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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE COMMUNICATIVE IMPACT OF AN OLDER ADULT PARENT ON THE ADULT CHILD/SPOUSE LONG-TERM MARITAL RELATIONSHIP

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

MARY ELIZABETH SPARKS BETHEA Norman, Oklahoma 1998 UMI Number: 9839783

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THE COMMUNICATIVE IMPACT OF AN OLDER ADULT PARENT ON THE ADULT CHILD/SPOUSE LONG-TERM MARITAL RELATIONSHIP

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

BY

1.L

Dedicated to my family:

Robert Harrison

and

Elena Elizabeth

Acknowledgements

Everything has a beginning, mid-point, and ending whether it is life, relationships, or even a program of study. A definition of what constitutes "beginning" is easy enough to formulate as is a definition of a "mid-point" or anything that has not reached the end. Yet, to define "the end" of something may be one of the most difficult definitions of all. It is in the ending moments at which point one may understand truth more than at any other time. The touchpoints of clarity learned along this Ph.D. journey, while evident in bits and pieces, cannot ever be fully understood. Perhaps, the most significant finding this journey has revealed is that it is most important who we are being while we are doing whatever it is we are doing in life. So, it matters not whether the goal is attaining an advanced degree, being the best caregiver or educator, attorney or physician, raising society's next generation, working in a factory, or owning a small business. What truly matters is that we remain faithful to who we are while we are doing whatever it is that we are doing or achieving. However, I have also learned that the only true constant in each aspect of life and human relationships is change. All things must eventually end, and while my program at the University of Oklahoma is coming to a close, my program of study will likely never truly end it will simply change form.

In closing, I extend sincere thanks to the individuals who contributed to the creation and the completion of this exhausting, yet exhilarating journey. Professors and colleagues: Anne Balazs, Gus Friedrich, Paul Kleine, Jorge Mendoza, Melinda Morris, Paul Nakonezny, Jon Nussbaum, Dan O' Hair, Mary John O' Hair, Loretta Pecchioni, Sandy Ragan, Rosemary Schultz, and Angie Williams. Students: May Lee Chong, Rebecca Rucker, Amber Whisenhunt, Michael Anderson, Aaron Thompson, Matt Geniuk, Tara Bryant, Whitney Woodward, Austin Turner, Mark Garavaglia, Ryan McAdams, and Charlyce Davis. The Bethea and Sparks families, Father Don Owens (my mentor, supporter, and protector), Gretchen Wilson Loken (my study buddy and big sis in the Theta house), all of the 124 confidential participants who completed lengthy questionnaires for this study, and most of all Louise Gaines who faithfully, gratefully, and unconditionally cared for and loved my daughter, Elena when Bob nor I could be with her.

May your hearts and souls be filled with peace.

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Abstract

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the effect an older adult parent living with an adult child/spouse may have on the communication in the long-term marital relationship. This study is designed to examine the ways in which adult triadic relationships form and influence a primary dyad over time. The present study used a retrospective (historical cohort study) design to determine the effect of a parent on the relational change of the adult marital dyad for two reasons. First, as Kirk (1995) states, "A retrospective study is particularly useful for studying the relationship between variables that occur infrequently or variables whose occurrence is difficult to predict" (p. 9). Second, a retrospective study may also be useful when there is a long time interval between the cause and effect (Kirk, 1995). Change in this context may be best gathered through retrospective data. Specifically, this dissertation proposes an investigation into the communicative changes that occur within long-term marriages of couples after a parent moves into their home. An examination of adult marital couples' communicative changes before and after a parent moved into the household were assessed from the treatment group (parent group), and adult marital couples' communicative changes were assessed from the no treatment comparison group (no parent group). The primary goal was to examine the effect of a parent on the adult marital dyad by assessing the communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication of the marital dyad after the parent moves into the child's home.

Results indicate a number of significant differences for couples married 25 years who have a parent living in the household (28 couples) when compared to couples who

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do not have a parent living with them (34 couples). Least squares means results show that parents living with adult children and their spouses share less communicative competent behaviors, have higher communicative satisfaction, higher dvadic adjustment, and less relational communication. Overall, four important results are revealed in this study. First, MANOVA results indicate that when not controlling for any variables in a single model overall marital communicative change exists for couples living with a parent. Second, MANCOVA results indicate that overall communicative change does not exist for couples living with a parent when controlling for the 13-pretest measures in a single model. However, ANCOVA results indicate that the effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse household on the long-term marital relationship exists in a positive way when it comes to communicative satisfaction and marital/dyadic adjustment when pretest measures are statistically controlled. Additionally, the effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse household on the long-term marital relationship exists in a negative way when it comes to communicative competent behaviors and relational communication when pretest measures are statistically controlled. Finally, an overall parent effect was found for couples living with a parent utilizing an overall repeated measures design. The results of this study should be interpreted within the context of the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Background of the study

Individuals involved in a marital relationship often find that their "exclusive" relationship is interconnected with various other acquaintances, family members, friendships, and work or functional relationships. These various interpersonal relationships, while often satisfying and fulfilling, may also invade the "safety and security" of the marital relationship. Researchers of relationships are frequently concerned with understanding marriage, romance, or friendship; yet often forget about the matrix of associations in which individuals and any one of their relationships are embedded. As Bateson (1984) suggests, to attempt to understand an individual or any one of their relationships separate from their social matrix is misleading. Although dyadic communication is essential to an understanding of relationships (see e.g., Fisher, 1953; James, 1953; Wheeler & Nezlek, 1977); it is equally essential that researchers of relationships gain a broader understanding of the dyad as it is intertwined in other relationships.

The most important and influential relationships in an individual's life may be both the marital relationship and the parent-child relationship. While each of these relationships may begin at a different time in an individual's life span, both are inherently full of change and adaptation throughout one's life. Extant life-span developmental

research indicates that relationships are not static, but consist of change, process, and development over time (Nussbaum, 1989). The life-span developmental approach provides an alternative to what is usually reported in marital communication literature which tends to emphasize how communication could or should be altered to affect the state of the relationship (see e.g., Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1988; Sillars & Weisberg, 1987). Researchers applying a life-span developmental perspective to relationships are more concerned with how events in the relationship shape communication, rather than how communication affects relationship adjustment (Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). Wilmot and Sillars (1989) further state that stabilized relationships are inherently fluctuating because as adults experience change so do their relationship schemata, which influence their relational behavior. While both the marital relationship and the parent-child relationship continue throughout an individual's life, each of these relationships is likely to change as the individuals change.

The marital relationship typically consists of both stability and change as it progresses across the life span and into older adulthood (Carstensen, Gottman, & Levenson, 1995). Although the marital relationship typically begins with a formal ceremony, it often starts before that event, develops over time, and undergoes relational change. The parent-child relationship continues across the life span until and often past the parent's death (Thompson, 1989). Both the marital and the parent-child relationship are inclined to change as the individuals in the relationship change as a consequence of acquiring new roles (e.g., parent, step-parent, caregiver) as well as other various events and influences taking place in their lives (Wilmot & Sillars, 1989). The transition to parenthood is often a major life event that has been viewed in recent decades as an

important period of social transition, similar in many ways to other major life events in which both the individual and the family system must change, renegotiate, and redefine itself in order to negotiate a successful transition. Research has consistently revealed that couples experience modest declines in overall marital quality (i.e., adjustment and satisfaction) when children enter the household (Belsky, Lang, & Rovine, 1985). However, the question of "what happens to marital quality when a parent moves into the household?" has not yet been fully investigated.

Family caregiving research has consistently shown caregiving for older relatives to be a frequent and important family concern. As life expectancies continue to increase along with the rapidly growing number of older adults, the number of individuals in caregiving relationships is expected to increase greatly (Moody, 1994). Many family members, especially adult children and spouses, fulfill a caregiving role (Cantor, 1992, Johnson & Catalano, 1983). In 1980, nearly 20% of all individuals over the age of 65 tended to live in multigenerational households with the proportion nearly doubling for those individuals aged 90 and older (Coward & Cutler, 1991). Although not all of those older adults are disabled, those who do live with their adult children are older and more impaired than the total population of older adults (Mindel & Wright, 1982; Wolf & Soldo, 1988). Moreover, disabled older adults generally live with their families and certainly outnumber those in institutions (Brody, Poulshock, & Masciocche, 1978).

Adult children tend to help their biological parents more than their parents-in-law (Spitze, Logan, Joseph, & Lee, 1994). Conversely, Ingersoll-Dayton, Starrels, & Dowler (1996) found that parents and parents-in law receive similar amounts of care. The authors

found no difference between the amount of help sons-in-law and daughters-in-law provide to their parents-in-law.

Spitze and Logan (1990) strongly suggest that having a daughter is the key to receiving help in old age. As a consequence of changing marital patterns, about 44% of caregiving daughters are not married (Brody, Litvin, Hoffman, & Kleban, 1992). There is a tendency for the caregiver role to fall to the daughter with fewer competing roles (such as marriage). (Stoller, 1983; Ikels, 1983). However, a 1982 Long-Term Care survey determined that although 57.4% unmarried daughters tend to share households with a parent, more than 23.8% of married daughter caregivers also shared households with the parent (Brody et al, 1995). An understanding of human behavior across the life span is critical to families learning to cope with and adapt to changes in the family structure.

Several aspects of the caregiving context have an influence on the well-being of family members caring for an older adult relative (Smerglia, & Deimling, 1997). The few studies that exist on the effects of caregiving on adult children's marital quality have been limited by the use of cross-sectional data. These investigations have found that relatively few adult children or children-in-law report that caregiving affects their marital relationships in a detrimental way (Cantor, 1983; Griffore, 1997; Horowitz, 1985; Kleban, Brody, Schoonover, & Hoffman, 1989). Griffore (1997) found that levels of marital and relational satisfaction were not significantly different for individuals who assisted older family members or lived with the respondent and those who did not. However, no indication was given in terms of length of marriage for the respondents in this study that was part of a larger study. Suitor and Pillemer (1994) conducted a one-year longitudinal study examining family caregiving and marital satisfaction by questioning

only the wives. Moreover, recent studies have suggested that wives' acquisition of new roles has detrimental effects on marital quality particularly when husbands are in opposition to the wives (see e.g., Hochschild, 1988; Suitor, 1987; Vannoy & Philliber, 1992). Most research on marital relationships still takes an individual unit of analysis by tracing marital satisfaction from only one of the partners (Wilmot & Sillars, 1989). A preferred perspective for studying marital relationships over time may be to integrate relational units of analysis. It seems that a more complete understanding of marital quality (husbands' attitudes, satisfaction, etc.) may be better captured by measuring the husbands as well as the wives!

The study of triadic relationships offers an opportunity for researchers to move beyond the dyad as a stand-alone functioning unit. Wilmot and Sillars (1989) point out that "Just as individual responses fail to reveal everything of interest about interpersonal relationships, dyadic relationships fail to reveal everything of interests about a person's network of relationships" (p. 128). Studying the fluid formation of triadic relationships may add a much-needed element to better understand the needs of the functioning marital dyad as it is influenced by other relationships.

Communication scholars have generally neglected the study of "triadic" relationships. A few exceptions exist in the health communication domain (Beisecker, 1996; Hasselkus, 1994), the family communication domain (e.g., Long & Mancini, 1990; McHale, 1995;Wilmot, 1987), and the personal relationship domain (Klein & Milardo, 1993). These studies, however, have failed to systematically examine triadic relationships across the life span. What may be important, at least for individuals in these triadic relationships, is to understand the extent to which individuals are influencing each other

in these connected relationships. This dissertation investigates the communicative changes that occur in the marital dyad after a parent moves into their home. The marital dyad will be considered the primary dyad and the parent and each spouse will be considered the two secondary dyads or a triad composed of three dyads.

Statement of the problem

This dissertation outlines an investigation that studies the communicative changes that occur in marital dyads after a parent moves into their home. First, a review of the relevant literature on the influence of a third party on relationships is provided. Next, a review of pertinent literature on the developmental nature of marital relationships is given followed by a review of literature on the developmental nature of the parent-child relationship. This dissertation then examines the effect of a parent on the adult marital dyad by assessing the communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication of the marital dyad prior to and following a parent moving into the home of a married child.

The Influence of a Third Party on Dyadic Relationships

The majority of studies in interpersonal communication have focused on individuals and dyadic relationships rather than triadic relationships (Wilmot, 1987). Wilmot (1987) defines a triad as a "social system composed of three people transacting face to face" (p. 22) which normally evolves into a primary dyad plus the third person. When a group of three interact, the relationships evolve so that it is normal for one member to be isolated, suppressed, or excluded from complete participation so as to form a dyad plus the third person (Wilmot, 1987). For example, a newborn baby, mother, and father will likely experience shifting alliances across the family life span. In a face to face

triadic transaction, however, "the transaction at any point in time is composed of a primary dyad plus one" (Wilmot, 1987). However, dyadic relationships are often influenced by an outside member (Caplow, 1968), who may over time form a triadic relationship composed of three dyads. While a paucity of research refers to triadic interaction, previous studies inconsistently define triadic relationships in terms of viewing how a third party influences a dyadic relationship or defining a triad as a dyad plus one (Caplow, 1968; Klein & Milardo, 1993; Long & Mancini, 1990; Wilmot, 1987).

Triads have been studied from a sociological perspective for several decades (Caplow, 1968; Satir, 1967, 1972; Simmel, 1959). Simmel (1959) was one of the first to recognize that triadic communication is an essential component of functioning societyfrom a family of three to a brief conversation among three persons. He stated that there is no triad in which the third member does not play a mediating role. Moreover, Caplow (1968) claims that triadic communication is central to social interaction and is seen as the basic social process whereby persons and groups modify each other's behavior. However, it is important to realize that when a primary dyad forms within the framework of three people, the primary dyad is constantly changing, evolving, and shifting among the three. In other words, a triad consisting of individual A, individual B, and individual C may initially form a primary dyad composed of individual A and individual B (AB). The two secondary dyads would then consist of AC and BC. Primary dyad AB may shift to AC or BC over time. Caplow (1968) states that every triad has three relationships. He defines a triadic relationship as one of shifting alliances composed of a dyad plus one outside member. Caplow argues that triads have a tendency to divide into a coalition of two members against the third. However, the primary dyad forming among the three people is

not necessarily permanent. A father, mother, and parent, for example, will likely experience shifting alliances.

Satir (1967, 1972) argues that the triad is the building block of all human relationships. She defines the triad as a three person learning system stating that from conception, each individual is part of multiple triads in our transactional lives. Satir views the experience of the primary triad of father, mother, and child as the essential source of identity of the self. Individuals learn coping skills and the foundations for adulthood based on this primary triad (Satir, 1967, 1972). She suggests that the dynamics in a relationship among three people differ from those in a dyad or in a group of four or more.

Klein and Milardo (1993) argue that third parties affect dyadic relationships by applying their own perspectives and standards to the target relationship, including values, beliefs, experiences, needs, interests, and objectives. In other words, third parties often modify interpretations of problems, directly or indirectly suggest appropriate responses, and/or impose evaluative standards-thus, influencing the dyad.

Long and Mancini (1990) state that the concept of "triangling" or the formation of a triadic relationship in the family system often reveals the behavior of the dyad when stressed. The authors claim that the "triangle" describes the automatic movement of individuals within the family system to maintain a degree of closeness or distance that produces the lowest level of anxiety for the family. Thus, as anxiety increases within the two-person system or dyad, a triadic relationship forms with the most vulnerable or available third party or outsider. For example, a couple may attempt to solve their marital distress by having a child to "make things better." Couples in distress may automatically draw in a third party so the couple itself can maintain and survive.

Researchers who study developing relationships have examined some of the possible connections between interdependence in the target dyad and association with third parties (Surra, 1988). Empirical work has concentrated on the property of interference, or how opposition or support from third parties may affect a husband and wife. Research has examined corresponding shifts in the amount of interdependence between the primary dyadic relationship consisting of individuals A and B; and individual A and C, depending on the nature of the A-C relationship (i.e., kin, friends, or acquaintances) (Surra, 1988).

Johnson and Leslie (1982), for instance, argue that because available time is limited, A's interaction with B will constrict A's with C. However, if the frequency, diversity, and strength of A's interaction with B increases, there may be subsequent decreases in these properties for A and C. If interdependence between A and B continues to decrease, eventually their tie will be severed completely, thereby reducing the interconnectedness of the triad (and perhaps, the entire network). The same arguments apply to the effects of A-C interdependence on A and B. Alternatively, changes in interdependence in a particular network relationship may mediate A-B interdependence by their impact on causal conditions, as in the case where one spouse establishes a new acquaintance, thereby altering the partner's long-term perception of trustworthiness. This shift in an A X B causal condition may change the amount of time the couple spends together.

Leslie, Johnson, and Huston (1986) focused on the connections between behaviors performed by parents to show approval and disapproval of their children's dating choices and behaviors performed by children to try to influence their parents'

opinions of their dates. Children's influence attempts included, for example, "talking to parents about my partner's good points" and "talking about how my partner treats me." Examples of parental behaviors are "asking how the partner is doing" and "talking about other people to date." Influence attempts and parental approving behaviors covaried, and both were more likely when dating relationships were deeply involved. The pattern of results for parental disapproving behaviors was similar, though weaker. Parental approval and disapproval were weakly related to the developmental change in stage over a fourmonth period. It seems that some parents and children simply have high levels of interaction about dating and that the more serious the romance, the more they exchange information about it.

Driscoll, Davis, and Lipetz (1972) found a positive correlation between changes in romantic love and interference of a third party. Cross-sectional data supported Johnson and Milardo's (1984) prediction that interference would be low at the earliest stages of romantic involvement, highest at middle stages, and low again at later stages. Longitudinal analyses indicate that high interference at the beginning of the study increase the likelihood of relationship deterioration during a one-year period.

Parks, Stan, and Eggert (1983) found strong positive associations between support from one's own network as well as their partner's network and involvement. Conversely, opposition from the partner's network was associated with less involvement. In a related study, Parks and Adelman (1983) report that high support was associated with relationship stability.

Family caregiving research has consistently shown caregiving for older relatives to be a frequent and important family concern. Many family members, especially adult children and spouses, fulfill a caregiving role (Cantor, 1992, Johnson & Catalano, 1983). In 1980, nearly 20% of all individuals over the age of 65 tended to live in multigenerational households with the proportion nearly doubling for those individuals aged 90 and older (Coward & Cutler, 1991). Although not all of those older adults are disabled, those who do live with their adult children are older and more impaired than the total population of older adults (Mindel & Wright, 1982; Wolf & Soldo, 1988). Moreover, disabled older adults generally live with their families and certainly outnumber those in institutions (Brody, Poulshock, & Masciocche, 1978).

As a consequence of changing marital patterns, about 44% of caregiving daughters are not married (Brody, Litvin, Hoffman, & Kleban, 1992). Spitze and Logan (1990) strongly suggest that having a daughter is the key to receiving help in old age. There is a tendency for the caregiver role to fall to the daughter with fewer competing roles (such as marriage). (Stoller, 1983; Ikels, 1983). However, a 1982 Long-Term Care survey determined that although 57.4% unmarried daughters tend to share households with a parent, more than 23.8% of married daughter caregivers also shared households with the parent (Brody et al, 1995). An understanding of human behavior across the life span is critical to families learning to cope with and adapt to changes in the family structure.

The number of individuals in caregiving relationships is expected to increase greatly as life expectancies increase along with the increasing number of older adults (Moody, 1994). Smerglia and Deimling (1997) claim that several aspects of the caregiving context have an influence on the well being of family members caring for an older adult relative. Caregivers' satisfaction with their decision making has been found to

be largely a function of the adaptability and lack of conflict in the larger family environment (Smerglia & Deimling, 1997).

The few studies that exist on the effects of caregiving on adult children's marital quality have been limited by the use of cross-sectional data. These investigations have found that relatively few adult children or children-in-law report that caregiving affects their marital relationships in a detrimental way (Cantor, 1983; Griffore, 1997; Horowitz, 1985; Kleban, Brody, Schoonover, & Hoffman, 1989).

Griffore (1997) found that levels of marital and relational satisfaction were not significantly different for individuals who assisted older family members or lived with the respondent and those who did not. This study, however, did not examine long-term marriages.

Suitor and Pillemer (1994) conducted a one-year longitudinal study examining family caregiving and marital satisfaction, yet only assessed the women. Results indicated no change in mean marital satisfaction scores; however, more than one-third of the women reported notably lower or higher scores by the end of the year. Analyses indicated that changes in the women's marital satisfaction were associated with variations in husbands' emotional support and hindrance of the caregiving effort. Husbands' support and hindrance were affected by the husbands' perceptions that caregiving interfered with their wives' performance of traditional family roles. Husbands' instrumental support did not help to explain changes in caregivers' marital satisfaction across the year. Moreover, recent studies have suggested that wives' acquisition of new roles has detrimental effects on marital quality especially when husbands are in opposition to the wives (see e.g., Hochschild, 1988; Suitor, 1987; Vannoy & Philliber, 1992). Thus, it seems that marital

quality (husbands' attitudes, satisfaction, etc.) cannot be fully understood without measuring both partners.

One of the most frequently researched triadic relationships occurs in the healthcare setting. The physician-patient-companion triad has received considerable research attention in recent years (Beisecker, 1996). Older adult patients are more often accompanied to the doctor by companions than are younger adults (Adelman, Greene, & Charon, 1987; Beisecker, 1988, 1989). Waitzkin (1991) recognized the importance of the social context in which a patient functions and in which he or she experiences health and illness. One key element of that social context is the patient's family. Family members care for the patient and his or her medical problems when necessary, and frequently interact with the health care system on behalf of the patient. For older patients, particularly, family members may initiate and organize maintaining contact with the health care system (Beisecker, 1996). Moreover, research indicates that family caregivers take a primary role in providing information to the physician (Bethea & Balazs, 1997). Family caregivers also exhibit behaviors that convey their beliefs that the patient is incompetent, such as questioning the truth of the patient's statements and disclosing information to the doctor despite the patient's objections (Beisecker, 1996; Sparks & Thompson, 1996).

In a study on interventions in physician-elderly patient interactions, McCormick, Inui, and Roter (1996) report a number of effects when a third party is present including changes in patient satisfaction and differences in the content of visits when patients are alone versus in the company of a third person. Greene et al. (1994) found that triadic medical visits actually hinder communication between patient and physician. Older

patients raised fewer topics, were less responsive to topics they did raise, and were less assertive and expressive. In addition, although the accompanying individual's representation of the identity of the patient may not be an accurate one, the doctor may nonetheless use this information in evaluating the patient. A study by Gilden, Hendryx, Casia, and Singh (1989) found that spouses played an extremely important role in the care of diabetic elderly patients. Spouses effectively intervened in changing the knowledge base and participation of the "third party" in care. Cicirelli (1992) states that even for well-intended family and professional caregivers, the task of caring for an older adult who has impairments without controlling that person is delicate and complicated. He states that despite consensus that elderly individuals receiving long-term care services in the home or in an institution have a right to maximum self-determination and dignity. there is often an erosion of personal autonomy as others make a variety of decisions for them. This erosion may lead to negative effects in the health and well being of these older adults. Cicirelli (1992) argues that family caregivers should seek to understand when it is important to step in (paternalism) and when it is appropriate to back off (allowing autonomy).

In a pioneering study of relationships, Bateson, Jackson, Haley, & Weakland (1956) repeatedly observed that when patients were released from the hospital and returned to their families, they were likely to relapse, or some other member of the family was likely to get sick. Thus, the sick family member often influence the primary dyad (e.g., sick teenager influences parents). Bochner and Eisenberg (1987) describe this epistemological shift as a resistance to change or homeostatic mechanism, the idea that families seek to maintain equilibrium at any cost (e.g., symptomatic behavior). Members

of primary dyads may also be seeking to maintain equilibrium at any cost by allowing a triadic relationship to form.

Both dyadic and triadic relationships cannot be considered without acknowledging the societal influences and structures that surround them. All personal relationships are embedded in the larger socio-historical-cultural milieu of society; however, each relationship also develops its own dyadic culture (Baxter, 1992). In other words, as relationships develop over time, they constitute bonding and negotiation of interdependence and dependence both within and outside the relationship. Therefore, the individual affects and is affected by different social and cultural situations, and at the same time is influenced by the dyadic and triadic interactions framed within these embedded social and cultural networks. Klein and Milardo (1993) argue that the structure of partners' social networks affects the nature, availability, coordination, and timing of influence attempts by network members or third parties. The authors further state that the influence of third parties depends on their ability to define relational competence (e.g., tasks or solutions that must be solved within the relationship, appropriate behaviors, etc.). Interpersonal communication scholars can add to the study of relationships by understanding the developmental aspects of the dyad, and by examining triadic relationships that may influence dyadic interaction. The impact of a third party on the dyad may best be understood through an examination of one of the most widely researched dyadic relationships...the marital dyad.

The Developmental Nature of the Long-Term Marital Relationship

Continuity and change, consensus and conflict, cohesion and contrast, satisfaction and dissatisfaction, repetition and disruption have all been mentioned in the characterization of marriage across the life span (Christensen & Johnsen, 1985). Marriages are in constant change whether from the influence of a major life event or in more subtle ways (Sillars & Zietlow, 1993). Obvious changes could range from a shift in couple orientation to a family-child rearing orientation to adaptations due to job relocation or potentially an older parent moving into the household. Understated changes may include gradual, evolutionary changes in levels of dependence, or tacit assumptions within the relationship.

In an analysis of relationship themes comparing couples across the life-span, Sillars and Zietlow (1993) found that the oldest couples in their sample revealed more interdependence through an emphasis on sharing and collaboration and through typical, highly connected conversational accounts. Mid-life couples discussed important issues of conflict directly, but with less emotionality often demonstrated by younger couples. Agreement and understanding remained stable across the life-span groups; however, couples who have failed to manage fundamental conflicts at earlier stages might become entrenched in unproductive patterns of interaction. Younger couples were found to focus more on individualistic constructs as well as recognized and reconciled individual differences. Sillars and Zietlow (1993) report that the younger marital years often demand high levels of explicit communication due to the "intangible task of blending separate personalities and achieving a common sense of purpose and identity" (p. 255).

Sillars and Zietlow (1993) further point out that most traditional marital research has focused on young couples who often are searching for a common sense of identity, and whose early years together are earmarked by a concentrated period of time of major life changes. Krokoff (1987) indicates that the mean age of couples in past marital interaction studies was 29.94 years, whereas the mean age of the U. S. population is 44.70 years and rising. Sillars and Wilmot (1989) argue that this leads to a "young" model of marital communication that emphasizes concerns, values, and developmental tasks of individuals in the period between mate selection and early parenthood. More mature or seasoned marriages might reflect somewhat different developmental priorities (Sillars & Zietlow, 1993).

In a review of marital relationships across the life span, Sillars and Wilmot (1989) state that changes within the marital relationship tend to occur at a slower pace than during the acquaintance period. Sillars and Wilmot (1989) conceptualize three simultaneous influences on marital communication across the life span: (a) intrinsic developmental processes; (b) cohort; and (c) life stage. Sillars and Wilmot (1989) state that over time relationships tend to utilize more implicit, idiosyncratic, and efficient forms of communication. Younger couples tend to use more explicit communicative styles than older couples due to relative instability, novelty, and social change in role expectations. Conversely, implicit, more efficient, subconscious forms of communication may be encouraged over time as more mature couples know each other better through greater amounts of repetitiveness in their interactions (Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). However, Sillars and Zietlow (1993) later found no evidence that "older couples talked any less than young couples or that they spoke in a cryptic code" (p. 257). While it is possible that communication becomes more efficient or decreases in the first years of marriage (Huston, McHale, & Crouter, 1986), it seems that these changes rapidly level off. Sillars and Zietlow (1993) state that this may occur because even when instrumental issues are

restrained, explicit communication retains an extremely important function in the later years of marriage.

Cohort effects include marital ideologies identified with different age groups (e.g., cohort prohibitions against divorce) and norms of expressivity. Older age groups may have cohort prohibitions against divorce, whereas younger couples may as a group have an increased acceptance of divorce combined with higher standards for communication, affection, and companionship (Fitzpatrick & Badzinski, 1985). Historical differences in communication norms are likely due to multiple factors. Caplow et al. (1982) report considerable differences in marital communication patterns of couples in the 1920's compared to marital communication in the 1970's. Working class families of the 1920's had less time, energy, and money to spend together than families of the 1960's or 1970's. Cohort effects can vary greatly and caution should be used in interpreting cross-sectional studies comparing communication patterns of younger and older couples.

Important life stage events affecting couples' interaction styles include marriage, children, the empty nest (when children leave home), and potentially an older adult parent moving into the adult-child marital household. Life events contribute to understanding how stressful life transitions over time change communication patterns for couples to more implicit forms of interaction (Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). Further, research on self-disclosure supports the notion that during later years there is a decline in self-disclosure (Jourard, 1971; Zietlow & Sillars, 1988). These studies indicate an overall declining expressivity and directness of marital interaction across the family life cycle or more implicit forms of communication over time. Zietlow and Sillars' (1988) study of

life-stage differences in communication during marital conflicts indicates that retired couples are less analytic and use the most non-committal remarks in conversations when compared to younger and middle-aged couples. Middle-aged couples were also found to be non-conflictive and non-committal in their discussions, but differed from the retired couples in that they became analytic when marital problems were salient. Younger couples in the study revealed a comparatively intense, engagement style of interaction, characterized by alternation between analytic, confrontational, and humorous remarks. The results suggest that a mixture of developmental, life stage, and cohort differences molds marital communication. Thus, couples may over time create a communication system similar to the "high context" interaction style described by Hall (1977) and the "pragmatic code" described by Ellis and Hamilton (1985). In addition, Sillars and Wilmot (1989) claim more opportunities for intense bonding and sharing of intimate experiences exist for couples over time resulting in more high context interaction styles for intimate couples than for strangers or acquaintances.

Carstensen, Gottman, and Levenson (1995) provide further evidence for both stability and change in the nature of the marital relationship across the life span and into older adulthood. Research indicates that couples who have spent a lifetime together have higher levels of mutual dependence, sharing, stability, and marital satisfaction than do couples from other age groups (Blieszner, 1988; Johnson, 1988; Sillars & Wilmot, 1989).

A growing body of research, based on cross-sectional and longitudinal findings, suggests that—after a decline in marital satisfaction in mid-life—marriages become increasingly positive as couples' enter old age (Brubaker, 1990; Levenson, Carstensen, & Gottman, 1993). In a study of long-term marriage (spouses' age 40-50 years or 60-70

years) and relative marital satisfaction (satisfied and dissatisfied), Levenson et al. (1993) found that older couples have a positive view of older marriages. Older couples' report reduced potential for conflict and greater potential for pleasure when compared with middle-aged marriages. Additionally, older couples revealed equivalent levels of mental and physical health and fewer gender differences in sources of pleasure. The relation between health and marital satisfaction was stronger for women than for men. Couples in satisfied marriages reported equivalent health, while wives in dissatisfied marriages reported more mental and physical health problems.

As relationships change across the life span, so do levels of competence in the communicative exchange into adulthood (Duran, 1989). Wiemann (1977) defines communicative competence as, "the ability of an interactant to choose among available communicative behaviors in order that he (sic) may successfully accomplish his (sic) own interpersonal goals during an encounter while maintaining the face and line of his (sic) fellow interactants within the constraints of the situation" (p. 198). Wiemann's (1977) conceptualization of competence centers around relational competence where effectiveness and appropriateness are viewed as necessary outcomes of a competent conversation between partners. An effective interaction is one in which both partner's experience satisfaction. Hence, relational competence is viewed as the successful management of the marital relationship as the criterion for effectiveness. The communicative dance between partners appears to reveal competence. Couples in long-term marriages may have different competencies than those in shorter marriages because they have developed a relational culture over time. Competent communicators "have the foresight to recognize that their goals are interdependent" (Parks, 1994, p.613). As

couples mature across the life span, they likely have developed unique interdependent goals to cope with various life events.

Mares and Fitzpatrick (1995) argue that research on the aging couple has generally been survey research conducted in the United States on Caucasian couples. Although research on relational communication across the life span is scarce, two longitudinal studies of marital relationships should be highlighted. First, Gottman and Krokoff (1989) videotaped couples discussing an important marital issue. Observational coding revealed that conflict engagement and anger were negatively associated with concurrent satisfaction but were positively associated with increases in satisfaction over time. The wife's marital satisfaction changed when she expressed contempt and anger. However, the wife's expression of contempt and anger also generated a negative association with concurrent marital satisfaction for both partners. Thus, some behaviors that appear negative at the time they are exchanged may over time be productive. Additionally, Gottman and Krokoff (1989) report the wife's positive verbal interaction predicted concurrent marital satisfaction but was associated with deterioration of satisfaction over time. Finally, dysfunctional behaviors such as defensiveness, stubbornness, and withdrawal (particularly from the husband) were associated with a decline in marital satisfaction over time as well as concurrent distress. In addition, the wife's fear predicted deterioration in satisfaction, whereas the husband's whining was associated with declines in satisfaction. The wife's sadness predicted a decline in satisfaction for both husband and wife. Gottman and Krokoff's (1989) results suggest that wives should not be overly compliant, fearful, and sad, but should confront disagreement while expressing anger and contempt. Husbands should avoid being stubborn or

withdrawn, yet should not be afraid to engage in conflict. Further, spouses should avoid being defensive. In the second longitudinal study of relational communication across the life span, Noller, Feeney, Bonnell, & Callan (1994) studied couples' communication and relationship satisfaction just before marriage and two times during the first two years of marriage through self-report and videotaped interaction data collection. Overall, relationship satisfaction was most consistently related to later ratings of disengagement from husbands. For wives, conflict processes involving negativity, withdrawal, and disengagement were predicted by earlier satisfaction. The videotaped strategies revealed strongest effects for wives' support of partner, which was predicted by both partners' earlier satisfaction. Thus, the connection between relationship satisfaction and discussion of relational issues over time appears to be reciprocal.

Researchers of family interaction suggest the marital dyad is, perhaps, the most widely researched primary dyad in the family system (Fitzpatrick et al., 1985; Levenson, Carstensen, & Gottman, 1993). Prior research on marital communication has emphasized the importance of couples' communication patterns for marital satisfaction (Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990). However, satisfaction has frequently been measured as an element of relational or dyadic adjustment (Locke & Wallace, 1959; Spanier, 1976; Busby et al., 1995). While marital satisfaction is extremely important, the additional factors of consensus and cohesion in the marital relationship presumably provide more depth than satisfaction alone (Busby et al., 1995). The marital relationship literature frequently uses the terms satisfaction/dissatisfaction and distress/non-distress interchangeably (Carstensen, Gottman, & Levenson, 1995), which may lead to confusion. A central goal of research on marital communication has focused on the differences between distressed (dissatisfied) and non-distressed (satisfied) couples (Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990). Couples in distressed marriages generally are more likely to utilize sarcastic, critical, hostile, coercive, and rejecting behaviors such as withdrawal. Moreover, as aggregate measures, negative behaviors more consistently predict relational outcomes such as satisfaction (Gottman, 1979; Rusbult, 1993; Schaap, 1984). Interaction behaviors of unstable couples emerge in the following order: complaining/criticizing (about some features of the partner) leads to contempt (i.e., acting as if sickened by the partner), which leads to defensiveness (i.e., protecting self), which leads to stonewalling (i.e., emotional withdrawal and refusal to participate in conversation) (Gottman, 1994). In addition, Canary, Cupach, and Messman (1995) report that distressed couples are more apt to respond to negative actions of a partner with similar negative actions. Over time, these negative "tit for tat" exchanges tend to result in an escalation of conflict (Sillars & Wilmot, 1994). Canary et al. (1995) argue that the reciprocation of negative affect can potentially be the most relationship damaging form of interaction in which a couple can engage.

Previous observational research has produced consistent results. Negative emotional behavior appears to be the best discriminator between distressed (dissatisfied) and nondistressed (satisfied) marriages. Emotional expression during marital interaction differentiates between satisfied and dissatisfied couples followed by a reciprocity of negative affect between dissatisfied partners (Carstensen, Gottman, & Levenson, 1995). Nondistressed couples tend to display higher levels of positive behaviors such as agreement, approval, humor, and compliance in their communication patterns than do distressed couples (Gottman & Levenson, 1992). Gottman (1994) recently reported that

stable and satisfied couples enact five times more positive than negative interaction behaviors. It is this 5:1 ratio that constitutes relational "balance" in terms of a stable marital relationship. Satisfied or non-distressed couples have been found to agree more often (Schaap, Buunk, & Kerkstra, 1988), to reciprocate negative affect less often (Gottman, 1979; Levenson & Gottman, 1985), and to more accurately decode each other's nonverbal messages (Noller, 1984) than dissatisfied or distressed couples. Additionally, non-distressed couples report spending more time talking with one another than distressed couples (Kirchler, 1989).

Over time, couples develop a relational culture which represents an increasingly shared symbolic world reflecting the relational identity. Johnson (1985) interviewed couples aged 65 and older about their judgments of their marriage and found a common denominator of survivorship, shared experiences, and interdependence. Van Lear (1992) compared marital relationships of younger couples (average age late 20's) to their parent's marital relationships (average age mid 50's) by asking both couples to complete Fitzpatrick's (1988) Relational Dimensions Instrument (RDI). Results indicate younger husbands and wives report spending more time together and lower levels of traditionalism than their parents. This finding lends further support to Zeitlow and Sillars (1988) research that older cohorts may have been less engaged even in the earlier stages of their relationship. Van Lear (1992) also found that younger couples' marital styles appear to be drawn from selectively borrowing parents' marital styles that seemed to work. However, younger couples appear to adopt marital styles consistent with the values and norms of their own generation. The institution of marriage seems to change and adapt while still maintaining some continuity and connection from the past. Gottman (1994) identified three functional types-which resemble Fitzpatrick's (1988a) types-as well as two dysfunctional marital types. Gottman claims that "conflictminimizers" are emotionally flat and distant from one another which is in line with Fitzpatrick's separates. Gottman labels "volatile couples" as those who are emotionally expressive, passionate, combative, and try to influence each other on most issues. These couples fight often, but also laugh often which is akin to Fitzpatrick's independents. Gottman's "validating couples" show neutral affect in managing conflict, but are similar to Fitzpatrick's traditionals in that they reveal emotional interdependence. Gottman indicates the two dysfunctional marital types are characterized by patterns of defensiveness, withdrawal, and contempt for each other. Gottman's classification scheme of volatile, validating, and conflict avoiding couples approach is based on affect, while Fitzpatrick links affect and power in her classification scheme of traditionals, independents, and separates (Fitzpatrick & Badinski, 1994).

The Rogers and Farace (1975) model based on power contrasts with the Gottman (1979, 1993b) model based on affect. Couples are defined by theories and coding schemes in terms of how they use patterns of control in conversations. Couples are defined by three major message exchange patterns: symmetrical, complementary, and parallel (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967). Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967) assert that communication about relationships is implicit in communicative conduct rather than explicitly given in verbal messages. The implicit or "relational" level of meaning associates a message with a type of act being performed by it (e.g., a request for information), with the social significance of the act such as being polite or rude, and with the relational significance of the act such as an attempt to control or show affection

(Sillars, 1989). Thus, two basic levels exist: the "content" level of the message and the "relational" or meta-level of the message (Rogers & Farace, 1975). The implicit code is the primary medium through which abstract relational issues can be clarified. Watzlawick et al. (1967) stress that marital partners who lack consensus at the relational level are caught in a bind, because an inability to communicate effectively about the relationship is both the source of the problem and the reason why the problem cannot be effectively discussed. Consensus regarding relational meaning can be difficult to ascertain when there is not a solid basis of consensus in the beginning.

Traditional approaches to relational communication identify dimensions such as dominance, affection, and inclusion in terms of message exchange which may underestimate the variety and richness of interaction (Burgoon, 1994). Burgoon (1994) claims that relational communication entails a participant perspective directed at a particular target. Relational communication takes a structural approach by focusing on the meanings attributed to behavior. Relational communication may also utilize the dyad as the unit of analysis. Based on a review of anthropological, ethological, sociological, psychological, and communication literature, Burgoon and Hale (1984) developed the Relational Communication Scale composed of 12 dimensions of relational messages which offer an organizing scheme for identifying patterns of relational communication.

In sum, marital relationships across the life span must be considered within their relational contexts whether it be intrinsic developmental processes, cohort effects, life-stage events, and/or type of marriage. Specific issues provide the content, while management of conversation structures the system of interaction characterizing the

relationship. One of the major outside influences on the marital dyad may be the influence of a third party-whether it be a child, friend, parent, or grandparent.

The Developmental Nature of the Older Parent-Adult Child Relationship

The parent-child relationship is one of the first and most important relationships that develops across an individual's life-span and typically continues until a parent's death or even after a parent's death in the form of memories (Thompson, 1989).

In the last decade, researchers of families have been trying to examine direct and indirect effects in the family process. However, Riskin and Faunce's (1972) statement that the least studied family unit is the family itself may still hold true. Much of the research on family interaction still focuses on the husband-wife or parent-child dyads (Fitzpatrick & Badzinski, 1994). Studying the triad is a complicated enterprise. In a triad, the researcher can examine the impact of at least nine different direct and indirect ways that the interaction in any triad can be modified (Parke, 1979). For instance, a father's modification of the mother's behavior on the child or a mother-child relationship on the father-child interaction, etc.

Belsky, Youngblade, Rovine, and Volling (1991) argued that the quality of the marital relationship greatly influences parent-child relationships. They found that husbands who are less in love with their wives and less maritally satisfied behave toward their children in a more negative and intrusive manner than do the happily married husbands. Mothers seem less affected by marital distress in their relationships with their children. In mother-infant-toddler triads, the interaction between a mother and a firstborn child changed in a negative direction when the mother was feeding or caring for the newborn (Kendrick & Dunn, 1980). The overall quality of mother-infant interaction may

decrease with the presence of the father (Parke & O'Leary, 1976). Research has consistently revealed that couples experience modest declines in overall marital quality (i.e., adjustment and satisfaction) when children enter the household (Belsky, Lang, & Rovine, 1985).

Initially, the field of intergenerational family relationships research focused on early stages of the life course-for instance, on relationships between young children and parents. In recent years, however, this trend is changing with an increased interest in the study of family relationships in later life (Johnson, 1988). The parent-child relationship inherently fluctuates and changes, although it is often considered a very stable relationship (Wilmot & Sillars, 1989). It is through an individual's own sense of identity and his or her varied relationships that change across the life span that the individual experiences living (Coupland, Nussbaum, & Grossman, 1993). Cicirelli's (1993) lifespan perspective allows for both the biological imperatives in the early and later years of life and the contextual or environmental influences that dominate the middle years. In discussing the caregiving aspects of the parent-child relationship, Cicirelli (1983) states that (in terms of support) the relationship is relatively equal when the parent and child are in adulthood, whereas the relationship is relatively unequal in the child's early years or the adult's later years. Hess and Waring's (1988) research supports the notion that as the child leaves the dependency of childhood and enters the adult years, there tends to be less of a power imbalance. Lewis (1990) claims that parent and child are more likely to remain emotionally healthy if children pass through major transition points of what he terms the dependency cycle. Schroeder (1988) states that children who have successfully fulfilled their independence from their parents in adulthood will typically return to an

increased closeness with their parents. Brubaker (1990) suggests that life events such as marriage, having children, retirement, or illness not only bring about change in adults experiencing them, but also affect the entire family network. Any of these events may affect the child in both positive and negative ways (e.g., increases or decreases in interaction).

Mancini and Bleiszner (1985) report that adult children are increasingly willing to move back into their parents' homes-blurring the parent-child roles in later life. The fact that life expectancy has increased in the past 20 years of this century has restructured the very nature of the adult-child/elderly parent relationship as well as the effect of that relationship on the adult-child marital dyad/elderly parent relationship. The role reversal that occurs as adult children become more active in their parents' lives is directly related to loss in the personal control and power of older adult parents which may ultimately lead to greater disenfranchisement for elderly parents (Nussbaum et al., 1996). Further, Brody (1985) suggests that caring for older parents can be considered a normative life event for children. Study of adult family relationships suggests that adults and their own older adult parents continue to be loyally involved with each other in ways generally free from conflict (Cohler, 1983).

In a study of interaction between frail older people and their family caregiverscaregiver or care-recipient roles were found to influence the communication behaviors of the caring dyads (Edwards, 1996). Caregivers used a dominant and directive style of communication consistent with a perception that their role was to provide, manage, and organize care (Edwards & Giles, 1998). Thus, a caregiver with an active style was aggressive in terms of his or her role, whereas an older care-recipient with a more passive

style adopted a passive and submissive role. As Edwards and Giles (1998) point out, the communication management perspective notes that young people's schemas are important and may need modifying for specific encounters.

In a study examining the communication in dyadic decision making among 50 elderly parent adult child dyads, Cicirelli (1993) tested 50 pairs of elderly mother-adult daughter caregivers according to their beliefs on paternalism and decision making interactions. Results indicate that paternalistic decision-making occurs most frequently when the pair both score high on paternalism, and are comparatively older. A positive relationship was found between the measure of paternalistic beliefs and open-ended comments made by participants. Results support the notion that as decision making capacity declines, dyad members' beliefs in paternalistic decision making stabilize, influence the pattern of communication, and become more resistant to change. Henwood and Coughlan, (1993) have found that mothers and daughters frequently have high levels of conflict in later life due to unresolved childhood issues over the need for autonomy and separation. O'Connor (1990) found that less than one-third of the daughters in her study described their relationships with their mother as very close. She infers that the perception of mother-daughter relationships as very close reflects current popular belief and an idealization of the mother role. Thus, the continuation of the parent-child relationship is likely to change as the individuals in this relationship change. Likewise, the development of the marital relationship is likely to change as the individuals in this relationship change. However, what happens when these relationships converge? To better understand how primary dyads may be affected by triadic relationships, it is crucial to attain a clear understanding of the ways by which a third party may influence the dyad.

RATIONALE

The least studied family unit is the family itself (Riskin & Faunce, 1972).

Research on family interaction has concentrated on primary dyads within the family, but few studies go beyond the dyad within a family. However, what constitutes a family often refers to more than two people (i.e., husband-wife or parent-child). Much of the research on family interaction still focuses on the husband-wife or parent-child dyads (Fitzpatrick & Badzinski, 1994), without regard for third parties extending beyond and influencing the primary dyad. The study of triadic relationships offers an opportunity for researchers to move beyond the dyad as a stand-alone functioning unit. Wilmot and Sillars (1989) state: "Just as individual responses fail to reveal everything of interest about interpersonal relationships, dyadic relationships fail to reveal everything of interests about a person's network of relationships" (p.128). Studying the fluid formation of triadic relationships may add a much-needed element to better understand the needs of the functioning marital dyad as it is influenced by other relationships. Satir (1967, 1972) suggests the dynamics in a dyadic relationship differ from those in a relationship among three or more. Klein and Milardo (1993) argue that third parties influence the dyad by imposing their own perspectives, values, experiences, needs, interests, objectives, and beliefs to the target relationship which contributes to the primary dyad's ability to define relational competence. Long and Mancini (1990) claim that "triangling" or triadic relationships form within the family when the primary dyad is anxious or stressed. Johnson and Leslie (1982) argue that the influence of a third party will greatly restrict the amount of time the primary dyad is able to spend together. Dyadic relationships are often influenced by an outside member (Caplow, 1968); however, studying the triad is a complicated enterprise.

In a triad, the researcher can examine the impact of at least nine different direct and indirect ways that the interaction in any triad can be modified (Parke, 1979). Moreover, although the marital relationship has received considerable research attention, few studies have examined long-term marriage. Research indicates that most traditional marital studies have focused on younger couples searching for a common sense of identity, and whose early years together experience a number of major life changes (Sillars & Zietlow, 1993). Krokoff (1987) indicates that the mean age of couples in past marital interaction studies was 29.94 years, whereas the mean age of the U.S. population is 44.70 years and rising. However, much of what is known about the marital relationship stems from studies of marriages among persons in younger cohorts, and from short-term marriages. This attention to younger cohorts and short-term marriages may be due to the dominant social and economic roles younger adult couples play in contemporary society. It is also possible that researchers have easier access to these subgroups. More than half of all marriages end in divorce, yet researchers have failed to examine the impact a third party may have on marital relationships. The National Center for Health Statistics (1995) reports that the median duration of a marriage at the time of divorce is about 7.5 years, and about 80% of all divorces granted each year are to persons between the ages of 20 and 44. Less than 11% of all divorces granted each year are persons aged 50 and older, while about 3% of all divorces granted each year are to persons who are at least 50 years of age and from marriages that lasted at least 25 years. Thus, it is evident that marital couples aged 50 and older who have been married for more than 25 years represent a small proportion. However, research indicates that communication in marital relationships changes across the life span. Sillars and Zietlow (1993) found that as

couples mature they discuss conflictual issues more directly and with less emotion than younger couples. Mature couples are more interdependent, tend to share and collaborate more, and come together more through talking with one another than younger couples. The authors state that this may occur because even when instrumental issues are restrained, explicit communication retains an extremely important function in the later years of marriage (Sillars & Zietlow, 1993). This strongly suggests that couples' may have better communicative tools to draw upon when confronted with life events that occur as their relationship matures. Thus, the ways in which couples deal with and work through problems may be different for long-term marriages than for couples in shorter marriages.

By the year 2010, one quarter of the United States population will have reached the age of 55 or older. The old-old, generally defined as those individuals over the age of 85, are indeed the fastest growing group (Beisecker & Beisecker, 1996). As life expectancies continue to increase along with the rapidly growing number of older adults, the number of individuals in caregiving relationships is expected to increase greatly (Moody, 1994). The trend of family members taking care of their older adult parents will likely become more dramatic as baby boomers enter middle age. The American population is aging rapidly, forcing families to respond to a new set of needs. These demographic trends will have a tremendous impact on both families and institutions. Family caregiving research has consistently shown that caring for older relatives is a frequent and important family concern. Many family members, especially adult children and spouses, fulfill a caregiving role (Cantor, 1992, Johnson & Catalano, 1983). In 1980, nearly 20% of all individuals over the age of 65 tended to live in multigenerational households with the proportion nearly doubling for those individuals aged 90 and older (Coward & Cutler, 1991). Although not all of those older adults are disabled, those who do live with their adult children are older and more impaired than the total population of older adults (Mindel & Wright, 1982; Wolf & Soldo, 1988). Moreover, disabled older adults generally live with their families and certainly outnumber those in institutions (Brody, Poulshock, & Masciocche, 1978).

Adult children tend to help their biological parents more than their parents-in-law (Spitze, Logan, Joseph, & Lee, 1994). Conversely, Ingersoll-Dayton, Starrels, & Dowler (1996) found that parents and parents-in law receive similar amounts of care. The authors found no difference between the amount of help sons-in-law and daughters-in-law provide to their parents-in-law.

Spitze and Logan (1990) strongly suggest that having a daughter is the key to receiving help in old age. As a consequence of changing marital patterns, about 44% of caregiving daughters are not married (Brody, Litvin, Hoffman, & Kleban, 1992). There is a tendency for the caregiver role to fall to the daughter with fewer competing roles (such as marriage). (Stoller, 1983; Ikels, 1983). However, a 1982 Long-Term Care survey determined that although 57.4% unmarried daughters tend to share households with a parent, more than 23.8% of married daughter caregivers also shared households with the parent (Brody et al, 1995). An understanding of human behavior across the life span is critical to families learning to cope with and adapt to changes in the family structure.

McCormick, Inui, and Roter (1996) report a number of effects when a third party is present-including changes in patient satisfaction and differences in the content of visits when patients are alone versus in the company of a third person. Moreover, Greene et al. found that triadic medical visits hinder communication between patient and physician. Several aspects of the caregiving context have an influence on the well being of family members caring for an older adult relative (Smerglia & Deimling, 1997). Suitor and Pillemer (1994) found that caregiving does not uniformly present a decrease in marital satisfaction. Dissatisfaction, rather, was often due to the absence of husbands' emotional support and/or the presence of husbands' interference with the caregiving effort. This one-year longitudinal study examined family caregiving and marital satisfaction by assessing the wives in the marital dyad with no indication of length the women had been married. Sillars and Zietlow's findings strongly suggest that couples in long term marriages have more communicative strategies to draw upon than their younger counterparts.

In a recent study of interaction between frail older people and their family caregivers, caregiver or care-recipient roles were found to influence the communication behaviors of the caring dyads (Edwards, 1996). Caregivers used a dominant and directive style of communication consistent with a perception that their role was to provide, manage, and organize care (Edwards & Giles, 1998). Thus, a caregiver with an active style was aggressive in terms of his or her role, whereas an older care-recipient with a more passive style adopted a passive and submissive role. As Edwards and Giles (1998) point out, the communication management perspective notes that young people's schemas are important and may need modifying for specific encounters. Thus, the intergenerational communicative problems that may arise from the potentially difficult situation of a parent moving into the adult child/spouse household may be extremely important to understand.

The effect of a third party on the adult marital dyad still remains a neglected aspect within the body of interpersonal communication research. To date, little research has empirically examined the extent to which the communicative process of the adult marital dyad is impacted by an older adult parent moving into their home. Research strongly indicates that as individuals mature, communicative behaviors change, as do the types of communication directed toward them (Nussbaum, Hummert, Williams, & Harwood, 1996). Carstensen, Gottman, and Levenson (1995) provide additional evidence for both stability and change in the nature of the marital relationship across the life span and into older adulthood.

The review of the prior research on the influence of a third party on the dyad strongly suggests that third party members often influence, negotiate, and modify the dynamics and behavior in dyadic relationships (Caplow, 1968; Klein & Milardo, 1993; Satir, 1967, 1972; Simmel, 1959). Research suggests that life events bring about change in individuals experiencing them while also affecting others in the family network (Brubaker, 1990; Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). Such life events likely affect interaction patterns between not only parent and child, but also communication between couples. Further, research on triadic relationships in healthcare settings indicates a number of effects in communicative behavior and relational communication when a third party is present (Cicirelli, 1992; Gilden, Hendryx, Casia, & Singh, 1989; Greene et al., 1994; McCormick, Inui, & Roter, 1996).

The findings from research on third party influence and support appear to be inconclusive about how they affect developing relationships. Although some results from longitudinal studies that measured dating couples' perceptions of interference indicate

that third party interference is frequently related to relationship growth and deterioration (Johnson & Milardo, 1984; Parks & Adelman, 1983; Parks et al., 1983), studies that employed behavioral self-report measures of parent approval and disapproval (Leslie et al., 1986) fail to find solid evidence of a longitudinal connection between opposition and developmental change. Explanations for these inconsistencies could be due to methodological and substantive issues. Assumptions described in the workings of an interactive network imply first, that interference and support are behaviors expressed by network members that block or facilitate the execution of partner's individual goals and behaviors regarding relationships. Such assumptions also imply that interfering or supportive behaviors influence the interdependence in the dating relationship itself. In other words, parents, friends, and others take an active role in dating relationships. A final assumption implies that interference and support may influence developmental change in dyads by acting on other causal conditions (Surra, 1988). The effect of a longtime family relationship may be more powerful than implicit influences of networks, observations of other relationships, and one's own past intimate dyadic relationships. Interfering and supportive behaviors have been studied only from the viewpoint of the targets of the behaviors and not the actors, making it difficult to substantiate the reliability or validity of reports. Moreover, research on interference and support has relied upon college student samples (Johnson & Milardo, 1984; Leslie et al, 1986; Parks & Adelman, 1983; Parks et al., 1983). Thus, because influence from longtime relationships is likely to be greatest when commitments or connections are serious, the degree of interference may have been underestimated.

This study is designed to examine the ways in which adult triadic relationships form and influence a primary dyad over time. The present study used a retrospective (historical cohort study) design to determine the effect of a parent on the relational change of the adult marital dyad for two reasons. First, as Kirk (1995) states, "A retrospective study is particularly useful for studying the relationship between variables that occur infrequently or variables whose occurrence is difficult to predict" (p. 9). The situation of a parent moving into the adult child household where couples have been married at least 25 years is indeed an important, yet difficult situation to find at the present time. However, in the next decades, families will likely be relying on each other more and more because individuals are living longer and current healthcare often is not satisfactory. Second, a retrospective study may also be useful when there is a long time interval between the cause and effect (Kirk, 1995). Change in this context may be best gathered through retrospective data.

Specifically, this dissertation proposes an investigation into the communicative changes that occur in the adult marital dyad (over 50) after a parent moves into their home. Two purposes frame this study. First, an examination of adult marital couples' communicative changes before and after a parent has moved into the household will be assessed from the treatment group (parent group). Second, an examination of adult marital couples' communicative changes will be assessed from the no treatment comparison group (no-parent group). The primary goal is to examine the effect of a parent on the adult marital dyad by assessing the communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication of the marital dyad after the parent moves into the child's home. An

underlying assumption of this study is that individuals within the long-term marriage are likely to have different perceptions of communicative competence, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic satisfaction, and relational communication given that a parent has moved into the home. The parent moving into the adult child household likely changes the marital communication between husbands and wives of long-term marriage because the established dyadic relational culture will be disrupted. Thus, the relational culture developed between husband and wife over time will likely change due to the constant presence of a parent. In addition, the nature of the existing older parentadult child relationship is likely to influence the communicative competence, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication between husbands and wives in long-term marriages. Hence, this study goes beyond previous research both theoretically and methodologically by studying the communicative impact an older adult parent may have on the adult child long-term marital relationship by assessing couples' marital communication through the utilization of the five following intercorrelated measures.

Wiemann (1977) created the Communicative Competence Scale (CCS) to measure an individual's ability "to choose among available communicative behaviors" to accomplish interpersonal goals (p. 198). Although the CCS has only been used with college student populations, it may be a useful tool to tap into different cohorts across the life span by examining the perceived communicative competent behaviors between individuals in the marital dyad. The influence of life stage has rarely been considered in assessments of communicative behavior among adult marital couples (Sillars, et al, 1992). Yet, there is clearly great diversity of marital styles at any given stage of life, and "marriages are also shaped partly by developmental tasks and values specific to phases of life" (Sillars et al., 1992, p. 129). An essential part of the marital conversation concerns the structures of compatibility, typical arguments, as well as the ebb and flow of marital stagnation existing within the marriage. However, a different ontological framework is implied when marital dyads talk about the value of what constitutes good communication in that instigation of communicative behavior is taken to be active or intentional as well as shared or interactive (Sillars, Burggraf, Yost, & Zietlow, 1992). In this study, communication is viewed as a symbolic activity embedded in interpersonal relationships and, thus, communicative competence is reflected within relationships by communicative competent behavior. Thus, the focus of this study is to test the following non-directional hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived communicative competent behavior in the long-term adult marital relationship.

Hecht (1978b) views satisfaction as a communication outcome from a behavioral perspective. His approach claims that past experiences influence expectations of another's behavior and the fulfillment of these expectations results in communication satisfaction. The Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory (Com-Sat) is a unidimensional self-report instrument that was developed from questionnaires and interviews that assessed conversational satisfaction-dissatisfaction in actual and recalled conversations with a friend, acquaintance, or stranger (Hecht, 1978a). Thus, the following non-directional hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 2: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived communicative satisfaction in the long-term adult marital relationship.

Norton (1983) developed the Quality Marriage Index (QMI) to improve on earlier measures of marital satisfaction (e.g., Spanier's (1976) Dyadic Adjustment Scale). The focus of the QMI is communication in a quality marriage. Norton views marital quality as an individual's evaluation of the "goodness of the relationship gestalt" (p. 143). The author argues that self-reported global evaluative judgments be used to assess relationships because global items are semantically similar to one another yet independent of other covariates such as affection, conflict, and communication. Norton further argues that researchers using global measures can explore variables related to marital quality without questioning that the construct of interest is embedded in the dependent variable. Thus, the following non-directional hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 3: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived marital quality in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (RDAS) (Busby, Christensen, Crane, & Larson, 1995) is an improvement over the DAS (Spanier, 1976) for the following reasons: (a) The RDAS, unlike the DAS, has acceptable levels of construct validity and as demonstrated by several confirmatory factor analyses with more than one sample; (b) the RDAS is as highly correlated with the popular Locke-Wallace (1959) Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) as the DAS; (c) although the RDAS has less than half the items of the DAS, it is as successful at discriminating between distressed and nondistressed individuals; (d) the RDAS and its subscales have adequate internal consistency estimates and excellent split-half reliability coefficients, estimates which were larger than those of the DAS; (e) at this time there is some evidence that the RDAS can be divided into two forms and used in situations where repeated testing is necessary. In sum, the RDAS is an improvement over the DAS, which was an improvement over the MAT. Thus, the following non-directional hypotheses are offered:

Hypothesis 4a: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived dyadic consensus in the long-term adult marital relationship.

Hypothesis 4b: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived dyadic satisfaction in the long-term adult marital relationship.

Synthesizing a large literature from various disciplines, Burgoon and Hale (1984, 1987) identified 12 relational themes that are important to relational communication. These include Dominance-submission, Intimacy, Affection-Hostility, Intensity of involvement, Inclusion-Exclusion, Trust, Depth-Superficiality, Emotional Arousal, Composure, Similarity, Formality, and Task-Social Orientation. Various studies have revealed that individuals recognize these themes in the messages of their partners (Burgoon & Hale, 1987). Thus, the following non-directional hypotheses are offered:

Hypothesis 5a: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational immediacy/affection in the long-term adult marital relationship.

Hypothesis 5b: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational similarity/depth in the longterm adult marital relationship.

<u>Hypothesis 5c: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her</u> <u>spouse will have an effect on perceived relational receptivity/trust in the</u> <u>long-term adult marital relationship.</u>

<u>Hypothesis 5d: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her</u> <u>spouse will have an effect on perceived relational composure in the long-term</u> <u>adult marital relationship.</u>

Hypothesis 5e: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational formality in the long-term adult marital relationship.

<u>Hypothesis 5f: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her</u> <u>spouse will have an effect on perceived relational dominance in the long-term</u> <u>adult marital relationship.</u>

Hypothesis 5g: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational equality in the long-term adult marital relationship.

Hypothesis 5h: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational task orientation in the longterm adult marital relationship.

Previous research on families commonly refers to "long-term marriage" as those that have lasted at least 25 years and "older parent" as those individuals who are at least 50 years of age (e.g., Aquilino, 1994; Silverstein, Parrott, & Bengston, 1995; Sweet, Bumpass, & Call, 1988; White & Peterson, 1995). It is important to employ a notreatment comparison group so that potential threats to internal validity can be identified. Without the no-treatment comparison group, it is difficult to measure these potential threats to internal validity. This study moves beyond previous research theoretically, empirically, methodologically, and comprehensively: (a) by drawing on data collected from adult marital couples who have been married at least 25 years and have older adult parents living with them; (b) by employing pretest/pre-parent moved and posttest measures assessing communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication in the marital dyadic relationship to infer whether the parent moving in is related to change in the adult marital relationship.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

<u>Sample</u>

Power Evaluation

A power evaluation of the basic nonequivalent control-group design used in this study was carried out a priori to determine the sample size per cell needed in order to achieve statistical power of .88, with alpha = .05 and an effect size of .75. Effect size is the difference in means that is detectable in sigma units. Statistical power of .88 is considered a large level of power (Cohen, 1988). A power evaluation of the basic 2 X 2 design used in this study revealed 12 subjects per cell was needed. The data collection yielded a sample size of 56 subjects (28 couples) for the treatment group and 68 subjects (34 couples) for the no-treatment comparison group. A post hoc power evaluation, using the Pearson-Hartley power charts (Kirk, 1995) revealed that statistical power was always at least .88.

Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis in this quasi-experimental study was each individual within the adult marital dyad. The variables in this study will be measured from each individual's perspective.

Data Collection, Sample, and Procedures

The treatment group is referred to as the parent group. The no treatment comparison group is referred to as the no-parent group. Subjects for the treatment group were recruited from a non-probability (purposive) sample from churches and adult day

services located in the state of Oklahoma. Subjects were also recruited from communication courses at the University of Oklahoma. First, more than 1400 churches that were members of the Oklahoma Conference of Churches were sent a letter stating the purpose and sampling frame criteria for the current study. The letter asked each church administrator to propose the study to their respective congregations to see if members who fit the criteria would be willing to participate in the study. Second, students enrolled in communication courses during the Fall 1997 semester were asked to provide the name of adult marital couples who resided in the Southwest area and who met the sampling frame criteria. Third, statewide adult day services coordinators were contacted and asked the same questions. The sampling frame for the treatment group (parent group) consisted of subjects that satisfied the following criteria: (a) the adult marital couple had been at least 50 years of age at the time of the study; (b) the adult marital couple had been married for at least 25 years; and (c) the adult marital couple had a biological parent who is 65 years of age or older who has been living with the couple for at least a year. Subjects in the no-treatment comparison group were also recruited from the churches as well as communication courses at the University of Oklahoma. The sampling frame for the no treatment comparison group (no parent group) consisted of subjects that satisfy the following criteria: (a) the adult marital couple had been at least 50 years of age at the time of the study; (b) the adult marital couple must have been married for at least 25 years; and (c) the adult marital couple had a biological parent who is 65 years of age or older who is not living with the couple at the time of the study. The restrictions specified in the preceding criteria coincide with the minimum age demarcation of adult marital couples and older parents and with the minimum demarcation of "long term" marriage

used in the literature (e.g., Aquilino, 1994; Silverstein, Parrott, & Bengston, 1995; Sweet, Bumpass, & Call, 1988; White & Pearson, 1995). Participants who fit the sampling criteria were to either contact me by telephone or I contacted them after a referral from the student. Initially, personal interviews were to be conducted along with the questionnaire distribution. However, due to participant requests a decision rule was made to mail or hand deliver questionnaires in order to obtain the sample. This decision was based on participants' requests that the questionnaires be sent by mail. Thus, a selfaddressed stamped envelope was provided for those requesting this method of delivery. After completing the retrospective questionnaire in their own homes, participants mailed in their responses. The return rate for the questionnaires that were returned by mail was approximately 80-percent.

The goal was to obtain adult marital couples who were overall in good health. A basic assumption of snowball sampling is that members of the target population often know each other. This technique has been used to create sampling frames (Sudman & Kalton, 1986) and is sometimes associated with probability sampling (Goodman, 1961), but most applications involve non-probability methods of selection.

For the treatment group (parent group), in cases where there was more than one parent living in the household, then the adult marital couple was asked to think of the oldest parent when answering questions. For the no-treatment comparison group (noparent group), in cases where there was more than one living parent 65 years of age or older per family, then the adult marital couple was asked to think of the oldest living parent when answering questions. The oldest living parent was selected as the target

parent as an attempt to obtain a uniform selection of adult marital couple/older parent triads.

Two additional questions were asked of couples regarding their relationship. The first question had to do with "weakening or strengthening of the relationship" from the pretest and the posttest. The second question had to do with "change of the relationship" from before and after.

Subject characteristics of the treatment group

The Aspin-Welch t-test was utilized to test for demographic differences between the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group). Data for the treatment group were obtained from 56 participants (28 adult marital couples) married 25 to 53 years (M = 32.80, SD = 6.9 years of marriage). Adult marital couples were aged 50 to 79. The average age of adult marital couples was 57.00 (SD = 6.99 years of age), with reports of good to very good health (M = 4.16, SD = .78 on a scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being very good health). The majority of couples in the treatment group were employed full time 41 (73.2%), while 7 (12.5%) had never worked, 4 (7.1%) were retired, and 4 (7.1%) worked only part-time. Couples' had an average of 3.07 children (SD = 1.867 number of children) and 3.96 grandchildren (SD = 5.89 number of grandchildren). Couples' had an average education level of 14.8 years (SD = 3.23 years of education). The racial distribution of the adult marital couples in the treatment group (parent group) included 47 Caucasians (83.9%), 6 Asian Americans (10.7%), and 3 Native-Americans (5.4%).

Parents living with their adult children (adult marital couples) were aged 65 to 99. The average age of parents was 81.12 (SD = 8.589). Parents had lived in their adult child's household an average of 9.6 years (SD = 8.96) with a range of 1 to 42 years. Parent's health ranged from poor to fair (M = 2.857, SD = .9987 on a scale of "1" poor health to "5" very good health). The majority of parents living with their adult children were retired 39 (69.6%), while 12 still worked full-time (21.4%), 1 (1.8%) worked parttime, and 4 (7.1%) never worked. Parents' had an average education level of 11.23 (SD = 3.32 parents education level).). The racial distribution of the parents in the treatment group (parent group) included 45 Caucasians (80.4%), 8 Asian Americans (14.3%), and 3 Native-Americans (5.4%). At the time of the study 18 couples did not have any other individuals living in the household (62%); yet 10 couples did have other family members living in the household (38%). Both the couples' and their parents were, on average, married once and somewhat religious. (See Table 1 for further descriptive statistics.)

Subject characteristics of the no-treatment comparison group

Data for the no-treatment comparison group were obtained from 68 participants (34 adult marital couples) married 25 to 58 years (M = 33.36, SD = 8.244 years of marriage). Adult marital couples were aged 50 to 85. The average age of adult marital couples was 57.17.00 (SD = 8.62 years of age), with reports of good to very good health (M = 4.16, SD = .89 on a scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being very good health). The majority of couples in the no-treatment comparison group were employed full time 36 (52.9%), retired 21 (30.9%), or had never been employed 9 (13.2%), with only employed part-time (2.9%). Couples' had an average of 3.23 children (SD = 2.19 number of children) and 3.79 grandchildren (SD = 5.76 number of grandchildren). Couples had an average education level of 14.2 years (SD = 3.18 years of education). The racial distribution of the adult marital couples in the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group)

included 60 Caucasians (88.2%), 2 Hispanic-Americans (2.9%), and 6 Native-Americans (8.8%). At the time of the study 26 couples did not have any other individuals living in the household (86.6%); yet 9 couples did have other family members living in the household (13.4%).

Parents not living with their adult children (adult marital couples) were aged 58 to 89. The average age of parents was 78.00 (SD = 7.24). Parent's health ranged from poor to fair (M = 2.857, SD = .9987 on a scale of "1"poor health to "5"very good health). The majority of parents in the no-treatment comparison group were either retired 23 (60.5%) or had never been employed 11 (28.9%), with only 4 (10.6%) of couples employed full or part-time. Parents' had an average education level of 10.61 (SD = 3.21 parents education level). Both the couples' and their parents were, on average, married once and somewhat religious. In short, the experimental and control group demographics were, on average, quite similar (See Table 2 for further descriptive statistics.)

Design, Variables, and Instruments

A quasi-experimental pre-post treatment design (Cook & Campbell, 1979), with retrospective pretests, and data from 124 adult marital couples were used to test the hypotheses of this study. The study used a retrospective (historical cohort study) design to determine the effect of a parent on the relational change of the adult marital dyad for two reasons. First, as Kirk (1995) states, "A retrospective study is particularly useful for studying the relationship between variables that occur infrequently or variables whose occurrence is difficult to predict" (p. 9). The situation of a parent moving into the adult child household where couples have been married at least 25 years is indeed an important, yet difficult situation to find at the present time. However, in the next decades families will likely be relying on each other more because individuals are living longer and current healthcare often is not satisfactory. Second, a retrospective study may also be useful when there is a long time interval between the cause and effect (Kirk, 1995). Change in this context may be best gathered through retrospective data. The current study assessed this effect through measurements of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication to identify the nature and impact of on-going triadic relationships. These five basic constructs are commonly used in empirical studies that examine dyadic relationships (e.g., Baxter, 1990; Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Bullis & Burgoon, 1986;Cegala, Savage, Brunner, & Conrad, 1982; Cupach & Spitzberg, 1983; Hecht, 1978a; 1978b; 1984a; McLaughlin & Cody, 1982; Perotti & DeWine, 1987; Query, Parry, & Flint, 1992; Street, Mulac, & Wiemann, 1988; VanLear, 1991). Each of the five scales used in the study was completed two times. One gathered retrospective data and one gathered present data.

Treatment, Measurement, and Dependent Variables

The treatment in this quasi-experimental pre-post treatment design (Cook & Campbell, 1979) was the presence of a parent living in the adult child household. The adult child and his or her spouse were married 25 years or more. Five instruments were utilized to determine differences in the treatment and no treatment comparison (parent/no parent) groups in this study. The dependent variables for this study were measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication in the adult marital relationship as perceived by both husband and wife. Self-administered questionnaires were the measurement

instruments used and distributed to couples to assess relational change: (a) Wiemann's (1977) Communicative Competence Scale; (b) Hecht's (1978b) Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory; (c) Norton's (1983) Quality Marriage Index; and (d) Busby, Christensen, Crane, and Larson's (1995) Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (RDAS); and (e) Burgoon and Hale's (1987) Relational Communication Scale. The same item-scale instrument was used for both the treatment and the no-treatment comparison group; however, the wording of the questions accounted for the two contexts. The treatment group (parent group) responded to the items in a retrospective nature by thinking back to what the marital relationship was like before their parent moved into the household and after the parent moved into the household. The no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) responded to the items in a retrospective nature by thinking back to what the marital relationship was like five years ago and what their marital relationship is currently like in terms of communicative and relational change.

Assessment of reliability and validity

Measurement reliability and validity were assessed on the final study respondents answers from each of the following five scales: (a) Wiemann's (1977) Communicative Competence Scale; (B) Hecht's (1978b) Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory; (c) Norton's (1983) Quality Marriage Index; (d) Busby, Christensen, Crane, and Larson's (1995) Revised Dyadic adjustment Scale (RDAS); and (e) Burgoon and Hale's (1987) Relational Communication Scale. Measurement reliability was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha.

Communicative Competent Behavior

Wiemann's (1977) Communicative Competence Scale (CCS) was the instrument used to measure perceived communicative competent behaviors within the adult marital dyad before and after the oldest living parent moved into their home. The same itemscale instrument was used for both the treatment group and the no-treatment comparison group; however the wording of the questions accounted for the two contexts—parent group vs. no parent group. Communicative competent behavior was measured in the period before the parent moved in via self report accounts for the treatment group and in the current period, as of the date of completing the self-report questionnaire, for the notreatment comparison group that have no parent living in their home. The current research measured the frequency of each of the 36 items (communicative competent behaviors) between the husbands and wives using a five-point Likert-type scale. The scale ranged from "Strongly Agree" (1) to "Strongly Disagree" (5), with verbal labels for the intermediate scale points. The scale represents the average of the 36 items measuring communicative competent behavior and was scored so that a higher mean scale equals more communicative competent behaviors in the adult marital relationship.

The CCS is used to assess another person's communicative competence by responding to 36 items using Likert scales that range from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). Item analysis reduced the number of items from 57 original Likert type items to 36 final items. Initially, five dimensions of interpersonal competence were tested including general competence, empathy, affiliation/support, behavioral flexibility, and social relaxation and a dependent measure of interaction management. However, subsequent factor analysis produced a one-factor solution (Duran, 1989). Perotti and DeWine (1987) suggest using the CCS as a composite measure of communicative competence rather than breaking the scale into subscales.

The CCS is set up as a general measure of communicative behavior that assesses communicative competence within the marital dyad. Wiemann (1977) indicates that researchers interested in examining communication behavior can use the 36-item scale with confidence in its construct and concurrent validity. McLaughlin and Cody (1982) and Street et al. (1988) provide further evidence of construct validity. The CCS appears to be internally reliable. Wiemann (1977) reports a .96 coefficient alpha for the 36-item instrument. Cupach and Spitzberg (1983) report an alpha of .90, Hazleton and Cupach (1986) report an alpha of .91, Cegala, Savage, Brunner, and Conrad (1982) report an alpha of .85, and Query, Parry, and Flint (1992) report an alpha of .86 (Rubin, Palmgreen, & Sypher, 1994).

For the current research, measurement reliability and validity of the 36-item communicative competence behavior scale were assessed on the final study respondents. Measurement reliability was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the 36-item communicative competence behavior scale used in this study was .97.¹

Communicative Satisfaction

Hecht's (1978b) Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory was the instrument used to measure the adult marital dyad's perception of marital satisfaction in the relationship with their oldest living parent. The same item-scale instrument was used for both the treatment group and the no-treatment comparison group; however, the wording of the questions accounted for the two contexts—parent group vs. no parent

group. Marital satisfaction was measured in the period before the parent moved in via self report accounts for the treatment group and in the current period, as of the date of completing the self-report questionnaire, for the no-treatment comparison group that do not have a parent living in their home.

Item analysis reduced the number of items to 93 that were pretested—resulting in 60 items that were reduced to 19, which were factor-analyzed. Prior to rotation, all items had their highest loading on the first factor. After rotation, three factors emerged, but no clear factor structure was evident. The correlations among the factors were high (+ .30), which led to doubt about the independence of the factors (Rubin, Palmgreen, & Sypher, 1994). As a result, Hecht (1978a) suggests that "attention should be focused on the entire inventory and not limited to those items loading on the factors" (p.260). The inventory is set up as a general measure of communication satisfaction that assesses satisfaction after actual and recalled conversations. This study measures the frequency of each of the 19 items of communication satisfaction between the marital couple using a seven point Likert-type scale. The scale ranges from "strongly agree" (7) to "strongly disagree" (1), with verbal labels for the intermediate scale points.

Hecht (1978b) indicates that researchers interested in examining communication satisfaction can use the 19-item scale with confidence in its content and convergent validity. Rubin, Palmgreen, and Sypher (1994) state that the Com-Sat inventory has been utilized extensively in a variety of disciplines; however, only one article (Hecht, 1984b) has investigated the validity of the instrument. Hecht (1978a) reports split-half reliability coefficients of .97 when used in examining actual conversations and .90 for recalled conversations.

For the current research, measurement reliability and validity of the preceding 19item scale were assessed on the final study respondents. Measurement reliability was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the 19-item communicative satisfaction scale used in this study was .94.

Marital Quality

Norton's (1983) Quality Marriage Index was used to measure the adult marital dyad's perception of the quality of their marriage in the relationship with their oldest living parent. The same item-scale instrument was used for both the treatment group and the no-treatment comparison group; however, the wording of the questions accounted for the two contexts—parent group vs. no parent group. Marital quality was measured in the period before the parent moved in via self report accounts for the treatment group and in the current period, as of the date of completing the self-report questionnaire, for the no-treatment comparison group that do not have a parent living in their home.

The QMI emerged from previous work on the Partner Communication Scale (PCS) (Montgomery & Norton, 1980). The QMI resulted in a six item, self-report, global measure of marital quality. Five items use a Likert type scale that ranges from (1) very strong disagreement to (7) very strong agreement; and one item that assesses the degree of happiness in marriage on a scale that ranges from (1) very unhappy to (10) perfectly happy.

Norton (1983) indicates that researchers interested in investigating marital communicative satisfaction can use the six-item scale with confidence in its construct and concurrent validity. Baxter and Bullis (1986) report evidence of criterion related validity; however, Schumm, Paff-Bergen, Hatch, Obiorah, Copeland, Meens, and Bugaighis

(1986) suggest that future research should investigate discriminant validity. Norton has not reported reliability of the QMI. However, Baxter (1990) reports a Cronbach alpha of .95 and Baxter and Bullis (1986) as well as Van Lear (1991) indicate high Cronbach alphas of .88 and .93, respectively. These data suggest the QMI is a reliable measure.

For the current research, measurement reliability of the preceding six-item scale was assessed on the final study respondents. Measurement reliability was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the six-item marital quality scale used in this study was .81.

Dyadic Adjustment

The Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (RDAS) (Busby et al., 1995) was the instrument used to measure the adult marital dyad's perception of consensus, satisfaction, and cohesion of their marriage in the relationship with their oldest living parent. The 14item-scale instrument was used for both the treatment group and the no-treatment comparison group; however, the wording of the questions accounted for the two contexts—parent group vs. no parent group. Dyadic consensus, satisfaction, and cohesion were measured in the period before the parent moved in via self report accounts for the treatment group and in the current period, as of the date of completing the self-report questionnaire, for the no-treatment comparison group that do not have a parent living in their home.

Busby, Christensen, Crane, and Larson (1995) developed the Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (RDAS) to improve on Spanier's (1976) Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) by following the standards of construct hierarchy. Busby et al. found that several subscale items of the DAS contained some items that were homogenous and others that

were more heterogeneous. To solve this problem, the homogenous items were selected out resulting in the creation of a short 14-item instrument with seven first order scales that were combined to create three second order concepts of consensus, satisfaction, and cohesion. Busby et al. indicate that researchers interested in researching dyadic adjustment composed of dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction, and dyadic cohesion can use the preceding scale (RDAS) with confidence in its construct and criterion validity. Internal consistency and split-half reliability estimates demonstrate that the RDAS is reliable. Results indicate the RDAS may be used with confidence in pre- and posttest studies (Busby et al.).

For the current research, the 14-item scale was modified to include the 10 items relating to consensus and satisfaction. Measurement reliability of the ten-item scale was assessed on the final study respondents. Measurement reliability was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the ten-item dyadic adjustment scale used in this study was .93. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the consensus subscale factor was (.90) and satisfaction subscale factor was (.93).

Relational Communication

Burgoon and Hale's (1987) Relational Communication Scale was the instrument used to measure the adult marital dyads perception of the relational communication of their marriage in the relationship with their oldest living parent. The same item-scale instrument was used for both the treatment group and the no-treatment comparison group; however, the wording of the questions accounted for the two contexts—parent group vs. no parent group. Relational communication was measured in the period before the parent moved in via self report accounts for the treatment group and in the current period, as of the date of completing the self-report questionnaire, for the no-treatment comparison group that do not have a parent living in their home.

The Relational Communication Scale (RCS) was first developed as a 32-item scale that taps into relational topoi. The authors generated possible factor solutions for the 12 dimensions ranging from a 4-factor orthogonal (20-item) solution accounting for 51% of the variance to a 10-factor oblique (60-item) solution accounting for 57% of the variance. Burgoon and Hale recommend using an 8-factor solution in most cases (Rubin, Palmgreen, & Sypher, 1994). The RCS is generally used as a self-report measure in dyadic relationships; however, it is considered versatile and adaptable to other settings. Operating as central themes in relational communication, these dimensions are posited to be important components of relational definitions.

Burgoon and Hale (1987) indicate that researchers interested in examining relational communication can use the preceding scale with confidence in its content and convergent validity. In addition, Burgoon and Hale reported the RCS to be a reliable measure with coefficient alphas ranging from .42 to .88. Rubin, Palmgreen, and Sypher (1994) state that future research should, however, investigate the test-retest reliability of the RCS.

For the current research, measurement reliability of the 41-item scale was assessed on the final study respondents. Measurement reliability was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the overall 41-item relational communication scale used in this study were .95. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for each subscale factor is as indicated: Immediacy/Affection (Intimacy I) (.94),

Similarity/Depth (Intimacy II) (.90), Receptivity/Trust (Intimacy III) (.93), Composure (.92), Formality (.73), Dominance (.78), Equality (.91), and Task Orientation (.58).

Pretest measures of communicative competence, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication represented retrospective accounts of the same scale-item instrument that was used to measure the dependent variables. The subjects in the treatment group (parent group) were asked to give a retrospective self-report account of communicative competence, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication for the period before their parent had moved into the household. The subjects in the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) were asked to give a retrospective self-report account of communicative competence, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication for the period approximately five years prior to the date of completing the self-report questionnaire. Although the same itemscale instrument was used for both the pretest and the posttest measures for both the treatment and no-treatment groups, the wording of the questions, including the temporal ordering, was adapted to fit each context--parent group vs. no-parent group and pretest vs. posttest. Each of the pretest marital assessment scales-- communicative competence, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication--represents the average of the items for each scale. Each of the pretest marital assessment measures was scored so that a lower mean scale score equals more competence/adjustment/satisfaction in the long-term adult marital relationship before the parent moved into the household.

Control variables were used in the model to account for selection differences across subjects, to remove biases from treatment effects, to remove the effects of pretreatment differences, and to reduce unexplained error variance so treatment effects can be estimated with precision in this quasi-experimental, nonrandomized experiment (Maxwell & Delaney, 1990).

Control variables in this study included sociodemographic measures providing number of years parent lived in the household, number of years married, number of others living in the household, number of children and grandchildren, health levels, employment status, marital status, weakness or strength of relationship, perceived change in the relationship (and pretest measures depending on the test utilized). A selfadministered questionnaire was distributed to measure each of the control variables. The same scale-item instrument was used for both groups—treatment group (parent group) and no-treatment comparison group (no parent group); however, the questions were altered to fit the context of each group.

The number of years the parent lived in the adult child/marital couples' household were measured by a single item that asked the husband and wife to disclose the year the parent had moved into the home.

The number of years married was measured by a single item that asked husbands and wives to disclose the number of years they had been married. This item confirmed that couples had, in fact, been married for 25 years or more, which is central to this study.

The number of others living in the household was a single item to determine how many, if any, others may be living in the household at the time of the study. This item

was included to determine differences in families who may or may not have others in addition to a parent living in the household.

The number of children and grandchildren were measured by a single item that asked the husbands and wives to disclose the number of living children and grandchildren (biological, stepchildren, adopted children, and foster children) that they have.

Couples' were asked to disclose their own perceived level of health as well as their parent's health. Health was measured by a single item that asked husbands and wives to assess his/her overall health compared to others of the same age and to assess his/her parent's overall health compared to others of the same age. Couples' were asked to rate overall health on a five-point Likert type scale from "Very Poor" (1) to "Very Good" (5) with verbal labels for the intermediate scale points.

The employment status of husbands, wives, and their parent were measured by a single-item that asked the husband and wife to disclose his/her employment status and the employment status of the parent. Response categories ranged from 1 = employed full-time to 4 = not employed (see Appendices for detailed categories).

The marital status of the parent was measured by a single-item that asked husbands and wives to disclose their parent's marital status. Response categories ranged from 1 = married to 5 = widowed (see Appendices for detailed categories).

Two additional questions pertinent to this study were asked of both the treatment group and the no-treatment comparison group concerning weakness vs. strength of the relationship and change in the relationship. To assess the global perceived weakness vs. strength of the relationship, subjects in the treatment group were asked to disclose to what extent a parent moving in weakened or strengthened the relationship with their spouse. To assess the global perceived change in the relationship, subjects in the treatment group were asked to disclose to what extent the parent moving in changed the relationship with their spouse. The no-treatment comparison group questions were worded to fit the context of thinking back five years ago to the current time.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed utilizing a Model Comparison Perspective of the General Linear Models Approach. This simple comparison measure is extremely useful and general. Maxwell and Delaney (1990) claim that the GLM approach can be used for carrying out all the hypothesis tests needed including all tests in univariate and multivariate ANOVA, univariate and multivariate ANCOVA, bivariate regression, and multiple regression by using the following formula:

$$F = \frac{(E_R - E_F)/(df_R - df_F)}{E_F/df_F}$$

Four tests were conducted to test hypotheses 1 through 5: (a) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA); (b) multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA); (c) univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA); and (d) repeated measures MANOVA. In the General Linear Models approach the restricted model always involves the estimation of fewer parameters than does the full model (Maxwell & Delaney, 1990) Thus, the models will be compared with the least-squares estimates and errors as follows:

	Model	Least-Squares Estimates	Errors
Full:	$Y_i = \mu + \epsilon_{iF}$	μ = Y	$\Sigma e_{iF}^{2} = \Sigma (Y_{i} - Y)^{2}$ $\Sigma e_{iR}^{2} = \Sigma (Y_{i} - Y_{0})^{2}$
Restricted:	$Y_i = \mu_0 + \epsilon_{iR}$	No parameters estimated	

In other words, parameter estimates are chosen to minimize squared errors of prediction. Least-squares estimates possess a number of desirable statistical properties such as always being unbiased (Maxwell & Delaney, 1990). Least squared means are minimum variance unbiased linear estimators. Hence, least squared means are more efficient and have less variability than any other estimator that also is a linear combination of the observations in the sample.

Hypotheses 1 through five were first tested using MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication without any control variables in a single model. MANOVA tests the postests by assessing the time effect, the parent effect, and the interaction effect. MANOVA controls the overall alpha level (Type I error). MANOVA was utilized to detect relationships among variables while controlling for intercorrelations among them. Thus, MANOVA was initially employed to gain an understanding of the set of measures as they represent the underlying construct of marital communication. The goal of using MANOVA in the current study is to observe the effect of the independent variable (parent or no-parent) on the five dependent variables (posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication).⁵ Since the MANOVA maintains an alpha level unaffected by the number of dependent variables, it avoids artificially inflated group differences due to intercorrelation among the dependent variables. Estimates of the magnitude of the effect size were computed for all hypotheses. The effect size estimator associated with the test of each hypothesis was R^2 . If a small R^2 is detected, the effect size is small (from .2 to .5

is typically medium to large). In addition, separate MANOVA with type III sums of squares tests were utilized to test Hypotheses 4 and 5. MANOVA with type III sums of squares was employed to test Hypothesis 4 posttest scores of the two factors consensus and satisfaction without any control variables in the model. MANOVA with type III sums of squares was also employed to test Hypothesis 5 posttest scores of the eight factors: immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation without

any control variables in the model.

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Second, an overall MANCOVA was employed to test hypotheses 1 through 5 to determine differences among the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) over and above differences that could be accounted for by the differences in the pretest performances by analyzing the five dependent variables together. The goal of using MANCOVA is to assess the effects of an older adult parent moving into the home on the adult marital relationship by testing for differences between the treatment group (parent) and the no-treatment comparison group (no parent) on the posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication (dependent variables) independently of the covariate (the pretest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication).⁶ In other words, the five dependent variables were tested while adjusting for the before and after conditions by comparing the experimental group to the control group. In addition, separate MANCOVA tests were utilized to test Hypotheses 4 and 5. MANCOVA was employed to test Hypothesis 4 posttest scores of

the two factors consensus and satisfaction while controlling for the pretest measures of consensus and satisfaction. MANCOVA was also employed to test Hypothesis 5 posttest scores of the eight factors: immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation while controlling for the corresponding pretest measures.

Third, one-way univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with least squares means was used to test each dependent variable while eliminating all others in a single model. The goal of using ANCOVA in the current study was to assess the effects of an older parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse on long-term marital and relational communication by testing for differences between the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) on each posttest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication (dependent variables) independently of the covariate (each pretest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication). This type of design typically uses a change score labeled a "residualized gain score" in statistical literature (Cronbach & Furby, 1970).

The logic of univariate and multivariate ANCOVA (this includes ANCOVA and MANCOVA) is to address the conditional question of Would the groups have been different on the postmeasure if they had been equivalent on the covariate? One wants to remove from the unexplained variability and from the treatment effect any variability that is associated with variability in the covariate. Thus, including a covariate in the model affects the analysis in two ways. First, the within group variability will be reduced by an

amount dependent on the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate. This reduction is often substantial especially when the covariate represents an earlier administration of the same instrument as the dependent variable. Thus, the main impact of entering a covariate into the model is usually a substantial reduction in the unexplained variance and hence a corresponding increase in the power of the analysis to detect treatment effects. Second, The possible effect of including a covariate is the adjustment of the estimated magnitude of the treatment effect itself. How large this adjustment will be also can depend on how strongly related the dependent variable and the covariate are, but more important, the adjustment is affected by how different the experimental groups are on the covariate. In non-random studies this adjustment can be substantial. This ability to compensate for preexisting differences among groups is why ANCOVA is often recommended as a means of addressing the threats to internal validity that arise in studies with selection differences between groups (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Maxwell & Delaney, 1990). Of course, the best scenario would be to have randomization.

The structure of a linear model for ANCOVA is:

Observed value on Dependent variable	=	Sum of effects of allowed for factors	+	Sum of effects of other factors	
$Y_{I} = \beta_{0}X_{0I} + \beta_{1}X_{1I} + \beta_{2}X_{2I} + \beta_{3}X_{3I} + \dots + \beta_{p}X_{pI} + \varepsilon_{i}$					

Where Y_I is the score of the individual I on the dependent variable, the B's are unknown parameters, and the X terms represent the factors being used to predict performance. An advantage of the GLM or model comparisons approach is that ANCOVA can be conceptualized as simply a change in form of one of the other predictor variables from a discrete to a continuous variable. In sum, ANCOVA has two major consequences: 1) the sum of squares of the errors in the models is decreased; and 2) the

sum of squares for the group effect, or the difference between Er and Ef is adjusted. In ANCOVA because of the degrees of freedom, the sum of squared errors is reduced to half its original value by the addition of the covariate. Thus, smaller effects are detected by ANCOVA than in ANOVA (this goes for multivariate as well as univariate). Two factors affect how the means will be adjusted: a) the differences between group means on the covariate and b) the slope of the regression lines. In non-randomized studies, the effect of adjusting the treatment effect may be much more important than the reduction in within group error because of large differences across groups on the covariate. It is sometimes difficult to determine whether the differences on the covariate are the only important ones between groups when differential selection factors are operating. This may be similar to viewing correlation cautiously because it only associates and does not predict. Utilizing the residualized gain score, however, answers the question: Was there significant change from pretreatment to posttreatment? (Maxwell and Delaney, 1990). ANCOVA is also typically more powerful than ANOVA when it comes to gain scores. In sum, univariate and multivariate ANCOVA determine differences among the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) over and above differences that could be accounted for by the differences in the pretest performances.

Hypotheses 1 through five were also tested using repeated measures MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment (consensus and satisfaction), and relational communication (immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality,

dominance, equality, and task orientation) without any control variables. Repeated measures or within subjects designs require fewer subjects to attain high power levels (e.g., n subjects generate na data points--if a=4, 10 subjects produce 40 data points). A between subjects design would require 40 subjects to yield 40 data points. The second major advantage is increased power to detect true treatment effects. Because differences between treatments are obtained by comparing scores within each subject, the influence of the subject main effect has been removed from the error term. The systematic individual differences do not contribute to the error term, as they do in between subjects designs. In this way, the within subjects design is similar to the analysis of covariance which uses a covariate to control for individual differences between subjects and hence reduces the magnitude of the error term. A disadvantage of within subjects design is differential carryover, which shows biases of treatment effects. Within subjects designs are usually most appropriate for studying independent variables whose effects are likely to be temporary (avoid effects that persist over time). In addition, between subjects designs each subject experiences one manipulation, whereas within subjects designs subjects experience each manipulation in the context of other manipulations. Each situation is just different; one is not better than the other (Maxwell & Delaney, 1990). Finally, one of the most frequent uses of within-subjects designs is to study change over time.

In the current study, an overall repeated measures MANOVA was first employed in a single model. Next, 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable were employed on

each of the 13 factors. The goal of using repeated measures MANOVA crossed design is to observe the differences due to a time effect. Repeated measures MANOVA was computed for each factor to determine whether there was an effect due to the before and after retrospective tests. Since the MANOVA maintains an alpha level unaffected by the number of dependent variables, it avoids artificially inflated group differences due to intercorrelation (i.e. multicollinearity) among the dependent variables. Subsequently, in an effort to reduce Type I error and to understand whether there was a parent or time effect an overall repeated measures MANOVA was computed to detect differences by testing all 13 factors from the five dependent measures in one model.

Simple and multiple linear regression were also employed to assess the linear relationship between the pretest and posttest measures.² Multiple linear regression was also conducted to determine the linear relationship between husbands and wives,³ and to assess the linear relationship between the dependent measures and the demographic variables.⁴ In addition, to examine a gender effect in the long-term adult marital relationship following a parent moving into the household, separate analyses for the preceding designs were carried out for the adult marital relationships in the treatment group (parent group) and for the adult marital relationships in the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Subject Characteristics

The AWS t-test was utilized to test for demographic differences between the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group). Couples in the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) were not significantly different in ethnicity, number of children, number of children living in the household, number of grandchildren, having a grandparent living in their parents' household when they were children, number of marriages, number of marriages for their parents, years married to current spouse, age, age of parent, marital status of parent, employment status, couples' overall health, religiosity, parents' religiosity, education level, parents' education level, having others living in the family household, and weakening or strengthening of the couples relationship.

However, couples' parents in the treatment group were significantly more likely to be retired than parents' of the no-treatment comparison group (M = 1.99 employment score and M = 2.57 employment score respectively), t (46) = 2.7069 p<.0095. This result should be viewed with caution due to a low response rate from the control group on this question. The majority of parents living with their adult children were retired 39 (69.6%), while 12 still worked full-time (21.4%), 1 (1.8%) worked part-time, and 4 (7.1%) never worked. A low response rate reported that only 23 parents in the no-treatment comparison group were retired (60.5%) or had never been employed 11 (28.9%), with only 4 (10.6%) of couples employed full or part-time. Also, couples' parents in the treatment group were significantly more likely to have a parent of declining health than parents in the notreatment comparison group (M = 2.92 parent health score and M = 3.66 parent health score respectively), t (47) = 2.4661 p<.0174.

Couples' relationships in the parent treatment group significantly changed more since a parent moved into the household than couples' relationships in the no-treatment comparison group (M = 2.82 relational change score and M = 1.21 relational change score respectively), t (28) -4.7016 p<.0001.

Husbands within the treatment group (parent group) showed a significant difference from the husbands in the no-treatment comparison group (no parent group) in employment status, parent's employment status, and change in the marital relationship. Husbands with a parent living in their household were significantly more likely to be employed full time than husbands without a parent living in the household (M = 1.107 employment status score and M = 1.35 employment status score respectively), t (60) 2.3087 p<.0244. Husbands parents' living in the household were significantly more likely to be retired in terms of employment status than husbands parents in the notreatment comparison group (M = 2.00 parent employment status score and M = 2.66 parent employment status score respectively), t (44) 2.3617 p<.0227. Also, husbands in the treatment group (parent group) showed a significant change in their marital relationship compared to husbands in the no-treatment comparison group (no parent group) (M = 2.481 relational change score and M = 1.708 relational change score respectively), t (49) -2.2783 p<.0271.

Wives within the treatment group (parent group) showed a significant difference from the wives in the no-treatment comparison group (no parent group) in parents' health, and change in the marital relationship. Wives parent's living in the household were significantly more likely to be of declining health than wives parents not living in their household (M = 2.92 parents health score and M = 3.66 parents health score respectively), t (47) 2.4661 p< .0174. Also, wives in the treatment group (parent group) showed a significant change in their marital relationship compared to wives in the notreatment comparison group (no parent group) (M = 2.82 relational change score and M =1.217 relational change score respectively), t (49) -4.7016 p< .0001. (See Tables 1 and 2 for descriptive data.)

RESULTS OF OVERALL TESTS ON HYPOTHESES 1-5 Hypothesis 1-5: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived (communicative competence, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication) in the long-term adult marital relationship.

Hypotheses 1 through 5 were first tested using MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment (consensus and satisfaction), and relational communication (immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation) without any control variables in a single model. MANOVA results for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that a parent living in the household had a significant effect on the thirteen dependent variables (posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction, and relational immediacy/affection (Intimacy I),

similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation. Hotelling's T^2 (13, 110) = 3.4828, p<.0002.⁵ (See Table 13 for least squares means.) Estimates of the magnitude of the effect size were computed for all hypotheses.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.26, SD = .072,) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) communicative competent behavior than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.90, SD = .065). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower communicative competent behaviors.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.90, SD = .125) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) communicative satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.22, SD =.114). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower satisfaction.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.84, SD = .087) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) marital quality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.66, SD = .079). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower quality.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.73, SD = .078) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) dyadic consensus than the adult

marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.12, SD = .070).
*Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic consensus.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.62, SD = .097) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) dyadic satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.20, SD = .088). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic satisfaction.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.84, SD = .157) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational immediacy/affection than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .143). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational immediacy/affection.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.73, SD = .167) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational similarity/depth than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .152). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational similarity/depth.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.21, SD = .136) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational receptivity/trust than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.81, SD = .123). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational receptivity/trust. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.64, SD = .151) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational composure than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.89, SD = .137). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational composure.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 5.15, SD = .157) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational formality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.50, SD = .143). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher relational formality.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.94, SD = .140) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational dominance than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 3.83, SD = .127). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational dominance.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.64, SD = .174) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational equality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.00, SD = .158). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational equality.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.07, SD = .130) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational task orientation than the adult

marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.83, SD = .118). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational task orientation.⁵

To account for potential Type I errors in the univariate analysis of covariance, hypotheses 1 through 5 were also tested using multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) with type III sums of squares while controlling for pretest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment (consensus, and satisfaction), relational communication (immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation) in a single model. The results of the MANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretests as separated out by each factor, a parent living in the household had no significant effect on overall marital communication (the joint set of dependent measures by factor), Hotelling's $T^2(13,97) = 1.2841$, p<.2357. (See Table 11 for least squares means.) In other words, differences among the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) were not detected over and above differences that could be accounted for by the differences in the pretest performances. Least squares mean patterns revealed lower levels of marital communication for couples living with a parent in terms of communicative competent behaviors, marital quality, immediacy/affection, similarity/depth, receptivity/trust, composure, dominance, and equality. Higher levels of marital communication were found for couples living with a parent in terms of communicative satisfaction, dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction, formality, and task orientation.⁶

An overall crossed repeated measures MANOVA was then employed to reduce Type I error while testing all 13 factors in one model. In view of the overall MANCOVA indicating no significant differences on the 13 factors from the five dependent measures, the repeated measures MANOVA was conducted because within subjects designs require fewer subjects to attain high power levels. The second major advantage of withinsubjects designs is increased power to detect true treatment effects. Because differences between treatments are obtained by comparing scores within each subject, the influence of the subject main effect has been removed from the error term. The treatments (time and parent) are crossed in design because each level of treatment B (parent/no-parent) appears once and only once with each level of treatment A (time1/time2), and vice-versa. Subsequently, hypotheses 1 through 5 were also tested using repeated measures MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment (consensus and satisfaction), and relational communication (immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation) without any control variables in a single model. Results of the overall repeated measures MANOVA revealed a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (26, 97) = 2.5735, p<.0004. (See Table 15 for least squares means results). In addition, the time effect was significant Hotelling's $T^2(25, 98) =$ 74.4919, p<.0001; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (25, 98) = 2.6122, p < .0004.

Next, results of each one-way ANCOVA and each 2 X 2 repeated measures MANOVA are provided for all 13 separate hypotheses. In addition, MANCOVA and MANOVA results on Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5 are given followed by results for differences between husbands and wives.

Hypothesis 1: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived communicative competent behavior in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship with a parent living in the household, revealed that having a parent living in the household had a significant effect on communicative competent behavior, $R^2 = .63$, F(2, 121) = 8.94, p<.0034.(see Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.17, SD = .0469) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) communicative competent behavior than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.98, SD = .0424). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower communicative competent behaviors.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's $T^2(2, 121) = 7.0469$, p<.0013. (See Figure 1.) The pattern of least squares means for pretest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.20, SD = .068) had a significantly lower level of communicative competent behavior than the adult marital relationship from the

no-parent group (least squares mean = 2, SD = .061). The pattern of least squares means for posttest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.26, SD = .072) had a significantly lower level of communicative competent behavior than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.90, SD = .065). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower communicative competent behaviors. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = .2396, p<.6253; and the parent time interaction was significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = 5.8048, p<.0175.

Hypothesis 2: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived communicative satisfaction in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had a significant effect on communicative satisfaction, $R^2 = .669$, F(2, 121) = 7.48, p<.0072. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.93, SD = .0736) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) communicative satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.204, SD = .066). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower satisfaction.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within

subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 3.8042, p<.025. (See Figure 2.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.96, SD = .12) had a significantly higher level of communicative satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.02, SD = .10). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.90, SD = .12) had a significantly higher level of communicative satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.90, SD = .12) had a significantly higher level of communicative satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.22, SD = .114). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower satisfaction. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = 2.1234, p<.1476; and the parent time interaction was significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = 6.6665, p<.0110.

<u>Hypothesis 3: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse</u> <u>will have an effect on perceived marital quality in the long-term adult marital</u> <u>relationship.</u>

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had no significant effect on marital quality, $R^2 = .317$, F(2, 121) = 1.12, p<.2922. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, no significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.8, SD = .0732) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) marital quality than the adult marital relationship from the noparent group (least squares mean = 2.69, SD = .066). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower satisfaction.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated no significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 1.25, p<.2902. (See Figure 3.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.8, SD = .092) had a lower level of marital quality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.65, SD = .08). The pattern of least squares means for the parent group (least squares means for the parent group (least squares mean = 2.84, SD = .087) had a lower level of marital quality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.66, SD = .07). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower satisfaction. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = .2248, p<.6363; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = .0920, p<.7621.

<u>Hypothesis 4a: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse</u> will have an effect on perceived dyadic consensus in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had a moderately significant effect on dyadic consensus, $R^2 = .607$, F(2, 121) = 3.47, p<.0650. (See Table 5 for least squares

means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a moderately significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.87, SD = .0477) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) dyadic consensus than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.00, SD = .047). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic consensus.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's $T^2(2, 121) = .6.8129$, p<.0016. (See Figure 4.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.76, SD = .076) had a significantly higher level of dyadic consensus than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.08, SD = .069). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.73, SD = .078) had a significantly higher level of dyadic consensus than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.12, SD = .07). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic consensus. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's $T^2(1, 122) = .0047$, p<.9452; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's $T^2(1, 122) =$.6337, p<.4275.

Hypothesis 4b: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived dyadic satisfaction in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had a moderately significant effect on dyadic satisfaction, $R^2 = .717$, F(2, 121) = 3.33, p<.0704. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a moderately significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.86, SD = .057) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) dyadic satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.01, SD = .052). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic satisfaction.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 9.825, p<.0001. (See Figure 5.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest scores showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.59, SD = .10) had a significantly higher level of dyadic satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.15, SD = .093). The pattern of least squares means for the group (least squares mean = 4.62, SD = .097) had a significantly higher level of dyadic satisfaction

than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.20, SD = .088). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic satisfaction. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T² (1, 122) = 1.2480, p<.2661; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's T² (1, 122) = .0571, p<.8116.

To account for potential Type I errors in the univariate analysis of covariance, hypotheses 4a and 4b were also tested using multivariate analysis of covariance with type III sums of squares while controlling for pretest measures of dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction in a single model. The results of the MANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretests, a parent living in the household had no significant effect on overall dyadic adjustment (the joint set of consensus and satisfaction), Hotelling's $T^2(2,119) = 2.2031$, p<.1149. (See Table 6 for least squares means.) In other words, differences among the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) were not detected over and above differences that could be accounted for by the differences in the pretest performances. Thus, an older adult parent moving into the adult child/spouse home revealed no significant effect by testing for differences between the treatment group (parent) and the no-treatment comparison group (no parent) on the posttest measures of dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction (dependent variables) independently of the covariate (the pretest measures of dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction). Least squares mean patterns revealed the same scores as those given in the ANCOVA sections, with higher levels of dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction indicated for those couples who have a parent living with them.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b were also tested using MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction without any control variables in a single model. MANOVA results for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that a parent living in the household had a significant effect on the two dependent variables (posttest measures of dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction), Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 11.1210, p<.0001. (See Table 8 for least squares means.) Least squares mean patterns revealed higher levels of dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction indicated for those couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares mean showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.73, SD = .078) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) dyadic consensus than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.12, SD = .07). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic satisfaction.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 4.62, SD = .097) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) dyadic satisfaction than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.20, SD = .088). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher dyadic satisfaction.

<u>Hypothesis 5a: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse</u> will have an effect on perceived relational immediacy/affection in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had a significant effect on relational immediacy/affection, $R^2 = .667$, F(2, 121) = 5.89, p<.0167. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.71, SD = .093) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational immediacy/affection than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.40, SD = .054). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational immediacy/affection.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 3.8271, p<.0245. (See Figure 6.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.59, SD = .164) had a significantly lower level of relational immediacy/affection than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .149). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .149). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .149). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .149). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.84, SD = .157) had a significantly lower level of relational immediacy/affection than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .143). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational immediacy/affection. In addition, the time effect was moderately significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = 3.3781, p<.0685; and the parent time interaction was moderately significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = 3.2033, p<.0760.

Hypothesis 5b: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational similarity/depth in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had no significant effect on relational similarity/depth, $R^2 = .496$, F(2, 121) = 1.52, p<.2206. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, no significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.61, SD = .121) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational similarity/depth than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.40, SD = .110). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational similarity/depth.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated no significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 1.7421, p<.1795. (See Figure 7.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.55, SD = .151) had a lower level of relational similarity/depth than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.27, SD = .137). The pattern of least squares means for the parent of least squares means for the parent of least squares mean = 2.27, SD = .137). The pattern of least squares means for the marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.73, SD = .167) had a lower level of relational similarity/depth than the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.73, SD = .167) had a lower level of relational similarity/depth than the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.73, SD = .167) had a lower level of relational similarity/depth than the adult

marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .152). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational similarity/depth. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's $T^2(1, 122) = 1.5782$, p<.2114; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's $T^2(1, 122) = .6492$, p<.4220.

<u>Hypothesis 5c: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse</u> <u>will have an effect on perceived relational receptivity/trust in the long-term adult</u> <u>marital relationship.</u>

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had a moderately significant effect on relational receptivity/trust, $R^2 = .519$, F(2, 121) = 1.88, p<.0605. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a moderately significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.12, SD = .097) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational receptivity/trust than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.88, SD = .088). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational receptivity/trust.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated no significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 2.5053, p<.0859. (See Figure 8.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship

from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.02, SD = .131) had a lower level of relational receptivity/trust than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.82, SD = .118). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.21, SD = .136) had a lower level of relational receptivity/trust than the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.21, SD = .136) had a lower level of relational receptivity/trust than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.81, SD = .123). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational receptivity/trust. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T² (1, 122) = 1.5964, p<.2088; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's T² (1, 122) = 1.9749, p<.1625.

<u>Hypothesis 5d: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse</u> <u>will have an effect on perceived relational composure in the long-term adult marital</u> <u>relationship.</u>

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had a moderately significant effect on relational composure, $R^2 = .597$, F(2, 121) = 3.22, p<.0751. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a moderately significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.37, SD = .103) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational composure than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.11, SD = .093). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational composure.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores. after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 7.1138, p<.0012. (See Figure 9.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.57, SD = .154) had a significantly lower level of relational composure than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.89, SD = .139). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.64, SD = .151) had a significantly lower level of relational composure than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.64, SD = .151) had a significantly lower level of relational composure than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.89, SD = .137). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational composure. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = .2339, p<.6295; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = .2339, p<.6295.

Hypothesis 5e: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational formality in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had no significant effect on relational formality, $R^2 = .353$, F(2, 121) = .30, p<.5848. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, no significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 5.29, SD = .129) had a higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational formality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.38, SD = .117). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher relational formality.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated no significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 2.1384, p<.1223. (See Figure 10.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 5.02, SD = .168) had a higher level of relational formality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.02, SD = .168) had a higher level of squares mean = 5.48, SD = .153). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.15, SD = .157) had a higher level of relational formality than the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.5, SD = .143). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher relational formality. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = .4797, p<.4899; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = .2990, p<.5855.

<u>Hypothesis 5f: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse</u> <u>will have an effect on perceived relational dominance in the long-term adult marital</u> relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had no significant effect on relational dominance, $R^2 = .462$, F(2, 121) = 1.97, p<.1631. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, no significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.99, SD = .103) had a lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational dominance than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 3.79, SD = .094). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational dominance.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated no significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 1.2138, p<.3007. (See Figure 11.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.64, SD = .152) had a higher level of relational dominance than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 3.64, SD = .152) had a higher level of squares mean = 3.78, SD = .137). The pattern of least squares mean = 3.94, SD = .140) had a lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational dominance than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 3.83, SD = .127). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational dominance and vice-versa. In addition, the time effect was significant Hotelling's T^2 (1, 122) = 2.4405, p<.1208.

<u>Hypothesis 5g: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse</u> <u>will have an effect on perceived relational equality in the long-term adult marital</u> relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had a significant effect on relational equality, $R^2 = .654$, F(2, 121) = 5.48, p<.0209. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, a significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.48, SD = .106) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational equality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.14, SD = .096). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational equality.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = 4.0058, p<.0207. (See Figure 12.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.42, SD = .184) had a significantly lower level of relational equality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.64, SD = .174) had a significantly lower level of relational equality than the

adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.00, SD = .158). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational equality. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's $T^2(1, 122) = 1.4152$, p<.2365; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's $T^2(1, 122) = 2.4591$, p<.1194.

Hypothesis 5h: An older adult parent living with an adult child and his/her spouse will have an effect on perceived relational task orientation in the long-term adult marital relationship.

The results of the one-way ANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship revealed that having a parent living in the household had no significant effect on relational task orientation, $R^2 = .338$, F(2, 121) = 1.07, p<.3025. (See Table 5 for least squares means.) Thus, by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretest, no significant difference was found for couples who have a parent living with them. The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.02, SD = .107) had a lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) relational task orientation than the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.87, SD = .097). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational task orientation.

The results of the 2 (parent-no parent) X 2 (before parent moved in/pretest scores, after parent moved in/posttest scores) repeated measures MANOVA with time as a within subjects effects variable and parent as a between subjects variable indicated no significant overall parent effect Hotelling's T^2 (2, 121) = .9057, p<.4070. (See Figure 13.) The pattern of least squares means for the pretest showed that the adult marital relationship

from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.12, SD = .130) had a lower level of relational task orientation than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.97, SD = .118). The pattern of least squares means for the posttest showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.07, SD = .130) had a lower level of relational task orientation than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.83, SD = .118). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower relational task orientation. In addition, the time effect was not significant Hotelling's T² (1, 122) = 1.4082, p<.2377; and the parent time interaction was not significant Hotelling's T² (1, 122) = .2797, p<.5979.

To account for potential Type I errors in the univariate analysis of covariance, hypotheses 5a through 5h were also tested using multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) with type III sums of squares to test the posttest scores of the eight factors: immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation while controlling for the corresponding pretest measures in a single model.

The results of the MANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretests, a parent living in the household had no significant effect on immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation (the joint set of dependent measures), Hotelling's T^2 (8,107) = .9592, p<.4719. (See Table 7 for least squares means.) In other words, differences among the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment

comparison group (no-parent group) were not detected over and above differences that could be accounted for by the differences in the pretest performances. Thus, an older adult parent moving into the home on the adult marital relationship revealed no significant effects when testing for differences between the treatment group (parent) and the no-treatment comparison group (no parent) on the posttest measures immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation (dependent variables) independently of the covariate (the pretest measures of immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation). Least squares mean patterns revealed the same scores as those given in the ANCOVA section, with significantly lower levels of satisfaction indicated for couples who have a parent living in the household in terms of immediacy/affection and equality; moderately significant lower levels of receptivity/trust and composure. No significant differences but lower levels were found for couples who have a parent living with them in terms of similarity/depth, dominance, and task orientation. No significant difference but a higher level was found for couples who have a parent living with them in terms of formality.

Hypotheses 5a through 5h were also tested using MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation without any control variables in a single model. MANOVA results for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that a parent living in the household had a significant effect on the eight dependent variables (posttest measures of

immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation), Hotelling's T^2 (8, 115) = 2.3369, p<.0231. (See Table 9 for least squares means.) Estimates of the magnitude of the effect size were computed for all hypotheses.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.84, SD = .157) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) immediacy/affection than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .143). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower immediacy/affection.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.73, SD = .167) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) similarity/depth than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.30, SD = .152). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower similarity/depth.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.21, SD = .136) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) receptivity/trust than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.81, SD = .123). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower receptivity/trust.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.64, SD = .151) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) composure than the adult marital

relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 1.89, SD = .137). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower composure.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 5.15, SD = .157) had a significantly higher level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) formality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 5.50, SD = .143). *Note: a lower least squares mean number equals higher formality.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.94, SD = .140) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) dominance than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 3.83, SD = .127). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower dominance.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 2.64, SD = .174) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) equality than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.00, SD = .158). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower equality.

The pattern of least squares means showed that the adult marital relationship from the parent group (least squares mean = 3.07, SD = .130) had a significantly lower level of posttest (after parent moved into the household) task orientation than the adult marital relationship from the no-parent group (least squares mean = 2.83, SD = .118). *Note: a higher least squares mean number equals lower task orientation. Post hoc correlation and regression tests indicated few significant differences between husbands and wives scores in both groups (See Table 16 for correlation matrix results). Hence, few of the husbands' scores are high predictors of wives scores. In other words, the predictor variables are, for the most part, not high predictors of the criterion variables. Thus, knowing something about the husbands' scores does not explain a great portion of the corresponding wives scores. ³

Post hoc regression tests indicated few significant differences in terms of demographic variables (See Table 17 for parameter estimates). Thus, few demographic variables predict the dependent variables.⁴

In addition, MANOVA results indicate no significant overall gender effect Hotelling's $T^2(1,120) = 1.7102$, p<.1935; a significant overall parent effect Hotelling's $T^2(1,120) = 9.3394$, p<.0028; and no significant interaction effect between gender and parent Hotelling's $T^2(1,120) = 1.6503$, p<.2014.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation is to determine whether an older adult parent living with an adult child and his or her spouse had an effect on the long-term marital relationship. This was assessed by measuring adult marital couples' communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment (two factors: consensus and satisfaction), and relational communication (8 factors: immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation). This discussion is organized by first discussing the implications of the overall results (tests computed on the joint set of dependent measures), followed by a discussion of each independent hypothesis. Finally, limitations of the study will be discussed including threats to internal and external validity and the conclusion.

Implications

The most intriguing results of the current study may be Hypotheses 2 and 4b which deal with communicative satisfaction and dyadic satisfaction respectively. Although initially counterintuitive, results indicate adult children and/or adult childrenin-law and their spouses who have a parent living with them and have been married more than 25 years are more satisfied than long-term married adult couples who do not have a parent living with them.

The second most interesting results of the current study may be Hypotheses 1 and 5 measuring communicative competence, and relational communication respectively. Results indicated adult children and/or adult children-in-law and their spouses who have a parent living with them and have been married more than 25 years are less (immediate/affectionate, equal, composed, etc.) than long-term married adult couples who do not have a parent living with them.

The third finding worth noting may be Hypothesis 3, which revealed no significant differences between groups. It seems that the "gestalt" of quality marriage is no different for couples who have a parent living with them and couples who do not. This finding is particularly fascinating as it relates to the other results suggesting that a parent living in the adult child/spouse home is not severely detrimental to long-term marriage. Long-term marriage appears to be resilient to the effect of a parent living in the adult child home. Yet, the "gestalt" of quality marriage is no different for couples who have a parent living in their home and couples who do not. These integrated findings are of paramount importance because together, they suggest that couples married more than 25 years can handle the potentially chaotic decision of caring for a parent in their own household.

The paucity of research on the effects of caregiving on adult children's marital quality has methodological and substantive limitations (see e.g., Cantor, 1983; Griffore, 1997; Horowitz, 1985; Kleban et al., 1989; Suitor & Pillemer, 1994) However, results of the current study support prior findings indicating that relatively few adult children or children-in-law report that caregiving influences their marital relationships in a negative or detrimental way (Cantor, 1983; Griffore, 1997; Horowitz, 1985; Kleban et al., 1989; Suitor & Pillemer, 1994). Griffore (1997) found that levels of marital and relational satisfaction were not significantly different for individuals who assisted older family members or lived with the respondent and those who did not. Suitor and Pillemer (1994)

found that dissatisfaction for couples was often due to the absence of husbands' emotional support and/or the presence of husbands' interference with the caregiving effort. Moreover, recent studies have suggested that wives' acquisition of new roles has detrimental effects on marital quality in particular---when husbands are in opposition to the wives (see e.g., Hochschild, 1988; Suitor, 1987; Vannoy & Philliber, 1992). Thus, couples who choose to care for their parents may need to have several serious discussions about life with a parent in the household. Sillars and Zietlow (1993) state that explicit communication retains an extremely important function in the later years of marriage. Research addressing caregiver burden in general, and adult child/spouse caregiver burden in particular, adds a dimension to the caregiver relationship research that desperately needs attention. Couples exposed to research on the effects of caregivers on their carerecipients can then make more informed choices as they are confronted with such difficult issues as dealing with and caring for aging parents. Further, several aspects of the caregiving context have been found to influence the well being of family members caring for an older adult relative (Smerglia & Deimling, 1997). Caregiving is a stressful and all consuming job. Often it seems that caregivers have wonderful altruistic intentions when they decide to care for an older adult parent. However, many adult child/spouse caregivers may not realize precisely what the caregiving burden entails nor many may not know the best ways to handle care-recipients. Cicirelli (1992) states that the task of caring for an older adult who has impairments without controlling that person is delicate and complicated. He states that over time there is often an erosion of personal autonomy as family members and others make a variety of decisions for these older adults. Cicirelli (1992) argues that family caregivers should seek to understand when it is important to

step in (paternalism) and when it is appropriate to back off (allowing autonomy). Hence, caregivers may often feel they are helping when in fact they may be contributing to the erosion of the care-recipient's personal autonomy. Cicirelli (1983) states that in terms of support the relationship is relatively equal when the parent and child are in adulthood, whereas the relationship is relatively unequal in the child's early years or the adult's later years. Thus, the more informed caregivers can become about the varied and complex elements of the caregiver-care-recipient relationship, the better off the family will likely be. Hess and Waring's (1988) research supports the notion that as the child leaves the dependency of childhood and enters the adult years, there tends to be less of a power imbalance. Brubaker (1990) suggests that life events such as marriage, having children, retirement, or illness not only bring about change in adults experiencing them, but also affect the entire family network. Any of these events may affect the child in both positive and negative ways (e.g., increases or decreases in interaction).

Mancini and Bleiszner (1985) report that adult children are increasingly willing to move back into their parents' homes blurring the parent-child roles in later life. The fact that life expectancy has increased in the past 20 years of this century has restructured the very nature of the adult-child/elderly parent relationship as well as the effect of that relationship on the adult-child marital dyad/elderly parent relationship. The role reversal that occurs as adult children become more active in their parents' lives is directly related to loss in the personal control and power of older adult parents which may ultimately lead to greater disenfranchisement for elderly parents (Nussbaum, et al, 1996). The role reversal that occurs in the parent-child relationship likely makes the interaction even more complex in ways unimaginable to parents and their children in the earlier years of

their relationship. Additionally, caregivers may find themselves chained to their carerecipient with few options for taking care of simple errands much less getting away for a vacation. Levenson et al (1993) found that mature couples in satisfied marriages reported equivalent health, whereas wives in dissatisfied marriages reported more mental and physical health problems. Hence, another question that arises has to do with the influence of an older adult parent on the psychological and physical health of the caregiver(s). Bateson et al found that patients released from the hospital often resulted in another family member becoming sick. The sickness seemed to spread from one family member to another whether it was psychological, physical or both. Thus, it appears that family caregivers must find a way to take a break from the constant, taxing, and thankless role of caregiving if not for their sanity for their overall health. Adult daycare centers are one viable option that family members may consider utilizing.

The current research shows that couples who care for their parents in their own home have major adjustments to make in the communication between husband and wife. Continuity and change, consensus and conflict, cohesion and contrast, satisfaction and dissatisfaction, repetition and disruption have all been mentioned in the characterization of marriage across the life span (Christensen & Johnsen, 1985). Marriages are in constant change whether from the influence of a major life event or in more subtle ways (Sillars & Zietlow, 1993). With a majority of parents living longer than ever before families must know how to cope and adjust to the instrumental, emotional, physical, and communicative changes that may occur under one roof. Family caregiving research has consistently shown caregiving for older relatives to be a frequent and important family concern. Brody (1985) suggests that caring for older parents could be considered a normative life event for children. As life expectancies continue to increase along with the rapidly growing number of older adults, the number of individuals in caregiving relationships is expected to increase greatly (Moody, 1994). Many family members, especially adult children and spouses, fulfill a caregiving role (Cantor, 1992, Johnson & Catalano, 1983). Examining the communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication through the long-term marriage lens may more adequately reveal the relational culture that has been uniquely created by each couple over a span of at least 25 years. Investigating the effect of a parent on the long-term married caregiver couple may allow adult children to make more informed decisions about caring for their aging parents.

Much of the research on family interaction still focuses on the husband-wife or parent-child dyads (Fitzpatrick & Badzinski, 1994), without regard for third parties extending beyond and influencing the primary dyad. The study of triadic relationships provides an opportunity for researchers to move beyond the dyad as a stand-alone functioning unit. Wilmot and Sillars (1989) point out "Just as individual responses fail to reveal everything of interest about interpersonal relationships, dyadic relationships fail to reveal everything of interests about a person's network of relationships" (p. 128). Studying the fluid formation of triadic relationships within the family provides a path for researchers to better understand the needs of the functioning marital dyad as it is influenced by other relationships. Satir (1967, 1972) suggests the dynamics in a dyadic relationship differ from those in a relationship among three or more. Klein and Milardo (1993) argue that third parties influence the dyad by imposing their own perspectives, values, experiences, needs, interests, objectives, and beliefs to the target relationship.

Long and Mancini (1990) claim that 'triangling' or triadic relationships form within the family when the primary dyad is anxious or stressed. Johnson and Leslie (1982) argue that the influence of a third party will greatly restrict the amount of time the primary dyad is able to spend together. Dyadic relationships are often influenced by an outside member (Caplow, 1968), however, studying the triad is a complicated enterprise. In a triad, the researcher can examine the impact of at least nine different direct and indirect ways that the interaction in any triad can be modified (Parke, 1979).

The previous findings from research on third party influence and support appear to be inconclusive about how they affect developing relationships. Although some results from longitudinal studies that measured dating couples' perceptions of interference indicate that third party interference is frequently related to relationship growth and deterioration (Johnson & Milardo, 1984; Parks & Adelman, 1983; Parks, et al, 1983), studies that employed behavioral self-report measures of parent approval and disapproval (Leslie et al, 1986) failed to find solid evidence of a longitudinal connection between opposition and developmental change. Explanations for these inconsistencies could be due to methodological and substantive issues. Assumptions described in the workings of an interactive network imply first, that interference and support are behaviors expressed by network members that block or facilitate the execution of partner's individual goals and behaviors regarding relationships. Such assumptions also imply that interfering or supportive behaviors influence the interdependence in the dating relationship itself. In other words, parents, friends, and others take an active role in dating relationships. A final assumption implies that interference and support may influence developmental change in dyads by acting on other causal conditions (Surra, 1988). The effect of a

longtime family relationship may be more powerful than implicit influences of networks, observations of other relationships, and one's own past intimate dyadic relationships. Interfering and supportive behaviors have been studied only from the viewpoint of the targets of the behaviors and not the actors, making it difficult to substantiate the reliability or validity of reports. Moreover, research on interference and support has relied upon college student samples (Johnson & Milardo, 1984; Leslie et al, 1986; Parks & Adelman, 1983; Parks, et al, 1983). Thus, because influence from longtime relationships is likely to be greatest when commitments or connections are serious, the degree of interference may have been underestimated.

This study takes the perspective that communication is a symbolic activity embedded in interpersonal relationships and, hence, communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication are reflected within relationships through the talk. Researchers applying a life-span developmental perspective to relationships are more concerned with how events in the relationship shape communication, rather than how communication affects relationship adjustment (Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). Overall, the results of this investigation support prior research on the influence of a third party on marital quality. In other words, older adult parents living in the adult child/spouse household were found to influence couples' relationships, but not always in the same direction indicated in prior investigations. Research has consistently revealed that couples experience modest declines in overall marital quality (i.e., adjustment and satisfaction) when children enter the household (Belsky, Lang, & Rovine, 1985). However, it seems that not all third party family influences are similar. The older adult parent/adult child/spouse is a relationship that has developed over a lifetime, whereas the parent/spouse/child relationship is near the beginning of the family life span. Klein and Milardo (1993) argue that the influence of third parties depends on the couple's ability to define relational competence (e.g., tasks or solutions that must be solved within the relationship, appropriate behaviors, etc.). Relational competence is likely developed over many years. Similar to a fine wine that has aged over time, the finer aging couple presumably age well or relate better together over time. Moreover, a growing body of research suggests that after a decline in marital satisfaction in mid-life, marriages become increasingly positive with less conflict as couples' enter old age (Brubaker, 1990; Cohler, 1983; & Levenson et al, 1993). It is important to consider, however, that couples who agree to have a parent live in their household may have unique properties in their marriage that other long-term marriages have not developed. Moreover, the life event of moving a parent into the adult child/spouse household may be a life event like no other.

Both the older adult parent-adult child relationship and the long-term marital relationship may be the two most important relationships in an individual's life. The marital and the parent-child relationship are inclined to change as the individuals in the relationship change due to various events and influences taking place in their lives. The transition that couples face when caring for an older adult parent appears to be a major life event that these couples handle well on some relational levels and handle with a great amount of adjustment on other relational levels.

The interaction among the older parent-adult child-and spouse seems to be a complex conversational dance among the triad. Each relationship constructs a unique communicative history over time. It seems that when brought together under one roof,

these relationships become strained on several levels (e.g., communicative competent behaviors, relational communication), yet adapt quite well in terms of communicative satisfaction and dyadic adjustment. Although spouses reported significant differences in these areas, the least squared means results show that differences do not appear to be great. Thus, couples who have a parent living in the home may find that adjusting to the parent on an everyday basis is a huge adjustment although not a devastating one. Prior research supports this finding. Relatively few adult children or children-in-law report that caregiving affects their marital relationships in a detrimental way (Cantor, 1983; Horowitz, 1985; Kleban, Brody, Schoonover, & Hoffman, 1989). Thus, in practical terms it seems that couples do have decreases in communicative satisfaction, etc. but the differences are not enough to crush their marriages. The important period of social transition of a parent moving into the home may be similar in many ways to other major life events in which both the individual, couple, and the family system at large must change, renegotiate, and redefine itself in order to negotiate a successful transition. Couples who have been married for such a long time may adapt to this process a bit more smoothly than younger couples because they have developed a relational culture that works. The rationale for this is that long-term married couples have been through many, often more life events together. They have weathered many storms together-have survived, adapted and moved on to the next life stage together. Thus, they may have developed a resiliency to the change that couples in younger marriages are still developing. Further, more than half of all marriages end in divorce---thus many younger marriages stop developing.

Henwood and Coughlan, (1993) have found that mothers and daughters frequently have high levels of conflict in later life due to unresolved childhood issues over the need for autonomy and separation. Perhaps the home provides a forum by which parents and children can act out unresolved conflicts. These conflicts may not be pleasant or fun, but bearable and "adjustable." Cohler (1983) suggests that adults and their own older adult parents continue to be loyally involved with each other in ways generally free from conflict. Schroeder (1988) states that children who have successfully fulfilled their independence from their parents in adulthood will typically return to an increased closeness with their parents. One extremely important limitation of this study was not being able to assess the parent-child relationship before the parent moved into the household. The link between parent and child develops early in life and continues across the life span. Parents cannot change the status of being a parent once the link is established just as children at no time can stop from being born into a certain family. However, this enduring relationship can over time change and be redefined many times across the life span.

The trend of family members taking care of their older adult parents will likely become more dramatic as baby boomers enter middle age. The American population is aging rapidly forcing families to respond to a new set of needs (Beisecker & Beisecker, 1996). In 1980, nearly 20% of all individuals over the age of 65 tended to live in multigenerational households with the proportion nearly doubling for those individuals aged 90 and older (Coward & Cutler, 1991). Although not all of those older adults are disabled, those who do live with their adult children are older and more impaired than the total population of older adults (Mindel & Wright, 1982; Wolf & Soldo, 1988). Moreover, disabled older adults generally live with their families and certainly outnumber those in institutions (Brody, Poulshock, & Masciocche, 1978).

Adult children tend to help their biological parents more than their parents-in-law (Spitze, Logan, Joseph, & Lee, 1994). Conversely, Ingersoll-Dayton, Starrels, & Dowler (1996) found that parents and parents-in law receive similar amounts of care. The authors found no difference between the amount of help sons-in-law and daughters-in-law provide to their parents-in-law.

Spitze and Logan (1990) strongly suggest that having a daughter is the key to receiving help in old age. As a consequence of changing marital patterns, about 44% of caregiving daughters are not married (Brody, Litvin, Hoffman, & Kleban, 1992). There is a tendency for the caregiver role to fall to the daughter with fewer competing roles (ie. Marriage) (Stoller, 1983; Ikels, 1983). However, a 1982 Long-Term Care survey determined that although 57.4% unmarried daughters tend to share households with a parent, more than 23.8% of married daughter caregivers also shared households with the parent (Brody et al, 1995). Thus, an understanding of human behavior across the life span is critical to families learning to cope with and adapt to changes in the family structure. These demographic trends will likely have a tremendous impact on both families and institutions.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 revealed a significant effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse on communicative competent behavior in the long-term marital relationship between husband and wife. Hypothesis 1 was first examined by testing each dependent variable while eliminating all others in a single model. Prior research has failed to

address whether a parent living in the household of an adult child and his/her spouse changes the communication in a long-term marriage relationship due to the parent or due to the couple's communicative competence prior to the parent moving into the household. This methodological issue is of paramount importance. The failure to include a before parent moved in measure of communicative competence in the long-term marital relationship can lead to the conclusion that any post-parent change in the marriage after the parent moved in is attributed either to the parent moving in or to selection. This issue is a key shortcoming of prior research in this area. This issue is addressed in this study by first using a "residualized gain score" analysis. The findings from this design revealed a significant difference between a parent living in the adult child/spouse marital household and communicative competent behaviors between husband and wife after the parent moved in. Hence, couples married at least 25 years who have an older adult parent living in the household show less communicative competence than couples not living with their parent. Second, this issue is addressed by using a repeated measures analysis. The findings from this design indicated a significant overall parent effect in the adult marital relationship between the pretest scores and the posttest scores. Thus, those couples who had a parent living with them had significantly lower levels of communicative competent behavior than couples from the no-parent group.

Wiemann (1977) defines communicative competence as, "the ability of an interactant to choose among available communicative behaviors in order that he may successfully accomplish his own interpersonal goals during an encounter while maintaining the face and line of his fellow interactants within the constraints of the situation" (p. 198). The situation of an adult child and his or her spouse caring for an

older adult parent in their own home results in a unique communicative environment unlike most others. The constraints of this peculiar living situation may produce a limited number of available communicative behaviors from which to choose to accomplish interpersonal goals. Wiemann's (1977) conceptualization of competence centers around relational competence where effectiveness and appropriateness are viewed as necessary outcomes of a competent conversation between partners. Couples in long-term marriages may have different competencies than those in shorter marriages because they have developed a relational culture over time.

As relationships change across the life span, so do levels of competence in the communicative exchange into adulthood (Duran, 1989). The influence of life stage has rarely been considered in assessments of communicative behavior among adult marital couples (Sillars, et al, 1992). Yet, there is clearly great diversity of marital styles at any given stage of life, and "marriages are also shaped partly by developmental tasks and values specific to phases of life" (Sillars, et al, 1992, p. 129). An essential part of the marital conversation concerns the assumed causal structure of marriage made up of compatibility, typical arguments, ebb and flow of marital stagnation, etc. However, a different ontological framework is implied when marital dyads talk about the value of what constitutes good communication in that inducement of communicative behavior is taken to be active or intentional as well as shared or interactive (Sillars, Burggraf, Yost, & Zietlow, 1992). Moreover, research strongly indicates that as individuals mature, communicative behaviors change, as do the types of communication directed toward them (Nussbaum, Hummert, Williams, & Harwood, 1996).

Thus, perhaps a parent living in the household results in fewer communicative choices for the couple than they had before because the parent is always there! When a third party is present, dyadic conversations are often modified to fit the context of "someone invading the private listening space" of the dyad depending upon the intensity and privacy of the topic. As couples age together over time, their relational communicative behaviors are apt to change for the better in some ways (e.g., within the dyad) and for the worse in other ways (e.g., outside the dyad).

The results testing hypothesis 1 indicate that couples who have a parent living with them are less competent communicators than long-term married couples who do not have a parent living with them. Parks (1994) research states that competent communicators are equipped with the foresight to recognize that their goals are interdependent. The unique situation of an older adult parent living in the household may stifle competent communication between the dyad due to presence of a parent in most conversations and less private conversational exchange for the couple. In addition, the situation may often be one of the adult children taking on additional caregiving tasks. Johnson and Leslie (1982) argue that the influence of a third party will greatly restrict the amount of time the primary dyad is able to spend together. Thus, the couple may not only have less overall time to spend together but they have little energy left to devote to each other with the time they do have.

Results from hypothesis 1 support a recent study of interaction between frail older people and their family caregivers. Edwards (1996) found that caregiver or care-recipient roles influence the communication behaviors of the caring dyads. Caregivers used a dominant and directive style of communication consistent with a perception that their role

was to provide, manage, and organize care (Edwards & Giles, 1998). Thus, a caregiver with an active style was aggressive in terms of his or her role, whereas an older carerecipient with a more passive style adopted a passive and submissive role. This information could be useful for couples who are in the decision making process as to whether or not they should move their parent into the household. Edwards and Giles (1998) also provide a communication management perspective claiming young people's schemas may need modifying for specific encounters (i.e., moving a parent into the household).

The results of hypothesis 1 further support prior research on the influence of a third party on the dyad that strongly suggests third party members influence, negotiate, and modify the dynamics and behavior in dyadic relationships (Caplow, 1968; Klein and Milardo, 1993; Satir, 1967, 1972; Simmel, 1959). The influence of a parent living with the adult child and spouse seems to bring about a significant amount of modification in the communicative competent behaviors of the marital dyad. Moreover, research suggests that life events bring about change in individuals experiencing them while also affecting others in the family network (Brubaker, 1990; Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). Such life events likely affect interaction patterns between not only parent and child but also communication between couples. Further, research on triadic relationships in healthcare settings indicates a number of effects in communicative behavior and relational communication when a third party is present (Cicirelli, 1992; Gilden, Hendryx, Casia, & Singh, 1989; Greene et al, 1994; McCormick, Inui, & Roter, 1996). Moreover, Caplow (1968) claims that triadic communication is central to social interaction and is seen as the basic social process whereby persons and groups modify each other's behavior.

Long and Mancini (1990) state that the concept of "triangling" or the formation of a triadic relationship in the family system often reveals the behavior of the dyad when stressed. The authors claim that the "triangle" describes the automatic movement of individuals within the family system to maintain a degree of closeness or distance that produces the lowest level of anxiety for the family. Bochner and Eisenberg (1987) describe this epistemological shift as a resistance to change or homeostatic mechanism, the idea that families seek to maintain equilibrium at any cost (e.g., symptomatic behavior). Members of primary dyads may also be seeking to maintain equilibrium at any cost by allowing a triadic relationship to form. Perhaps there is something unique about long-term married couples who decide to take care of a parent in their own home. Selection bias may exist in terms of the couples who commit to taking care of a parent in their home.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 found a significant effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse on communicative satisfaction in the long-term marital relationship between husband and wife. Hypothesis 2 was first examined by testing each dependent variable while eliminating all others in a single model. Prior research has failed to address whether a parent living in the household of an adult child and his/her spouse changes the communication in a long-term marriage relationship due to the parent or due to communicative satisfaction between the couple prior to the parent moving into the household. This methodological issue is of extreme importance. The absence of a before parent moved in measure of communicative satisfaction in the long-term marital relationship can lead to the conclusion that any post-parent change in the marriage after

the parent moved in is attributed either to the parent moving in or to selection. This issue is a key shortcoming of prior research in this area. This issue is addressed in this study by first using a "residualized gain score" analysis. The findings from this design revealed a significant difference between a parent living in the adult child/spouse marital household and communicative satisfaction between husband and wife after the parent moved in. Least squares means results indicate that long-term married couples who have a parent living with them have more communicative satisfaction than long-term married couples not living with a parent. Second, this issue is addressed by using a repeated measures analysis. The findings from this design indicated a significant overall parent effect in the same direction for the adult marital relationship between the pretest scores and the posttest scores. These results initially seem counterintuitive but couples who have a parent living with them seem to inherently adapt to life events better than couples who do not have a parent living with them. Couples without parents living in the household may not have the adaptive communicative tools that are needed in later life. Perhaps, family structures are differ greatly between groups. Caring for an older adult parent may force couples to talk with one another. Much of the communication likely involves instrumental talk to achieve caregiving tasks for the parent's well being. Perhaps communicative topics shift from the more instrumental topics to more satisfactory talk (friendly, romantic, intellectual) in the discussions between husband and wife.

The findings from hypothesis 2 support Smerglia and Deimling's (1997) claim that several aspects of the caregiving context have an influence on the well being of family members caring for an older adult relative. Caregivers' satisfaction with their decision making has been found to be largely a function of the adaptability and lack of

conflict in the larger family environment (Smerglia & Deimling, 1997). Couples' caring for parents in their home who have strong family networks with little conflict find a way to relationally adapt to the environment whereas other long-term married couples do not have an outside reason to assess their satisfaction. Cohler (1983) suggests that adults and their own older adult parents continue to be loyally involved with each other in ways generally free from conflict. Thus, the influence of family conflict outside the marital dyad may be an intervening variable worth investigating.

Hypothesis 2 provides support to prior research on the effects of caregiving on adult children's marital quality. Prior studies reveal that relatively few adult children or children-in-law report that caregiving affects their marital relationships in a detrimental way (Cantor, 1983; Horowitz, 1985; Kleban, Brody, Schoonover, & Hoffman, 1989).

Moreover, hypothesis 2 provides partial support for the Suitor and Pillemer (1994) longitudinal study examining family caregiving and marital satisfaction. Results indicated no change in mean marital satisfaction scores, however, more than one-third of the women reported notably lower or higher scores by the end of the year. However, the Suitor and Pillemer study did not examine long-term married couples and only assessed the wives or women rather than both genders.

Results of hypothesis 2 do not lend support to the research on a third party in doctor-patient encounters. McCormick, Inui, and Roter (1996) report a number of effects when a third party is present including changes in patient satisfaction, and differences in the content of visits when patients are alone versus in the company of a third person. Greene et al, (1994) found that triadic medical visits actually hinder communication between patient and physician. Older patients raised fewer topics, were less responsive to

topics they did raise, and were less assertive and expressive. The context of a family environment versus a doctor's office/clinical environment likely plays a huge role in these inconsistent results.

Hypothesis 2 strongly supports prior research indicating that couples who have spent a lifetime together have higher levels of mutual dependence, sharing, stability, and marital satisfaction than do couples from other age groups (Blieszner, 1988; Johnson, 1988; Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). Research based on cross-sectional and longitudinal findings, suggests that—after a decline in marital satisfaction in mid-life—marriages become increasingly positive as couples' enter old age (Brubaker, 1990; Levenson, Carstensen, & Gottman, 1993). In a study of long-term marriage (spouses' age 40-50 years or 60-70 years) and relative marital satisfaction (satisfied and dissatisfied). Levenson et al. (1993) found that older couples have a positive view of older marriages. Older couples reported reduced potential for conflict and greater potential for pleasure when compared with middle-aged marriages. Additionally, older couples revealed equivalent levels of mental and physical health and fewer gender differences in sources of pleasure. The relation between health and marital satisfaction was stronger for women than for men. Couples in satisfied marriages reported equivalent health, while wives in dissatisfied marriages reported more mental and physical health problems. However, not all aging couples are alike. The current study suggests that couples who are confronted with the major life event of taking care of a parent in their home have developed unique communicative strategies that other mature couples have not developed.

Hypothesis 2 provides support for Sillars and Wilmot's (1989) research and contradicts Sillars and Zietlow's (1993) research on marital communication across the

life span. Sillars and Wilmot (1989) state that over time relationships tend to utilize more implicit, idiosyncratic, and efficient forms of communication. Younger couples tend to use more explicit communicative styles than older couples due to relative instability, novelty, and social change in role expectations. Conversely, implicit, more efficient, subconscious forms of communication may be encouraged over time as more mature couples know each other better through greater amounts of repetitiveness in their interactions (Sillars & Wilmot, 1989). However, Sillars and Zietlow (1993) later found no evidence that "older couples talked any less than young couples or that they spoke in a cryptic code" (p. 257). While it is possible that communication becomes more efficient or decreases in the first years of marriage (Huston, McHale, & Crouter, 1986), it seems that these changes rapidly level off. Sillars and Zietlow (1993) state that this may occur because even when instrumental issues are restrained, explicit communication retains an extremely important function in the later years of marriage.

While not exactly similar, hypothesis 2 does not lend support to prior research on the influence of a child on the quality of the marital relationship. Belsky, Youngblade, Rovine, and Volling (1991) argued that the quality of the marital relationship greatly influences parent-child relationships. They found that husbands who are less in love with their wives and less maritally satisfied behave toward their children in a more negative and intrusive manner than did the happily married husbands. Mothers seem less affected by marital distress in their relationships with their children. In mother-infant-toddler triads, the interaction between a mother and a first-born child changed in a negative direction when the mother was feeding or caring for the newborn (Kendrick & Dunn, 1980). The overall quality of mother-infant interaction may decrease with the presence of the father (Parke & O'Leary, 1976). Research has consistently revealed that couples experience modest declines in overall marital quality (i.e., adjustment and satisfaction) when children enter the household (Belsky, Lang, & Rovine, 1985). Thus, it seems an entirely different dynamic is occurring with the influence of a parent on the adult marital relationship than with the influence of a child.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 revealed no significant effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse on marital satisfaction in the long-term marital relationship between husband and wife. Hypothesis 3 was first examined by testing each dependent variable while eliminating all others in a single model. Prior research has failed to address whether a parent living in the household of an adult child and his/her spouse changes the communication in a long-term marriage relationship due to the parent or due to the couple's marital quality prior to the parent moving into the household. This methodological issue is of paramount importance. The absence of a before parent moved in measure of marital quality in the long-term marital relationship can lead to the conclusion that any post-parent change in the marriage after the parent moved in is attributed either to the parent moving in or to selection. This issue is a key shortcoming of prior research in this area. This issue is addressed in this study by first using a "residualized gain score" analysis. The findings from this design revealed no significant difference between a parent living in the adult child/spouse marital household and marital quality between husband and wife after the parent moved in. This result could be due to the fact that the marital quality measure had only six items. Second, this issue is addressed by using a repeated measures analysis. The findings from this design indicated

no significant overall parent effect in the same direction for the adult marital relationship between the pretest scores and the posttest scores. Thus, couples married at least 25 years who have an older adult parent living in the household were not any different in terms of overall marital happiness than couples in long-term marriages who did not have a parent living in the household.

Results of hypothesis 3 provide support for Griffore's (1997) results that indicated levels of marital and relational satisfaction were not significantly different for individuals who assisted older family members or lived with the respondent and those who did not. Griffore's study was part of a larger study and no indication of length of marriage was given.

Results of hypothesis 3 also support the following studies that exist on the effects of caregiving on adult children's marital quality. However, these studies have been limited by the use of cross-sectional data. These investigations have found that relatively few adult children or children-in-law report that caregiving affects their marital relationships in a detrimental way (Cantor, 1983; Horowitz, 1985; Kleban, Brody, Schoonover, & Hoffman, 1989). Griffore (1997) found that levels of marital and relational satisfaction were not significantly different for individuals who assisted older family members or lived with the respondent and those who did not. It seems that the "gestalt" of quality marriage is no different for couples who have a parent living with them and couples who do not. This finding is extremely important because it suggests that there are not significant differences in the "gestalt" of marriage and future research could shed light on this finding.

Hypotheses 4a-4b

Hypotheses 4a and 4b revealed a significant effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse on dyadic adjustment in the long-term marital relationship between husband and wife. Hypothesis 4a and 4b were first examined by testing each dependent variable while eliminating all others in a single model. Prior research has failed to address whether a parent living in the household of an adult child and his/her spouse changes the communication in a long-term marriage relationship due to the parent or due to the couple's dyadic adjustment (consensus, satisfaction) prior to the parent moving into the household. This methodological issue is very important. The non-appearance of a before parent moved in measure of dyadic adjustment in the long-term marital relationship can lead to the conclusion that any post-parent change in the marriage after the parent moved in is attributed either to the parent moving in or to selection. This issue is a key shortcoming of prior research in this area. This issue is addressed in this study by first using a "residualized gain score" analysis. The findings from this design revealed a significant difference between a parent living in the adult child/spouse marital household and dyadic adjustment (consensus and satisfaction independently measured) between husband and wife after the parent moved in. Least squares means patterns showed couples married at least 25 years who have an older adult parent living in the household seem to have a higher level of consensus and satisfaction than those couples who do not have a parent living with them. The caregiving atmosphere may create an environment in which the couple must "come together" for the ultimate altruistic purpose of caring for a parent. Couples living with their parent have higher levels of satisfaction than the noparent group. Second, this issue is addressed by using a repeated measures analysis. The

findings from this design indicated a significant overall parent effect in the same direction for the adult marital relationship between the pretest scores and the posttest scores. Perhaps, this counterintuitive finding is due to the fact that couples who take in a parent are over time more aware of their relationship and the adaptation they have gone through to adjust to another party living in their household. In contrast, the no-parent group may not be analyzing their relationship as closely because they don't have a lifeevent pushing them to do so.

The results of the MANCOVA, however, for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretests, a parent living in the household had no significant effect on overall dyadic adjustment (the joint set of consensus and satisfaction). MANOVA results for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that a parent living in the household had a significant effect on the two dependent variables (posttest measures of dyadic consensus and dyadic satisfaction). Thus, couples in the parent group appear to adjust their marriage in such a way that brings about closeness and overall satisfaction than couples in the no-parent treatment control group. Caring for an older adult parent appears to bring couples closer together when it comes to religious matters, demonstrations of affection, agreeing on major decisions, status of the relationship (i.e., divorce, separation, or termination of the relationship). Couples who have a parent living with them over time seem to quartel less, get on each other's nerves less and somehow find a way to engage in outside interests together than couples who do not have a parent living with them. The added responsibility of caregiving may force those couples with a parent living in their household to become more aware of the changing dynamics, whereas couples not living

with a parent may not think about or assess their marriage as acutely. The parent effect seems to bring long-term marriages closer together in terms of adjustment composed of consensus and satisfaction.

Results from Hypotheses 4a and 4b appear to support Gottman and Krokoff's (1989) findings indicating wives should not be overly compliant, fearful, and sad, but should confront disagreement while expressing anger and contempt. Husbands should avoid being stubborn or withdrawn, yet should not be afraid to engage in conflict. Further, spouses should avoid being defensive. It appears that couples living with a parent find a way to confront issues and work through them, whereas couples who do not have a parent living in the household may fall into different patterns of conflict. The Gottman and Krokoff study, however, did not involve the impact of a parent on the adult marital couple. Thus, connections between the two studies should be interpreted with caution.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b do not appear to support the findings of Noller, Feeney, Bonnell, & Callan (1994) who found that relationship satisfaction was most consistently related to later ratings of disengagement from husbands. For wives, conflict processes involving negativity, withdrawal and disengagement were predicted by earlier satisfaction. The videotaped strategies revealed strongest effects for wives' support of partner, which was predicted by both partners' earlier satisfaction. Thus, the connection between relationship satisfaction and discussion of relational issues over time appears to be reciprocal. However, the Noller et al., study involved couples in the first two years of marriage and the influence of a parent was not assessed. Hence, the interpretation of this discussion should be viewed cautiously.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b lend little support to prior research on distressed and nondistressed marriage. Couples in distressed marriages generally are more likely to illustrate sarcastic, critical, hostile, coercive, and rejecting behaviors such as withdrawal. Moreover, negative behaviors more consistently predict relational outcomes such as satisfaction (Gottman, 1979; Rusbult, 1993; Schaap, 1984). Interaction behaviors of unstable couples consist of complaining/criticizing, contempt, defensiveness, and stonewalling (Gottman, 1994). In addition, Canary, Cupach, and Messman (1995) report that distressed couples are more apt to respond to negative actions of a partner with similar negative actions. Over time, these negative 'tit for tat' exchanges tend to result in an escalation of conflict (Sillars & Wilmot, 1994). Canary et al. (1995) argue that the reciprocation of negative affect could potentially be the most relationship damaging form of interaction in which a couple can engage. It seems that long-term married couples who are taking care of a parent in their household find a way to build consensus which may lead to greater satisfaction in that they are weathering the caregiving storm together. Perhaps these couples do not have time to squabble over the little things because they must focus on the big picture of taking care of their parent.

Similarly, hypotheses 4a and 4b do not support prior research on distressed couples (Gottman & Levenson, 1994; Schaap, Buunk, & Kerkstra, 1988; Gottman, 1979; Levenson & Gottman, 1985; Noller, 1984; Kirchler, 1989). For example, Gottman and Levenson's (1992) prior study on nondistressed couples who were found to display higher levels of positive behaviors such as agreement, approval, humor, and compliance in their communication patterns than do distressed couples. It would seem that couples who take in a parent have higher levels of distress, yet these couples seem to adjust to this life-event better than couples not faced with such an event. However, it is important to note that the prior research on distressed/non-distressed couples are not assessing the effect of a parent on the marriage. Johnson (1985) interviewed couples aged 65 and older about their judgments of their marriage and found a common denominator of survivorship, shared experiences, and interdependence. Perhaps couples who choose to move a parent into the household have not only found unique ways to survive the various crises within their relationship but also have found a way to survive and protect their relational culture from being invaded by a third party (i.e., parent).

Van Lear's (1992) comparison of younger and older marital relationships indicated that younger couples appear to adopt marital styles consistent with the values and norms of their own generation. The institution of marriage seems to change and adapt while still maintaining some continuity and connection from the past. The findings from the current study suggest that the cohort effect of attitudes toward marriage as well as attitudes toward family and caring for a parent must also be considered.

Hypotheses 5a-5h

Hypotheses 5a-5h were first examined by testing each dependent variable while eliminating all others in a single model. Prior research has failed to address whether a parent living in the household of an adult child and his/her spouse changes the communication in a long-term marriage relationship due to the parent or due to the relational communication between the couple prior to the parent moving into the household. This methodological issue is of paramount importance. The lack of a before parent moved in measure of relational communication in the long-term marital relationship can lead to the conclusion that any post-parent change in the marriage after

the parent moved in is attributed either to the parent moving in or to selection. This issue is a key shortcoming of prior research in this area. This issue is addressed in this study by first using a "residualized gain score" analysis for each independent factor. The findings from this design revealed a significant difference between a parent living in the adult child/spouse marital household and the factors of immediacy/affection and equality between husband and wife after the parent moved in. Moderately significant effects were found for receptivity/trust and composure. No significant effects were found for similarity /depth, formality, dominance, and task-orientation. Least squares means results indicate that couples who have a parent living in their household show significantly lower levels of immediacy/affection and equality than couples not living with a parent. Second, this issue is addressed by using a repeated measures analysis. The findings from this design indicated a significant overall parent effect in the same direction for the adult marital relationship between the pretest scores and the posttest scores for the factors of immediacy/affection, equality, and composure. Least squares means patterns indicated significantly lower levels of relational communication for these three factors. No significant differences were found for similarity/depth, receptivity/trust, formality, dominance, and task orientation. Least squares means results indicated lower levels of relational communication for similarity/depth, receptivity/trust, and task orientation for both the pretest and posttest. However, formality had higher pretest levels while dominance revealed higher pretest and a lower posttest.

The results of the overall MANCOVA testing hypotheses 5a-5h, for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretests, a parent living in the household had no significant effect on

immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation (the joint set of dependent measures). In other words, differences among the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) were not detected over and above differences that could be accounted for by the differences in the pretest performances. Thus, an older adult parent moving into the home on the adult marital relationship revealed no significant effects when testing for differences between the treatment group (parent) and the no-treatment comparison group (no parent) on the posttest measures immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation (dependent variables) independently of the covariate (the pretest measures of immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation). Least squares mean patterns revealed the same scores as those given in the ANCOVA section, with significantly lower levels of satisfaction indicated for couples who have a parent living in the household in terms of immediacy/affection and equality; moderately significant lower levels of receptivity/trust and composure. No significant differences but lower levels were found for couples who have a parent living with them in terms of similarity/depth, dominance, and task orientation. No significant difference but a higher level was found for couples who have a parent living with them in terms of formality. This result could be due to double the number of variables in the model due to the covariates which would greatly alter the degrees of freedom. The following MANOVA result supports this argument.

Hypotheses 5a through 5h were also tested using MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy III), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation without any control variables in a single model. MANOVA results for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that a parent living in the household had a significant effect on the eight dependent variables (posttest measures of immediacy/affection (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy I), similarity/depth (Intimacy II), receptivity/trust (Intimacy II), composure, formality, dominance, equality, and task orientation).

Thus, couples who have a parent living in the household appear to demonstrate lower levels of immediacy and affection toward one another. This could be due to the limited amount of private time they have together due to the parent always being home. Johnson and Leslie (1982) argue that the influence of a third party will greatly restrict the amount of time the primary dyad is able to spend together. In addition, significantly lower levels of equality may be due to the in-law factor. In other words, the adult child of the parent living in the household may have more say in decision making, thus, many decisions in the relationship are unequal.

Hypotheses 5a and 5g support prior research on triadic relationships in healthcare settings. Prior studies indicate a number of effects in communicative behavior and relational communication when a third party is present (Cicirelli, 1992; Gilden, Hendryx, Casia, & Singh, 1989; Greene et al, 1994; McCormick, Inui, & Roter, 1996). It seems that the presence of a parent in the adult child/spouse household may also alter information exchange in immediacy/affection as well as levels of equality. Hence, the mere presence of another family member may significantly change the communicative dynamic in the long-term marital relationship. The above mentioned prior studies in healthcare settings most often included another family member. Thus, the connections between the current study and the prior research of family members in healthcare settings may be highly interrelated when the third party is an older adult family member.

Moreover, Wilmot and Sillars (1989) research further supports the previous findings in healthcare settings. The authors state that stabilized relationships are inherently fluctuating because as adults experience change so do their relationship schemata, which influence their relational behavior. A parent living in the household may escalate or magnify issues in the relationship due to the added responsibility of caregiving that other couples do not have to deal with. Johnson and Leslie (1982) argue that the influence of a third party will greatly restrict the amount of time the primary dyad is able to spend together. A parent living in the household may also lead to more surface conversations because someone else is *always* there. Thus, private time between couple is more limited than it was before the parent moved into the household. Furthermore, Watzlawick et al, (1967) stress that marital partners who lack consensus at the relational level are caught in a bind, because an inability to communicate effectively about the relationship is both the source of the problem and the reason why the problem cannot be effectively discussed. Consensus regarding relational meaning can be difficult to ascertain when there is not a solid basis of consensus in the beginning. The finding that adult children show less immediacy/affection and equality after the parent moved into their home appear to support the notion that these couples had trouble adapting in these particular areas after the parent moved in. Thus, perhaps the older adult parent/adult child relationship uniquely contributes to the couples' inability to continue showing

immediacy/affection and equality in the relationship when the parent is present.

Conversely, it seems that couples are still able to maintain essentially the same levels of receptivity/trust, similarity/depth, formality, dominance, and task orientation as they did before the parent moved into their home. The constructs of immediacy/affection would likely require the couple have time alone in order to show immediacy and affection toward one another. The constant presence of a parent appears to significantly hinder this option. As mentioned before, the equality difference may have to do with the parent-in-law effect.

Limitations of the Study

A major limitation of personality or marital assessment inventories assessing individual differences or perceptions of another is that they depend on truthfulness and diligence of the individual's self-report. Another factor that can cause invalid responses to such an inventory is a response set, which is the extent to which responses reflect a general disposition rather than a careful response to the content of each item (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). In particular, the response set of social desirability or the tendency to present oneself in a favorable light may have diluted some of the results in this study, particularly as participants responded to questions related to hypothesis 2.

Threats to internal validity

The results of this study should be interpreted within the confines of the sample due to the quasi-experimental nature of the study. One threat to internal validity in this study may be history (Cook & Campbell, 1979). In other words, there may be influences on relational change in the adult marital relationship other than having a parent living in the household. Cook and Campbell (1979) state, "History is a threat when an observed effect might be due to an event which takes place between the pretest and the posttest, when this event is not the treatment of research interest" (p. 51). Another possible threat to internal validity is the threat pertaining to statistical power-statistical conclusion validity. The likelihood of making a Type II error or an incorrect no-difference conclusion increases when the sample size is small and alpha is set low (Cook & Campbell, 1979). The internal validity of this study could be threatened due to the lack of a larger sample size. However, the effect size set at .75 made the current study practical in terms of conducting the study at all. A smaller effect size of .40 may have been more realistic in terms of detecting differences. However, the sample size would have needed to be tripled. A tripled sample size is less realistic and impractical, given the limited access to persons married 25 years who are over the age of 50, with a parent over 65 living in the household.

Selection may be another possible threat to internal validity in this study, yet extant in quasi-experimental research (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Selection is typically a threat when a treatment effect may be due to the difference between the subjects in one treatment group as opposed to another (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Treatment caused change is inferred in the context of control groups rather than probabilistic groups in a completely randomized experiment. The subject characteristics results presented earlier attempt to mitigate the selection threat to internal validity for evaluation of the treatment effect.

Another possible threat to internal validity is reliance on retrospective accounts or pretests concerning relational change in the adult marital relationship. These retrospective data may be limited by respondents' memory and may be biased by current attitudes and

moods of the subjects. The average length of time a parent lived in the home of couple's in the experimental (parent group) was nine years, whereas participants in the notreatment comparison group (no-parent group) had to "think back" only five years. This discrepancy in the number of years each group were asked to "recall or think back" in time about their relationship may taint the results. Moreover, retrospective pretest measures may be contaminated by a "response-shift bias" (Collins, Graham, Hansen, & Johnson, 1985; Howard & Dailey, 1979; Howard, Ralph, Gulanick, Maxwell, Nance, & Gerber, 1979; Howard, Schmeck, & Bray, 1979; Maxwell & Howard, 1981). A responseshift bias affects retrospective pretest/posttest treatment designs when the experimental intervention changes the subject's interpretation of the anchors of a response scale (Collins, Graham, Hansen, & Johnson, 1985; Howard & Dailey, 1979; Howard, Ralph, Gulanick, Maxwell, Nance, & Gerber, 1979; Howard, Schmeck, & Bray, 1979; Maxwell & Howard, 1981). Shifts in the relative position of the experience continua and response scales that may have occurred include a positive expanding shift and/or a negative contracting shift (Howard, Ralph, Gulanick, Maxwell, Nance, & Gerber, 1979). Some of the retrospective pretests and posttests may have converged, particularly due to the length of the questionnaire. Convergence, a positive expanding shift, and/or a negative contracting shift of the response scale continuum could produce systemic errors of measurement that threaten evaluation of the basic treatment effect. The simple and multiple regression analyses were an attempt to answer questions of connections and overlap between and among the pretests and the corresponding posttests.²

Despite the seriousness of a response-shift bias, a good amount of research suggests that retrospective reports are adequate indicators of past behavior (see e.g., Collins, Graham, Hansen, & Johnson, 1985; Finney, 1981; Howard & Dailey, 1979; Howard, Ralph, Gulanick, Maxwell, Nance, & Gerber, 1979; Maisto, Sobell, Cooper, & Sobell, 1982). Howard, et al. (1979) found no significant difference between the actual pretest and the retrospective pretest. Finney (1981) and Maisto, et al. (1982) suggest that response-shift bias can be mitigated if retrospective questions and anchors on response scales are objective and explicit, and that the degree of response shift bias is partly conditional upon the experimental setting and circumstances. Although previous research suggests that retrospective reports are reliable and valid indicators of past behavior, mitigating a response-shift bias for evaluation of the treatment effect, would still lead researchers to be cautious of potential contamination due to the aforementioned threats to internal validity.

Threats to external validity

The nature of the sample in the current study may mitigate the generalization of the results to the population. The limited access to persons married a minimum of 25 years who are over the age of 50 and who have a parent living in the household mitigated any chance of a formal random sample to achieve representation. In addition, the fact that the parents' overall health decline over time is a huge factor that must be considered as an additional threat to external validity. Further, the disproportionate number of Caucasian adult marital couples is an additional threat to external validity. Broadly generalizing the results to target populations is beyond the scope of this study. However, the statistical analyses may support generalizing to settings that appear similar to the demographic sample in this study and where similar treatments are implemented.

Future Research

Future studies examining the long-term marital dyad should first focus on a developmental framework for understanding the nature of long-term relationships across the life span. As indicated earlier in this study, most research on relationships is lacking in two major areas: a) distinguishing differences in short term, medium, and long-term relationships; and b) distinguishing differences that various relationships in an individual's social network may impact relational dyads across the life span. While the life span developmental framework serves as a solid starting point for understanding and describing relationships, it may not be fully capturing the essence of relationships that have developed over a lifetime. A theoretical model representing the varied dimensions of relationships over time may be a fruitful approach toward understanding and uncovering the essence of long-term relationships. Each relationship in an individual's life is constantly being re-defined, re-negotiated as each relationship develops across one's life span. Each relationship has various levels of intensity as it develops over time. Each relationship begins with elements that disappear over time due to the developmental nature of relationships. Each relationship is composed of at least two individuals who each bring their independent idiosyncrasies and strengths to the relationship which are based on past experiences. Each relationship is simultaneously being modified, redefined, re-negotiated, and possibly transformed over time. It is the relations among these simultaneously occurring dimensions that relationships in an individual's life are constituted. A theoretical model of relational transformation may describe the interrelations of relational dimensions that exist particularly in long-term relationships. An initial approach toward testing this theoretical model would be to study the creative ways long-term married couples adjust to a parent moving into the household which may

shed light on the intriguing "survival techniques" of these unique couples. It seems that the "gestalt" of quality marriage is no different for couples who have a parent living with them and couples who do not. This finding is intriguing as it relates to the other results suggesting that a parent living in the adult child/spouse marital home is not critically detrimental to long-term marriage. Long-term marriage appears to be resilient to the effect of a parent living in the adult child home. However, the "gestalt" of quality marriage is no different for couples who have a parent living in their home and couples who do not. These integrated findings are of supreme importance because together, they suggest that couples married more than 25 years can handle the uncertain and difficult decision of caring for a parent in their own household. Future research could shed light on this intriguing finding.

Examining relationships beyond the confines of the dyad may be useful for understanding the ways in which other relationships in an individual's life may impact not only the individual, but also the various relationships connected to the individual. A number of future studies may be considered. First, examine four groups of long-term married couples. Group 1 would include couples who have a parent living with them and in therapy. Group 2 would include couples who do not have a parent living with them but are in therapy. Group 3 would include couples who have a parent living with them. Group 4 would include couples who do not have a parent living with them. The goal would be to detect differences among the different groups to determine whether or not therapy makes a difference. The reason for this extended study is to find out if selection differences exist for couples who choose to have a parent live with them in the home. Second, investigate the following groups. Group 1 would be later-life divorced couples who had a parent living with them. Group 2 would be later-life divorced couples who did not have a parent living with them. The later-life divorced groups could be compared to the data in the current study to detect selection differences.

Third, compare younger married couples who have a parent living with them to the data in the current study. Group 1 would be younger married couples (e.g., less than 10 years) who have a parent living with them. Group 2 would be younger married couples who do not have a parent living with them. Group 3 would include long-term married couples who have a parent living with them. Group 4 would include long-term married couples who have a parent living with them. Group 4 would include long-term married couples who do not have a parent living with them. Groups 1 and 2 could be compared to the data from the current study to detect intergenerational, cohort and/or selection differences.

Fourth, compare other family members living with the adult marital couple to the data in the current study. For example, one could examine the effect of a sibling, adult child, or cousin living in the adult marital household. Group 1 would be, for instance, long-term married couples who have an adult child living with them. Group 2 would be long-term married couples who do not have an adult child living with them. Then, compare data from the current study to detect relational, intergenerational, cohort and/or selection differences.

In addition, studying the impact of other relationships on the marital dyad may shed light on the influence of others in an individual's social network, but also may uncover differences in some dyad's that are more easily influenced than others. Extending Long and Mancini's (1990) research on couples who are inclined to draw in a third party

in order to survive and stay together may serve as a springboard to understanding couples who choose to have a parent move into the home and couples who do not. Perhaps, only certain types of couples allow a parent to move in whereas other types of couples on average do not. Determining anxious or distressed couples from non-anxious or nondistressed couples may be a fruitful starting point toward the prediction of a particular type of couple that may be more willing to take in a parent.

Determining the differences between the biological adult-child relationship and the non-biological adult-child or in-law relationship in terms of how this relationship impacts long-term marriage would be another interesting line of study. Additionally, an assessment of the biological parent-child relationship as well as the in-law parent/child relationship would be equally intriguing.

Finally, the future task is also to minimize intergenerational miscommunication that often occurs between young and old. How and when communication can be managed to reduce or eliminate miscommunication within the family is a frequent and important concern. For example, in a study of interaction between frail older people and their family caregivers---caregiver or care-recipient roles were found to influence the communication behaviors of the caring dyads (Edwards, 1996). Caregivers used a dominant and directive style of communication consistent with a perception that their role was to provide, manage, and organize care (Edwards & Giles, 1998). Thus, a caregiver with an active style was aggressive in terms of his or her role, whereas an older carerecipient with a more passive style adopted a passive and submissive role. Edwards and Giles (1998) claim from a communication management perspective, young people's schemas are important and may need modifying for specific encounters.

Conclusion

The current study is an attempt to address the area of triadic relationships in communication by examining the influence of a third party on the adult marital dyad. This study extends beyond prior research on the effect of an older adult parent living with an adult child in a long-term marriage both theoretically and methodologically. Hence, I go beyond previous triadic relationship research both methodologically and substantively: (a) by drawing on data collected from adult couples married for at least 25 years and who were at least 50 years of age; (b) by employing pretest measures (before a parent moved into the home) of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication to assess whether the parent moving in is related to change in the adult marital relationship; and (c) by employing a no-treatment comparison group to assess causally irrelevant factors that could influence post-marital communicative scores and prevent one from inferring what the post-marital communicative mean would have been in the treatment group (parent group) had there not been a parent living in the household!

In sum, results indicate a number of significant differences for couples married 25 years who have a parent living in the household (28 couples) when compared to couples who do not have a parent living with them (34 couples). Least squares means results show that parents living with adult children and their spouses share less communicative competent behaviors, have higher communicative satisfaction, higher dyadic adjustment, and less relational communication. Overall, four important results are revealed in this study. First, MANOVA results indicate that when not controlling for any variables in a single model overall marital communicative change exists for couples living with a

parent. Second, MANCOVA results indicate that overall communicative change does not exist for couples living with a parent when controlling for the 13-pretest measures in a single model. However, ANCOVA results indicate that the effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse household on the long-term marital relationship exists in a positive way when it comes to communicative satisfaction and marital/dyadic adjustment when pretest measures are statistically controlled. Additionally, the effect of a parent living in the adult child/spouse household on the long-term marital relationship exists in a negative way when it comes to communicative competent behaviors and relational communication when pretest measures are statistically controlled. Finally, an overall parent effect was found for couples living with a parent utilizing an overall repeated measures design. The results of this study should be interpreted within the context of the limitations of the study.

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Footnotes

1. To assess discriminant, convergent, and construct validity concerns, principal components analysis was employed. The purpose of using principal components analysis is to account for the five scales not being used in their original way. Principal component analysis is often considered a variant of factor analysis. More importantly, Kim and Mueller (1978) claim that PCA serves as "the most widely used practical means of solving the number-of-factors question" (p. 20). The goal of PCA is to determine the interrelations among variables. As the interrelations among the variables increases, the proportion explained by the first few variables will increase. The purpose was to see if I could use the measures the way the were originally intended to be used. PCA results showed that the measures used jointly appear to be measuring a similar global construct of communication between dyads. In other words, the measures appeared to be measuring what they are supposed to measure. PCA indicated I could use the instruments as they appear in the literature. However, the number of subjects to adequately run a powerful, true PCA were a continual concern. Thus, the PCA in this study, may not be telling us that much due to a lack of power in number of subjects related to the 224 items.

Communicative Competent Behavior

Construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were assessed by combining the mean of the 36 items measuring communicative competent behaviors with the means of items measuring communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication. The sample size relative to the total number of items used in this study was insufficient to run a factor analytical approach with all of the original items. Principal Component Analysis (PCA), subsequently, was used to transform the set of items into a set of uncorrelated principal factors that explained as much of the variance in all of the original items by first using the five overall means of each measure and second using the thirteen means of each factor on the five dependent measures. An alternative step in determining the number of factors is to carry out a CNG scree test. The recent literature supports the scree test as being reasonably accurate under varying conditions (Gorsuch, 1983). The scree test factor pattern for the first PCA revealed that the 36 items measuring posttest communicative competent behaviors loaded heavily on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is 3.7036, which accounts for a proportion of .74 and 88% of the variance. The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 36 items measuring posttest communicative competent behaviors loaded heavily on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is 7.2716, which accounts for a proportion of .55 and after rotation 81% of the variance for factor 1 and 23% of the variance for factor 2. Communicative Satisfaction

Construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were assessed by combining the mean of the 19 items measuring communicative satisfaction with the means of items measuring communicative competent behaviors, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication. The sample size relative to the total number of items used in this study was insufficient to run a factor analytical approach with all of the original items. Principal Component Analysis (PCA), subsequently, was used to transform the set of items into a set of uncorrelated principal factors that explained as much of the variance in all of the original items by using the overall means. An alternative step in determining the number of factors is to carry out a CNG scree test. The recent literature supports the scree test as being reasonably accurate under varying conditions (Gorsuch, 1983). The scree test factor pattern for the first PCA revealed that the 19 items measuring posttest communicative satisfaction loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .4771, which accounts for a proportion of .09 and 79% of the variance. The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 19 items measuring posttest communicative satisfaction loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .4771, which accounts for a proportion of .08 and after rotation 84% of the variance for factor 1 and 11% of the variance for factor 2.

Marital Quality

Construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were assessed by combining the mean of the six items measuring marital quality with the means of items measuring communicative competent behaviors, communicative satisfaction, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication. The sample size relative to the total number of items used in this study was insufficient to run a factor analytical approach with all of the original items. Principal Component Analysis (PCA), subsequently, was used to transform the set of items into a set of uncorrelated principal factors that explained as much of the variance

in all of the original items by using the overall means. An alternative step in determining the number of factors is to carry out a CNG scree test. The recent literature supports the scree test as being reasonably accurate under varying conditions (Gorsuch, 1983). The scree test factor pattern for the first PCA revealed that the 6 items measuring posttest marital quality loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .3182, which accounts for a proportion of .06 and 79% of the variance. The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 6 items measuring posttest marital quality loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .3182, which accounts for a proportion of .06 and 79% of the variance. The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 6 items measuring posttest marital quality loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .95, which accounts for a proportion of .07 and after rotation 68% of the variance for factor 1 and 25% of the variance for factor 2.

Dyadic Adjustment

Construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were assessed by combining the mean of the ten items measuring dyadic adjustment with the means of items measuring communicative competent behaviors, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, and relational communication. The sample size relative to the total number of items used in this study was insufficient to run a factor analytical approach with all of the original items. Principal Component Analysis (PCA), subsequently, was used to transform the set of items into a set of uncorrelated principal factors that explained as much of the variance in all of the original items by using the overall means. An alternative step in determining the number of factors is to carry out a CNG scree test. The recent literature supports the scree test as being reasonably accurate under varying conditions (Gorsuch, 1983). The scree test factor pattern for first the PCA revealed that the 10 items measuring posttest dyadic adjustment loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .2896. which accounts for a proportion of .05 and 87% of the variance. The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 6 items measuring posttest dyadic consensus loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .82, which accounts for a proportion of .06 and after rotation 78% of the variance for factor 1 and 14% of the variance for factor 2. The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 4 items measuring posttest dyadic satisfaction loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .77, which accounts for a proportion of .05 and after rotation 67% of the variance for factor 1 and 6% of the variance for factor 2.

Relational Communication

Construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were assessed by combining the mean of the 41 items measuring relational communication with the means of items measuring communicative competent behaviors, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, and dyadic adjustment. The sample size relative to the total number of items used in this study was insufficient to run a factor analytical approach with all of the original items. Principal Component Analysis (PCA), subsequently, was used to transform the set of items into a set of uncorrelated principal factors that explained as much of the variance in all of the original items by using the overall means. An alternative step in determining the number of factors is to carry out a CNG scree test. The recent literature supports the scree test as being reasonably accurate under varying conditions (Gorsuch, 1983). The scree test factor pattern for the first PCA revealed that the 41 items measuring posttest relational communication loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .2114, which accounts for a proportion of .04 and 87% of the variance.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 9 items measuring posttest relational immediacy/affection loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .48, which accounts for a proportion of .03 and after rotation 91% of the variance for factor 1 and 7% of the variance for factor 2.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 5 items measuring posttest relational similarity/depth loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .37, which accounts for a proportion of .02 and after rotation 79% of the variance for factor 1 and 2% of the variance for factor 2.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 6 items measuring posttest relational receptivity/trust loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .29, which accounts for a proportion of .02 and after rotation 88% of the variance for factor 1 and 8% of the variance for factor 2.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 5 items measuring posttest relational composure loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the

factor is .23, which accounts for a proportion of .01 and after rotation 86% of the variance for factor 1 and 26% of the variance for factor 2.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 3 items measuring posttest relational formality loaded almost evenly on factors 1 and 2. The eigenvalue associated with the factors is .21, which accounts for a proportion of .01 and after rotation 35% of the variance for factor 1 and 59% of the variance for factor 2.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 6 items measuring posttest relational dominance loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 2). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .18, which accounts for a proportion of .01 and after rotation 43% of the variance for factor 1 and 66% of the variance for factor 2.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 3 items measuring posttest relational equality loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 1). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .13, which accounts for a proportion of .01 and after rotation 89% of the variance for factor 1 and 8% of the variance for factor 2.

The scree test factor pattern for the second PCA revealed that the 4 items measuring posttest relational task orientation loaded on a distinct principal factor (factor 2). The eigenvalue associated with the factor is .08, which accounts for a proportion of .006 and after rotation18% of the variance for factor 1 and 56% of the variance for factor 2.

2. To assess the linear relationship between the pretest and posttest measures both simple and multiple linear regression were employed. Simple linear regression was employed to assess the linear relationship between each pretest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication and each posttest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication respectively. The goal of using simple linear regression was to observe the standardized coefficients for each test to determine how high the linear relationship was between each separate pretest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication to each corresponding posttest measure. Multiple linear regression was employed to assess the linear relationship between the pretest measures and the corresponding posttest measures through model comparison analysis. The goal of using multiple linear regression was to observe the standardized coefficients for the tests to determine how high the linear relationship was between the pretest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication to the corresponding posttest measures. Results of the simple linear regression test assessing the linear relationship between each pretest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication and each posttest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication respectively revealed standardized estimates of .77 for communicative competent behaviors ($r^2 = .60$); .80 for communicative satisfaction ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for dyadic adjustment ($r^2 = .64$); .557 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for marital quality ($r^2 = .30$); .81 for marital quali .66); and .77 for relational communication ($r^2 = .59$). Thus, simple linear regression analyses indicate a high linear relationship for communicative competent behaviors (.77), communicative satisfaction (.80), dyadic adjustment (.81), and relational communication (.77), and a moderate linear relationship for marital quality (.557) in terms of each separate pretest measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication to each corresponding posttest measure.

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the pretest measure of communicative competent behavior and posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication indicate a moderate linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative satisfaction (-.21, $r^2 = .64$); a negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative satisfaction (-.21, $r^2 = .64$); a small to moderate negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of marital quality (-.03, $r^2 = .64$); a small negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of dyadic adjustment (-.11, $r^2 = .64$); a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of dyadic adjustment (-.11, $r^2 = .64$); a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of dyadic adjustment (-.11, $r^2 = .64$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the pretest measure of communicative satisfaction and posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication indicate a

small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative competent behavior (.08, $r^2 = .6577$); a high positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative satisfaction (.71, $r^2 = .6577$); a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of marital quality (.10, $r^2 = .6577$); a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of dyadic adjustment (.11, $r^2 = .6577$); and a small negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of relational communication (-.17, $r^2 = .6577$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the pretest measure of marital quality and posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication indicate a small negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative competent behavior (-.14, $r^2 = .4116$); a moderate negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative satisfaction (-.34, $r^2 = .4116$); a moderate positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of marital quality (.34, $r^2 = .4116$); a small negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of dyadic adjustment (-.11, $r^2 = .4116$); a small negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of relational communication (.10, $r^2 = .4116$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the pretest measure of dyadic adjustment and posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication indicate a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative competent behavior (.14, $r^2 = .6818$); a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative satisfaction (.19, $r^2 = .6818$); a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of marital quality (.07, $r^2 = .6818$); a small positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of marital quality (.07, $r^2 = .6818$); a high positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of dyadic adjustment (.80, $r^2 = .6818$); and a small negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of relational communication (-.06, $r^2 = .6818$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the pretest measure of relational communication and posttest measures of communicative competent behavior. communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication indicate a small negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative competent behavior (-.11, $r^2 = .6565$); a moderate negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of communicative satisfaction (-.28, $r^2 = .6565$); a small to moderate negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of marital quality (-.21, $r^2 = .6565$); a small to moderate negative linear relationship on the posttest measure of dyadic adjustment (-.25, $r^2 = .6565$); and a moderate positive linear relationship on the posttest measure of relational communication (.60, $r^2 = .6565$).

3. To assess the linear relationship between husbands and wives multiple linear regression was employed. The goal of using multiple linear regression was to observe the standardized coefficients for each test to determine how high the linear relationship was between husbands and wives through model comparison analysis.

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the husbands communicative competence scores and wives scores on each measure indicate a moderate positive linear relationship on communicative competent behavior (.5331, $r^2 = .3217$); a small positive linear relationship on communicative satisfaction (.0346, $r^2 = .3217$); a moderate positive linear relationship on marital quality (.6989, $r^2 = .5460$); a small positive linear relationship on dyadic adjustment (.4588, $r^2 = .3217$); and a moderate to high positive linear relationship for relational communication (.8001, $r^2 = .3217$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the husbands communicative satisfaction scores and wives scores on each measure indicate a moderate to high positive linear relationship on communicative competent behavior (.8368, $r^2 = .2111$); a small positive linear relationship on communicative satisfaction (.1095, $r^2 = .2111$); a high positive linear relationship on marital quality (.9637, $r^2 = .2111$); a small positive linear relationship on dyadic adjustment (.4588, $r^2 = .2111$); and a small positive linear relationship for relational communication (.4202, $r^2 = .2111$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the husbands' marital quality scores and wives' scores on each measure indicate a small positive linear relationship on communicative competent behavior (.3663, $r^2 = .3165$); a small positive linear relationship on communicative satisfaction (.1149, $r^2 = .3165$); a small positive linear relationship on marital quality (.0068, $r^2 = .3165$); a small positive linear relationship on dyadic adjustment (.1505, $r^2 = .3165$); and a small positive linear relationship for relational communication (.0149, $r^2 = .3165$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the husbands' dyadic adjustment scores and wives' scores on each measure indicate a moderate positive linear relationship on communicative competent behavior (.5559, $r^2 = .4438$); a small positive linear relationship on

communicative satisfaction (.2061, $r^2 = .4438$); a small positive linear relationship on marital quality (.2743, $r^2 = .4438$); a small positive linear relationship on dyadic adjustment (.1355, $r^2 = .4438$); and a moderate positive linear relationship for relational communication (.5964, $r^2 = .4438$).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between the husbands' relational communication scores and wives' scores on each measure indicate a moderate to high positive linear relationship on communicative competent behavior (.8047, $\vec{r} = .3396$); a small positive linear relationship on communicative satisfaction (.1037, $\vec{r} = .3396$); a moderate positive linear relationship on marital quality (.6680, $\vec{r} = .3396$); a small positive linear relationship on dyadic adjustment (.0242, $\vec{r} = .3396$); and a moderate to high positive linear relationship for relational communication (.8705, $\vec{r} = .3396$).

4. To assess the linear relationship between the dependent measures and the demographic variables multiple linear regression were employed. The goal of using multiple linear regression was to observe the standardized coefficients for each test to determine how high the linear relationship was between each dependent measure of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality. dyadic adjustment, and relational communication to the demographic variables through model comparison analysis.

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between communicative competent behavior and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .1809. Results indicate a small positive linear relationship for race (.1328); a small positive linear relationship for gender (.3754); a small positive linear relationship for having children (.2488); a small positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.4087); and a moderate to high positive linear relationship for number of times married (.7151), a small positive linear relationship for age of participant (.3802); a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.5110), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.4228), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.0014), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health of participant (.1451), a moderate to high positive linear relationship for parent's health (.7635), and a high positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.8485).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between communicative satisfaction and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .1311. Results indicate a small positive linear relationship for race (.2530); a small positive linear relationship for gender (.3910); a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0231); a small to moderate positive linear relationship for number of kids currently living in the household (.5854); and a moderate positive linear relationship for number of times married (.4731), a moderate positive linear relationship for age of participant (.6537); a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.7201), a high positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.9291), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.1420), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health (.1500), and a high positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.9293).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between marital quality and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .2567. Results indicate a small positive linear relationship for race (.0209); a moderate positive linear relationship for gender (.5504) a moderate to high positive linear relationship for having children (.8155); a small to moderate positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.5530); and a small positive linear relationship for number of times married (.0718), a moderate positive linear relationship for age of participant (.4889); a small positive linear relationship for parent's age (.0699), a high positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.9506), a small positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.1440), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.0977), a small positive linear relationship for health of participant (.0432), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health (.1084), and a small positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.0124).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between dyadic consensus and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .0617. Results indicate a moderate to high positive linear relationship for race (.8320); a high positive linear relationship for gender (.9407) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.2886); a moderate positive linear relationship for household (.6068); and a moderate positive linear relationship for number of times married (.6272), a small positive linear relationship for age of participant (.1825); a high positive linear relationship for parent's age (.8810), a moderate positive linear relationship for number

of years parent had been living in the home (.6405). a moderate positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.5565), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.0043), a high positive linear relationship for health of participant (.9545), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for parent's health (.4612), and a high positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.9632).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between dyadic satisfaction and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .1255. Results indicate a moderate to high positive linear relationship for race (.7350); a moderate to high positive linear relationship for gender (.8549) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0717); a high positive linear relationship for having children (.0717); a high positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.9200); and a moderate to high positive linear relationship for age of participant (.8564); a moderate to high positive linear relationship for age of participant (.8564); a moderate to high positive linear relationship for parent's age (.7049), a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.6834), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment of participant (.2166), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.4121), a small positive linear relationship for health of participant (.0191), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health (.0239), and a moderate positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.5163).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational immediacy/affection and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .0870. Results indicate a small to moderate positive linear relationship for race (.4038); a high positive linear relationship for gender (.8093) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0433); a moderate positive linear relationship for having children (.0433); a moderate positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.6719); and a moderate positive linear relationship for age of participant (.4753); a small positive linear relationship for parent's age (.1986), a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.5729), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for parent's employment of participant (.4703), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.3486), a small positive linear relationship for health of participant (.1173), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health (.1989), and a moderate positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.7674).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational similarity/depth and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .2311. Results indicate a moderate to high positive linear relationship for race (.7625); a moderate positive linear relationship for gender (.4801) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0437); a moderate positive linear relationship for number of times married (.4679), a small positive linear relationship for age of participant (.2859); a small positive linear relationship for parent's age (.0673), a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.6109), a small positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.2835), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.0046), a moderate positive linear relationship for parent's health (.8441), and a moderate positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.4286).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational receptivity/trust and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .2653. Results indicate a moderate positive linear relationship for race (.5918); a small positive linear relationship for gender (.3553) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0150); a small positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.3850); and a small positive linear relationship for number of times married (.2683), a small positive linear relationship for age of participant (.1024); a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.7831), a moderate positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.5684), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.0021), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health (.9399), and a moderate to high positive linear relationship for parent's health (.9399), and a moderate to high positive linear relationship for parent's health (.7771).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational composure and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .3337. Results indicate a small positive linear relationship for race (.0744); a small positive linear relationship for gender (.1958) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0167); a small positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.1990); and a small positive linear relationship for number of times married (.2736), a small positive linear relationship for age of participant (.0753); a small positive linear

relationship for parent's age (.0915), a high positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.9810), a moderate positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.5042), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.0308), a small positive linear relationship for health of participant (.0351), a moderate positive linear relationship for parent's health (.5375), and a high positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.8991).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational formality and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .0253. Results indicate a moderate to high positive linear relationship for race (.7647); a high positive linear relationship for gender (.9630) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.2316); a moderate positive linear relationship for number of kids currently living in the household (.6135); and a high positive linear relationship for number of times married (.8042), a moderate positive linear relationship for age of participant (.5580); a high positive linear relationship for parent's age (.9610), a high positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.8739), a moderate positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.5141), a moderate positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.5308), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health (.1220), and a small positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.3284).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational dominance and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .1890. Results indicate a small positive linear relationship for race (.3796); a moderate positive linear relationship for gender (.5906) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0065); a small positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.2068); and a high positive linear relationship for number of times married (.7896), a moderate positive linear relationship for number of times married (.7896), a moderate positive linear relationship for number of times married (.7896), a moderate positive linear relationship for age of participant (.7312); a small positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.5396), a small positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.0571), a high positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.9264), a small positive linear relationship for parent's health of participant (.2316), a moderate positive linear relationship for parent's health (.5818), and a high positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.8954).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational equality and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .1503. Results indicate a moderate positive linear relationship for race (.6623); a moderate to high positive linear relationship for gender (.7437) a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0033); a small positive linear relationship for having children (.0033); a small positive linear relationship for times married (.9587), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for age of participant (.3007); a moderate positive linear relationship for number of times married (.9587), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for age of participant (.3007); a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.9441), a moderate positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.6562), a small to moderate positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.3721), a small positive linear relationship for health of participant (.0442), a moderate positive linear relationship for parent's health (.2515), and a high positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.8971).

Results of the multiple linear regression assessing the linear relationship between relational task orientation and the following demographic variables indicate an r-square of .2451. Results indicate a small positive linear relationship for race (.1378); a moderate positive linear relationship for gender (.5322) a high positive linear relationship for having children (.8203); a small positive linear relationship for kids currently living in the household (.0155); and a small positive linear relationship for number of times married (.1539), a small positive linear relationship for age of participant (.0002); a small positive linear relationship for parent's age (.0096), a moderate positive linear relationship for number of years parent had been living in the home (.3628), a moderate positive linear relationship for employment of participant (.3204), a small positive linear relationship for parent's employment (.0912), a high positive linear relationship for health of participant (.8101), a moderate positive linear relationship for parent's health (.5511), and a moderate positive linear relationship for others living in the household (.4506).

5. By averaging each dependent measure as one factor, hypotheses 1 through 5 were also tested using MANOVA with type III sums of squares by measuring communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic adjustment, and relational communication without any control variables in a single model. MANOVA results for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that a parent living in the household had a significant effect on the five dependent variables (posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dyadic

adjustment, and relational communication), Hotelling's T^2 (5, 118) = 6.2612, p<.0001. (See Table 12 for least squares means.)

However, MANCOVA tests on hypotheses 1 through 5 revealed an overall significant effect by 6. testing the average of each dependent measure. Thus, hypotheses 1 through 5 were also tested using multivariate analysis of covariance with type III sums of squares while controlling for pretest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication in a single model. The results of the MANCOVA, for the long-term adult marital relationship indicate that by partitioning out the variance accounted for by the pretests, a parent living in the household had a significant effect on overall communicative marital satisfaction (the joint set of dependent measures), Hotelling's $T^2(5,113) = 3.0394$, p<.0130. (See Table 10 for least squares means.) In other words, differences among the treatment group (parent group) and the no-treatment comparison group (no-parent group) were detected over and above differences that could be accounted for by the differences in the pretest performances. Thus, significant effects were found by testing for differences between the treatment group (parent) and the no-treatment comparison group (no parent) on the posttest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital satisfaction, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication (dependent variables) independently of the covariate (the pretest measures of communicative competent behavior, communicative satisfaction, marital quality, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication). Least squares mean patterns revealed significantly lower levels of satisfaction indicated for communicative competent behaviors, communicative satisfaction, dvadic adjustment, and relational communication.

TABLES

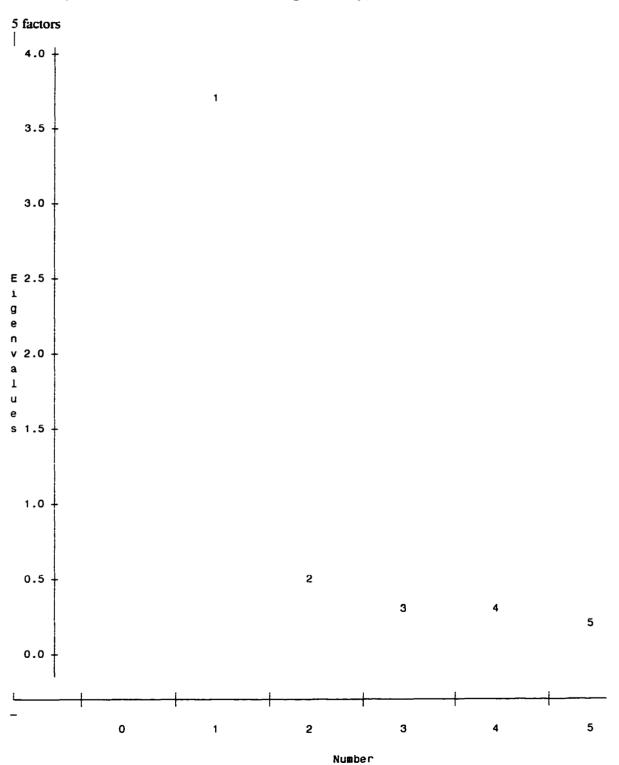
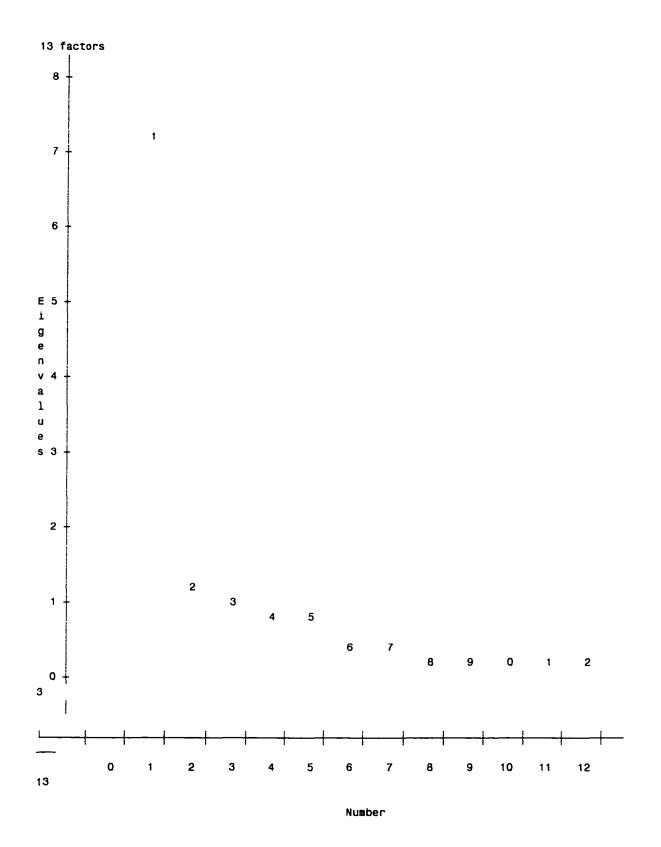


Table 1: Scree Plot of Eigenvalues for overall means(5 factors and 13 factors respectively)

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Variable	Ν	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum/Maximum
Parent (Bio,Step,Adopt)	56	1.1785714	0.5429597	1.0000000/3.000000
Parent-Mother or Father	56	1.7500000	0.4369314	1.0000000/2.000000
Ethnicity of Ss	56	1.4285714	1.0592818	1.0000000/5.000000
Ethnicity of Ss parent	56	1.5000000	1.0954451	1.0000000/5.000000
Gender of Ss	56	1.5000000	0.5045250	1.0000000/2.000000
Number of children	56	3.0714286	1.8670068	0/7.0000000
Kids living in home	56	0.5892857	0.9867630	0/4.000000
Number of grandchildren	56	3.9642857	5.8928749	0/24.000000
Gparent live in as child	28	0.3214286	0.4755949	0/1.0000000
Number of times married	56	1.1607143	0.4167749	1.000000/3.000000
No. X parent married	56	1.1607143	0.4583284	1.000000/3.000000
Years married to spouse	56	32.8035714	6.9030155	25.000000/53.00000
Ss age	56	57.0000000	6.9987012	44.000000/79.00000
Ss parent's age	56	81.1250000	8.5897666	65.000000/99.00000
No.yrs. parent in home	56	9.6607143	8.9651381	1.0000000/42.00000
Marital status of parent	56	3.3928571	1.9510237	1.0000000/5.000000
Ss employment status	56	1.5892857	1.0749509	1.000000/4.000000
Ss parent emp status	56	1.9464286	0.7241206	1.000000/4.000000
Ss health	56	4.1607143	0.7810665	2.000000/5.000000
Ss parent's health	56	2.8571429	0.9987005	1.0000000/5.000000
Ss religiosity	56	3.8392857	1.1564332	1.000000/6.00000
Ss parent's religiosity	56	3.6607143	1.3249602	1.0000000/6.000000
Ss education level	56	14.8571429	3.2385663	6.0000000/21.00000
Ss parent's educ level	56	11.2321429	3.3247888	6.000000/20.00000
No. others living home	56	0.6071429	0.9279219	0/3.000000
Parent weak/strength rel	56	3.0714286	0.8708855	1.000000/5.000000
Parent changed relation	55	2.6545455	1.4300762	1.0000000/5.000000

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for the Parent-Experimental Group

Ν	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum/Maximum
68	1.4411765	1.2263567	1.0000000/5.000000
68	1.5000000	0.5037175	1.000000/2.000000
68	3.2352941	2.1930531	1.000000/12.000000
68	0.5882353	0.9960413	0/4.000000
68	3.7941176	5.7602830	0/28.000000
34	0.2647059	0.4478111	0/1.0000000
68	1.1617647	0.4092328	1.000000/3.000000
68	1.3823529	0.7536857	0/5.0000000
68	33.3676471	8.2442280	25.00000/58.00000
68	57.1764706	8.6247495	43.00000/85.00000
37	78.0000000	7.2495211	58.00000/89.00000
46	3.0434783	1.8494026	1.000000/5.000000
68	1.7647059	1.0238594	1.000000/4.000000
38	2.5789474	0.9762471	1.000000/4.000000
68	4.1617647	0.8912559	2.000000/5.000000
43	3.5116279	1.1416799	1.000000/5.000000
67	4.2089552	0.9134900	2.00000/6.000000
57	3.7894737	1.2354415	1.000000/6.000000
68	14.2941176	3.1860649	4.00000/20.00000
65	10.6153846	3.2195317	3.000000/20.00000
67	0.3432836	1.0667458	0/5.0000000
46	3.4347826	0.8857432	2.00000/5.000000
47	1.4680851	0.9053240	1.000000/4.000000
	68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 37 46 68 38 68 43 67 57 68 65 67 46	68 1.4411765 68 1.500000 68 3.2352941 68 0.5882353 68 3.7941176 34 0.2647059 68 1.1617647 68 1.3823529 68 3.3676471 68 57.1764706 37 78.0000000 46 3.0434783 68 1.7647059 38 2.5789474 68 4.1617647 43 3.5116279 67 4.2089552 57 3.7894737 68 14.2941176 65 10.6153846 67 0.3432836 46 3.4347826	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for the No-Parent-Control Group

Table 4:GLM ANCOVA, MANCOVA, &MANOVA The effect of an older adult parent on the adult child/spouse long-term marital relationship.

Statistic	Value	F Num DF	Den DF	Pr > F
ANCOVA-Communic	ative Competence			
PARENT 1	•	1.07851439	8.94 0.0034	
ANCOVA-Communic	ative Satisfaction			
PARENT 1		2.26759157	7.48 0.0072	
ANCOVA-Marital Qu	•	0.0000044		
PARENT 1		0.33385844	1.12 0.2922	
ANCOVA-Dyadic Cor	isensus			
PARENT 1	0.51954107	0.51954107	3.47 0.0650	
ANCOVA-Dyadic Sati	isfacation			
PARENT I	0.57915660	0.57915660	3.33 0.0704	
ANCOVA-Relational	mmediacy/Affection			
PARENT 1		2.88729865	5.89 0.0167	
ANCOVA-Relational	Similarity/Depth			
PARENT 1	1.24717589	1.24717589	1.52 0.2206	
ANCOVA-Relational I	Recentivity/Trust			
PARENT 1		1.88556612	3.59 0.0605	
ANCOVA-Relational (Omnosure			
PARENT 1	1.85993615	1.85993615	3.22 0.0751	
ANCOVA-Relational I	Formality			
PARENT 1	0.27850358	0.27850358	0.30 0.5848	
ANCOVA-Relational I	Dominance			
PARENT I	1.18918915	1.18918915	1.97 0.1631	
ANCOVA-Relational H	Ecuality			
PARENT I	3.46323194	3.46323194	5.48 0.0209	
ANCOVA-Relational	Task Orientation			
PARENT 1	0.69331165	0.69331165	1.07 0.3025	
MANCOVA (all 13 fac				
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	e 0.17209145 1.284	1 13 97 0.2	2357	
MANOVA (all 13 factor Hotelling-Lawley Trace		8 13 110 0.0	0002	
MANCOVA (Dyadic A Hotelling-Lawley Trace		1 2 119 0.1	149	

MANCOVA (Relational Communication-8 factors) Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.07171560 0.9592 8 107 0.4719 MANOVA (Dvadic Adjustment-2 factors) Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.18381779 11.1210 2 121 0.0001 MANOVA (Relational Communication-8 factors) Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.16256985 2.3369 8 115 0.0231 MANCOVA (overall means of 5 dependent measures) Hotelling-Lawlev Trace 0.13448717 3.0394 5 113 0.0130 MANOVA (overall means of 5 dependent measures) Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.26530658 6.2612 5 118 0.0001 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Communicative Competence Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.11647769 7.0469 2 121 0.0013 **REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT Communicative Satisfaction** Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0,16240055 9.8252 2 121 0.0001 **REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT - Marital Quality** Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.02066070 1.2500 2 121 0.2902 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Dvadic Consensus Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.11260966 6.8129 2 121 0.0016 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Dvadic Satisfaction Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.16240055 9.8252 2 121 0.0001 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Immediacy/Affection Hotelling-Lawlev Trace 0.06325722 3.8271 2 121 0.0245 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Similarity/Depth Hotelling-Lawlev Trace 0.02879462 1.7421 2 121 0.1795 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Receptivity/Trust Hotelling-Lawlev Trace 0.04141058 2,5053 2 121 0.0859 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Relational Composure Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.11758321 7.1138 2 121 0.0012 **REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Relational Formality** Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.03534579 2.1384 2 121 0.1223 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Relational Dominance Hotelling-Lawlev Trace 0.02006303 1.2138 2 121 0.3007 **REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Relational Equality** Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.06621168 4.0058 121 0.0207 2 **REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT-Task Orientation** Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.01496946 0.9057 2 121 0.4070 REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-PARENT EFFECT (all 13 factors) Hotelling-Lawley Trace 0.68981042 2.5735 26 97 0.0004

Table 5: ANCOVA Least Squares Means

	General Linear Models Procedure Least Squares Means
Communicative Com	npetence .
PARENT	MCCSA Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	198161963 0.04249314 0.0001 -2.99016 0.0034
1	2.17270168 0.04691335 0.0001
Communicative Satis	sfaction
PARENT	MCSA Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.20470056 0.06680325 0.0001 2.734207 0.0072
1	4.93282601 0.07361727 0.0001
Marital Quality	
PARENT	MQMIA StdErr Pr > T T / Pr > T H0; LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.69861432 0.06640243 0.0001 -1.05791 0.2922
1	2.80346832 0.07321174 0.0001
Dvadic Consensus	
PARENT	MCONSA Std Err Pr > T T / Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
о	5.00732704 0.04779267 0.0001 1.862315 0.0650
1	4.87205527 0.05286515 0.0001
Dyadic Satisfaction PARENT	MSATA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T; H0; LSMEAN LSMEAN H0;LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.01152837 0.05203569 0.0001 1.825351 0.0704
I	4.86546555 0.05768329 0.0001
Relational Immediacy	/Affection
PARENT	$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
o	2.40984807 0.08516834 0.0001 -2.42701 0.0167
I	2.71859718 0.09391365 0.0001
Relational Similarity/I	Depth
PARENT	MSIMA Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.40826129 0.11037848 0.0001 -1.23139 0.2206
1	2.61139701 0.12172497 0.0001
Relational Receptivity	/Trust
PARENT	MRECA Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.88073903 0.08809278 0.0001 -1.89514 0.0605
I	2.12993594 0.09712673 0.0001

Relational Composure MCOMPA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 2.11629823 0.09393200 0.0001 -1.79555 0 0.0751 0.0001 1 2.37306643 0.10393372 **Relational Formality** PARENT MFORMA Std Err $Pr \ge |T| - T / Pr \ge |T|$ H0: LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 0 5.38779281 0.11767663 0.0001 0.547851 0.5848 1 5.29101350 0.12987588 0.0001 **Relational Dominance** PARENT MDOMA Std Err $Pr \ge |T| + T / Pr \ge |T|$ H0: LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEANI=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 0 3.79402920 0.09431871 0.0001 -1.40326 0.1631 ı 3.99117883 0.10395287 0.0001 **Relational Equality** Std Err $Pr \ge |T| = T / Pr \ge |T|$ H0: PARENT MEOUA LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 2.14252715 0.09686927 0.0001 -2.34022 0 0.0209 1 2.48169323 0.10684728 0.0001 Relational Task Orientation PARENT MTASKA Std Err Pr > T T/Pr > T HO: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.87750269 0.09764412 0.0001 -1.03552 0.3025 1 3.02821102 0.10763001 0.0001 PARENT MTASKA Std Err $Pr \ge T - T / Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.87750269 0.09764412 0.0001 -1.03552 0.3025 3.02821102 0.10763001 0.0001 1

Table 6: MANCOVA (RDAS) Least Squares Means General Linear Models Procedure Least Squares Means

Dyadic Consensus

PARENT	MCONSA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr LSMEAN H		t > T H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.00497476	0.04863575	0.0001	1.733469 0.0856
I	4.87491161	0.05394660	0.0001	
Dyadic Satisfaction				
PARENT	MSATA	Std Err Pr >	T T Pr	> [T] H0:
	LSMEAN	LSMEAN H	10:LSMEA	N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.01298824	0.05238083	0.0001	1.84753
1	4.86369285	0.05810062	0.0001	0.0671

			eral Linear I	Squares Means Models Procedure ares Means
Relational Immediacy/	Affection			
PARENT	MIMMA LSMEAN		T T Pr H0:LSMEA	> T; H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.45860888	0.08266288	0.0001	-1.57098 0.1190
1	2.65938763	0.09172712	0.0001	
elational Similarity/E	Depth			
PARENT	MSIMA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr > LSMEAN H		> T! H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.41239672	0.11263435	0.0001	-1.1139 0.2677
I	2.60637541	0.12498505	0.0001	0.2077
elational Receptivity/	Trust			
PARENT	MRECA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr > LSMEAN H		> (T) H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.93409112	0.08683260	0.0001	-0.97623
I	2.06515126	0.09635405	0.0001	0.3310
elational Composure				
PARENT	MCOMPA LSMEAN		• • •	r > T H0: 1=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.11627015	0.09191659	0.0001	-1.80724 0.0734
1	2.37310053	0.10199552	0.0001	0.0754
elational Formality				
PARENT	MFORMA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr LSMEAN H		r > T. H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.37545388	0.12146320	0.0001	0.36986 0.7122
l	5.30599647	0.13478201	0.0001	0.7122
elational Dominance PARENT	MDOMA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr > LSMEAN H		> T H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	3.78934208	0.09626967	0.0001	-1.39429
1	3.99687033	0.10682593	0.0001	0.1659
elational Equality				
PARENT	MEQUA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr > LSMEAN H		> T'HO: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
U	2.17964452	0.09559637	0.0001	-1.73867 0.0848
1	2.43662213	0.10607880	0.0001	V.V040
lational Task Orienta	tion			
PARENT	MTASKA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr > LSMEAN HO		> T; H0: =0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.92764369	0.09770278	0.0001	-0.26269 0.7933
				1771

Table 8: MANOVA (RDAS) Least Squares Means General Linear Models Procedure Least Squares Means

Dyadic Consensus

PARENT	MCONSA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.12009804 0.07080449 0.0001 3.653923 0.0004
1	4.73511905 0.07802274 0.0001
Dyadic Satisfaction PARENT	MSATA Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.20588235 0.08808373 0.0001 4.397695
1	0.0001 4.62946429 0.09706354 0.0001

Table 9: MA	NOVA		neral Linear !	quares Means Models Procedure ares Means
Relational Immediacy. PARENT	Affection MIMMA	Std Err Pr	> T' T ' Pr	> ' T ' HO :
	LSMEAN	LSMEAN	HO:LSMEA	N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.30882353	0.14309450	0.0001	-2.50055 0.0137
1	2.84126984	0.15768246	0.0001	
Relational Similarity/I PARENT		Std Err Pr LSMEAN		> T: H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.30882353	0.15221637	0.0001	-1.86892 0.0640
1	2.73214286	0.16773427	0.0001	0.0040
Relational Receptivity PARENT	MRECA	Std Err Pr LSMEAN		> Ti H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.81127451	0.12387982	0.0001	-2.18625 0.0307
1	2.21428571	0.13650891	0.0001	0.0307
Relational Composure PARENT	MCOMPA LSMEAN		r > T: T / P HO:LSMEAN	r > 17: H0: I=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.89117647	0.13710834	0.0001	-3.70179 0.0003
1	2.64642857	0.15108603	0.0001	
Relational Formality PARENT	MFORMA LSMEAN		r > T' T P HO:LSMEAN	r > T; H0; N=0_LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.50000000	0.14319302	0.0001	1.620243 0.1078
1	5.15476190	0.15779102	0.0001	0.1078
Relational Dominance PARENT	MDOMA LSMEAN		> T T Pr H0:LSMEA	> T' H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	3.833333333	0.12778235	0.0001	-0.57913 0.5636
1	3.94345238	0.14080929	0.0001	0.3030
Relational Equality PARENT	MEQUA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr LSMEAN		> (T) H0: N=0_LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
ο	2.00980392	0.15866586	0.0001	-2.68127
ĩ	2.64285714	0.17484127	0.0001	0.0083
Relational Task Orients PARENT	ntion MTASKA LSMEAN		> T T Pr H0:LSMEAN	> 'T! H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.83823529	0.11854629	0.0001	-1.34725
1	3.07589286	0.13063165	0.0001	0.1804

	General Linear Models Procedure Least Squares Means
nmunicative Com	patence
PARENT	MCCSA StdErr Pr>TT T/Pr>TTH0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.97039877 0.04132252 0.0001 -3.33944 0.0011
1	2.18632700 0.04595818 0.0001
municative Satis	faction
PARENT	MCSA Std Err Pr > T T / Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.19157564 0.06939823 0.0001 2.236009 0.0272
I	4.94876341 0.07718350 0.0001
ital Quality	
PARENT	MQMIA Std Err Pr > (Ti T / Pr > Ti H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.70121037 0.06382467 0.0001 -0.99234 0.3231
1	2.80031598 0.07098468 0.0001
die Satisfaction	
PARENT	MRDASA Std Err Pr > (T' T / Pr > (T) H0; LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.02906272 0.04147951 0.0001 2.834825 0.0054
1	4.84506669 0.04613279 0.0001
tional Communic	ation
PARENT	MRCSA Std Err Pr > T; T / Pr > T; H0; LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.74454572 0.05182274 0.0001 -2.68944 0.0082
1	2.96263350 0.05763635 0.0001

1 adie 11: M	IANCOVA (OVERALL-13 DV'S) Least Squares Means General Linear Models Procedure Least Squares Means
Communicative Comp	
PARENT	MCCSA Std Err Pr > TL T Pr > TL H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.99611598 0.04127326 0.0001 -2.36115 0.0200
I	2.15509896 0.04628422 0.0001
Communicative Satisf	action
PARENT	
0	5.20319432 0.06948590 0.0001 2.368932 0.0196
1	4.93465502 0.07792214 0.0001
Marital Quality PARENT	MQMIA Std Err Pr > T' T / Pr > T; H0; LSMEAN LSMEAN H0;LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.73122390 0.06743837 0.0001 -0.29674 0.7672
1	2.76387098 0.07562602 0.0001
Dvadic Consensus	
PARENT	$\label{eq:mconsa} \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
0	5.03714373 0.04950445 0.0001 2.492465 0.0142
I	4.83584928 0.055551475 0.0001
Dyadic Satisfaction PARENT	MSATA Std Err Pr > (T) T / Pr > (T) H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.00032561 0.05383788 0.0001 1.380573 0.1702
1	4.87906890 0.06037430 0.0001
Relational Immediacy/	Affection
PARENT	MIMMA Std Err $Pr > T$; $T = Pr > T$; H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.43792700 0.08245111 0.0001 -1.83313 0.0695
I	2.68450134 0.09246145 0.0001
Relational Similarity/E	Depth
PARENT	$\label{eq:msimal} \begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
0	2.41034704 0.10898686 0.0001 -1.11652 0.2667
1	0.2667 2.60886430 0.12221889 0.0001
Relational Receptivity	Trust
PARENT	$\label{eq:mreca} \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
0	1.91123943 0.08964041 0.0001 -1.24222 0.2168
1	2.09289974 0.10052360 0.0001

Relational Composure MCOMPA Std Err $Pr \ge T$: $T / Pr \ge T'$ H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.10124348 0.09325494 0.0001 -1.90688 0.0592 1 2.39134721 0.10457697 0.0001 **Relational Formality** PARENT **MFORMA** Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.44088770 0.12955211 0.0001 1.014176 0.3127 I 5.22654113 0.14528095 0.0001 Relational Dominance PARENT 3.79869827 0.10201535 0.0001 -1.12248 0 0.2641 3.98550925 0.11440097 0.0001 1 **Relational Equality** PARENT MEQUA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 2.13802903 0.09969766 0 0.0001 -2.14654 0.0340 2.48715523 0.11180189 0.0001 1 Relational Task Orientation $\label{eq:parent_product} PARENT \qquad MTASKA \qquad Std Err \quad Pr \geq |T| \quad T \ / \ Pr \geq |T| \ H0;$ LSMEAN LSMEAN HOLSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.99648447 0.10142776 0.0001 0.681406 0.4971 2.88373314 0.11374204 0.0001 1

Immunicative Competence PARENT MCCSA Sid Err Pr > T: T. / Pr > T: H0: LSMEANI-LSMEANI-LSMEAN2 0 1.90652428 0.0558223 0.0001 -3.64524 0 1.22.6338889 0.07259668 0.0001 numinative Satisfaction PARENT MCSA Sid Err Pr > T: T: Pr > T: H0: LSMEANI-LSMEAN-0 LSMEANI-LSMEAN2 0 5.22678019 0.11404509 0.0001 LS90130 0.0611 1 4.90601504 0.12567157 0.0001 1.630131 1 4.90601504 0.12567157 0.0001 1.63874 0 2.66421569 0.07905905 0.0001 -1.53874 0 2.66421569 0.07905905 0.0001 -0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 -0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 -1.53874 0 5.15441176 0.06696858 0.0001 4.631644 0 5.15441176 0.06696858 0.0001 -4.031641 1 4.69285714 0.07379578		IANOVA (OVERALL-5 DV'S) Least Squares Means General Linear Models Procedure Least Squares Means
PARENT MCCSA Std Err Pr > T: T Pr > T: Comparison Compari	municative Com	Detence
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		MCCSA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0:
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	0	
PARENT MCSA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN=1 LSMEAN2 0 5.22678019 0.11404509 0.0001 1.890139 0.0611 1 4.90601504 0.12567157 0.0001 0.0611 1 4.90601504 0.12567157 0.0001 ftal Quality PARENT MQMIA Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T) H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1-LSMEAN2 0 2.66421569 0.07905905 0.0001 -1.53874 0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 -0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 -0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 -0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 -0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 -0.1265 1 2.84523810 0.06696858 0.0001 4.631644 0.0001 1 4.69285714 0.07379578 0.0001 -0.125MEAN1=LSMEAN2 0	1	2.26388889 0.07259868 0.0001
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		MCSA Std Err $Pr > T$ $T / Pr > T$ H0:
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	0	
PARENT MQMIA Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1-LSMEAN2 0 2.66421569 0.07905905 0.0001 -1.53874 0 2.66421569 0.08711883 0.0001 -1.53874 0 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 dic Adjustment PARENT MRDASA Std Err Pr > T T / Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.15441176 0.06696858 0.0001 4.631644 0 5.15441176 0.06696858 0.0001 4.631644 0 0.15441176 0.07379578 0.0001 4.631644 0 0.07379578 0.0001 4.631644 0 0.07379578 0.0001 4.631644 0 1 MRCSA Std Err Pr > T : T / Pr > T : H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.67144907 0.08391302 0.0001 -3.04281 0.0029 0.001 -3.04281 0.0029 <	1	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	• •	
1 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 flic Adjustment PARENT MRDASA LSMEAN Std Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T! H0: LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.15441176 0.06696858 0.0001 4.631644 0.0001 1 4.69285714 0.07379578 0.0001 tional Communication PARENT MRCSA LSMEAN Std Err Pr > T: T ' Pr > T' H0: LSMEAN 0 2.67144907 0.08391302 0.0001 -3.04281 0.0029	0	
PARENT MRDASA Std Err $Pr > T$; $T / Pr > T$; $H0$: 0 5.15441176 0.06696858 0.0001 4.631644 0 0.07379578 0.0001 1 4.69285714 0.07379578 0.0001 tional Communication PARENT MRCSA Std Err $Pr > T$; $T / Pr > T$; $H0$: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0: LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.67144907 0.08391302 0.0001 -3.04281 0.00029 0.0029 0.0029	ĩ	
0.0001 1 4.69285714 0.07379578 0.0001 tional Communication PARENT MRCSA Std Err Pr > T: T Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.67144907 0.08391302 0.0001 -3.04281 0.0029		
1 4.69285714 0.07379578 0.0001 tional Communication PARENT MRCSA Std Err Pr > T: T Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.67144907 0.08391302 0.0001 -3.04281 0.0029	0	
PARENT MRCSA Std Err Pr > T: T: Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.67144907 0.08391302 0.0001 -3.04281 0.0029	1	
0.0029		MRCSA Std Err $Pr > T$ T $Pr > T$ HO:
	0	
	1	

Table 13: MANOVA (OVERALL-13 DV'S) Least Squares Means General Linear Models Procedure Least Squares Means Communicative Competence PARENT MCCSA Std Err Pr > T' T / Pr > T' H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 1.90652428 0.06588223 0.0001 -3.64524 0.0004 2.26388889 0.07259868 0.0001 ۱ Communicative Satisfaction PARENT MCSA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEANI=LSMEAN2 ۵ 5.22678019 0.11404509 0.0001 1.890139 0.0611 4.90601504 0.12567157 0.0001 1 Marital Quality PARENT LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.66421569 0.07905905 0.0001 -1.53874 0 1265 2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001 Ŧ Dvadie Consensus PARENT MCONSA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 0 5.12009804 0.07080449 0.0001 3.653923 0.0004 4.73511905 0.07802274 0.0001 1 **Dvadic Satisfaction** $MSATA \qquad Std \ Err \qquad Pr \geq \langle T \rangle \quad T \mid Pr \geq \langle T \rangle H0;$ PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.20588235 0.08808373 0.0001 4.397695 0.0001 4.62946429 0.09706354 0.0001 1 Relational Immediacy/Affection PARENT MIMMA Std Err $Pr \ge T' = T / Pr \ge T' H0$: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.30882353 0.14309450 0.0001 -2.50055 0.0137 1 2.84126984 0.15768246 0.0001 Relational Similarity/Depth Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T \neq Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT MSIMA LSMEAN LSMEAN HOLSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2,30882353 0.15221637 0.0001 -1.86892 0.0640 2.73214286 0.16773427 0.0001 1 Relational Receptivity/Trust PARENT MRECA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEANI=LSMEAN2 0 1.81127451 0.12387982 0.0001 -2.18625 0.0307 2.21428571 0.13650891 1 0.0001

Relational Composure PARENT MCOMPA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 1.89117647 0.13710834 0.0001 -3.70179 0.0003 2.64642857 0.15108603 0.0001 1 **Relational Formality** PARENT $\textbf{MFORMA} \qquad \textbf{Std Err} \qquad \textbf{Pr} \geq (\textbf{T}) \quad \textbf{T} \in \textbf{Pr} \geq (\textbf{T}) \textbf{H0};$ LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.5000000 0.14319302 0.0001 1.620243 0.1078 1 5.15476190 0.15779102 0.0001 **Relational Dominance** PARENT MDOMA Std Err $Pr \ge (T) - T / Pr \ge (T) H0$: LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 0 3.83333333 0.12778235 0.0001 -0.57913 0.5636 1 3.94345238 0.14080929 0.0001 **Relational Equality** Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT MEOUA LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 0 2.00980392 0.15866586 0.0001 -2.68127 0.0083 1 2.64285714 0.17484127 0.0001 **Relational Task Orientation** PARENT $\textbf{MTASKA} \qquad \textbf{Std Err} \quad \textbf{Pr} \geq \textbf{T}; \quad \textbf{T} \quad \textbf{Pr} \geq \textbf{T}; \quad \textbf{H0};$ LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.83823529 0.11854629 0.0001 -1.34725 0.1804 1 3.07589286 0.13063165 0.0001

Table 14: Repeated Measures MANOVA (each independent factor) Least Squares Means

Communicative Com PARENT	petence MCCSA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.90652428 0.06588223 0.0001 -3.64524 0.0004
I	2.26388889 0.07259868 0.0001
PARENT	MCCSB Std Err Pr > TF T Pr > TF H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.00000000 0.06171258 0.0001 -2.19951 0.0297
I	2.20198413 0.06800395 0.0001
Communicative Satist	faction MCSA SudErr Pr > T T Pr > T H0:
FARENT	
	LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.22678019 0.11404509 0.0001 1.890139 0.0611
I	4.90601504 0.12567157 0.0001
PARENT	MCSB Std Err Pr > T' T' Pr > T' H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.02089783 0.10905242 0.0001 0.354657 0.7235
I	4.96334586 0.12016992 0.0001
Marital Quality PARENT	MQMIB Std Err $Pr \ge T = T / Pr \ge T$ H0:
	LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1≈LSMEAN2
0	2.65441176 0.08364358 0.0001 -1.17449 0.2425
1	2.80059524 0.09217074 0.0001
PARENT	MQMIA Std Err Pr > T. T / Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.66421569 0.07905905 0.0001 -1.53874 0.1265
1	2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001
Dyadic Consensus PARENT	MCONSB Std Err Pr > 17: T / Pr > 17: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.08823529 0.06950174 0.0001 3.155333 0.0020
1	4.76190476 0.07658719 0.0001
PARENT	MCONSA SIdErr Pr > (T: T / Pr > (T) H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.12009804 0.07080449 0.0001 3.653923 0.0004
1	4.73511905 0.07802274 0.0001
Dyadic Satisfaction	
PARENT	MSATB SUCET PT > [T] T / PT > [T] HO: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2

0 5.15073529 0.09354000 0.0001 4.001562 0.0001 I 4.59375000 0.10307606 0.0001 MSATA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HOLSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.20588235 0.08808373 0.0001 4.397695 0.0001 4.62946429 0.09706354 1 0.0001 Relational Immediacy/Affection PARENT MIMMB Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEANI=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 0 2.30555556 0.14949391 0.0001 -1.30221 0.1953 2.59523810 0.16473426 1 0.0001 PARENT MIMMA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 2.30882353 0.14309450 0 0.0001 -2.50055 0.0137 1 2.84126984 0.15768246 0.0001 Relational Similarity/Depth PARENT MSIMB Std Err $Pr \ge T$ T $Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.27058824 0.13756664 0.0001 -1.39984 0.1641 2.55714286 0.15159105 0.0001 1 Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT MSIMA LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 2.30882353 0.15221637 0 0.0001 -1.86892 0.0640 1 2.73214286 0.16773427 0.0001 Relational Receptivity/Trust PARENT MRECB Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 1.82107843 0.11896594 0.0001 -1.17882 0.2408 2.02976190 0.13109408 1 0.0001 PARENT MRECA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 1.81127451 0.12387982 0.0001 -2.18625 0.0307 1 2.21428571 0.13650891 0 0001 Relational Composure PARENT MCOMPB Std Err $Pr \ge |T| - T / Pr \ge |T|$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 1.89117647 0.13979239 0.0001 -3.28733 0.0013 2.57500000 0.15404371 1 0.0001 PARENT Std Err $Pr \ge |T| - T / Pr \ge |T|$ H0: MCOMPA LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 1.89117647 0.13710834 0.0001 -3.70179 0.0003

1	2.64642857	0.15108603	0.0001	
Relational Formality PARENT		Std Err Pr LSMEAN H		r ≥iTi H0: N≠0 - LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.48529412	0.15307052	0.0001	1.999911 0.0477
1	5.0 297619 0	0.16867550	0.0001	
PARENT		Sud Err Pr LSMEAN F		ץ > 171 H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.50000000	0.14319302	0.0001	1.620243 0.1078
1	5.15476190	0.15779102	0.0001	
Relational Dominance PARENT	MDOMB	Std Err Pr - LSMEAN I		r > 17; H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	3.78431373	0.13798347	0.0001	0.674442 0.5013
1	3.64583333	0.15205038	0.0001	0.3013
PARENT	MDOMA LSMEAN			r > T: H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	3.83333333	0.12778235	0.0001	-0.57913 0.5636
I	3.94345238	0.14080929	0.0001	
Relational Equality PARENT	-	Std Err Pr > LSMEAN H		> Ti H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.03921569	0.16732782	0.0001	-1.56373 0.1205
1	2.42857143	0.18438628	0.0001	0.1205
PARENT		Std Err Pr > LSMEAN F		> (T: H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
o	2.00980392	0.15866586	0.0001	-2.68127 0.0083
1	2.64285714	0.17484127	0.0001	
Relational Task Orienta PARENT	tion MTASKB LSMEAN	Std Err Pr LSMEAN H		r > Ti H0: N=0 LSMEAN1≈LSMEAN2
0	2.97794118	0.11848540	0.0001	-0.8594 0. 3 918
1	3.12946429	0.13056455	0.0001	0.9710
PARENT	MTASKA LSMEAN	Std Err Pr > LSMEAN H		-> (T) H0: N=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.83823529	0.11854629	0.0001	-1.34725 0.1804
I	3.07589286	0.13063165	0.0001	

Table 15: Repeated Measures MANOVA (OVERALL) Least Squares Means

POSTTEST MEASURES

PARENT	MCCSA Std Err Pr > T: T: Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.90652428 0.06588223 0.0001 -3.64524 0.0004
I	2.26388889 0.07259868 0.0001
PARENT	MCSA Std Err Pr > (T T / Pr > T H0; LSMEAN LSMEAN H0;LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.22678019 0.11404509 0.0001 1.890139 0.0611
I	4.90601504 0.12567157 0.0001
PARENT	MQMIA Std Err Pr > T' T / Pr > T' H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.66421569 0.07905905 0.0001 -1.53874 0.1265
1	2.84523810 0.08711883 0.0001
PARENT	MCONSA Std Err Pr ~ T T Pr ~ T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.12009804 0.07080449 0.0001 3.653923 0.0004
1	4.73511905 0.07802274 0.0001
PARENT	MSATA SIdErr Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	5.20588235 0.08808373 0.0001 4.397695 0.0001
I	4.62946429 0.09706354 0.0001
PARENT	MIMMA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.30882353 0.14309450 0.0001 -2.50055 0.0137
1	2.84126984 0.15768246 0.0001
PARENT	MSIMA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	2.30882353 0.15221637 0.0001 -1.86892 0.0640
I	2.73214286 0.16773427 0.0001
PARENT	MRECA Std Err Pr > (T: T / Pr > (T: H0) LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.81127451 0.12387982 0.0001 -2.18625 0.0307
1	2.21428571 0.13650891 0.0001
PARENT	MCOMPA SId Err Pr > T: T / Pr > T: H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2
0	1.89117647 0.13710834 0.0001 -3.70179 0.0003
1	2.64642857 0.15108603 0.0001

MFORMA Std Err $Pr \ge T$: T / $Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.5000000 0.14319302 0.0001 1.620243 0.1078 5.15476190 0.15779102 0.0001 1 PARENT MDOMA Std Err $Pr \ge T_i - T + Pr \ge T_i H0$: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 3.83333333 0.12778235 0.0001 -0.57913 0.5636 3.94345238 0.14080929 0.0001 1 PARENT MEQUA Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.00980392 0.15866586 0.0001 -2.68127 0.0083 t 2.64285714 0.17484127 0.0001 PARENT MTASKA Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 2.83823529 0.11854629 0.0001 -1.34725 0 0.1804 3.07589286 0.13063165 0.0001 1 PRETEST MEASURES PARENT $\textbf{MCCSB} \qquad \textbf{Std Err} \qquad \textbf{Pr} \geq \textbf{T} \quad \textbf{T} \quad \textbf{Pr} \geq \textbf{T} | \textbf{H0};$ LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.0000000 0.06171258 0.0001 -2.19951 0.0297 2.20198413 0.06800395 0.0001 1 MCSB Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 5.02089783 0.10905242 0.0001 0.354657 0 0.7235 4.96334586 0.12016992 0.0001 1 PARENT Std Err Pr > T T' Pr > T' H0: MQMIB LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.65441176 0.08364358 0.0001 -1.17449 0.2425 2.80059524 0.09217074 0.0001 1 PARENT MCONSB Std Err Pr > T T Pr > T H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 5.08823529 0.06950174 0.0001 3.155333 0 0.0020 4.76190476 0.07658719 0.0001 1 PARENT MSATB Std Err Pr > |T| = T / Pr > |T| H0: LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 5.15073529 0.09354000 0.0001 4.001562 0 0.0001 4.59375000 0.10307606 0.0001 L Std Err Pr > |T| = T / Pr > |T| H0: PARENT MIMMB LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 LSMEAN 0 2.30555556 0.14949391 0.0001 -1.30221

0.1953 2.59523810 0.16473426 1 0.0001 PARENT MSIMB Std Err $Pr \ge T$ T $Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.27058824 0.13756664 0.0001 -1.39984 0.1641 2.55714286 0.15159105 1 0.0001 PARENT 0 1.82107843 0.11896594 0.0001 -1.17882 0.2408 1 2.02976190 0.13109408 0.0001 MCOMPB Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 1.89117647 0.13979239 0.0001 -3.28733 0 0.0013 2.57500000 0.15404371 0.0001 1 PARENT MFORMB Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T / Pr \ge T$ H0: LSMEAN LSMEAN H0:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 5.48529412 0.15307052 0.0001 1.999911 0.0477 5.02976190 0.16867550 I 0.0001 MDOMB Std Err $Pr \ge T$ $T \ge Pr \ge T$ H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 3.78431373 0.13798347 0.0001 0.674442 0.5013 3.64583333 0.15205038 0.0001 1 $\label{eq:MEQUB} MEQUB \qquad \text{Std} \ \text{Err} \qquad Pr \geq |T| \quad T \quad Pr \geq |T| \ \text{Ho};$ PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HOLSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 0 2.03921569 0.16732782 0.0001 -1.56373 0.1205 2.42857143 0.18438628 0.0001 1 MTASKB Std Err Pr > T T / Pr > T H0: PARENT LSMEAN LSMEAN HO:LSMEAN=0 LSMEAN1=LSMEAN2 2.97794118 0.11848540 0.0001 -0.8594 0 0.3918 3.12946429 0.13056455 0.0001 1

Table 16: Correlation Analysis between Husbands and Wives

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / N = 62 MHCCSB MWCCSB MHCSB MWCSB MHQMIB MWQMIB MHRDASB MHCCSB 1.00000 0.41098 -0.57444 -0.42667 0.24270 0.34170 -0.60470 0.0009 0.0001 0.0005 0.0573 0.0066 00 0 0001 MWCCSB 0.41098 1.00000 -0.44403 -0.73528 0.33435 0.59911 -0.48730 0.0009 0.0 0.0003 0.0001 0.0079 0.0001 0.0001 MHCSB -0.57444 -0.44403 1.00000 0.47462 -0.29144 -0.43755 0.52102 0.0001 0.0003 0.0 0.0001 0.0215 0.0004 0.0001 -0.42667 -0.73528 0.47462 1.00000 -0.34860 -0.51553 0.40190 MWCSB 0.0005 0.0001 0.0001 0.0 0.0055 0.0001 0.0012 MHOMIB 0.24270 0.33435 -0.29144 -0.34860 1.00000 0.60291 -0.46032 0.0573 0.0079 0.0215 0.0055 0.0 0.0001 0.0002 MWQMIB 0.34170 0.59911 -0.43755 -0.51553 0.60291 1.00000 -0.57479 0.0066 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0 MHRDASB -0.60470 -0.48730 0.52102 0.40190 -0.46032 -0.57479 1.00000 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0012 0.0002 0.0001 0.0 MWRDASB -0.38355 -0.67070 0.43615 0.57022 -0.49291 -0.76157 0.66515 0.0021 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 MHRCSB 0.61093 0.28159 -0.65839 -0.26900 0.39519 0.33026 -0.64154 0.0001 0.0266 0.0001 0.0345 0.0015 0.0088 0.0001 0.37345 0.75212 -0.52429 -0.75150 0.40704 0.67038 -0.39551 MWRCSB 0.0028 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0010 0.0001 0.0015 MHCCSA 0.65260 0.51389 -0.69682 -0.45211 0.26153 0.33266 -0.53013 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0002 0.0400 0.0082 0.0001 MWCCSA 0.47883 0.89306 -0.43711 -0.65573 0.23965 0.54660 -0.54270 0.0001 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0606 0.0001 0 0001 MHCSA -0.41974 -0.33346 0.85689 0.39355 -0.26219 -0.31639 0.47125 0.0007 0.0081 0.0001 0.0016 0.0395 0.0122 0.0001 MWCSA -0.50108 -0.65388 0.55029 0.77188 -0.18821 -0.40260 0.40837 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.1429 0.0012 0.0010 MHQMIA 0.17774 0.45833 -0.57504 -0.32619 0.37050 0.31904 -0.40765 0.1670 0.0002 0.0001 0.0097 0.0030 0.0115 0.0010 MHCCSB MWCCSB MHCSB MWCSB MHQMIB MWQMIB MHRDASB MWQMIA 0.42396 0.58649 -0.46169 -0.51400 0.34448 0.71616 -0.58951 0.0006 0.0001 0.0002 0.0001 0.0061 0.0001 0.0001 MHRDASA -0.46172 -0.52433 0.60874 0.36711 -0.33678 -0.45604 0.78062 0.0002 0.0001 0.0001 0.0033 0.0074 0.0002 0.0001 MWRDASA -0.44701 -0.57008 0.49283 0.51096 -0.34702 -0.62074 0.71886 0.0003 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0057 0.0001 0.0001 MHRCSA 0.46324 0.34488 -0.73626 -0.26995 0.19156 0.45233 -0.57562 0.0001 0.0060 0.0001 0.0338 0.1358 0.0002 0.0001

MWRCSA 0.52052 0.67018 -0.51193 -0.65058 0.23422 0.52012 -0.46438 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0669 0.0001 0.0001 MWRDASB MHRCSB MWRCSB MHCCSA MWCCSA MHCSA MWCSA

MHCCSB -0.38355 0.61093 0.37345 0.65260 0.47883 -0.41974 -0.50108 0.0021 0.0001 0.0028 0.0001 0.0001 0.0007 0.0001

MWCCSB -0.67070 0.28159 0.75212 0.51389 0.89306 -0.33346 -0.65388 0.0001 0.0266 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0081 0.0001

MHCSB 0.43615 -0.65839 -0.52429 -0.69682 -0.43711 0.85689 0.55029 0.0004 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0001

MWCSB 0.57022 -0.26900 -0.75150 -0.45211 -0.65573 0.39355 0.77188 0.0001 0.0345 0.0001 0.0002 0.0001 0.0016 0.0001

MHQMIB -0.49291 0.39519 0.40704 0.26153 0.23965 -0.26219 -0.18821 0.0001 0.0015 0.0010 0.0400 0.0606 0.0395 0.1429

MWQMLB -0.76157 0.33026 0.67038 0.33266 0.54660 -0.31639 -0.40260 0.0001 0.0088 0.0001 0.0082 0.0001 0.0122 0.0012

MHRDASB 0.66515 -0.64154 -0.39551 -0.53013 -0.54270 0.47125 0.40837 0.0001 0.0001 0.0015 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001

MWRDASB 1.00000 -0.38143 -0.69929 -0.42760 -0.66482 0.33277 0.55018 0.0 0.0022 0.0001 0.0005 0.0001 0.0082 0.0001

MHRCSB -0.38143 1.00000 0.35282 0.60347 0.36349 -0.62413 -0.39366 0.0022 0.0 0.0049 0.0001 0.0037 0.0001 0.0015

MWRCSB -0.69929 0.35282 1.00000 0.48081 0.71526 -0.43775 -0.67646 0.0001 0.0049 0.0 0.0001 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001

MHCCSA -0.42760 0.60347 0.48081 1.00000 0.58355 -0.76519 -0.61688 0.0005 0.0001 0.0001 0.0 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001

MWCCSA -0.66482 0.36349 0.71526 0.58355 1.00006 -0.41024 -0.74857 0.0001 0.0037 0.0001 0.0001 0.0 0.0009 0.0001

MHCSA 0.33277 -0.62413 -0.43775 -0.76519 -0.41024 1.00000 0.51894 0.0082 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0009 0.0 0.0001

MWCSA 0.55018 -0.39366 -0.67646 -0.61688 -0.74857 0.51894 1.00000 0.0001 0.0015 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0

MHQMIA -0.34120 0.40329 0.39448 0.59872 0.46672 -0.60464 -0.42915 0.0066 0.0012 0.0015 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0005

MWRDASB MHRCSB MWRCSB MHCCSA MWCCSA MHCSA MWCSA

MWQMIA -0.59480 0.42706 0.63781 0.39127 0.65455 -0.39455 -0.56065 0.0001 0.0005 0.0001 0.0017 0.0001 0.0015 0.0001

MHRDASA 0.58774 -0.63299 -0.43273 -0.77064 -0.61299 0.69138 0.53650 0.0001 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001

MWRDASA 0.86320 -0.47793 -0.58700 -0.47982 -0.65701 0.43285 0.62879 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001

MHRCSA -0.48213 0.72663 0.37886 0.69287 0.44577 -0.75596 -0.46763 0.0001 0.0001 0.0024 0.0001 0.0003 0.0001 0.0001

MWRCSA -0.64454 0.44732 0.85179 0.50795 0.72425 -0.43456 -0.74724 0.0001 0.0003 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001

MHQMIA MWQMIA MHRDASA MWRDASA MHRCSA MWRCSA

MHCCSB 0.17774 0.42396 -0.46172 -0.44701 0.46324 0.52052 0.1670 0.0006 0.0002 0.0003 0.0001 0.0001

MWCCSB 0.45833 0.58649 -0.52433 -0.57008 0.34488 0.67018 0.0002 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0060 0.0001 MHCSB -0.57504 -0.46169 0.60874 0.49283 -0.73626 -0.51193 0.0001 0.0002 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 MWCSB -0.32619 -0.51400 0.36711 0.51096 -0.26995 -0.65058 0.0097 0.0001 0.0033 0.0001 0.0338 0.0001 MHQMIB 0.37050 0.34448 -0.33678 -0.34702 0.19156 0.23422 0.0030 0.0061 0.0074 0.0057 0.1358 0.0669 MWQMIB 0.31904 0.71616 -0.45604 -0.62074 0.45233 0.52012 0.0115 0.0001 0.0002 0.0001 0.0002 0.0001 MHRDASB -0.40765 -0.58951 0.78062 0.71886 -0.57562 -0.46438 0.0010 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 MWRDASB -0.34120 -0.59480 0.58774 0.86320 -0.48213 -0.64454 0.0066 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 MHRCSB 0.40329 0.42706 -0.63299 -0.47793 0.72663 0.44732 0.0012 0.0005 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0003 MWRCSB 0.39448 0.63781 -0.43273 -0.58700 0.37886 0.85179 0.0015 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0024 0.0001 MHCCSA 0.59872 0.39127 -0.77064 -0.47982 0.69287 0.50795 0.0001 0.0017 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 MWCCSA 0.46672 0.65455 -0.61299 -0.65701 0.44577 0.72425 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0003 0.0001 MHCSA -0.60464 -0.39455 0.69138 0.43285 -0.75596 -0.43456 0.0001 0.0015 0.0001 0.0004 0.0001 0.0004 MWCSA -0.42915 -0.56065 0.53650 0.62879 -0.46763 -0.74724 0.0005 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 MHQMIA 1.00000 0.51823 -0.67818 -0.41735 0.52348 0.34347 0.0001 0.0001 0.0007 0.0001 0.0063 0.0 MHQMIA MWQMIA MHRDASA MWRDASA MHRCSA MWRCSA MWQMIA 0.51823 1.00000 -0.55813 -0.64871 0.45841 0.67434 0.0001 0.0 0.0001 0.0001 0.0002 0.0001 MHRDASA -0.67818 -0.55813 1.00000 0.66454 -0.73192 -0.49650 0.0001 0.0001 0.0 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 MWRDASA -0.41735 -0.64871 0.66454 1.00000 -0.60091 -0.67352 0.0007 0.0001 0.0001 0.0 0.0001 0.0001 MHRCSA 0.52348 0.45841 -0.73192 -0.60091 1.00000 0.44013 0.0001 0.0002 0.0001 0.0001 0.0 0.0003 MWRCSA 0.34347 0.67434 -0.49650 -0.67352 0.44013 1.00000 0.0063 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0003 0.0

FIGURES

Figure 1: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Communicative Competence and Presence of Parent

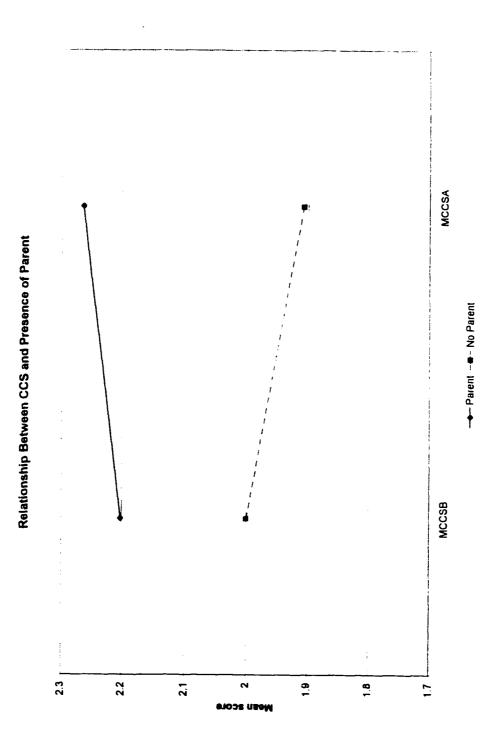


Figure 2: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Communicative Satisfaction and Presence of Parent

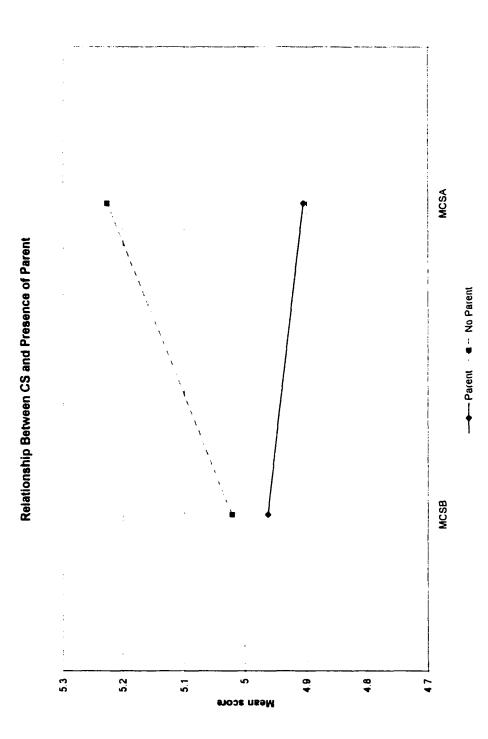


Figure 3: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Marital Quality and Presence of Parent

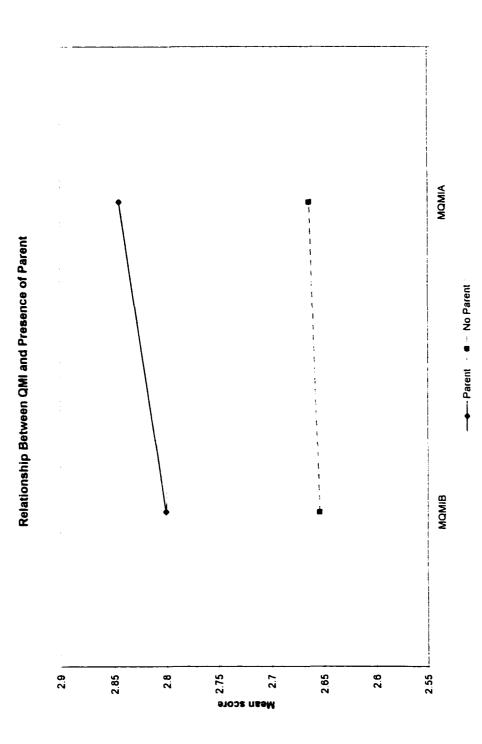


Figure 4: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Dyadic Consensus and Presence of Parent

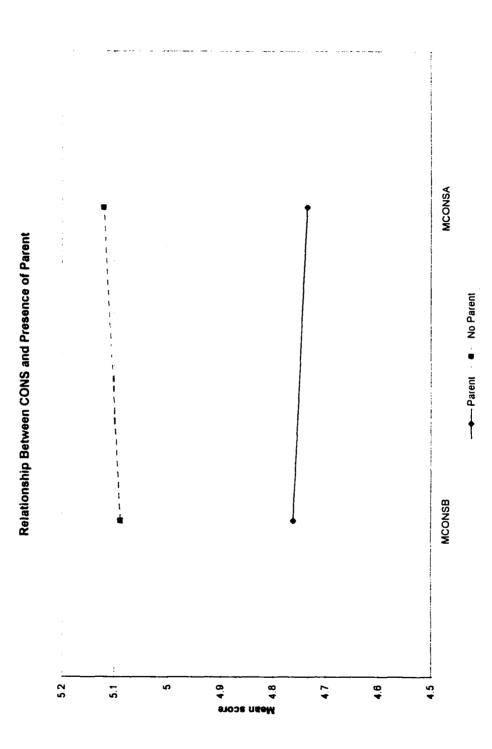


Figure 5: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Dyadic Satisfaction and Presence of Parent

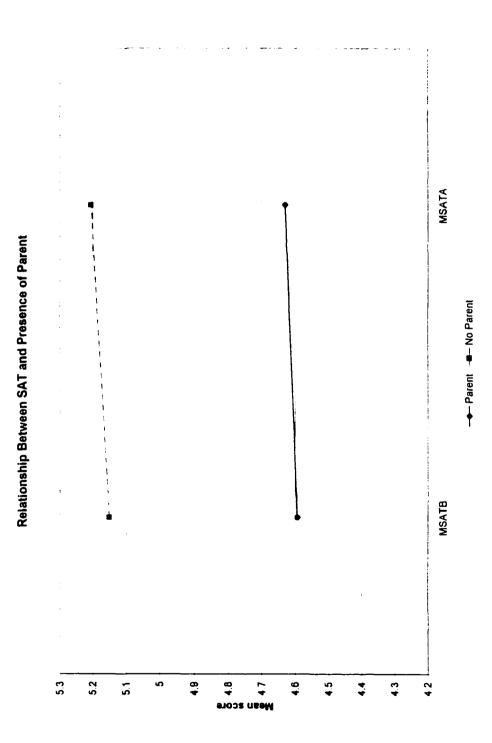


Figure 6: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Immediacy/Affection and Presence of Parent

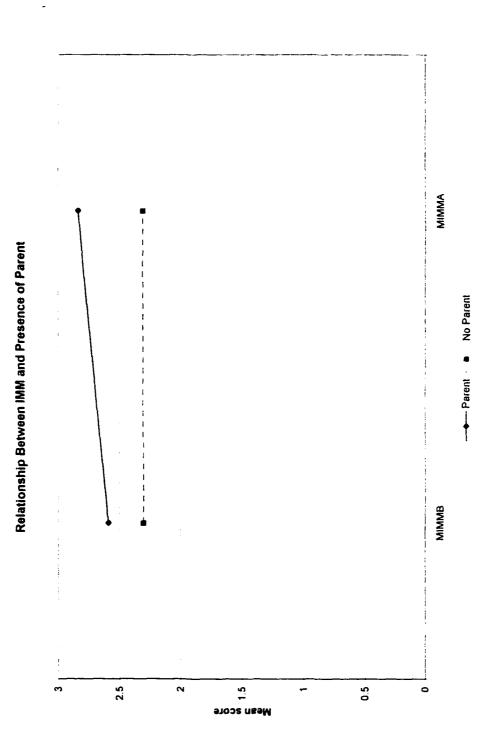


Figure 7: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Similarity/Depth and Presence of Parent

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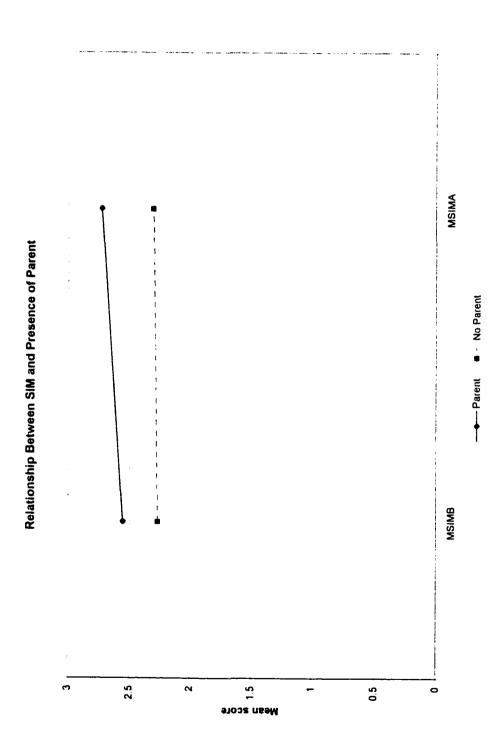


Figure 8: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Receptivity/Trust and Presence of Parent

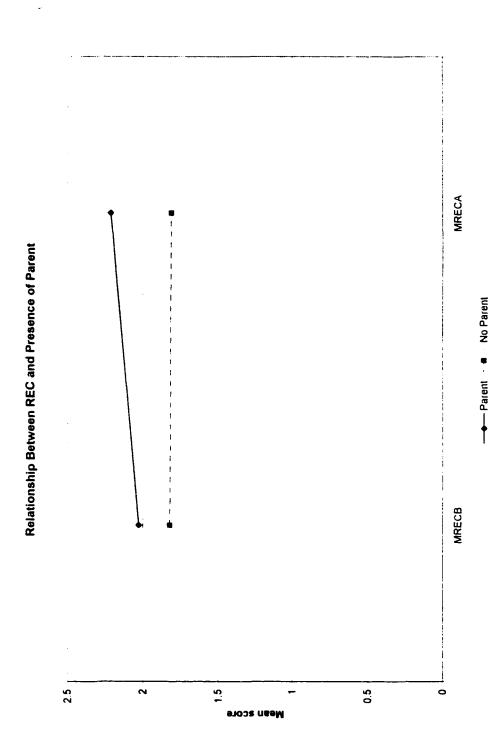


Figure 9: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Composure and Presence of Parent

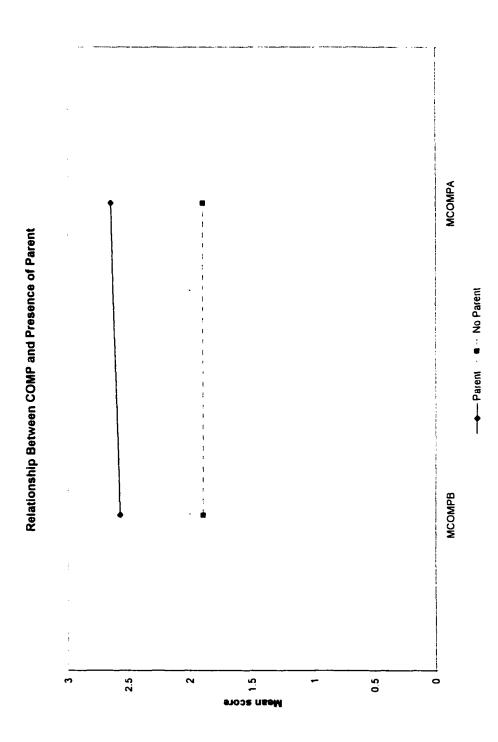


Figure 10: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Formality and Presence of Parent

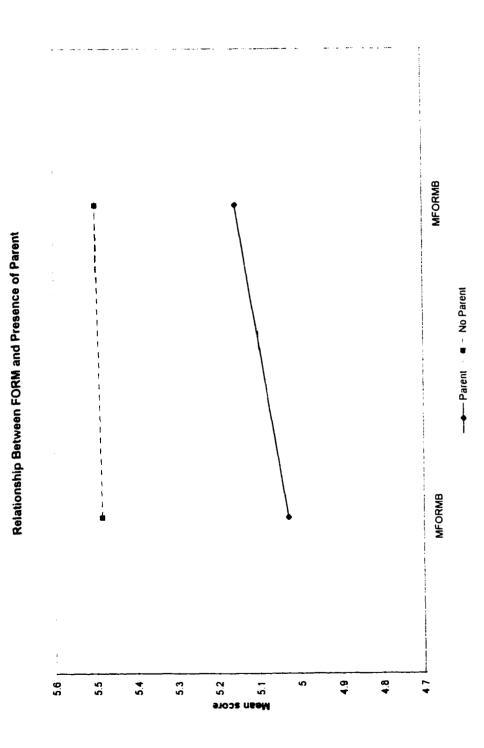
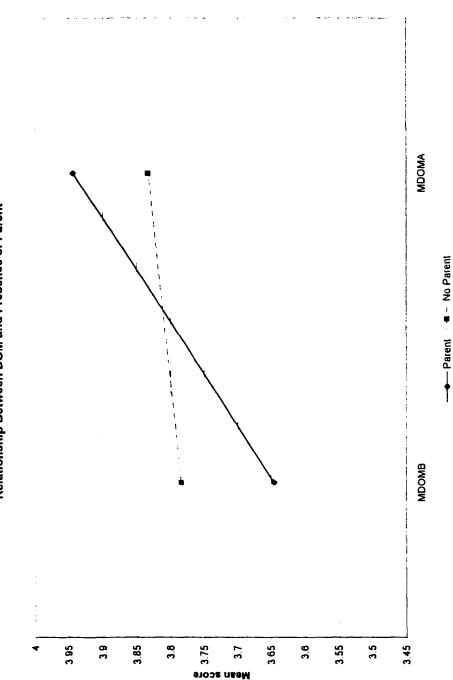


Figure 11: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Dominance and Presence of Parent



Relationship Between DOM and Presence of Parent

Figure 12: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Equality and Presence of Parent

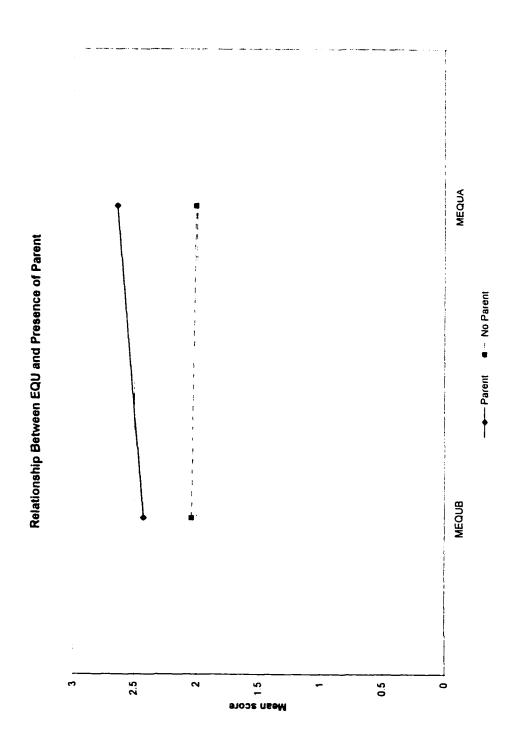
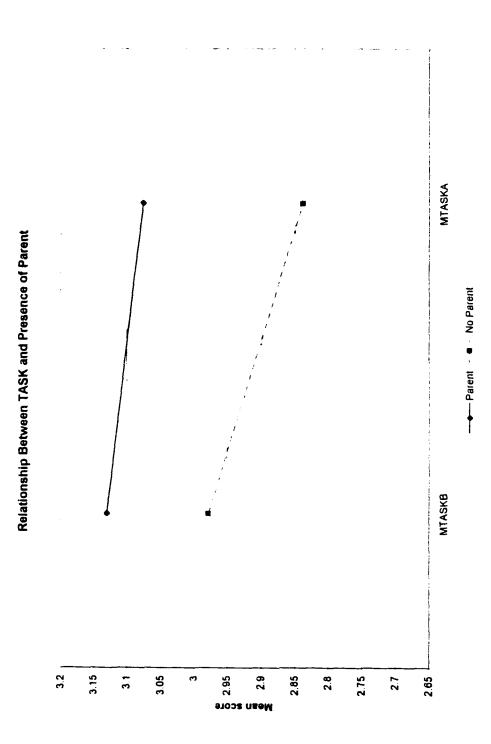


Figure 13: REPEATED MEASURES MANOVA-Relationship between Relational Task Orientation and Presence of Parent



APPENDICES

Appendix A Treatment Group Cover Letter (Parent Group)

Dear Madam or Sir:

I am a doctoral candidate on staff at the University of Oklahoma Department of Communication and I would like to invite you to participate in a research study that I am conducting for my doctoral dissertation. The purpose of my study is to examine the influence of a third party on the adult marital relationship. You are eligible to participate in this study because you are at least 50 years of age and you have been married for at least 25 years. In addition, your parent (or parent in law) is 65 years of age or older and has been living with you for at least one year.

Adult marital couples who participate in the study will be asked to meet with one of the members of my research team for a face-toface interview. We simply want to learn more about your experiences living with your adult parent. The adult marital relationship has been the focus of considerable research attention. However, much of the research has centered on the earlier stages of the marital relationship and therefore little is known about adult marital relationships. Furthermore, little is known about the influence of other family members on the adult marital relationship. The interview should take between 45 minutes and 1-½ hours and will be arranged at a time and place that is convenient for you. At the time of the interview you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire that will tell us about your family history, such as length of time your parent has lived with you, the age of your family member, the age of any children you may have, and your age. The questionnaire will be used as an "ice breaker" so we can move more quickly into the purpose of the interview.

I need your assistance. Because your parent is living with you at a later stage in your life, you can provide valuable data that will aid in the study. These data will provide the basis for my doctoral dissertation research. If you are interested in sharing your experiences with the research team or if you would like more information about the study before you decide, please complete the page attached to this letter and return it to a member of the staff. The information will be sent to me and I will personally call you to discuss the project. We have established these procedures in order to protect your privacy. You are the only one who can give permission to have your name, address, and phone number forwarded to me as a prospective participant in the study.

I am extremely interested to learn more about how adult marital couples are managing caring for an older adult parent who is living with them. Balancing the role of spouse and caretaker must be difficult at times. Learning how adult couples manage their relationships while caring for their aging parents will help us better understand the impact of a third party on the adult marital relationship. I hope you will consider sharing your story with me.

Sincerely.

Lisa Sparks Bethea University of Oklahoma

Consent to release information to Lisa Sparks Bethea of the University of Oklahoma Department of Communication

Mr./Mrs./Ms.:

I have been asked to participate in this study because I have been married for at least 25 years and I am over 50 years of age. In addition, my parent (or m-law) is over the age of 65 and has lived with my spouse and me for at least a year.

I agree to be interviewed. I understand that I will also be asked to fill out a short questionnaire about my family history, such as length of time your parent has lived with you, the age of your family member, the age of any children you may have, and your age. The time required for the questionnaire and interview should take between 45 minutes and $1-\frac{1}{2}$ hours, depending on the amount of information 1 have to share with the interviewer.

I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary, and that even after the interview begins. I can refuse to answer any specific questions or decide to terminate the interview at any point. I have been told that my answers to questions will not be given to anyone else and no report of this study will ever identify me in any way. I understand that there is no risk involved and that I will not receive any direct benefit from my participation. I have also been informed that my participation, nonparticipation, or my refusal to answer any questions will have no effect on my legal rights. This consent does not release any individual or institution from liability for negligence.

If I have any questions about this study, I will contact Lisa Sparks Bethea at 405-325-3003 ext.21134 or by e-mail: <u>bethea/a.sprvnet.com</u>.

Do you understand this information? Do you freely consent to participate in this study under the conditions described?

Please Print:			
Name: Address:			
Phone: Dav:			-
	Evening:	······	
Signature:		Date:	

Thank you for your willingness to be a participant in this study!

Appendix B The Triadic Relationship Questionnaire

The impact of third parties on the marital relationship has received little research attention. Little is known about how older parents who move in with their adult child and his or her spouse affects the adult marital relationship.

In this study, I am interested in the effect of your parent on your relationship with your spouse (whether this parent is your biological parent, stepparent, or adopted you as his or her child).

This questionnaire contains three parts. Part one asks general questions about you. Part two asks questions regarding the relationship between you and your spouse before your parent moved into your home. Part three asks questions regarding the relationship between you and your spouse after your parent moved into your home.

ft will take you approximately 45 minutes to 1-1/2 hours to complete this questionnaire

Your Responses Will Be Held in Strict Confidence

Part One

This section of the questionnaire contains general questions. You are answering questions concerning the "parent" or "parent in-law" whom has moved into your household.

- 1. Please indicate whether the parent (or in-law) living with you is your (or your spouse's) biological parent, step-parent, or parent who adopted you earlier in life.
 - **Biological Parent** Stepparent Parent who adopted
- 2. Please indicate whether the parent (or in-law) is your (or your spouse's) father or your mother.

Father Mother

3. What is your ethnicity (race)? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Caucasian	Hispanic-American
African-American	Native American
Asian-American	Other (specify)

4. What is the ethnicity (race) of your parent? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Caucasian	Hispanic-American
African-American	Native American
Asian-American	Other (specify)

5. What is your gender? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Female

6 How many children do you have? (include biological, stepchildren, adopted children, & foster children in your answer)___

7. How many (if any) of your children currently live with you and your spouse? (include biological, stepchildren, adopted children, & foster children in your answer)

Male

How many grandchildren do you have? (Include biological, step-grandchildren, adopted-grandchildren, & foster 8. grandchildren in your answer)_

9. Did a grandparent live in your household when you were a child?

- 10. How many times have you been married?
- How many times has your parent been married? 11.
- 12. How many years have you been married to your current spouse?
- 13. How old are you today?
- 14. How old is your parent today?15. In which year did your parent move into your home?_
- 16. In the period after your parent moved into your home, what was the marital status of your parent? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Married	Separated
Divorced	Widowed
Single	

17. In the period after your parent moved into your home, what was your employment status? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Employed full-time	Employed part-time
Retired	Not Employed

18. In the period after your parent moved into your home, what was the employment status of your parent? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Employed full-time Employed part-time 19. In the period after your parent moved in, how was your overall health compared to others your age? (Circle the best response category below)

Verv Poor Poor	Average Good	Verv Good
ναγγΓυσί Γυσί	Availing Good	vavG

Retired

20. In the period after your parent moved in, how was your parent's overall health compared to others his her age? (Circle the best response category below)

Not Employed

Very Poor Poor Average Good Ver	v Good
---------------------------------	--------

21. In the period after your parent moved in, how religious were you? (Circle the best response category below)

Not Religious	Not Very	Somewhat Religious	Very		Extremely
at all	Religious	Religious		Religious	Religious

22. In the period after your parent moved in, how religious was your parent? (Circle the best response category below)

Not Religious	Not Very	Somewhat Religious	Very		Extremely
at all	Religious	Religious		Religious	Religious

- 23. Please indicate the number of years of formal education that you have attained by the time your parent moved into your home (For example, 11 years of education equals 11th grade, 12 years of education equals 12th grade, 13 years of education equals one year of college, etc.).
- 24. Please indicate the number of years of formal education that your parent had attained by the time he she moved into your home (For example, 11 years of education equals 11th grade, 12 years of education equals 12th grade, and 13 years of education equals one year of college, etc.).
- If you are not sure of the exact number, please indicate the highest level of education that your parent has completed:
 - Grade School Law Degree JD High School Diploma Doctorate Ph.D. or Ed.D. Technical School Medical Degree M.D. Associate's Degree Other Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree
- 25. Please indicate any other individuals who are living with you and your spouse at this time (e.g., do you have any children or friends living with you?).

(Please list all others currently living with you)

26. Has your parent moving in weakened or strengthened your relationship with your spouse? (Circle the best response category below)

Weakened We	akened No	Strengthened	Strengthened
A Lot	Some	Change Some	A Lot

27. Has your parent moving in changed the relationship between you and your spouse? (Circle the best response category below)

No		Little		Medium	Some	A Lot of
Change	Change	Change	Change	Change		

Describe in your own words how you communicated with your partner or spouse before your parent moved into your household.

Describe in your own words how you communicated with your partner or spouse after your parent moved into your household.

Part Two

In this section of the questionnaire, you will be asked a series of questions regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse before your parent moved into your household.

Please read each question and then, using the scale that accompanies each question, circle the response category on the scale that best describes your feeling regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse. The scale for each question is directly below each question. NOTE: (Ss marked items in a Likert scale format from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree.)

Section One (CCS)

1.. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner found it easy to get along with others.

2. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner could adapt to changing situations.

3. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner treated people as individuals.

4. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner interrupted others too much.

5. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was "rewarding" to talk to.

6. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner could deal with others effectively

7. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was a good listener.

8. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner's personal relations were cold and distant.

9. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was easy to talk to.

10. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner wouldn't argue with someone just to prove he she is right.

11. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner's conversation behavior was not "smooth."

12. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner ignored other people's feelings.

13. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner generally knew how others feel.

14. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner let others know he/she understands them.

15. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner understood other people.

16. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was relaxed and comfortable when speaking.

17. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner listened to what people say to him or her.

18. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner liked to be close and personal with people.

19. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner generally knew what type of behavior is appropriate in any given situation.

20. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner did not make unusual demands on his/her friends.

21. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was an effective conversationalist.

22. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was supportive of others.

23. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner did not mind meeting strangers.

24. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner could easily put him/herself in another person's shoes.

25. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner paid attention to the conversation.

26. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was generally relaxed when conversing with a new acquaintance.

27. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was interested in what others have to say.

28. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner didn't follow the conversation very well.

29. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner enjoyed social gatherings where he she can meet new people.

30. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was a likeable person.

31. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was flexible.

32. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was not afraid to speak with people in authority.

33. In the period before your parent moved in, people could go to my partner with their problems.

34. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner would generally say the right thing at the right time.

35. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner liked to use his/her voice and body expressively.

36. In the period before your parent moved in, your partner was sensitive to others' needs of the moment.

Section Two (Com-Sat)

1...In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree that the other person let you know that you were communicating effectively?

2. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement 'nothing was accomplished."

3. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I would like to have another conversation like this one."

4. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "the other person genuinely wanted to get to know me."

5. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very dissatisfied with the conversation."

6. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I had something else to do."

7. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt that during the conversation I was able to present myself as I wanted the other person to view me."

8. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person showed me that he/she understood what I said."

9. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very satisfied with the conversation."

10. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person expressed a lot of interest in what I had to say."

11. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I did not enjoy the conversation."

12. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person did not provide support for what he/she was saving,"

13. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt I could talk about anything with the other person."

14. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "We each got to say what we wanted."

15. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt that we could laugh easily together."

16. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The conversation flowed smoothly."

17. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person changed the topic when his/her feelings were brought into the conversation."

18. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person frequently said things which added little to the conversation."

19. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "We talked about something I was not interested in."

Section Three (QMI)

1...In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "We have a good marriage."

2. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "My relationship with my partner is very stable."

3. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "Our marriage is strong."

4. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "My relationship with my partner makes me happy."

5. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "I really feel like part of a team with my partner."

6. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "The degree of happiness, everything considered, in your marriage." (Indicate how happy you are by using the following scale)

Section Four (RDAS)

1...In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on religious matters? 2...In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on demonstrations of affection?

3. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on making major decisions?

4. In the period before your parent moved in. to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on sex relations?

5. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on conventionality (correct or proper behavior)?

6. In the period before your parent moved in. to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on career decisions?

7...In the period before your parent moved in, how often did you discuss or consider divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?

8. In the period before your parent moved in, how often did you and your partner quarrel?

9. In the period before your parent moved in, did you ever regret that you married?

10. In the period before your parent moved in, how often did you and your mate "get on each other's nerves"?

Section Five (RCS)

1...In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was intensely involved in our conversations."

2. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she did not want a deeper relationship between us."

3. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was not attracted to me."

4. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she found the conversation stimulating,"

5. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she communicated coldness rather than warmth."

6. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she created a sense of distance between us."

7. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He'she acted bored by our conversation."

8. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was interested in talking to me."

9. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she showed enthusiasm while talking to me."

10. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she made me feel he/she was similar to me."

11. In the period **before your parent moved in.** to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she tried to move the conversation to a deeper level."

12. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she acted like we were good friends."

13. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she seemed to desire further communication with me."

14. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she seemed to care if I liked him or her."

15. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was sincere."

16. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was interested in talking with me."

17. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted me to trust him/her."

18. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was willing to listen to me."

19. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was open to my ideas."

20. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was honest in communicating with me."

21. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she felt very tense talking to me."

22. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was calm and poised with me."

23. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she felt very relaxed talking with me."

24. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she seemed nervous in my presence."

25. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was comfortable interacting with me."

26. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "Heishe made the interaction very formal."

27. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted

the discussion to be casual."

28. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted the discussion to be informal."

29. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she attempted to persuade me."

30. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she didn't attempt to influence me."

31. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she tried to control the interaction."

32. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she tried to gain my approval."

33. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she didn't try to win my favor."

34. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she had the upper hand in the conversation."

35. In the period before your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she considered us equals."

36. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement ""He she did not treat me as an equal."

37. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted to cooperate with me."

38. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted to stick to the main purpose of the interaction."

39. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was more interested in social conversation than the task at hand."

40. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was very work oriented."

41. In the period **before your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was more interested in working on the task at hand than having social conversation."

Part Three

In this section of the questionnaire, you will be asked a series of questions regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse after your parent moved into your household.

Please read each question and then, using the scale that accompanies each question, circle the response category on the scale that best describes your feeling regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse. The scale for each question is directly below each question. NOTE: (Ss marked items in a Likert scale format from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree.)

Section One (CCS)

1. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner finds it easy to get along with others.

2. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner can adapt to changing situations.

3. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner treats people as individuals.

4. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner interrupts others too much.

5. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is "rewarding" to talk to.

6. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner can deal with others effectively

7. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is a good listener.

8. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner's personal relations are cold and distant.

9. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is easy to talk to.

10. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner won't argue with someone just to prove he she is right.

11. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner's conversation behavior is not "smooth."

12. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner ignores other people's feelings.

13. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner generally knows how others feel.

14. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner lets others know he/she understands them.

15. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner understands other people.

16. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is relaxed and comfortable when speaking.

17. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner listens to what people say to him or her.

18. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner likes to be close and personal with people.

19. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner generally knows what type of behavior is appropriate in any given situation.

20. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner does not make unusual demands on his/her friends.

21. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is an effective conversationalist.

22. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is supportive of others.

23. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner does not mind meeting strangers.

24. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner can easily put him/herself in another person's shoes.

25. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner pays attention to the conversation.

26. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is generally relaxed when conversing with a new acquaintance.

27. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is interested in what others have to say.

28. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner doesn't follow the conversation very well.

29. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner enjoys social gatherings where he/she can meet new people.

30. In the period after your parent moved in, your pariner is a likeable person.

31. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is flexible.

32. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is not afraid to speak with people in authority.

33. In the period after your parent moved in, people can go to my partner with their problems.

34. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner generally says the right thing at the right time.

35. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner likes to use his/her voice and body expressively.

36. In the period after your parent moved in, your partner is sensitive to others' needs of the moment.

Section Two (Com-Sat)

1. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "the other person let me know that 1 was communicating effectively?"

In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "nothing was accomplished."
 In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I would like to have another conversation like this one."

4. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "the other person genuinely wanted to get to know me."

5. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very dissatisfied with the conversation."

6. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I had something else to do."

7. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt that during the conversation I was able to present myself as I wanted the other person to view me."

8. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person showed me that he/she understood what I said."

9. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very satisfied with the conversation."

10. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person expressed a lot of interest in what I had to say."

11. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I did not enjoy the conversation."

12. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person did not provide support for what he/she was saying."

13. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt I could talk about anything with the other person."

14. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "We each got to say what we wanted."

15. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I feit that we could laugh easily together."

16. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The conversation flowed smoothly."

17. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person changed the topic when his/her feelings were brought into the conversation."

18. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person frequently said things which added little to the conversation."

19. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "We talked about something I was not interested in."

Section Three (QMI)

1. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "We have a good marriage."

2. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "My relationship with my partner is very stable."

3. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "Our marriage is strong."

4. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "My relationship with my partner makes me happy."

5. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "I really feel like part of a team with my partner."

6. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "The degree of happiness, everything considered, in your marriage" (Indicate how happy you are by using the following scale)

Section Four (RDAS)

1. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on religious matters? 2. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on demonstrations of affection?

3. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on making major decisions?

4. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on sex relations?

5. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on conventionality (correct or proper behavior)?

6. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent did you agree or disagree with your partner on career decisions?

7. In the period after your parent moved in, how often do you discuss or consider divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?

8. In the period after your parent moved in, how often do you and your partner quarrel?

9. In the period after your parent moved in, do you ever regret that you married?

10. In the period after your parent moved in, how often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves"?

Section Five (RCS)

1. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was intensely involved in our conversations."

2. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she did not want a deeper relationship between us."

3. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was not attracted to me."

4. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she found the conversation stimulating."

5. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she communicated coldness rather than warmth."

6. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He'she created a sense of distance between us."

7. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He'she acted bored by our conversation."

8. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was interested in talking to me."

9. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she showed enthusiasm while talking to me."

10. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she made me feel he/she was similar to me."

11. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she tried to move the conversation to a deeper level."

12. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she acted like we were good friends."

13. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she seemed to desire further communication with me."

14. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she seemed to care if I liked him or her."

15. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was sincere."

16. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was interested in talking with me."

17. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted me to trust him/her."

18. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was willing to listen to me."

19. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was open to my ideas."

20. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was honest in communicating with me."

21. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she felt very tense talking to me."

22. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was calm and poised with me."

23. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "Hershe felt very relaxed talking with me."

24. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she seemed nervous in my presence."

25. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was comfortable interacting with me."

26. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she made the interaction very formal."

27. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she wanted the discussion to be casual."

28. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted the discussion to be informal."

29. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she

attempted to persuade me."

30. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she didn't attempt to influence me."

31. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "Heishe tried to control the interaction."

32. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she tried to gain my approval."

33. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she didn't try to win my favor."

34. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she had the upper hand in the conversation."

35. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she considered us equals."

36. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she did not treat me as an equal."

37. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she wanted to cooperate with me."

38. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she wanted to stick to the main purpose of the interaction."

39. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was more interested in social conversation than the task at hand."

40. In the period **after your parent moved in**, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was very work oriented."

41. In the period after your parent moved in, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He/she was more interested in working on the task at hand than having social conversation."

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix C No-Treatment Comparison Group Cover Letter (No-Parent Group)

Dear Madam or Sir:

I am a doctoral candidate on staff at the University of Oklahoma Department of Communication and I would like to invite you to participate in a research study that I am conducting for my doctoral dissertation. The purpose of my study is to examine the influence of a third party on the adult marital relationship. You are eligible to participate in this study because you are at least 50 years of age and you have been married for at least 25 years.

Adult marital couples who participate in the study will be asked to meet with one of the members of my research team for a face-toface interview. The adult marital relationship has been the focus of considerable research attention. However, much of the research has centered on the earlier stages of the marital relationship and therefore little is known about adult marital relationships. The interview should take between 45 minutes and 1-b₂ hours and will be arranged at a time and place that is convenient for you. At the time of the interview you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire that will tell us about your family history, such as length of time you have been married, the age of any children you may have, and your age. The questionnaire will be used as an "ice breaker" so we can move more quickly into the purpose of the interview.

I need your assistance. Because you are still married at a later stage in your life, you can provide valuable data that will aid in the study. These data will provide the basis for my doctoral dissertation research and will not be used for any other purpose. If you are interested in sharing your experiences with the research team or if you would like more information about the study before you decide, please complete the page attached to this letter and return it to a member of the staff. The information will be sent to me and I will personally call you to discuss the project. We have established these procedures in order to protect your privacy. You are the only one who can give permission to have your name, address, and phone number forwarded to me as a prospective participant in the study.

I am most anxious to learn more about how adult marital couples are managing their relationships. I hope you will consider sharing your story with me.

Sincerely,

Lisa Sparks Bethea University of Oklahoma

Consent to release information to Lisa Sparks Bethea of the University of Uklahoma Department of Communication

Mr./Mrs./Ms.:

I give permission to participate and be interviewed by Lisa Sparks Bethea of the University of Oklahoma Department of Communication. I understand that Lisa Sparks Bethea is conducting a study regarding the adult marital relationship.

I have been asked to participate in this study because I have been married for at least 25 years and I am over 50 years of age.

I agree to be interviewed. I understand that I will also be asked to fill out a short questionnaire about my family history, such as length of time you have been married, the age of any children you may have, and your age. The time required for the questionnaire and interview should take between 45 minutes and 1-1/2 hours, depending on the amount of information I have to share with the interviewer.

I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary, and that even after the interview begins, I can refuse to answer any specific questions or decide to terminate the interview at any point. I have been told that my answers to questions will not be given to anyone else and no report of this study will ever identify me in any way. I understand that there is no risk involved and that I will not receive any direct benefit from my participation. I have also been informed that my participation, nonparticipation, or my refusal to answer any questions will have no effect on my legal rights. This consent does not release any individual or institution from liability for negligence.

If I have any questions about this study, I will contact Lisa Sparks Bethea at 405-325-3003 ext.21134 or by e-mail: <u>bethea/a:sprvnet.com</u>.

Do you understand this information? Do you freely consent to participate in this study under the conditions described?

Please Pr	int:		
Name: Address:			
1004 CSS.			
Phone:	Day:		
		Evening:	
Signature:			Date:

Thank you for your willingness to be a participant in this study!

Appendix D The Adult Marital Relationship Questionnaire

The adult manual relationship has been the focus of considerable research attention. However, much of the research has centered on the earlier stages of the manual relationship and therefore little is known about adult manual relationships.

This questionnaire contains two parts. Part one asks general questions about you. Part two asks questions regarding the relationship between you and your spouse.

It will take you approximately 45 mmutes to 1 1/2 hours complete this questionnaire

Your Responses Will Be Held in Strict Confidence

Part One

This section of the questionnaire contains general questions.

1. What is your ethnicity (race)? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Caucasian	Hispanic-American
African-American	Native American
Asian-American	Other (specify)

2. What is your gender? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Female

Male

3. How many children do you have? (include biological, stepchildren, adopted children, & foster children in your answer)_____

- 3. How many (if any) of your children currently live with you and your spouse? (include biological, stepchildren, adopted children, & foster children in your answer)_____
- 4. How many grandchildren do you have? (include biological, step-grandchildren, adopted-grandchildren, & foster grandchildren in your answer)_____

5. Did a grandparent live in your household when you were a child?_____

7. How many times have you been married?

- 8. How many times has your parent been married?
- 9. How many years have you been married to your current spouse?
- 10. How old are you today?
- 11. How old are your parents today(if deceased indicate what year)? Mother_____ Father_____

12. Are your parents still married to each other? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Married	Separated
Divorced	Widowed
Single	

13. What is your employment status? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below)

Employed full-time	Employed part-time
Retired	Not Employed

14. What is the employment status of your parent(s)? (Place an X next to the appropriate response category below) Mother

	Employed full-time	Employed part-time
	Retired	Not Employed
Father		
radict		5 1 1 1
	Employed full-time	Employed part-time
	Retired	Not Employed

15. How would you rate your overall health compared to others your age? (Circle the best response category below)

Very Poor Poor	Average	Good	Very Good	
16. How is your parent's	overall health com	pared to others his/her	age? (Circle the best	response category below)
Mother				
Very Poor Poor	Average	Good	Very Good	
Father	-		•	
Very Poor Poor	Average	Good	Very Good	
17. How religious are ye	ou? (Circle the be	a response category be	How)	
Not Religious	Not Very	Somewhat Religious	Very	Extremely
at all	Religious	Religious	Religious	Religious
18. How religious is you	ir parent? (Circle)	he best response categ	orv below)	
Mother	- F (

Not Religious Not Very Somewhat Religious Very Extremely

at all	Religious	Religious	Religious	Religious
Father	-	-		-
Not Religious	Not Very	Somewhat Religious Very		Extremely
at all	Religious	Religious	Religious	Religious

- Please indicate the number of years of formal education that you have attained (For example, 11 years of education equals 11th grade, 12 years of education equals 12th grade, and 13 years of education equals one year of college, etc.).
- 20. Please indicate the number of years of formal education that your parent (For example, 11 years of education equals 11th grade, 12 years of education equals 12th grade, 13 years of education equals one year of college, etc.).Mother Father

• If you are not sure of the exact number, please indicate the highest level of education that your parent has completed: Mother

	Grade School	Law Degree JD
	High School Diploma	Doctorate Ph.D. or Ed.D.
	Technical School	Medical Degree M.D.
	Associate's Degree	Other
	Bachelor's Degree	
	Master's Degree	
Father		
	Grade School	Law Degree JD
	High School Diploma	Doctorate Ph.D. or Ed.D.
	Technical School	Medical Degree M.D.
	Associate's Degree	Other
	Bachelor's Degree	
	Master's Degree	

Please indicate any other individuals who are living with you and your spouse at this time (e.g., do you have any children or friends living with you?).
 (Please list all others currently living with you)

22. Has your relationship with your oldest living parent weakened or strengthened your relationship with your spouse? (Circle the best response category below)

Weakened Weakened No		Strengthened	Strengthened
A Lot	Some	Change Some	A Lot

23. Has your relationship with your oldest living parent changed the relationship between you and your spouse? (Circle the best response category below)

No		Little		Medium	Some	A Lot of
Change	Change	Change	Change	Change		

Thinking back about five years ago, describe in your own words how you communicated with your oldest living parent.

Currently, describe in your own words how you communicate with your oldest living parent.

Part Two

in this section of the questionnaire, you will be asked a series of questions regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse as it was five years ago.

Please read each question and then, using the scale that accompanies each question, circle the response category on the scale that best describes your feeling regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse. The scale for each question is directly below each question. NOTE: (Ss marked items in a Likert scale format from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree.)

Section One (CCS)

- 1...Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner found it easy to get along with others.
- 2. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner could adapt to changing situations.
- 3. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner treated people as individuals.
- 4. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner interrupted others too much.
- 5. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was "rewarding" to talk to.
- 6. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner could deal with others effectively.
- 7. Thinking back about 5 years ago, , your partner was a good listener.
- 8. Thinking back about 5 years ago, , your partner's personal relations were cold and distant.
- 9. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was easy to talk to.
- 10. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner wouldn't argue with someone just to prove he she is right.
- 11. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner's conversation behavior was not "smooth."
- 12. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner ignored other people's feelings.
- 13. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner generally knew how others feel.
- 14. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner let others know he she understands them.
- 15. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner understood other people.
- 16. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was relaxed and comfortable when speaking,
- 17. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner listened to what people say to him or her.
- 18. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner liked to be close and personal with people.
- 19. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner generally knew what type of behavior is appropriate in any given situation.
- 20. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner did not make unusual demands on his/her friends.
- 21. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was an effective conversationalist.
- 22. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was supportive of others.
- 23. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner did not mind meeting strangers.
- 24. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner could easily put him/herself in another person's shoes.
- 25. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner paid attention to the conversation.
- 26. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was generally relaxed when conversing with a new acquaintance.
- 27. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was interested in what others have to say.
- 28. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner didn't follow the conversation very well.
- 29. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner enjoyed social gatherings where he she can meet new people.
- 30. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was a likeable person.
- 31. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was flexible.
- 32. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was not atraid to speak with people m authority.
- 33. Thinking back about 5 years ago, people could go to my partner with their problems.
- 34. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner would generally say the right thing at the right time.
- 35. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner liked to use his/her voice and body expressively.
- 36. Thinking back about 5 years ago, your partner was sensitive to others' needs of the moment.

Section Two (Com-Sat)

1...Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree that the other person let you know that you were communicating effectively?

2. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "nothing was accomplished." 3. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I would like to have another

conversation like this one."

4. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "the other person genuinely wanted to get to know me."

5. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very dissatisfied with the conversation."

6. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I had something else to do."

7. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt that during the conversation I was able to present myself as I wanted the other person to view me."

8. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person showed me that he she understood what I said."

9. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very satisfied with the conversation.

10. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person expressed a lot of interest in what I had to say."

11. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I did not enjoy the conversation."

12. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person did not provide support for what he/she was saving."

13. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt I could talk about anything with the other person."

14. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "We each got to say what we wanted."

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41. Thinking back about 5 years ago, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement "He she was more interested in working on the task at hand than having social conversation."

Part Three

In this section of the questionnaire, you will be asked a series of questions regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse as it is **currently**.

Please read each question and then, using the scale that accompanies each question, circle the response category on the scale that best describes your feeling regarding the relationship between you and your partner or spouse. The scale for each question is directly below each question. NOTE: (Ss marked items in a Likert scale format from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree.)

Section One (CCS)

- 1. Currently, your partner finds it easy to get along with others.
- 2. Currently, your partner can adapt to changing situations.
- 3. Currently, your partner treats people as individuals.
- 4. Currently, your partner interrupts others too much.
- 5. Currently, your partner is "rewarding" to talk to.
- 6. Currently, your partner can deal with others effectively
- 7. Currently, your partner is a good listener.
- 8. Currently, your partner's personal relations are cold and distant.
- 9. Currently, your partner is easy to talk to.
- 10. Currently, your partner won't argue with someone just to prove he she is right.
- 11. Currently, your partner's conversation behavior is not "smooth."
- 12. Currently, your partner ignores other people's feelings.
- 13. Currently, your partner generally knows how others feel.
- 14. Currently, your partner lets others know he she understands them.
- 15. Currently, your partner understands other people.
- 16. Currently, your partner is relaxed and comfortable when speaking,
- 17. Currently, your partner listens to what people say to him or her.
- 18. Currently, your partner likes to be close and personal with people.
- 19. Currently, your partner generally knows what type of behavior is appropriate in any given situation.
- 20. Currently, your partner does not make unusual demands on his/her friends.
- 21. Currently, your partner is an effective conversationalist.
- 22. Currently, your partner is supportive of others.
- 23. Currently, your partner does not mind meeting strangers.
- 24. Currently, your partner can easily put him/herself in another person's shoes.
- 25. Currently, your partner pays attention to the conversation.
- 26. Currently, your partner is generally relaxed when conversing with a new acquaintance.
- 27. Currently, your partner is interested in what others have to say.
- 28. Currently, your partner doesn't follow the conversation very well.
- 29. Currently, your partner enjoys social gatherings where he she can meet new people.
- 30. Currently, your partner is a likeable person.
- 31. Currently, your partner is flexible.
- 32. Currently, your partner is not afraid to speak with people in authority.
- 33. Currently, people can go to my partner with their problems.
- 34. Currently, your partner generally says the right thing at the right time.
- 35. Currently, your partner likes to use his/her voice and body expressively.
- 36. Currently, your partner is sensitive to others' needs of the moment.

Section Two (Com-Sat)

1. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "the other person let me know that I was communicating effectively?"

2. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "nothing was accomplished."

- 3. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I would like to have another conversation like this one."
- 4. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "the other person genuinely wanted to get to know me."
- 5. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very dissatisfied with the conversation."

6. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I had something else to do."

7. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I felt that during the conversation I was able to present

myself as I wanted the other person to view me."

8. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person showed me that he/she understood what I said."

9. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I was very satisfied with the conversation."

10. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person expressed a lot of interest in what I had to say."

11. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I did not enjoy the conversation."

12. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "The other person did not provide support for what he/she was saying."

- 13. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "I feit I could talk about anything with the other person."
- 14. Currently, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement "We each got to say what we wanted."
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Thank you for your participation!

Appendix E The Institutional Review Board Approval



The University of Oklahoma

OFFICE OF RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION

September 11, 1997

Ms. Mary Elizbeth Sparks Bethea Burton Hall Department of Communication University of Oklahoma

Dear Ms. Bethea:

Your research proposal, "The Communicative Impact of Triadic Relationships Across the Life Span: The Effect of an Older Adult Parent on Marital Dyadic Relations," has been reviewed by Dr. E. Laurette Taylor, Chair of the Institutional Review Board, and found to be exempt from the requirements for full board review and approval under the regulations of the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus Policies and Procedures for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research Activities.

Should you wish to deviate from the described protocol, you must notify me and obtain prior approval from the Board for the changes. If the research is to extend beyond twelve months, you must contact this office, in writing, noting any changes or revisions in the protocol and/or informed consent form, and request an extension of this ruling.

If you have any questions, please contact me.

Sincerely yours,

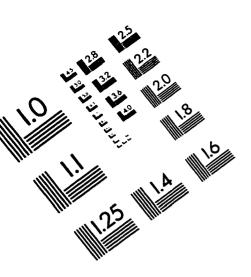
Karen m. Petry

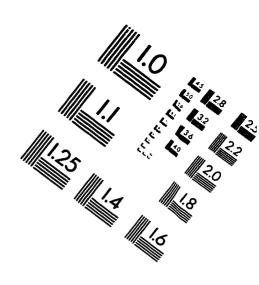
Karen M. Petry Administrative Officer Institutional Review Board

KMP:pw 98-044

cc: Dr. E. Laurette Taylor, Chair, IRB Dr. Jon Nussbaum, Faculty Sponsor, Department of Communication

1000 Aep Avenue, Suite 314, Normen, Oklehome 73019-0430 PHONE: (405) 325-4757 FAX: (405) 325-6029





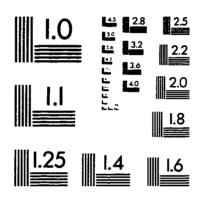
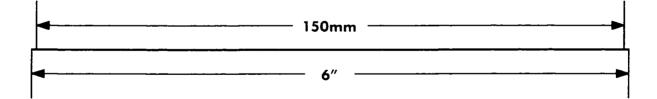
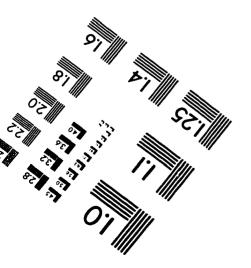


IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)







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