table 11

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Physical Coercion in Romantic Relationships from Peer and Parent Rejection Sensitivity and Model of Self with Romantic Partner

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2	
Step 1 Sex	.14	2.05*	.02*	.15	2.07*	.02*	.02*		
Step 2 Dating Experience	.15	2.11*	.02*	.18	2.51*	.03*	.04*	.02*	
Step 3 Model of Self with Partner	-.19	-2.67**	.03**	-.15	-2.03*	.02*	.07**	.03**	
Step 4 Peer Anxiety RJS	-.21	-2.28*	.03*	-.21	-2.28*	.03*	.14**	.06**	
Peer Anger RJS	.30	3.12**	.05**	.30	3.12**	.05**			
Peer Expectation RJS	.11	1.38	.01	.11	1.38	.01			
Parent Anxiety RJS	.02	.19	.00	.02	.19	.00			
Parent Anger RJS	-.13	-1.45	.01	-.13	-1.45	.01			
Parent Expectation RJS	.07	.99	.00	.07	.99	.00			

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 202$. (*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

experience have perpetrated Physical Coercion more frequently than those with less experience.

The perpetration of Verbal/Emotional Coercion. Using the same method to predict Verbal/Emotional Coercion in dating, an initial six-step regression analysis was conducted to examine the effects of attachment within the peer domain, while a second six-step analysis was conducted to examine the effects of attachment within the parental domain. In both analyses, predictors' order of entry was identical to that described in earlier examinations of Physical Coercion.

No main or interaction effects emerged in the first model, indicating that attachment to peers does not predict the perpetration of Verbal/Emotional Coercion in romantic relationships. The second model, however, revealed a different pattern of findings. As shown in Table 12, a significant three-way interaction emerged between Sex, Model of Self, and Model of Other with father ($\beta = -.17, p < .05$). As illustrated in Figure 1, girls who have a positive Model of Self and a negative Model of Other with their fathers (i.e., a dismissing attachment style) are more likely to perpetrate Verbal/Emotional Coercion against romantic partners than are others. However, girls who have a positive Model of Self and a positive Model of Other with their fathers (i.e., a secure attachment style) are less likely, relative to others, to perpetrate Verbal/Emotional Coercion in romantic relationships.

For boys, the data told a different story. As shown in Figure 2, boys who have both a negative Model of Self and a negative Model of Other with their fathers (i.e., a fearful attachment style) were at increased risk of using Verbal/Emotional Coercion relative to their peers. Moreover, Figure 2 also suggests, somewhat counterintuitively,

Table 12

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Verbal/Emotional Coercion in Romantic Relationships from

Models of Self and Other with Mother and Father

<u>Models of Self and Other</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2	
<u>Step 1</u> Sex	.16	2.68**	.03**	.18	2.87**	.03**	.03**		
<u>Step 2</u> Dating Experience	.39	7.10***	.15***	.39	7.10***	.16***	.17***	.15***	
<u>Step 3</u> Model of Self with Mother	-.05	-.76	.00	-.08	-1.29	.01	.18	.00	
Model of Self with Father	-.01	-.11	.00	.02	.34	.00			
Model of Other with Mother	-.01	-.08	.00	-.09	-1.24	.01			
Model of Other with Father	-.03	-.50	.00	-.05	-.68	.00			
<u>Step 4</u> Model of Self X Other with Mother	-.03	-1.80(*)	.01(*)	-.15	-1.93(*)	.01(*)	.19	.01	
Model of Self X Other with Father	-.03	-.57	.00	-.01	-.14	.00			

Table 12 continued

<u>Models of Self and Other</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>				<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2		
Step 5										
Model of Self with Mother X Sex	.04	.65	.00	.07	.98	.00	.20	.01		
Model of Self with Father X Sex	.07	1.04	.00	.03	.53	.00				
Model of Other with Mother X Sex	.06	.94	.00	.10	1.39	.01				
Model of Other with Father X Sex	-.03	-.43	.00	-.06	-.87	.00				
Step 6										
Model of Self X Other with Mother X Sex	.07	.83	.00	.07	.83	.00	.22*	.02*		
Model of Self X Other with Father X Sex	-.17	-2.47*	.02*	-.17	-2.47*	.02*				

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 283$.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 1

Association between Model of Self with Father and Model of Other with Father in Predicting Verbal/Emotion Coercion in Girls' Romantic Relationships

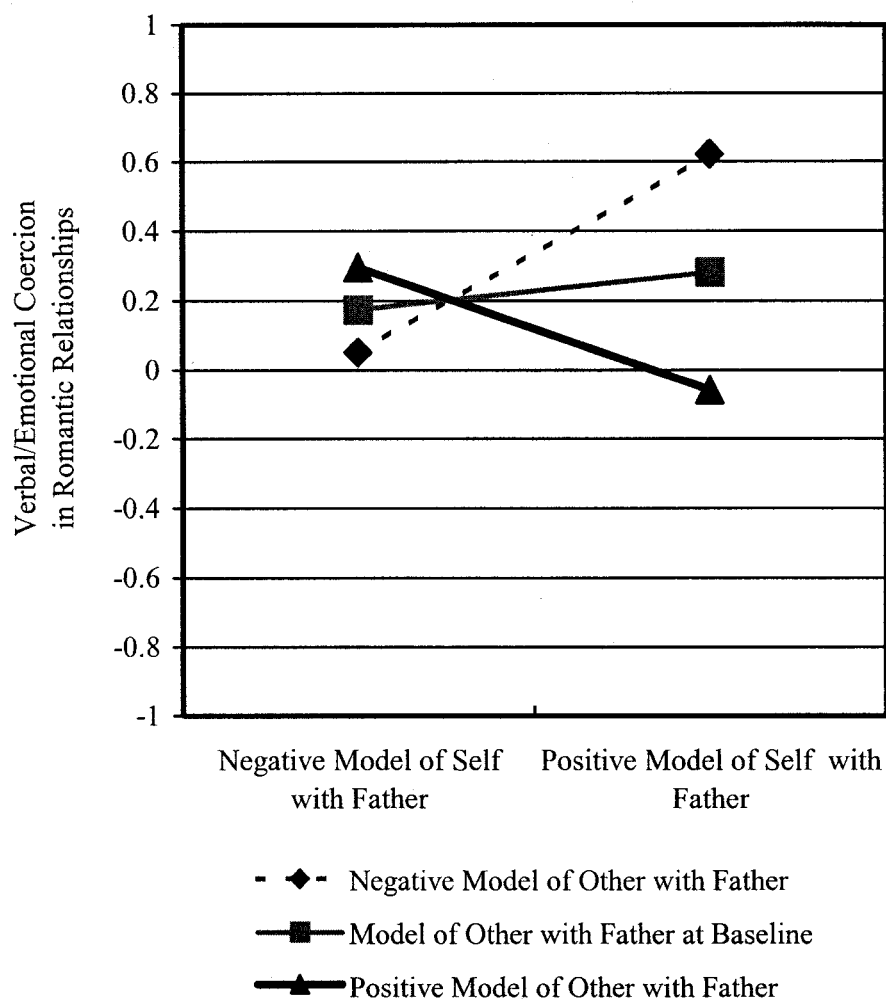
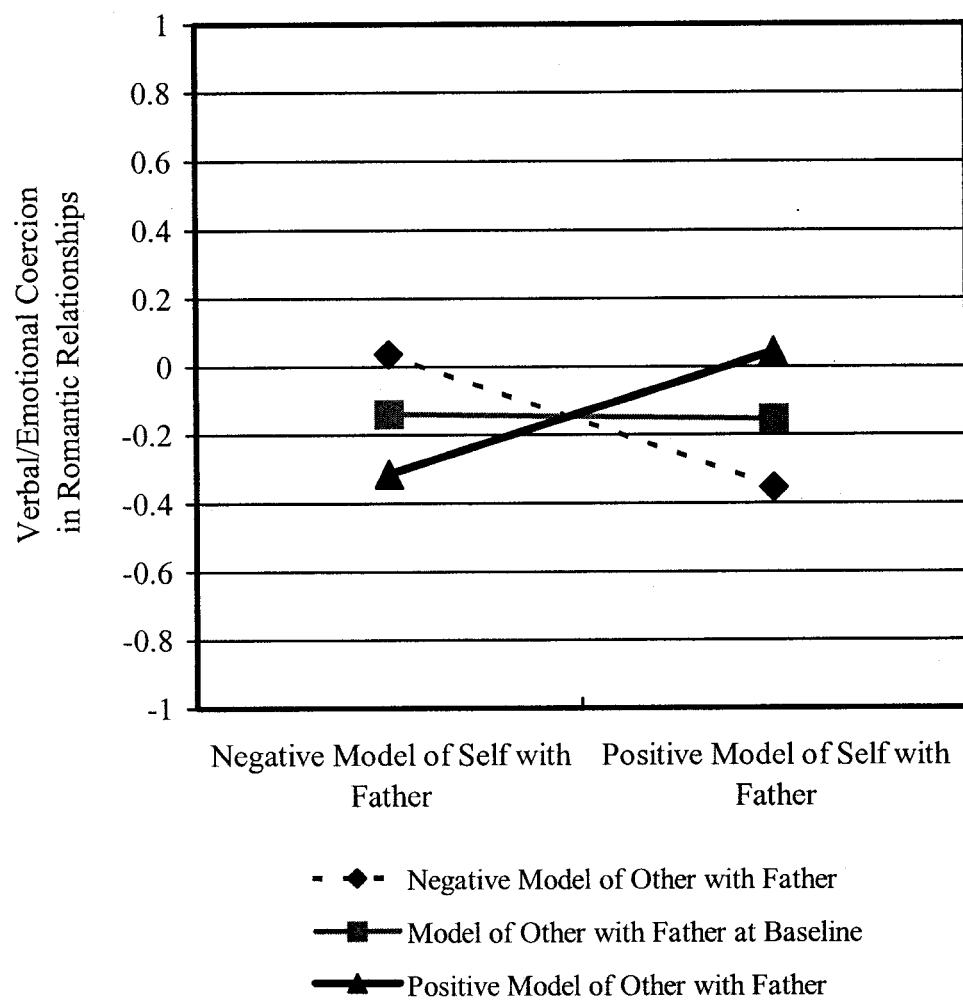


Figure 2

*Association between Model of Self with Father and Model of Other with Father
in Predicting Verbal/Emotion Coercion in Boys' Romantic Relationships*



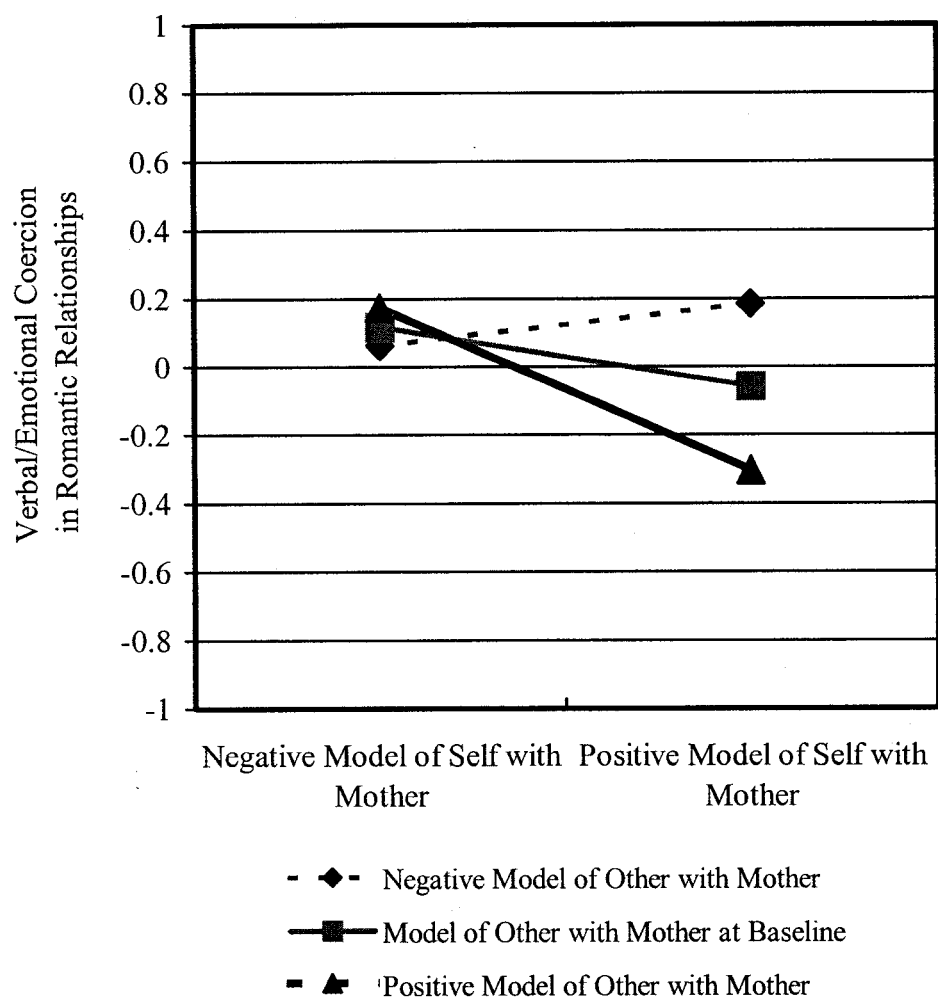
that boys who have both a positive Model of Self and a positive Model of Other with their fathers (i.e., a secure attachment style) are similarly at heightened risk for using Verbal/Emotional Coercion against romantic partners. In interpreting the latter, however, a cautionary note is apropos. Whereas the interaction between Model of Self with father and Model of Other with father was found to significantly predict the use of Verbal/Emotional Coercion for girls ($\beta = -.16, p < .05; n = 168$), the same interaction emerged only as a trend for boys, ($\beta = .18, p = .07; n = 115$).

Finally, in other findings, a significant trend was also revealed for the interaction between adolescents' Model of Self and Model of Other with mother ($\beta = -.15, p = .06$). As shown in Figure 3, adolescents who have a positive Model of Self and a negative Model of Other with their mothers (i.e., a dismissing attachment style) tended to use more Verbal/Emotional Coercion in dating relative to others. Adolescents who have both a positive Model of Self and a positive Model of Other with their mothers (i.e., a secure attachment style), however, were at decreased risk, relative to their peers, of using Verbal/Emotional Coercion against romantic partners.

Finally, a third ten-step regression model was computed to explore the predictive effects of rejection sensitivity on Verbal/Emotional Coercion in dating, while controlling for the significant effects of attachment found in prior analyses. As such, while Sex and Dating Experience were entered on the first and second steps, all deconstructed main and interaction effects of attachment were entered on subsequent steps. In other words, Model of Self and Model of Other were entered separately for mother and father on the third step; while the two-way interactions between Model of Self and Model of Other for each parent were entered on the fourth step. Next, the two-way interactions between Sex and

Figure 3

Association between Model of Self with Mother and Model of Other with Mother in Predicting Verbal/Emotional Coercion in Romantic Relationships



Model of Self with Father, and between Sex and Model of Other with Father were entered. Lastly, the three-way interaction between Sex, Model of Self, and Model of Other with father was entered on the sixth step of the analysis.

The remaining four steps consisted of rejection-sensitivity measures entered in the same order as previously described. All three main components of rejection sensitivity were entered separately for parents and peers on the seventh step; while the two-way interactions between the affective and the cognitive components were entered on the eighth step. The interactions between Sex and all main components of rejection sensitivity were computed on the ninth step. Finally, the three-way interactions between Sex, the affective, and the cognitive component of rejection sensitivity were entered separately by social domain on the tenth step of the analysis.

As no interaction effects were revealed, results of the third overall regression model predicting Verbal/Emotional Coercion were interpreted at the seventh and final step of main effects. As shown in Table 13, main effects of Sex and Dating experience were revealed. The latter findings suggest that girls, relative to boys, report increased perpetration of Verbal/Emotional Coercion against romantic partners ($\beta = .18, p < .01$), and that adolescents with more dating experience, relative to those who have less, are at increased risk for employing this form of coercion ($\beta = .35, p < .001$). In addition, results indicated that the interaction between Model of Self and Model of Other with mother remained a trend ($\beta = -.13, p = .07$), while the three-way interaction between Sex, Model of Self and Model of Other with father became a trend ($\beta = -.12, p = .06$). Most centrally, however, results also showed a main negative effect for Anxious RJS ($\beta = -.27, p < .001$), and a positive main effect for Angry RJS ($\beta = .36, p < .001$) within the peer domain.

Table 13

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Verbal/Emotional Coercion from Peer and Parent Rejection

Sensitivity and Models of Self and Other with Mother and Father

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>		<u>At Final Step</u>		<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>	
	β	t	β	t	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1 Sex	.16	2.68**	.18	2.91**	.03**	
Step 2 Dating Experience	.39	7.13***	.35	5.99***	.18***	.15***
Step 3 Model of Self with Mother	-.03	-.44	-.05	-.83	.18	.00
Model of Self of with Father	-.02	-.34	.00	.02	.00	
Model of Other with Mother	-.00	-.01	-.10	-1.43	.01	
Model of Other with Father	-.04	-.61	-.05	-.72	.00	
Step 4 Self X Other with Mother	-.15	-2.01*	-.13	-1.80(*)	.19	.01
Self X Other with Father	-.01	-.20	-.03	-.43	.00	

Table 13 continued

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2	
Step 5									
Self with Father X Sex	.07	1.11	.00	.06	1.03	.00	.20	.00	
Other with Father X Sex	-.00	-.07	.00	-.03	-.50	.00			
Step 6									
Self X Other with Father X Sex	-.13	-2.0*	.01*	-.12	-1.96(*)	.01(*)	.21*	.01*	
Step 7									
Peer Anxiety RJS	-.27	-3.71**	.05**	-.27	-3.71***	.05***	.30***	.09***	
Peer Anger RJS	.36	4.99***	.09***	.36	4.99***	.09***			
Peer Expectation RJS	-.07	-1.10	.00	-.07	-1.10	.00			
Parent Anxiety RJS	.08	1.19	.01	.08	1.19	.01			
Parent Anger RJS	-.08	-1.12	.00	-.08	-1.12	.00			
Parent Expectation RJS	.01	.12	.00	.01	.12	.00			

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 284$.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Relative to others, angry rejection sensitive adolescents employ more Verbal/Emotional Coercion in dating, while anxious rejection sensitive adolescents employ it less. Similar to earlier findings associated with Physical Coercion, indices of rejection sensitivity uniquely and differentially predicted Verbal/Emotional Coercion above and beyond the effects of attachment.

Employing strategies of Compliance. Paralleling the above strategy, two initial six-step regression analyses were conducted respectively to examine the predictive effects of peer and parental attachment on dating compliance. As shown in Table 14, results revealed a main negative effect for Model of Self with romantic partner ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$), indicating that those with a more negative Model of Self with romantic partners are at increased risk of demonstrating Compliance in dating. No main or interaction effects were found for Models of Self or Model of Other with either mother or father. Thus, attachment to parents was not found to predict dating compliance in middle adolescence.

The third seven-step regression model tested the unique effects of rejection sensitivity while controlling for the significant effect of Model of Self with romantic partner. Again predictors of Sex and Dating Experience were entered on the first and second steps respectively, while Model of Self with romantic partner was entered on the third step of the analysis. The remaining four steps comprised of the rejection-sensitivity predictors, which were entered according to the same rationale as previously described. Contrary to hypotheses, no unique variance was accounted for beyond the third step of the analysis (i.e., non significant ΔR^2). Thus, although one's Model of Self with romantic partner continued to negatively predict Compliance in dating ($\beta = -.19$, $p < .05$), no

Table 14

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Compliance in Romantic Relationships from Models of Self and

Other with Best Friend and Romantic Partner

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2	
Step 1 Sex	.01	.08	.00	-.06	-.81	.00	.00		
Step 2 Dating Experience	.23	3.21**	.05**	.27	3.58***	.07***	.05**	.05**	
Step 3 Model of Self with Friend	-.12	-1.68(*)	.01(*)	-.11	-1.39	.01	.11*	.06*	
Model of Self with Partner	-.16	-2.19*	.02*	-.18	-2.28*	.02*			
Model of Other with Friend	-.05	-.65	.00	.01	.09	.00			
Model of Other with Partner	-.01	-.11	.00	-.03	-.35	.00			
Step 4 Model of Self X Other with Friend	.10	1.30	.01	.11	1.34	.01	.12	.01	
Model of Self X Other with Partner	-.12	-1.64	.01	-.13	-1.73	.01			

Table 14 continued

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2	
Step 5							.13		.01
Model of Self with Friend X Sex	-.03	-.48	.00	-.03	-.33	.00			
Model of Self with Partner X Sex	-.01	-.09	.00	.00	.09	.00			
Model of Other with Friend X Sex	-.05	-.60	.00	-.03	-.34	.00			
Model of Other with Partner X Sex	-.06	-.78	.00	-.04	-.51	.00			
Step 6							.14		.01
Model of Self X Other with Friend X Sex	.05	.59	.00	.05	.59	.00			
Model of Self X Other with Partner X Sex	.07	.96	.00	.07	.96	.00			

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 203$.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

significant effects were found for dimensions of rejection sensitivity (see Table 15).

Finally, whereas a positive main effect was found for dating experience, as was the case in earlier analyses, no main effect was revealed for sex. It appears that boys and girls are at similar risk of behaving compliantly in dating relationships.

The first section of results aimed to test the hypothesis that, relative to others, rejection sensitive youth are more likely to employ overinvestment strategies of coercion and compliance in romantic relationships. In so doing, attempts were made to control for the effects of attachment, to examine the domain-specificity of rejection sensitivity, as well as to explore the predictive utility of approaching rejection sensitivity from a multidimensional perspective. In sum, main results indicated that rejection sensitivity predicts the use of Physical Coercion and Verbal/Emotional Coercion in dating relationships above and beyond the effects of attachment. Moreover, rejection sensitivity to peers was revealed to be a more powerful predictor of coercion than rejection sensitivity to parents. Interestingly, whereas Angry RJS with peers positively predicted Physical and Verbal/Emotional Coercion, Anxious RJS with peers negatively predicted both forms of coercion. Contrary to expectations, rejection sensitivity was not associated with the use of Compliance in dating relationships.

Predicting Romantic Attraction from Rejection Sensitivity and from Indices of Maladjustment in Dating

The second section of results sought to examine patterns of romantic attraction among youth at risk for dating maladjustment. Adolescents were compared with their romantic targets on all dimensions of rejection sensitivity and on measures of dating experience. Throughout this section, hierarchical multiple regression analyses are used to

Table 15

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Compliance in Romantic Relationships from Peer and Parent Rejection Sensitivity and from Adolescents' Model of Self with Romantic Partner

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>		
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2	
<u>Step 1</u> Sex	.00	.02	.00	.00	-.83	.01	.00		
<u>Step 2</u> Dating Experience	.22	3.13***	.07***	.27	3.78***	.07***	.05**	.05**	
<u>Step 3</u> Model of Self with Partner	-.22	-3.21**	.05**	-.19	-2.34*	.03*	.09**	.05**	
<u>Step 4</u> Peer Anxiety	.08	.89	.00	.08	.89	.00	.12	.03	
Peer Anger	.01	.14	.00	.01	.14	.00			
Peer Expectation	.00	.06	.00	.00	.06	.00			
Parent Anxiety	.04	.49	.00	.04	.49	.00			
Parent Anger	.04	.44	.00	.04	.44	.00			
Parent Expectation	.09	1.19	.01	.09	1.19	.01			

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 203$. (*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

assess assortative attraction among youth. It is important to note that, due to sample size limitations, all analyses involving measures of rejection sensitivity were conducted separately by social domain. In other words, romantic targets' Anxiety RJS, Anger RJS, and Expectation RJS within the peer domain were predicted only from participants' indices of peer rejection sensitivity. Similarly, romantic targets' Anxiety RJS, Anger RJS, and Expectation RJS within the parental domain were predicted only from participants' indices of parental rejection sensitivity.

Predicting Romantic Targets' Rejection Sensitivity from Participants' Rejection Sensitivity. In order to predict romantic targets' Anxious RJS, Angry RJS, and Expectation RJS within the peer domain, three separate five-step regression models were conducted. In each model, participants' Sex was entered on the first step, while participants' own indices of Anxious RJS, Angry RJS, and Expectation RJS to peers were entered on the second step. The two-way interactions between Anxiety and Expectation RJS, and between Anger and Expectation RJS were entered on the third step. The fourth step assessed all two-way interactions between Sex and the three components of rejection sensitivity, while the fifth step assessed the three-way interactions between Sex, Anxious RJS, and Expectation RJS, and between Sex, Angry RJS, and Expectation RJS.

Results showed that participants' rejection sensitivity to peers did not predict romantic targets' Anxiety RJS or Anger RJS within the peer domain. That is, adolescents' peer rejection sensitivity was not associated with their romantic targets' affective reaction to perceived peer rejection. However, when predicting romantic targets' expectations of peer rejection a different picture emerged. As shown in Table 16,

Table 16

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Romantic Targets' Expectation of Peer Rejection from

Adolescents' Rejection Sensitivity to Peers

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>	
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1 Sex	.18	2.10*	.03*	.27	2.81**	.07**	.03*	
Step 2 Peer Anxiety	-.06	-.61	.00	-.16	-1.38	.01	.09*	.06*
Peer Anger	-.17	-1.74(*)	.02(*)	-.16	-1.40	.02		
Peer Expectation	.18	2.02*	.03*	.25	2.23*	.04*		
Step 3 Peer Anxiety X Expectation	.11	1.01	.01	.07	.53	.00	.10	.01
Peer Anger X Expectation	-.12	-1.07	.00	-.09	-.69	.00		
Step 4 Peer Anxiety X Sex	-.10	-.86	.00	-.10	-.85	.00	.13	.03
Peer Anger X Sex	-.13	-1.28	.01	-.13	-1.28	.01		
Peer Expectation X Sex	.09	.85	.00	.08	.70	.00		

Table 16 continued

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>	
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 5								
Peer Anxiety X Expectation X Sex	-.11	-.76	.00	.11	-.76	.00	.13	.00
Peer Anger X Expectation X Sex	.09	.78	.00	.09	.78	.00		

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 133$, as all mutual nominations were computed as a single nomination.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

results indicated a positive main effect for adolescents' own expectations of peer rejection ($\beta = .18, p < .05$); suggesting that youth who expect rejection from peers are romantically attracted to other youth who similarly expect peer rejection. Finally, using the same methodology as described above, associations between participants' and romantic targets' rejection sensitivity within the parental domain were examined. Results revealed no significant main or interaction effects, indicating that adolescents' sensitivity to parental rejection does not predict similar characteristics in romantic targets.

Predicting Romantic Targets' Dating Maladjustment from Adolescents' Rejection Sensitivity. In order to predict romantic targets' use of Physical Coercion, Verbal/Emotional Coercion, and Compliance in dating from adolescents' rejection-sensitivity scores, a total of six five-step hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. For each of the three outcome measures, an initial analysis examined the effects of peer rejection sensitivity, while a second examined the effects of parental rejection sensitivity. Predictors were entered in the same order as above, with Sex entered on the first step, and the three-way interaction between Sex, Anxious RJS, and Expectation RJS, and between Sex, Angry RJS, and Expectation RJS entered on the fifth and final step. Contrary to expectations, no significant associations between adolescents' indices of rejection sensitivity and romantic targets' use of Coercion or Compliance were revealed. Hence, it appears that sensitivity to rejection within either the parental or peer domain does not predict the likelihood of being attracted to adolescents who employ Coercion or Compliance in romantic relationships.

Predicting Romantic Targets' Dating Maladjustment from Adolescents' Indices of Dating Maladjustment. Romantic targets' Physical Coercion, Verbal/Emotional

Coercion, and Compliance were each predicted from all three measures of respondents' dating maladjustment. In each model, Sex was entered on the first step, the index of respondents' dating maladjustment was entered on the second, and the interaction between Sex and dating maladjustment was entered on the third and final step of the analysis. In the first cluster of analyses predicting romantic target's Physical Coercion, results indicated an interaction between participants' Sex and Physical Coercion ($\beta = -.52, p < .05$) (see Table 17). For boys, Physical Coercion was positively associated with romantic targets' Physical Coercion, ($\beta = .21, p < .05$). For girls, however, Physical Coercion was not associated with romantic targets' Physical Coercion, ($\beta = .01, ns$). Thus, as shown in Figure 4, whereas physically coercive boys are attracted to other physically coercive adolescents, physically coercive girls did not demonstrate the same assortative attraction. Finally, no main or interaction effects emerged in the prediction of romantic targets' Physical Coercion from adolescents' use of Verbal/Emotional Coercion, or Compliance in dating relationships.

In the next cluster of analyses, romantic targets' Verbal/Emotional Coercion was predicted from adolescent's indices of dating maladjustment. Again, as shown in Table 18, results revealed an interaction between Sex and Physical Coercion ($\beta = -.55, p < .05$). Similar to previous results, boys' Physical Coercion positively predicted romantic targets' use of Verbal /Emotional Coercion ($\beta = .26, p < .05$); however, girls' Physical Coercion was unrelated to Verbal/Emotional Coercion in romantic targets ($\beta = -.07, ns$). As illustrated in Figure 5, whereas physically coercive boys are attracted to verbally or emotionally coercive others, physically coercive girls did not show the same pattern of romantic attraction.

Table 17

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Targets' Physical Coercion from Adolescents' Physical Coercion in Romantic Relationships

<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>	
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2
<u>Step 1</u>							.07**	
Sex	-.26	-2.99**	.07**	-.49	-3.45**	.09**		
<u>Step 2</u>							.07	.00
Physical Coercion	.03	.33	.00	.56	2.04*	.03*		
<u>Step 3</u>							.10*	.03*
Physical Coercion X Sex	-.52	-2.05*	.03*	-.52	-2.05*	.03*		

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 129$, as all mutual nominations were computed as a single nomination.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 4

Girls' and Boys' Physical Coercion Predicting Romantic Targets' Physical Coercion in Romantic Relationships

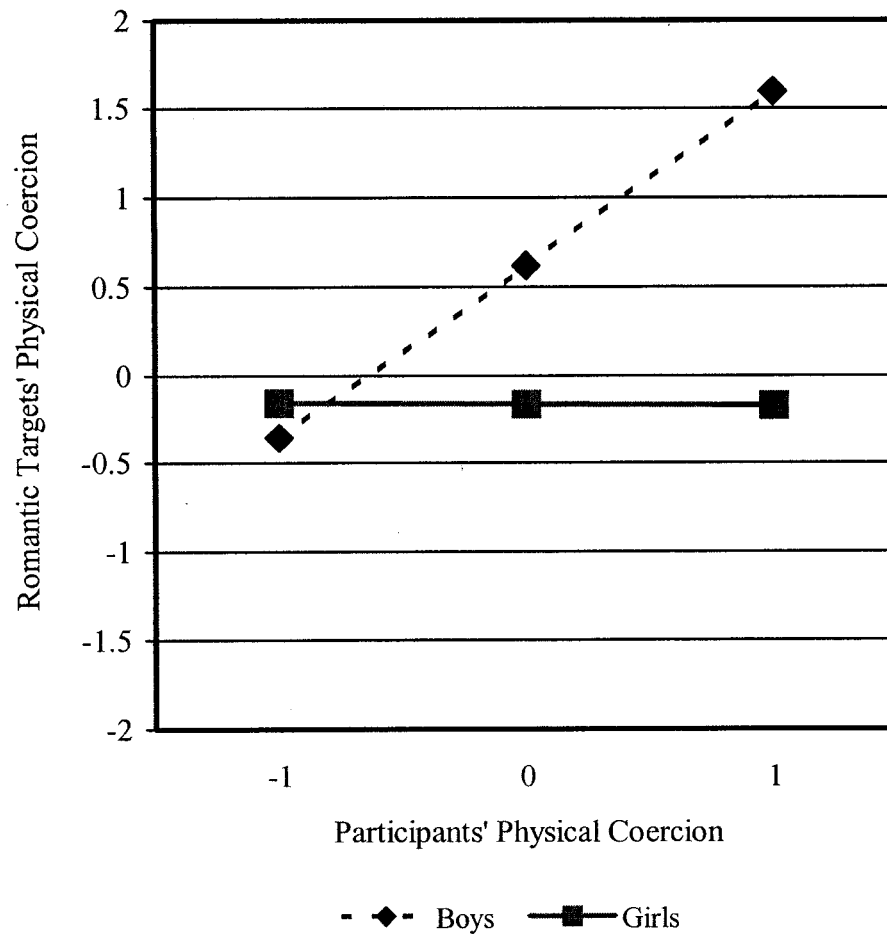


Table 18

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Targets' Verbal Coercion in Romantic Relationships from Adolescents' Own Index of Physical Coercion

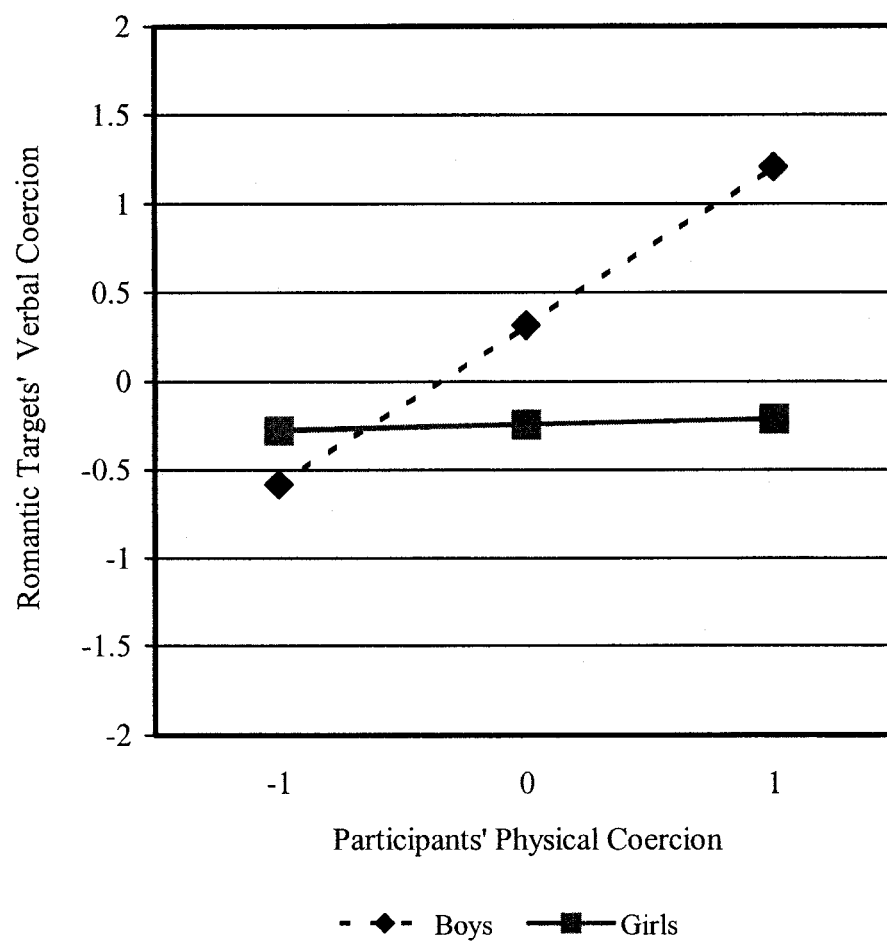
<u>Predictors</u>	<u>Upon Entry</u>			<u>At Final Step</u>			<u>Stepwise Statistics</u>	
	β	t	% ^a	β	t	% ^a	R^2	ΔR^2
<u>Step 1</u>							.02	
Sex	-.13	-1.50	.02	-.36	-2.47*	.05*		
<u>Step 2</u>							.02	.00
Physical Coercion	-.03	-.27	.00	.53	1.92(*)	.03*		
<u>Step 3</u>							.05*	.03*
Physical Coercion X Sex	-.55	-2.13*	.03*	-.55	-2.13*	.03*		

Note. a = the amount of variability accounted for; $n = 129$, as all mutual nominations were computed as a single nomination.

(*) $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 5

Girls' and Boys' Physical Coercion Predicting Romantic Targets' Verbal/Emotional Coercion in Romantic Relationships



In related analyses, no main or interaction effects emerged in the prediction of romantic targets' Verbal/Emotional Coercion from adolescents' own indices of Verbal/Emotional Coercion or Compliance in dating. Finally, contrary to expectations, no associations were found between romantic targets' use of Compliance and participants' own index of Physical Coercion, Verbal/emotional Coercion, or Compliance in romantic relationships.

The second sections of results aimed to demonstrate assortative attraction among rejection sensitive and other at-risk youth. In sum, main findings showed that adolescents' expectations of rejection positively predict those of romantic targets (i.e., targets of romantic attraction). Contrary to expectations, however, adolescents' rejection-sensitivity scores were not associated with romantic targets' use of coercion and compliance. Finally, results revealed that boys' use of Physical Coercion predicted both Physical and Verbal/Emotional coercion in romantic targets, thus, supporting the similarity-attraction hypothesis. However, results did not show the same patterns of association for girls. Regardless of their level of dating maladjustment, girls did not report increased attraction to coercive or compliant boys.

Examining the Associations Between Rejection Sensitivity, Dating Maladjustment and Depression.

Using structural equation modelling, the third section explored the links between rejection sensitivity, maladjustment in dating, and depressive symptomatology in adolescence. Indices of rejection sensitivity and involvement in maladaptive dating practices, as defined by the use of Coercion or Compliance, are expected to make unique and direct contributions to outcomes of Depression. However, the use of Coercion or

Compliance in romance is expected to partially mediate the association between rejection sensitivity and depressive outcomes. Due to the exploratory nature of the proposed model, partial correlations were initially conducted to examine the associations between Sex, Anxiety RJS, Angry RJS, and Expectation RJS in the parental and peer domains, romantic Coercion¹⁰, romantic Compliance, and Depression (see Table 19). Then, in the aim of parsimony, three path analyses were conducted based on the observed correlations. The first two models investigated the direct and indirect links between rejection sensitivity and outcomes separately for parents and peers. Building from these findings, a third model combined the significant effects of peer and parental rejection sensitivity.

As shown in figure 6, the first model examining the effects of peer rejection sensitivity showed good fit with the data, $\chi^2(1) = 1.51, p > .05, NFI = 1.00, NNFI = .97, CFI = 1.00$. In this model the paths from Sex to all three components of peer rejection sensitivity were significant. When peer rejection is perceived, findings suggest that girls react with increased anxiety and anger. Boys, on the other hand, are more likely to expect outcomes of rejection to actually occur. Other significant paths were revealed between Anxiety RJS and Coercion, and between Angry RJS and Coercion. Expectations of peer rejection were not linked to either form of maladjusted dating behaviour. In addition, both Anxiety RJS and Expectation RJS within the peer domain were directly associated with depression, whereas Angry reactivity to perceived rejection from peers was not. None of the indices of peer rejection sensitivity were associated with Compliance in dating. Finally, Compliance, but not Coercion, was found to significantly predict

¹⁰ In order to reduce the total number of variables, Physical Coercion and Verbal/Emotion Coercion ($r = .52$) were combined into a singular measure of overall Coercion in romantic relationships.

Table 19

Correlations between Sex, Peer and Parental Rejection Sensitivity, Dating Coercion, Dating Compliance and Depression

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Dating Coercion</u>	<u>Dating Compliance</u>	<u>Depression</u>
Sex	.18**	.02	.11*
Peer Anxiety	-.06	.03	.29***
Peer Anger	.18**	.03	.22**
Peer Expectation	-.09	.03	.20**
Parent Anxiety	.06	.13*	.27***
Parent Anger	.10	.08	.17*
Parent Expectation	.08	.12*	.19*
Dating Coercion		.47***	.16*
Dating Compliance			.27***

Note. Correlations are based on entire sample of $N = 332$.

(*) $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

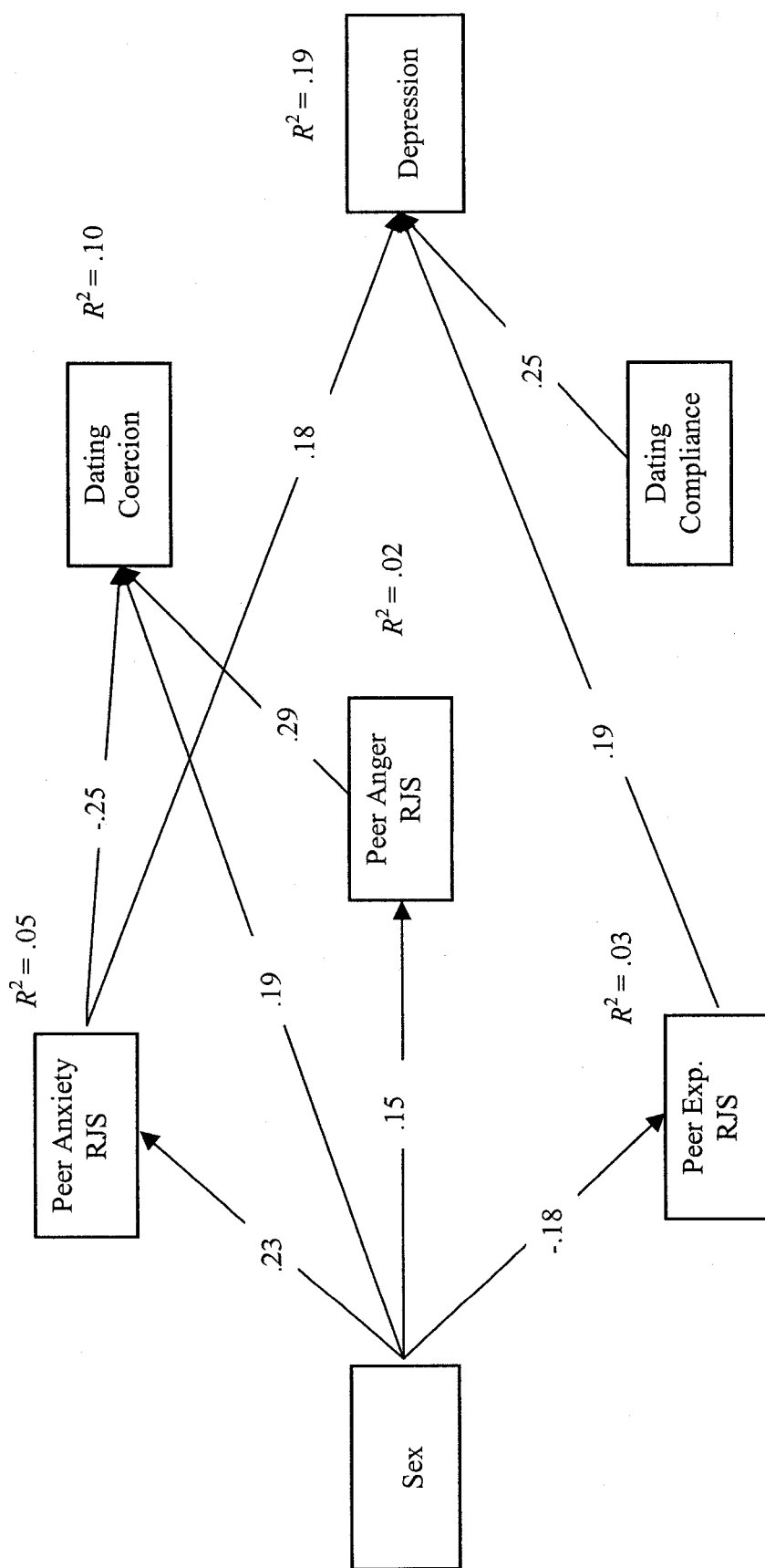


Figure 6

Path Model Predicting Depression from Peer Rejection Sensitivity, Dating Coercion, and Dating Compliance.

Note. Error terms were covaried between Peer Anxiety RJS and Peer Anger RJS ($r = .50$), Peer Anxiety RJS and Peer Expectation RJS ($r = .22$), and Coercion and Compliance ($r = .49$). All Standardised path coefficients were significant at $p < .05$.

Depression. No mediational processes explaining the relationship between rejection sensitivity and depression emerged in the current model.

Next, the second model examining the effects of parental rejection sensitivity also demonstrated good fit with the data, $\chi^2(1) = 1.46, p > .05, NFI = .99, NNFI = .96, CFI = 1.00$ (see Figure 7). In this model the paths from Sex to both Anxious RJS and Angry RJS emerged as significant, indicating that girls report more affective reactivity to perceived rejection from parents than do boys. Sex, however, was not linked to harbouring expectations of parental rejection. Moreover, rejection sensitivity to parents was not found to be associated with either Coercion or Compliance in romantic relationships. Nevertheless, direct links did emerge between Anxious RJS to parents and depression, as well as between Expectation RJS and Depression. Angry reactivity to perceived rejection from parents was not associated with Depression. Finally, as cited above, Compliance, but not Coercion, was found to significantly predict Depression. Once again, no mediational processes explaining the relationship between rejection sensitivity and depression emerged in the current model.

Based on the information yielded in the two initial analyses, a final path model was computed to simultaneously test all variables of interest. The final model, which incorporated both indices of peer and parental rejection sensitivity, provided a strong fit with the data, $\chi^2(2) = 2.29, p > .05, NFI = .99, NNFI = .99, CFI = 1.00$. In order to achieve an acceptable goodness of fit index, both Angry RJS and Expectation RJS within the parental domain were omitted as they were no longer associated with any variables of interest. As presented in Figure 8, only peer Anxiety RJS and parent Anxiety RJS were directly linked to both dating maladjustment and outcomes of Depression. Interestingly,

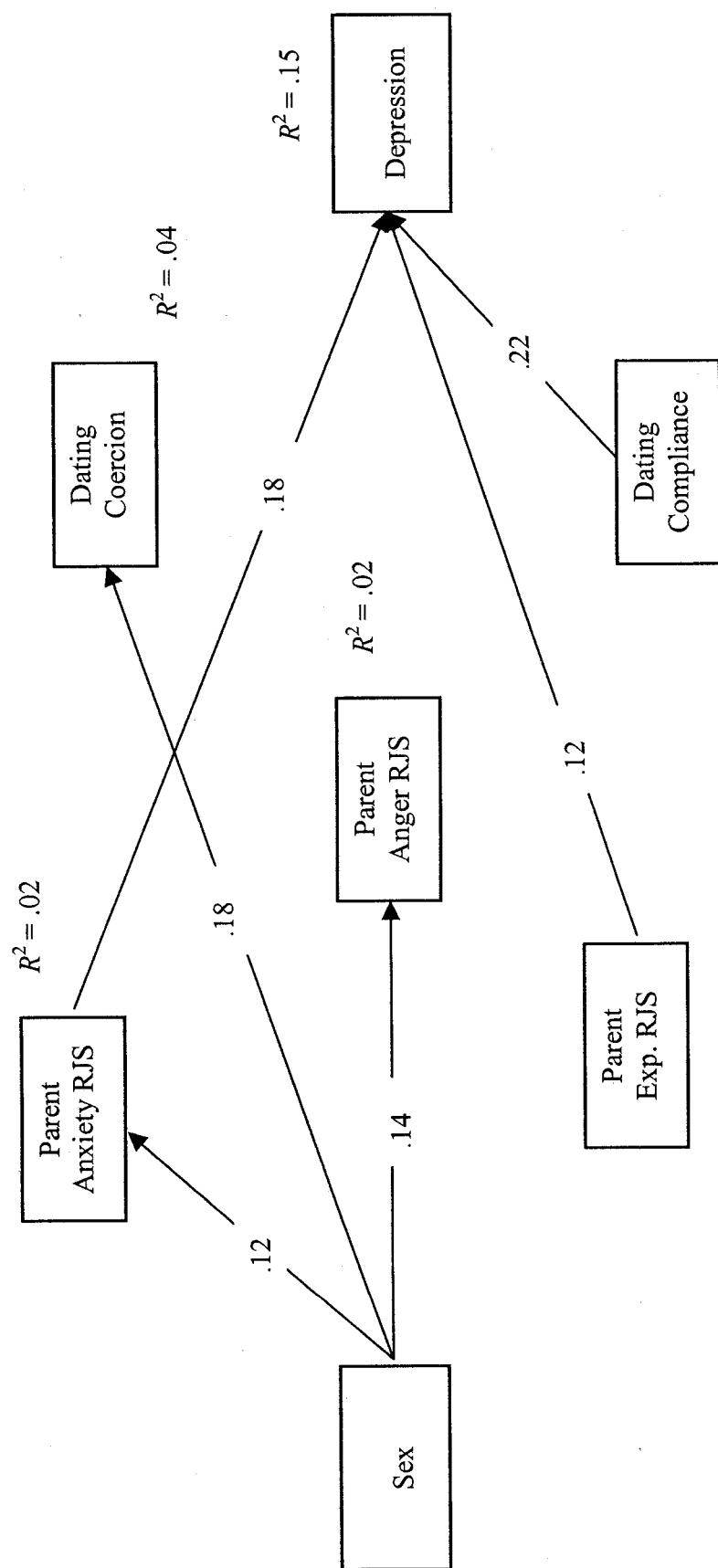


Figure 7

Path Model Predicting Depression from Parent Rejection Sensitivity, Dating Coercion, and Dating Compliance.

Note. Error terms were covaried between Parent Anxiety RJS and Parent Anger RJS ($r = .38$), Parent Anxiety RJS and Parent Expectation RJS ($r = .23$), and Coercion and Compliance ($r = .47$). All Standardised path coefficients were significant at $p < .05$.

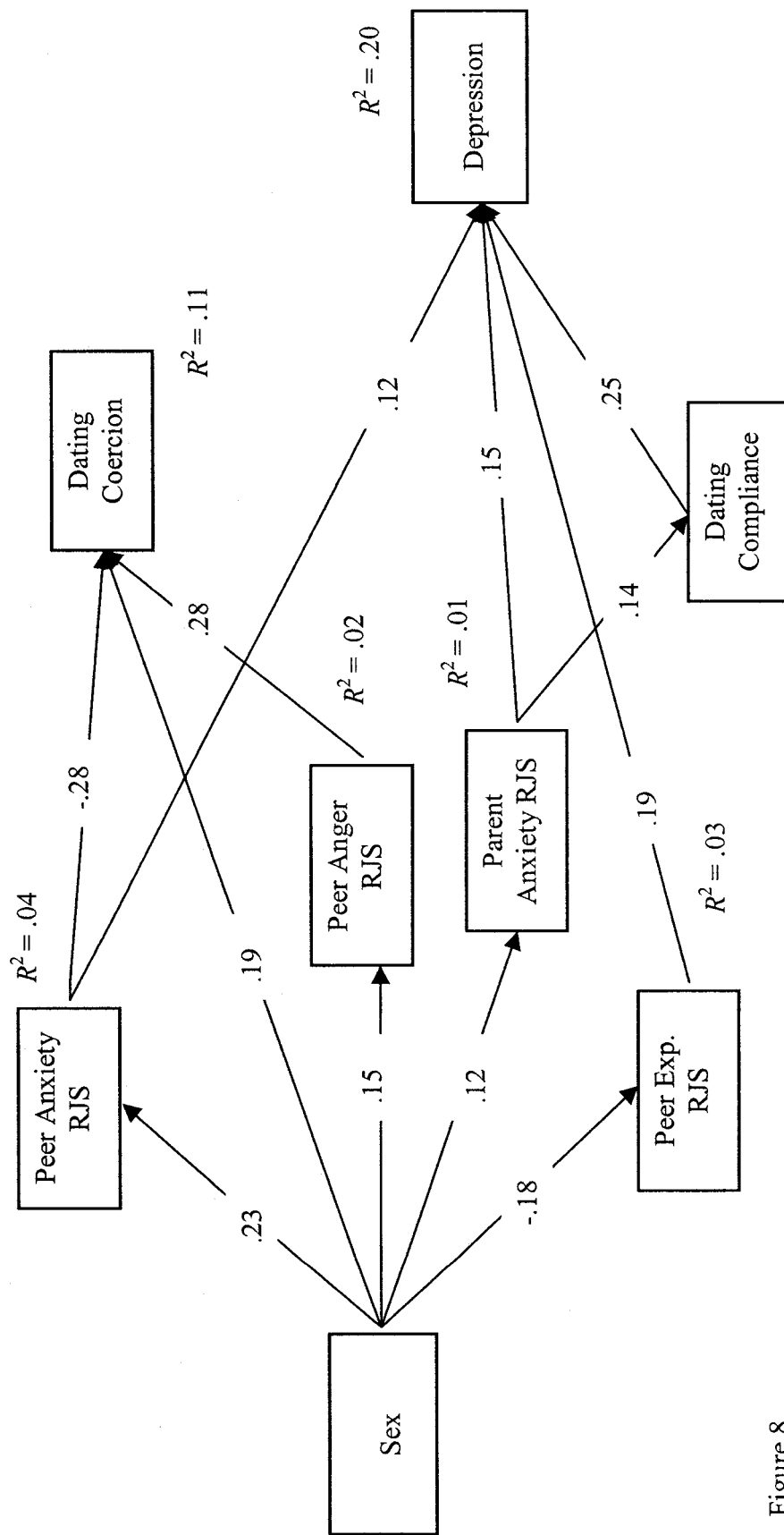


Figure 8

Path Model Predicting Depression from Peer and Parent Rejection Sensitivity, Dating Coercion, and Dating Compliance.

Note. Error terms were covaried between Peer Anxiety RJS and Peer Anger RJS ($r = .51$), Peer Anxiety RJS and Peer Expectation RJS ($r = .21$), Peer Anxiety RJS and Parent Anxiety RJS ($r = .38$), Peer Anger RJS and Parent Anxiety RJS ($r = .22$), and Coercion and Compliance ($r = .49$). All Standardised path coefficients were significant at $p < .05$.

whereas Peer Anxiety RJS negatively predicted Coercion in dating, Parent Anxiety RJS positively predicted Compliance in dating. Moreover, both forms of anxious rejection sensitivity positively predicted Depression.

A close examination of the model revealed that the associations between Parent Anxiety RJS, Compliance in dating, and Depression met the three steps for partial mediation as outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). First as shown in Figure 8, Parent Anxiety RJS (i.e., the predictor) was associated with Depression (i.e., the outcome). Second as shown in Figure 8, Parent Anxiety RJS is also associated with Compliance in Dating (i.e., the mediator). Third, Compliance in dating is associated with Depression even while the effects of Anxiety RJS within the parental domain are controlled. Using Baron and Kenny's direct test of mediation it was found that the amount of variance between Anxiety RJS within the parental domain and Depression as mediated through Compliance in dating was significant ($z\text{-score} = 1.70, p < .05$). Thus, in brief, adolescents' who anxiously react to perceived parental rejection are likely to manifest Compliance in dating, which in turn renders them vulnerable to symptoms of depression¹¹.

The third and final section of results examined the links between rejection sensitivity, dating maladjustment and depressive outcomes in middle adolescence. In sum, main results showed that Anxiety RJS to parents and peers is directly and positively associated with depressive symptomatology in adolescence. Moreover, dating maladjustment, or more specifically dating Compliance, is also directly and positively

¹¹ These procedures follow the two steps recommended by McKinnon and colleagues (2002) in their review of methods for testing mediation. First, paths were tested between the independent variable (i.e., Parent Anxiety RJS) and the mediator variable (i.e., Dating Compliance) and between the mediator and the dependent variable (i.e., Depression). Then, the amount of variance actually mediated was directly tested by the product of coefficients test (distributed as a $z\text{-score}$) set forth by Aroian (1944) and Baron & Kenny (1986).

associated with symptoms of depression. Finally, results indicated that the relationship between anxious RJS with parents and depressive symptomatology is partially mediated by the use of Compliance in romantic relationships.

Discussion

The present study examined the impact of rejection sensitivity on romantic health and well being in middle adolescence. Overall, three main objectives were delineated. The first was to test whether rejection-sensitive youth are more likely to employ overinvestment strategies of Coercion and Compliance in romantic relationships relative to their peers. The second objective was to examine whether assortative attraction patterns emerge among rejection-sensitive and other at-risk youth. Finally, the third goal was to examine the links between rejection sensitivity, dating maladjustment, and outcomes of depressive symptomatology. This discussion addresses each of the above objectives, then continues with a general commentary of the overall results. The aim of the general commentary will be to consolidate both the central findings and theoretical building blocks of the current work. In so doing, an integrative perspective of socialization based on the work of Belsky, Steinberg, and Draper (1991) will be proposed. Following this, limitations of the current study are presented, and finally, directions for future research are considered.

Rejection Sensitivity and Strategies of Romantic Coercion and Compliance

In examining Downey's model of romantic development, three specific gaps in knowledge were addressed. First, in examining the unique associations between rejection sensitivity and dating maladjustment, indices of parental and peer attachment were used as control measures in all analyses. Second, in order to examine the differential impact of

parents and peers on adolescents' romantic adjustment, rejection sensitivity was assessed separately by social domain (i.e., with parents and with peers). Lastly, based on the premise that the predictive utility of rejection sensitivity would be increased by assessing it from a multidimensional perspective, empirical attention was given to examining each of the three components of rejection sensitivity separately (i.e., Anxious RJS, Angry RJS, and Expectation RJS).

In accordance with central hypotheses, measures of rejection sensitivity within the peer domain were found to be uniquely associated with both Physical and Verbal/Emotion Coercion above and beyond the effects of attachment. Taken together, these findings support three central premises. First, they demonstrate the utility of Downey's et al. (1999) model, in that, even when attachment styles with parents and peers are taken into account, the use of dating Coercion can be forecast from teens' indices of rejection sensitivity. As such, results support rejection sensitivity as a distinct and separate construct worthy of unique attention in the study of adolescent romantic development.

Second, as anticipated, rejection sensitivity to peers emerged as a more powerful correlate of adolescent romantic adjustment than rejection sensitivity to parents. As affiliative needs surge in middle adolescence, so too does the behavioural systems' overlap between romantic and peer relationships as compared to romantic and parental relationships (Furman & Wehner, 1994, 1997). In line with prior studies, results suggest that peers play a greater role in shaping romantic trajectories than do parents in middle adolescence (Furman & Simon, 1999).

Third, as expected, the predictive utility of approaching rejection sensitivity from a multidimensional perspective was supported as its various components showed differential associations. Angry rejection sensitivity to peers was found to be positively associated with both Physical and Verbal/Emotional Coercion. Adolescents who react angrily to perceived peer rejection are more likely, relative to others, to perpetrate both forms of Coercion. On the contrary, however, anxious rejection sensitivity to peers was found to be negatively associated with Physical and Verbal/Emotional Coercion. Adolescents who react anxiously to perceived peer rejection are less likely, relative to others, to perpetrate either type of Coercion.

The above results have implications on two fronts. First they suggest that traditional unifying measures of rejection sensitivity fail to capture the multiplicity of outcomes associated with different types of affective arousal patterns. These results support approaching rejection sensitivity from a multidimensional perspective in order to achieve greater predictive power in adolescent romantic research.

Second, the findings have important implications in their own right. For instance, anxious rejection sensitivity exercises a quelling effect on the use of coercive strategies. This implies that some anxiety in the face of perceived rejection may, to some degree, serve as a protective factor against physical or verbal acting-out against partners. Although extreme anxious rejection sensitivity is expected to be detrimental to healthy romantic assertion, in so far as it may exercise a paralyzing effect on individuals' relational competency, possessing some degree of rejection anxiety may in fact promote romantic adjustment. Being aware of the possibility of rejection, and responding with appropriate levels affective arousal may increase the odds of balancing self- and other-

oriented relational needs; thus, rendering individuals more flexible in romantic negotiations.

Although the above findings lend credence to central hypotheses, others did not. In addition to formulating hypotheses linking rejection sensitivity and Coercion, hypotheses predicting a positive association between anxious rejection sensitivity and Compliance were formulated but not supported. No measures of rejection sensitivity emerged as significant in the prediction of romantic Compliance. One reason for this may stem from a lack of differentiation between current measures of Compliance, which are conceptualized as a form of deviance in dating, and more normative, albeit unpleasant, romantic behaviours. Results indicate that the vast majority of adolescents, both boys and girls, report having tolerated verbal abuse by a romantic partner. Although the current measure of Compliance assessed the frequency of more extreme experiences (i.e., acquiescing to physically or sexually harmful behaviour), it also assessed whether youth had experienced more common forms of Coercion that may not demonstrate specificity in its association with rejection sensitivity. Simply put, items used to assess what constitutes “Compliance” may have been too general, or alarmingly, too common to capture the intended effect.

In sum, central findings of the first section of results are as follows: Above and beyond the effects of attachment, angry and anxious rejection sensitivity within the peer domain positively and negatively predict Verbal/Emotional and Physical Coercion, respectively. Moreover, despite expectations to the contrary, no measures of rejection sensitivity were predictive of romantic Compliance when controlling for the effects of attachment. In addition, other noteworthy observations were also made. For example,

results indicated that Coercion and Compliance are positively related constructs; Compliance correlated positively with Verbal/Emotional Coercion ($r = .50$), as well as with Physical Coercion ($r = .30$). Interestingly, youth who report being coerced in romance, also report perpetrating coercive behaviour. Thus, these findings support the notion that, within violent adolescent couples, the roles of victim and victimizer are both dynamic and interchangeable (Jonson-Reid & Bivens, 1999; Tucker-Halpern et al., 2001).

Other findings revealed sex differences in relation to dating maladjustment. Girls report using Physical and Verbal/Emotional Coercion in dating more frequently than their male counterparts. One possible explanation for the latter phenomenon stems from the differential socialization of boys and girls. Research shows that female to male perpetuation of violence is viewed as less harmful, and more tolerable than male to female violence (Straus, Kantor, & Moore, 1997). Such behaviour in girls may be equated to being “strong” or assertive, whereas the same behaviour in boys is likely to be labeled as abusive. Related to this idea, it is plausible that boys simply underreport romantic Coercion as a result of the increased social sanctions with which it is associated.

Although girls report using Coercion more frequently than do boys, both sexes in the current sample report similar levels of Compliance in dating. At this juncture, it is important to underscore that Coercion and Compliance do not represent opposite ends of the same pole from an intrapersonal, nor an interpersonal perspective. In other words, reporting high levels of Coercion does not imply that one is necessarily reporting low levels of Compliance. In fact, as previously stated, results appear to indicate the opposite, that both constructs are positively related. Moreover, from an interpersonal perspective,

scoring high on Coercion does not directly and necessarily imply that romantic partners score high on Compliance. Although the examination of dyadic processes is beyond the scope of the current data, the question of whether typically coercive and typically compliant youth show patterns of mutual attraction will be addressed in the following sections.

That being said, one can explain a sex difference in reported Coercion, but not in reported levels of Compliance in several ways. For instance, it is viable that males and females understand the concept of romantic “coercion” differently. Boys may underreport noxious treatment of partners, not for fear of severe social sanctioning, but because they may not use Physical or Verbal/Emotional Coercion with the intention of “hurting my girlfriend/ boyfriend”, as qualified by the test battery. Boys may rationalize physical acting out as non-coercive because their motivation is not consciously rooted in the desire to “hurt”, as much as it stems from the desire to get a point across, to win an argument, or even to send a warning that truly “hurting” behaviour is on the way.

Moreover, reported sex differences can also be understood from an evolutionary perspective. Scholars have proposed that, given the different types of reproductive challenges faced by males and females, evolved environmental responses designed to increase reproductive fitness differ across sex (Surbey, 1998). Because of girls’ heightened physical vulnerability, male aggression becomes a more direct threat to reproductive fitness. As such, it seems reasonable to assume that females of reproductive age have evolved to sensitively detect and avoid cues of aggression in potential sexual

partners¹². In brief, females may be increasingly sensitized, by both nature and nurture, to pick-up on, and ultimately avoid, male cues that are even remotely aggressive as signals of possible danger.

Finally, another series of noteworthy findings stems from the observed associations between measures of attachment and outcomes of dating maladjustment. According to the data, the use of Physical Coercion and Compliance are significantly associated with measures of attachment within the peer domain, specifically with one's Model of Self in romantic relationships. How adolescents come to think of themselves in romantic contexts, how they value their worth as a romantic partner, is the most closely associated with the use of Physical Coercion and Compliance in dating relationships. In accordance with theories of self efficacy (see Bandura, 1997), teenagers with a poor self concept as a romantic partner behave in self-fulfilling manners; simply put, understanding the self as "bad" means acting "bad" for many adolescents.

Interestingly, in the prediction of Verbal/Emotional Coercion a different pattern of results emerged. Attachment measures to parents, not to peers, emerged as the most powerful correlates of dysfunction; thus, cautioning the notion that peers dominate over parents in all matters romantic during middle adolescence. Specifically, the interaction between adolescents' Model of Self and Model of Other with father, and to some degree with mother (i.e., a trend was observed), significantly predicted the use of Verbal/Emotional Coercion above and beyond attachment to peers. Girls with a dismissive attachment style with father, that is, who have a positive Model of Self and a

¹² Research has shown that younger girls in grades 5 and 6 show patterns of friendship preference for boys who are aggressive (Bukowski, Sippola and Newcomb, 2000). As they mature, however, it is thought that females generally show an increased aversion to violence-related cues in potential sexual partners.

negative Model of Other, report more dating maladjustment than do other girls. On the other hand, girls with a secure attachment style with father, that is, who have both a positive Model of Self and Other, are less likely to use Verbal/Emotional Coercion. Whereas secure girls carry forward positive models, father-dismissing girls appear to later reenact their dismissive stance with romantic partners in an attempt to create distance between the self and the other through the use of insults, criticisms, and belittlement.

A parallel trend was also observed for both girls and boys in relation to mother; those with dismissing styles tended to use more Verbal/Emotional Coercion, whereas those with secure styles tended to use it less. Albeit only a trend, the latter may suggest that boys correspondingly transfer their relational style with the other-sex parent onto romantic partners. In other words, mother-dismissive heterosexual boys may also reenact their dismissive stance with romantic partners via tactics of Verbal/Emotional Coercion. Findings coincide with prior research showing that the relational lessons drawn from parents differ for boys and girls (Furman & Buhrmeister, 1992), and that other-sex parents play a more direct and powerful role in shaping their adolescents' romantic development (see Gray & Steinberg, 1999).

In widening the focus of analysis regarding the associations between attachment and maladjusted dating, general findings can be recapped as follows: Whereas adolescents' Model of Self with peers predicts Physical Coercion and Compliance, adolescents' Models of Self and Other with parents predicts Verbal/Emotional Coercion. In interpreting these results, it is important to consider two central ideas. First, the use of Verbal/Emotional Coercion is more common, and generally considered less damaging

than the use of Physical Coercion (Jackson et al., 2000). Second, as previously stated, peers have a greater impact on romantic maladjustment than do parents in middle adolescence (Furman & Wehner, 1994, 1997). Taken together, it appears that stressors within the peer domain, such as poor or strained peer relations predict the involvement in more severely maladjusted romantic relationships characterized by physically coercive behaviour. In the absence of important peer stressors, however, the impact of interpersonal dysfunction with parents may be dampened by adequate peer relations, resulting in less severe forms of romantic maladjustment (i.e., Verbal/Emotional as opposed to Physical Coercion). Examining how different social domains (i.e., relational contexts) dynamically impact one another, and how they exercise influence at different stages of development remains an important goal for future research.

Assortative Romantic Attraction Among Rejection-Sensitive and Other At-Risk Youth

In addressing the second overall objective of the current work, three levels of questions were examined: Do rejection-sensitive adolescents become attracted to other rejection-sensitive youth? Do rejection-sensitive adolescents become attracted to romantically coercive or compliant others? Do coercive and compliant adolescents become attracted to similar others through (a) mechanisms of similarity-attraction or (b) processes of need-fulfillment?

As predicted, adolescents who come to expect peer rejection report romantic attraction to others who also expect to be rejected within the peer domain. Interestingly, however, this occurs regardless of whether individuals react anxiously or angrily to perceived peer rejection. Adolescents who have come to expect peer rejection have, in all probability, experienced a history of rejection within the peer domain. Developing

romantic attraction to others who have also experienced peer rejection may, quite simply, be rooted in principles of similarity attraction: Individuals are attracted to others who share their experiences and characteristics due to the inherently rewarding and self-validating properties these relationships entail.

Although principles of similarity attraction may underlie such phenomena, it is also possible that other underlying dynamics are at play. Socially rejected adolescents have access to a relatively limited pool of peers by virtue of their rejected status. By default, these youth may become attracted to individuals to whom they are exposed, that is, similarly-rejected others (Boivin et al., 1995). The current work focuses solely on issues of romantic attraction, not on the formation of romantic liaisons. Nevertheless, if rejection-sensitive adolescents are increasingly attracted to each other, it follows that they, in all probability, date each other more frequently than do non rejection-sensitive adolescents.

If the above holds true, it also follows that these couples experience their relationships differently than youth who do not expect rejection from peers. Because of the perceived lack of outside peer support, these adolescents may become enmeshed with one another, making the other, or more specifically the relationship, the focus of their sense of well being. Implications for these romantic trajectories can be perilous given the volatile nature, and rapid turn-over rate of dating relationships during middle adolescence (Feiring, 1996).

Once a positive association between adolescents' peer rejection sensitivity and that of their romantic targets' was established, analyses were conducted to examine the links between adolescents' rejection sensitivity and romantic targets' levels of dating

maladjustment. Contrary to hypotheses, dimensions of rejection sensitivity were not linked to being attracted to youth who display heightened levels of Coercion or Compliance in dating. Thus, at least during middle adolescence, it appears that rejection sensitivity alone does not directly predict attraction to maladjusted others.

In weighing the above results, it is important to recall that less than half of all participants revealed the identity of a romantic target. It is possible that the individuals who chose not to reveal who they were attracted to are, precisely, those who manifest the most rejection sensitivity. Weary of negative peer reactions, not to mention romantic targets' reaction to their self-disclosed attraction, rejection-sensitive youth may refuse, even under circumstances of confidentiality, to reveal private material that could potentially become a source of ridicule and increased rejection. As underscored by Downey et al. (1999), the rejection-sensitive individual is centrally preoccupied with rejection avoidance, which he or she goes to great lengths to ensure.

Of central relevance here, is the premise that individuals mutually and dynamically shape each other through the context of the relationship (Kandel, Davies, & Baydar, 1990). Instead of simply manifesting attraction for Coercive or Compliant youth, rejection-sensitive adolescents may become attracted to individuals who possess certain qualities, which in concert with their own, create dysfunctional relational patterns over time. Rejection-sensitive youth may not select maladjusted others, but instead "create" maladjustment in themselves and their partners as the relationship unfolds.

The latter idea highlights two critical points. The first stems from the notion that dysfunction in romance, more often than not, arises as a function of a dynamic, bi-directional interplay between individuals, rather than a byproduct of specific person-

centered characteristics (Gray & Foshee, 1997; Jonson-Reid & Bivens, 1999). Rejection-sensitive youth may couple themselves with rejection-sensitive or other types of at-risk youth, which in combination, provides fertile ground for the development of coercive or compliant dating patterns¹³.

A second point highlights the important distinction between romantic attraction and romantic reality. Clearly, who individuals “want” is not necessarily who individuals “get”. Rejection-sensitive youth may not be particularly attracted to Coercive or Compliant others, however, they may nevertheless enter into romantic relationships with non-idealized others for a multitude of reasons. For example, by virtue of their sensitivity, rejection-sensitive adolescents may overvalue any individual who demonstrates interest in them (Downey et al., 1999). A poor self concept and a lowered sense of entitlement may lead rejection-sensitive adolescents to tolerate lower-quality partners for fear of not finding anyone better suited for them. An assortative process which has implications not only across adolescence, but into adulthood as well.

Following this, a final cluster of tests were conducted to examine whether romantic maladjustment was predictive of maladjustment in romantic targets. In order to weigh the similarity-attraction and need-fulfillment hypotheses, analyses examined the associations between the different permutations of adolescents’ and targets’ Physical Coercion, Verbal/Emotional Coercion, and Compliance. As predicted by the similarity-attraction hypothesis, maladjusted youth did report increased attraction to similarly maladjusted others. However, the latter was only true for physically-coercive boys.

¹³ The idea that maladjustment is dynamically created within a dyad is not designed to dismiss the role (and responsibility) of the individual in a dysfunctional relationship. Rather, it is offered in service of understanding the complexities of attraction while emphasizing the dyadic nature of romantic experiences.

Boys who scored high on Physical Coercion report increased attraction to girls who scored high on measures of Physical and Verbal/Emotional Coercion. No other maladjustment index in boys was predictive of maladjustment in targeted girls.

Interestingly, a different pattern of results emerged for girls. Girls' use of Coercion or Compliance was not predictive of Coercion or Compliance in targeted boys. Thus, regardless of their level of romantic maladjustment, girls do not show patterns of selective attraction to coercive or compliant boys. Findings can be clarified, once again, by examining them through the lens of evolutionary psychology. As described earlier, due to the heightened threat to their reproductive fitness, females may be increasingly prepared to avoid potential partners who exhibit coercive cues (Surbey, 1998). Using the same lens, it is thought that heightened levels of male Compliance may also prove unattractive to females in general. It has been proposed that social dominance and related personal resources such as assertion represent valued sexual-selection characteristics in males (Buss, 1994, 1998). Heightened levels of Compliance, in romance or otherwise, may threaten males' value as a desired sexual partner.

To recap, the second section of the current work yielded three main findings regarding the processes of attraction. First, adolescents who expect peer rejection report romantic attraction towards adolescents who expect similar outcomes. Second, contrary to expectations, no associations were found between adolescents' rejection sensitivity and patterns of selective attraction to coercive or compliant others. Third, findings indicated partial support for the similarity-attraction hypothesis in that physically-coercive boys report increased attraction for physically- and verbally-coercive girls. Girls, on the other

hand, did not show selective attraction to either coercive or compliant boys, regardless of their own indices of maladjustment.

The Associations between Rejection Sensitivity, Romantic Coercion and Compliance, and Depression in Middle Adolescence

It was expected that both rejection sensitivity and the involvement in maladjusted dating would directly and uniquely predict depressive symptomatology during middle adolescence. Moreover, it was also expected that the use of Coercion and/or Compliance in romance would partially mediate the association between rejection sensitivity and depressive outcomes. Three different path analyses were examined. The first investigated the associations between peer rejection sensitivity, maladjusted dating behaviour, and outcomes of depression. The second explored the same associations but instead focused on the impact of rejection sensitivity to parents. Similar results emerged in both path analyses. As expected, direct links were found between both parental and peer rejection sensitivity and depression, as well as between dating maladjustment and depression.

Adolescents' who react anxiously to peer or parental rejection, or who expect rejecting outcomes within the peer or parental domain, report more depressive symptomatology than their agemates. Interestingly, adolescents who react angrily to perceived peer or parental rejection do not manifest increased symptoms of depression. It is plausible that angry reactivity is more likely to involve an externalization of affect, as opposed to internalization of negative or painful feelings. If depression is in fact the result of anger turned inside towards the self, as formulated by psychodynamic theorists (Klein, 1991), it follows that externally-oriented anger will not necessarily promote depression, but will instead promote more externalizing types of difficulties (Likierman,

1987). In the same vein, both models revealed that dating Compliance, but not dating Coercion, uniquely predicted depressive outcomes. Adolescents who tolerate coercive behaviour at the hands of their partners are increasingly depressed relative to their peers, whereas those that perpetrate it are not.

Studies on peer aggression during childhood have shown that both bullies and victims exhibit heightened levels of depression relative to others (Roland, 2002). Research in this area has also shown that the division between victims and victimizers is not clear cut; many of those who perpetrate aggression also report being the recipients of peer aggression (Ma, 2001). As previously mentioned, the current data suggests an overlap between the adolescents who coerce and those who report being coerced by romantic partners. Although some adolescents principally use Coercion, while others mainly use Compliance, a significant group uses both strategies. Although the sequencing of when and how these strategies manifest remains unknown, results suggest that when strategies of Compliance are in use, adolescents are more likely feel depressed.

Contrary to hypotheses, no mediational associations were revealed in either of the above path analyses. Building from the first two models, however, a third overall model was designed to test the simultaneous effects of both peer and parental rejection sensitivity. Again, results indicated that rejection sensitivity and maladjusted dating directly and uniquely predicted depressive outcomes. Specifically, anxious rejection sensitivity to peers, anxious rejection sensitivity to parents, and harboring the expectation of rejection from parents all significantly predicted depression. More importantly though, the third overall path also revealed that maladjusted dating practices mediate the association between indices of rejection sensitivity and depressive outcomes. Adolescents

who react anxiously to perceived parental rejection are likely to engage in dating Compliance, which in turn renders them vulnerable to symptoms of depression.

It seems reasonable to propose that youth who manifest strong feelings of anxiety in relation to their parents most likely experience low-quality parental relationships characterized by low closeness, high conflict, or fundamental inconsistencies in parental behaviours. Moreover, youth who experience more deficient parenting styles, such as those which fail to foster a basic sense of trust and positive self-regard, may attempt to fulfill previously unmet needs outside the familial context. In a desperate attempt to compensate for earlier insufficiencies, middle adolescents may seek solace in romantic relationships. As a result, these youth may idealize romantic relationships, hanging on to them all costs, even when these relationships are themselves fundamentally poor in quality. With unsatisfied interpersonal needs accruing instead of diminishing, adolescents may be increasingly at risk for negative developmental outcomes, such as poor mental health as characterized by depressive symptomatology.

Overall Findings and General Conclusions

The interrelated principles of classical attachment (Bowlby, 1973, 1980), social-cognition (Bandura, 1986; Mischel & Shoda, 1995), interpersonal perspectives (Bradbury & Fincham, 1988), and developmental psychopathology (Cicchetti et al., 1988; Wolfe et al., 1998), anchored the thinking of the current work. In an effort to consolidate central findings and draw general conclusions, an integrative perspective is proposed which blends the theoretical building blocks noted above. As previously mentioned, this perspective, based on an evolutionary understanding of socialization, stems from the pivotal work of Belsky, Steinberg, and Draper (1991). The authors' proposed model was

selected to unify general findings as it provides a comprehensive framework for linking childhood psychosocial adversity to specific developmental trajectories. Moreover, its emphasis on childhood stress, relational deficits, sexual development, and psychosocial outcomes render it particularly propitious for discussing how rejection sensitivity comes to predict maladjustment in romantic relationships, as well as poor emotional adjustment across development.

Throughout their development, children learn about the availability and predictability of broadly defined environmental resources. They also learn about the reliability and trustworthiness of others, as well as the durability of close interpersonal relationships. Developing a secure or insecure attachment to parents results from this process (Bowlby, 1973, 1980). Belsky and his colleagues (1991) suggest that this information shapes developing beliefs and assumptions, adaptively preparing children for the environments that they will encounter in adulthood. It is thought that the cognitive-affective processing disposition known as rejection sensitivity arises originally from insecure attachment patterns with parents (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Feldman & Downey, 1994). According to the model at hand, differential availability of environmental resources shape two widely defined reproductive strategies. The first suggests that children reared in environments characterized by high parental warmth and sensitivity form secure attachments, reach sexual maturation later rather than earlier¹⁴, become sexually active later, form more longer term pair bonds, and recreate the cycle by investing heavily in their own offspring.

¹⁴ Although elucidating the mechanisms of psychophysiology is beyond the current scope, a more detailed discussion is available from the original source (Belsky et al., 1991) as well as in more recent works (see Bergevin, Bukowski, & Karavasilis, 2003)

Under conditions in which parents are less sensitive and more rejecting, children likely develop insecure attachments and, more globally here, rejection-sensitive styles of interaction with others. According to the authors, increased emotional and behavioural difficulties in childhood often ensue. From the perspective of developmental psychopathology, such relational deficits result in peer rejection, decreased opportunities for socialization training, and thus, further social deficits (for review see Rubin et al., 1998). Belsky and colleagues (1991) contend that the latter developmental pathway leads to an earlier entry into puberty and the earlier onset of sexual activity characterized by risky or opportunistic encounters, unstable pair bonds, and ultimately, more limited parental investment later in life.

Despite important criticisms on both theoretical and empirical grounds (see Maccoby, 1991), cumulative evidence has generally provided cautious support for some of the major tenets of Belsky and colleagues' (1991) model (Bergevin, Bukowski, & Karavasilis, 2003; Kim & Smith, 1999; Trickett & Putnam, 1993). The current work is no exception; taken together, findings suggest that rejection-sensitive youth, individuals presumed to have experienced a legacy of rejection from both parents and peers, exhibit less-than-optimal romantic/sexual relationships. With the ultimate goal of preventing rejection concerns, angry rejection-sensitive adolescents employ Physical and Verbal/Emotion Coercion to control potential rejection from partners. Interestingly, anxious rejection-sensitive youth use less coercion relative to their peers. As stated earlier, it is possible that some degree of anxiety rejection sensitivity may actually promote relational well being by increasing one's attunement and flexibility in romantic negotiations. However, it is important to consider that as levels of anxiety rejection

sensitivity increase, so too may levels of relational passivity that not only impede coercive behaviour, but also healthier forms of self-representation, self-assertion, and agency in romantic relationships.

Rejection sensitivity, as predicted by Downey and colleagues (1999), promotes rocky romances characterized by the use of coercive strategies. Moreover, findings suggest that youth who harbor heightened expectations of peer rejection become attracted to others who share their expectations. Along the same lines, data have also shown that physically-coercive boys are increasingly attracted to physically- and verbally-coercive girls. It is thought that partner selection also plays an important role in the prediction of maladjusted dating; that is, in the dynamic interplay between how patterns of Coercion and Compliance emerge within couples, shaping who will victimize and who will be victimized in return.

Rejection sensitivity not only increases the odds of involvement in maladaptive dating, and poorer partner selection as measured by selective attraction to maladjusted others, it is also a risk factor for depressive symptomatology. Findings showed that the effect of rejection sensitivity on depression is mediated by the use of Compliance in romance. In accordance with Belsky's et al., (1991) model, it appears that relational deficits in childhood, and more proximally relational deficits in adolescence, lead to difficulties in psychosocial adjustment, namely depression. In sum, relational patterns associated with adolescent rejection sensitivity set the stage for less than optimal romantic relationships, which in turn promotes depressive symptomatology, and by extension, as stated by Belsky and colleagues (1991), important mental health concerns over the course of development.

Limitations of the Current Study

One of the shortcomings of the present work results from the fact that data were collected at one point in time, thereby limiting conclusions about the directionality of effects. Rejection sensitivity is conceptualized as a precursor of depressive outcomes, as well as an antecedent of dating maladjustment; nevertheless, it is feasible that depressed youth become hypersensitive to others, which then in turn negatively impacts their romantic development. The models outlined throughout the current work support the time line proposed by Belsky and colleagues (1991) and Downey and colleagues (1999); still, conducting prospective, longitudinal research is required to empirically validate the temporal sequencing of these phenomena across development.

Another limitation stems from sampling a generally homogeneous group of White, middle-class high school students. In addition, it is also likely that the sample consists of relatively healthy adolescents. Although continued work with high school students and other normative samples is necessary, research examining the links between rejection sensitivity, maladjusted dating practices, and depression should also be extended to include more deviant populations (e.g., clinic samples, delinquent samples, etc.). In so doing, attempts should also be made to avoid problems associated with the sole reliance on adolescent self-reports. Using multisource measurement techniques, including input from peers, parents, teachers, and clinicians when applicable, would provide an even clearer picture of the developmental trajectories associated with rejection sensitivity.

Shortcomings in respect to measurement and statistical issues are also noteworthy. Although measures of Coercion were split into physical and

verbal/emotional dimensions, internal reliability coefficients did not permit splitting measures of Compliance. As such, dimensions of physical, verbal/emotional and sexual forms of Compliance were not differentiated. It is possible that a more finely-tuned measure of Compliance would have manifested significant associations with rejection sensitivity, and shown even stronger effects with respect to depression.

In addition, in keeping with the Revised Conflict Tactic Scale (Straus et al., 1996) and the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977, 1991), measures of Coercion and Compliance, and measures of depression were respectively assessed in terms of frequency, not severity. Reporting solely on how often a coercive or compliant event occurs provides no information regarding the severity of impact or the consequences the event may have had. Obviously, being physically coerced and sustaining no injury is different from being physically coerced to the extent of requiring medical attention. Similarly, manifesting several mild symptoms of depression involves a different psychological profile than manifesting fewer, albeit debilitating symptoms. Addressing the issue of severity, recognizing it as an invaluable part of the developmental picture, is pivotal in future research.

Finally, in weighing results, statistical limitations should also be considered. In order to examine patterns of attraction among rejection sensitivity and other at-risk youth, participants were asked to identify a desired romantic target. Despite an adequate sample size overall, less than half of all adolescents, 145 to be exact, complied with this request, thereby, limiting statistical power. Thus, in brief, central hypotheses associated with the examination of assortative patterns of attraction may have been clouded as a result of power-reducing match processes inherent to the proposed analyses.

Implications and Future Directions

The findings of the present study are far reaching. They suggest that the constructs of attachment and rejection sensitivity are distinct, and uniquely predictive of romantic outcomes in middle adolescence. They also suggest that rejection sensitivity within the parental and peer domains differentially impacts romantic health, and that measures of rejection sensitivity are better utilized when the affective dimensions of anxiety and anger are assessed separately. They also indicate that patterns of assortative attraction are present among rejection-sensitive and other at-risk youth, and that being involved in maladjusted dating relationships mediates the link between rejection sensitivity and depressive outcomes in middle adolescence.

From the perspective of developmental research, the issues and implications that arise from the above findings are numerous. For example, in examining the psychogenesis of rejection sensitivity, one of the first issues to consider is the definition of what constitutes adequate parenting. Rejection sensitivity may stem from a host of negative parenting practices that include inconsistency, affective negativity, neglectful, and abusive behaviour. Understanding how these factors operate in combination, how thresholds of severity and chronicity come into play, and how other factors (e.g., personality) moderate outcomes represent the next steps in the study of rejection sensitivity. In understanding the initial factors that lead to heightened levels of anxious or angry rejection sensitivity, later negative experiences within the peer domain can be anticipated, and thus, possibly prevented through earlier intervention.

Based on current findings, it is also proposed that preventative intervention programs should be conducted at both the level of the individual and the level of the

group. On an individual level, interventions should focus on enhancing self-concept, promoting intimacy skills, and teaching conflict-resolution strategies. By strengthening adolescents' sense of self, feelings of vulnerability are inherently reduced. Increased feelings of empowerment equip rejection-sensitive youth to engage in true intimacy, which involves a balance of both "fusion" and ego preservation (Erikson, 1968). By pairing these lessons with the more concrete teachings of conflict resolution, adolescents are expected to develop a better sense of personal choice and self-mastery, characteristics that are expected to promote a healthy balance of relational power within romantic dyads.

In conjunction with interventions on the level of the individual, interventions on the level of the group are also important. Psychoeducation in schools and within the community at large can serve to demystify the issue of teen dating violence. Moreover, it can also serve to increase awareness of what constitutes abusive coercion, helping youth to better recognize victimizing behaviour in themselves and their partners. Interventions at the group level can also help relay the message that those who have been victimized by romantic partners are far from alone; an understanding that may help individuals cope with, and ultimately recover from, experiences of abuse.

On a final note, it is hoped that future studies of rejection sensitivity will be expanded to integrate the pursuits of developmental research with the objectives of clinical psychology. By shedding light on the origins and maintenance of rejection sensitivity across development, a greater understanding of its role in the genesis of internalizing and externalizing difficulties, as well as in the emergence of more severe personality pathology can be achieved. With the developmental study of rejection

sensitivity in its early stages, it is thought that these and other central issues will become increasingly present in the endeavors of researchers and clinicians alike.

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Appendix A: Student Consent Form

STUDENT CONSENT FORM

Read the following statements carefully and sign at the bottom.

I understand that I have been asked to be in a research study that Dr. Bukowski and Ms. Bergevin are conducting about romantic development, dating behaviour and adolescent health.

I understand that if I agree to participate in the study I will be asked to fill in some questionnaires about personal experiences, such as those associated with dating and sexual behaviour.

I understand that I do not have to be in the study and that even if I start to take part in it I can quit at any time.

I understand that my answers will be kept confidential and will NOT be shown to anyone; not to my teachers, my parents or my friends.

Sign

Print Name: _____

Date: _____

Please indicate your sex: Male ☐

Female ☐

Appendix B: Demographic Information

GENERAL INFORMATION FORM

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The information provided in this form will help us describe the range of participants in our study.

1. Age:

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 years old.

2. Date of Birth: (dd/mm/yyyy)

		/			/	1	9		
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3. Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female

4. My grades usually average:

- ☐ below 50% ☐ 70-80
☐ 50-60 ☐ 80-90
☐ 60-70 ☐ 90-100

5. My first language is (check one):

- ☐ English
☐ French
☐ Other (specify): _____

6. My ethnic/cultural background is (check boxes that apply):

- ☐ English Canadian ☐ Asian
☐ French Canadian ☐ European
☐ Aboriginal ☐ Middle-Eastern
☐ African ☐ Latin American

7. My mom is (check one):

- ☐ Single ☐ Widowed
☐ Married ☐ Other
☐ Divorced

8. My dad is (check one):

- ☐ Single ☐ Widowed
☐ Married ☐ Other
☐ Divorced

9. Who lives (or lived) with you while you were growing up (check boxes that apply)?

- ☐ Mom ☐ Aunt
☐ Dad ☐ Uncle
☐ Stepmom ☐ Grandmother
☐ Stepdad ☐ Grandfather
☐ Sister(s) ☐ Friend of parent
☐ Brother(s) ☐ Other (specify): _____

10. How long have you lived in Canada?

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☐ months
☐ years

11. What religion were you born into (check the boxes that apply)?

- ☐ Christian (Catholic, Protestant, Anglican)
☐ Christian Orthodox (Greek, Russian)
☐ Muslim
☐ Jewish
☐ Hindu
☐ Buddhist
☐ Other (specify): _____

12. How religious do you consider yourself?

- ☐ Very religious
☐ Somewhat religious
☐ Not very religious
☐ Not at all religious

Next, we would like to learn a little more about your mom and dad.

3 13

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MOM INFORMATION

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Please fill this out about the female person who lives (or lived) with you the longest (check one):

☐ Mom

☐ None of the above

☐ Stepmom (including dad's girlfriend)

☐ Other (specify): _____

If you have NEVER lived with your mom, or a step mom, or with another female person who has helped raise you, please skip ahead to "Dad Information" on the next page.

2. What level of education does your mom (or stepmom) have (check the highest level completed)?

☐ Elementary School

☐ University - Bachelor's

☐ High School

☐ Univeristy - Master's or Doctorate

☐ CEGEP/ Technical School

3. Is your mom working now at a paid job? If she is not, go directly to question 7.

☐ No

☐ Yes

4. How much does she work?

☐ Part time ☐ Full time (35 hours+)

5. What does your mother do for a living (e.g., office manager, factory worker, salesperson)? Please don't just name the company your mom works for (ex. "she works at IBM").

6. What industry is this in (what does the employer make or sell)?

7. If your mom is NOT currently working at a paid job would you say she was (check one only):

☐ Looking for work ☐ Keeping house ☐ Unable to work

DAD INFORMATION

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Please fill this out about the male person who lives (or lived) with you the longest (check one):

- ☐ Dad
 ☐ None of the above
☐ Stepdad (including mom's boyfriend)
 ☐ Other (specify): _____

If you have NEVER lived with your dad, or a step dad, or with another male person who has helped raise you, please skip ahead to the next section.

2. What level of education does your dad (or stepdad) have (check the highest level completed)?

- ☐ Elementary School
 ☐ University - Bachelor's
☐ High School
 ☐ Univeristy - Master's or Doctorate
☐ CEGEP/ Technical School

3. Is your dad working now at a paid job? If he is not, go directly to question 7.

- ☐ No ☐ Yes

4. How much does he work?

- ☐ Part time ☐ Full time (35 hours+)

5. What does your father do for a living (e.g., office manager, factory worker, salesperson)? Please don't just name the company your dad works for (ex. "he works at IBM").

6. What industry is this in (what does the employer make or sell)?

7. If your dad is NOT currently working at a paid job would you say he was (check one only):

- ☐ Looking for work ☐ Keeping house ☐ Unable to work

Appendix C: The Relationship Questionnaire

RELATIONSHIP WITH MOTHER

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If you don't have a mom or stepmom, just leave this blank and go to the next page.

Please tell us who you are thinking of when you fill out this questionnaire (check one box):

☐ Mom OR ☐ Stepmom

Think about your relationship with your mother. Now read each paragraph below and indicate to what extent **each** paragraph describes your relationship with your mother. **Put a check in the box UNDER the number** that is true for you.

1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to my mother. I am comfortable depending on my mother and having my mother depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having my mother not accept me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

2. I am comfortable not having a close emotional relationship with my mother. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on my mother or have my mother depend on me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

3. I want to be completely emotionally close with my mother, but I often find that my mother is reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable not having a close relationship with my mother, but I sometimes worry that she doesn't value me as much as I value her.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

4. I am uncomfortable getting close to my mother. I want to be emotionally close to my mother, but I find it difficult to trust her completely, or to depend on her. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to my mother.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

RELATIONSHIP WITH FATHER

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If you don't have a dad or stepdad, just leave this blank and go to the next page.

Please tell us who you are thinking of when you fill out this questionnaire (check one box):

☐ Dad OR ☐ Stepdad

Think about your relationship with your father. Now read each paragraph below and indicate to what extent **each** paragraph describes your relationship with your father. **Put a check in the box UNDER the number** that is true for you.

1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to my father. I am comfortable depending on my father and having my father depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having my father not accept me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

2. I am comfortable not having a close emotional relationship with my father. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on my father or have my father depend on me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

3. I want to be completely emotionally close with my father, but I often find that my father is reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable not having a close relationship with my father, but I sometimes worry that he doesn't value me as much as I value him.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

4. I am uncomfortable getting close to my father. I want to be emotionally close to my father, but I find it difficult to trust him completely, or to depend on him. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to my father.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR BEST FRIEND

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Think about your relationship with your best same-sex friend. Now read each paragraph below and indicate to what extent **each** paragraph describes your relationship with your best friend. When you see a *** in the paragraphs below, think of your best friend by name. **Put a check in the box UNDER the number** that is true for you.

1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to my best friend. I am comfortable depending on *** and having him/her depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having *** not accept me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

2. I am comfortable not having a close emotional relationship with my best friend. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on *** or have *** depend on me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

3. I want to be completely emotionally close with my best friend, but I often find that s/he is reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable not having a close relationship with ***, but I sometimes worry that *** doesn't value me as much as I value him/her.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

4. I am uncomfortable getting close to my best friend. I want to be emotionally close to ***, but I find it difficult to trust him/her completely, or to depend on him/her. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to ***.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

YOUR ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIP

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If you do not have a current girlfriend/boyfriend or have not recently had a girlfriend/boyfriend, just leave this blank and go to the next page.

Please tell us who you are thinking of when you fill out this questionnaire (check one box):

☐ Current girl/boyfriend OR ☐ Most recent girl/boyfriend

Think about your relationship with your girlfriend/boyfriend. Now read each paragraph below and indicate to what extent **each** paragraph describes your relationship with this person. When you see a *** in the paragraphs below, think of your girlfriend/boyfriend by name. **Put a check in the box UNDER the number** that is true for you.

1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to my girlfriend/boyfriend. I am comfortable depending on *** and having her/him depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having *** not accept me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

2. I am comfortable not having a close emotional relationship with my girlfriend/boyfriend. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on *** or have *** depend on me.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

3. I want to be completely emotionally close with my girlfriend/boyfriend, but I often find that s/he is reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable not having a close relationship with ***, but I sometimes worry that *** doesn't value me as much as I value her/him.

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

4. I am uncomfortable getting close to my girlfriend/boyfriend. I want to be emotionally close to ***, but I find it difficult to trust her/him completely, or to depend on her/him. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to ***

Not At All Like Me

Very Much Like Me

[illegible]

Appendix D: The Adolescent Rejection Sensitivity Survey

IMAGINE THESE SITUATIONS WITH YOUR MOM

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Please imagine the following situations with the female adult who has had the most direct role in raising you (mom, stepmom or other).

1. Imagine that there is an upcoming school event that is important to you. Most students invite their parents to the event, so you ask your mother to come.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your mother would want to come along.

[illegible]

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your mother would want to come along.

[illegible]

c) From your perspective, would she want to come along?

Not at all -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 Very much want to come

2. Imagine that you have a very important decision to make about your future. The deadline to make your decision is tomorrow, and you're still not sure what you should do. You want to talk to your mother about it, but know that she has been really busy lately. You ask to talk to her about it anyway.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your mother would be willing to talk things over with you?

[illegible]

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your mother would be willing to talk things over with you?

Not mad		-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3		Very mad
		O	O	O	O	O	O	O		

c) From your perspective, how likely is it that she would be willing to talk things over with you?

[illegible]

3. Imagine that you get yourself into some trouble at school. You come home to find out that your mom has received a call from the principal to inform her of the situation. You want to explain things. You ask your mother if she would listen to your side of the story.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your mother would be willing to listen to your side of the story?

[illegible]

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your mother would be willing to listen to your side of the story?

[illegible]

c) From your perspective, how likely is it that she would want to hear your side of the story?

[illegible]

IMAGINE THESE SITUATIONS WITH YOUR DAD

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Please imagine the following situations with the male adult who has had the most direct role in raising you (dad, stepdad or other).

1. Imagine that there is an upcoming school event that is important to you. Most students invite their parents to the event, so you ask your father to come.

- [illegible]

2. Imagine that you have a very important decision to make about your future. The deadline to make your decision is tomorrow, and you're still not sure what you should do. You want to talk to your father about it, but know that he has been really busy lately. You ask to talk to him about it anyway.

- [illegible]

3. Imagine that you get yourself into some trouble at school. You come home to find out that your dad has received a call from the principal to inform him of the situation. You want to explain things. You ask your father if he would listen to your side of the story.

- [illegible]

IMAGINE THESE SITUATIONS WITH A CLOSE FRIEND

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1. Imagine that you have recently had a really bad fight with your close friend. Now you have a serious problem and you wish to talk to your friend about it. You decide to wait for your friend after class and talk with him/her. You wonder if your friend will want to talk to you.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your friend will want to talk to you about what's on your mind?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your friend will want to talk to you about what's on your mind?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

c) In your perspective, what is the likelihood that your friend will want to talk to you about your problem?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

2. Imagine asking a close friend to see a movie with you on the weekend. Your friend replies that he/she is not in the mood to see a movie. You wonder if his/her response may have something to do with you or something you have done.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about your friend turning you down to see a movie?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about your friend turning you down?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

c) In your perspective, how likely is it that your friend would turn you down if you suggested something like seeing a movie on the weekend?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

CONTINUED

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3. Imagine that you have to ask a friend for a really big favor.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your friend would be willing to do you a big favor?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your friend would be willing to do you a big favor?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

c) In your perspective, how likely is it that your friend would be willing to do you a big favor?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

4. Imagine you and a friend go to a neighbourhood party. There are some people from your school there, but you're not really close friends with any of them. Suddenly, the friend that you came with gets an important phone call from home and must leave immediately. Before you know it, you find yourself alone at this party.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about being at this party without a close friend?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about being at this party without a close friend?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

c) In your perspective, how likely is it that you would stay, and maybe even have a good time at this party?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**IMAGINE THESE SITUATIONS WITH A
BOY/GIRLFRIEND OR POTENTIAL DATING PARTNER**

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1. Imagine that your boy/girlfriend has plans to go out with friends tonight, but you really want to spend the evening with him/her, and you tell him/her so.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your boy/girlfriend would stay in with you?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your boy/girlfriend would stay in with you?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

c) In your perspective, how likely is it that your boy/girlfriend would decide to stay in with you?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

2. Imagine noticing someone across a room at a party, and then asking them to dance.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not the person would want to dance with you?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not the person would want to dance with you?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

c) In your perspective, how likely is it that he/she would want to dance with you?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

CONTINUED

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3. You ask your boy/girlfriend if he/she really loves you.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your boy/girlfriend really loves you?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your partner really loves you?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

c) In your perspective, how likely is it that he/she would really love you?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

4. Imagine dating someone for three months. You usually see them every weekend, but lately you haven't been able to. You call your boy/girlfriend to make plans for the upcoming weekend. He/she replies that this weekend is bad timing, and can't talk right now because he/she is too busy. You wonder if your boy/girlfriend wants to end the relationship.

a) How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your boy/girlfriend wants to end the relationship?

Not nervous	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very nervous
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

b) How MAD would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not your boy/girlfriend wants to end the relationship?

Not mad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very mad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

c) In your perspective, how likely is it that he/she wants to end the relationship?

Not likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very likely
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You are doing great! Please move on to the next questionnaire.

Appendix E: Behaviours in Dating Questionnaire

BEHAVIOURS IN RELATIONSHIPS

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There are times when couples disagree, get annoyed with each other, want different things from each other, or just have arguments or fights because they are in a bad mood, are tired, or for some other reason. Couples also have many different ways of trying to settle their differences. Please check off (a) how many times you have behaved in the ways described below and (b) if you can see yourself behaving in the ways described below.

Now, please take a minute to understand this answer key.

0= this has never happened 3= 3-5 times in the last three years
 1= once in the last three years 4= 6-10 times in the last three years
 2= twice in the last three years 5= over 10 times

1. I have put up with someone who has been verbally abusive to me.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

3. I have called my boy/girlfriend mean names and/or criticized some aspect of his/her appearance.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

2. I have pushed or shoved my boy/girlfriend.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

4. I have put up with someone who has been physically abusive to me.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

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5. I have kicked, bit or punched my boy/girlfriend.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

9. I have threatened to hit or throw something at my boy/girlfriend.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

6. I have insulted or swore at my boy/girlfriend.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

10. I have kept quiet when something has really upset me because I didn't want to start a fight with my partner.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

7. I have done stuff that could get me into trouble because my partner asked me to.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

11. I have let my boy/girlfriend decide things because I didn't want to get into an argument over it.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

8. I have demanded to know where my boy/girlfriend has been and who he/she has been with.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

12. I have threatened to hurt myself when my boy/girlfriend has said or done something to upset me.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

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13. I have engaged in sexual activity before feeling ready to do so.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

16. I have put up with a boy/girlfriend who has treated me badly.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

14. I have slapped my boy/girlfriend.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

17. Although I did not really want to, I have engaged in sexual activity to please my partner.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

15. I have put up with a boy/girlfriend who has made me feel bad about myself.

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

If you answered "never happened", can you see yourself doing this?

No!!! ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Yes!!!

You are doing great! Please move on to the next questionnaire.

Appendix F: Peer Attraction Questionnaire

PEER ATTRACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

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Remember, all your answers are strictly confidential.

1- Among your secondary 5 classmates, who (if any) do you consider a close friend? Please write down your friend's name clearly in block letters.

2- Among your secondary 5 classmates, who (if any) could you see yourself being romantically attracted to? Remember your answers are confidential. Please write down this person's name clearly in block letters.

3- Think about the person you just indicated above. Please tell us how well the characteristics below describe him/her. If there is no one you could see yourself being attracted to, then skip ahead to the next section.

[illegible]

Appendix G: The Center for Epidemiological Studies - Depression Scale

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Below is a list of the ways you might have felt or behaved. Please check off (a) **HOW OFTEN** you have felt this way during the past week and (b) **TO WHAT EXTENT** you have felt this way.

During the past week:

1. I was bothered by things that usually don't bother me.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent did things bother you?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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4. I felt that I was just as good as other people.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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2. I did not feel like eating; my appetite was poor.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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5. I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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3. I felt that I could not shake off the blues even with the help from my family and friends.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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6. I felt depressed.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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7. I felt that everything I did was an effort

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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11. My sleep was restless.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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8. I felt hopeful about the future.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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12. I was happy.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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9. I thought my life has been a failure.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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13. I talked less than usual.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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10. I felt fearful.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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14. I felt lonely.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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15. People were unfriendly.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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18. I felt sad.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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16. I enjoyed life.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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19. I felt that people dislike me.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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17. I had crying spells.

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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20. I could not get "going".

- ☐ Rarely or None of the time (Less than 1 day)
☐ Some or a Little of the time (1-2 days)
☐ Occasionally or a Moderate amount of time (3-4 days)
☐ Most or All of the time (5-7 days)

To what extent?

Not at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very much
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