Romantic Relational Aggression in Parents and Adolescent Child Outcomes

Jennifer Nicole Hawkley
Brigham Young University - Provo

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ABSTRACT

Romantic Relational Aggression in Parents and Adolescent Child Outcomes

Jennifer N. Hawkley
Master of Science
School of Family Life, BYU

The purpose of this study was to examine marital romantic relational aggression in parents and its impact on adolescent relational aggression, adolescent romantic relational aggression, internalizing, and school engagement with self-regulation as a potential mediator. Gender differences were also examined. Adolescents were from 328 two-parent families in a large north-western city in the United States and were between 12 and 17 years of age (M=14.24, SD=1.00, 51% female) at time 4. All independent variables except adolescent self-regulation were measured at wave 4, and all adolescent variables were measured at wave 5. Results indicate that higher levels of romantic relational aggression from mother to father was directly related to higher relational aggression in girls and lower romantic relational aggression in boys one year later. Father romantic relational aggression was directly and negatively related to romantic relational aggression in girls one year later. Mother romantic relational aggression was indirectly related to all outcomes in females only, in the predicted directions, through adolescent self-regulation. Father romantic relational aggression was indirectly related, in the predicted directions, to relational aggression, internalizing, and school engagement in boys only. Implications for research and clinical practice are discussed.

Keywords: romantic relational aggression, relational aggression, internalizing, school engagement, self-regulation, adolescent.
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Romantic Relational Aggression in Adults and Adolescent Child Outcomes

Family Systems Theory is founded on the idea that people influence each other in social relationships. While there are many factors and systems that impact human development, much of that influence seems to stem from the emotional climate, patterns, processes, boundaries, roles, and experiences of one’s family of origin (Larson, Peterson, Heath, & Birch, 2000).

Family Systems Theory claims that the functioning and behaviors of individuals, relationships, and subsystems within a system impact other individuals, relationships, and subsystems within that system. Where the family is concerned, researchers have found that a parent’s individual health and marital or other relationship quality will impact a child’s health and visa-versa (e.g. Burstein, Ginsburg, Petras, & Ialongo, 2010; Lee & Cranford, 2008; Stutzman, et. al., 2011; Wang & Crane, 2001).

Other aspects of family life also impact child functioning. The rules, roles, and boundaries in families play out in regularly occurring patterns and processes in family interactions (Greenman & Johnson, 2013). For example, adolescents who self-identify with social groups who engage in and support relationally aggressive behavior are more likely to display this behavior (Bokhrel, Sussman, Black, & Sun, 2010; Werner & Hill, 2010). Similarly, mothers’ acceptance of relational aggression is related to the way they respond to their children, and to the way their children view relationally aggressive behavior (Werner & Grant, 2009). These individual norms and beliefs regarding relational aggressions have been found to predict engagement in relational aggression (Werner & Hill, 2010; Werner & Nixon, 2005). In contrast, adolescents who have cohesive families and responsive parents are less likely to engage in relationally aggressive behavior (Pernice-Duca, Taiariol, & Yoon, 2010). Therefore, when parents are relationally aggressive, it is likely to set up rules, roles, and processes that allow for
that aggression to take place within the family, and children are more likely to learn and follow those behaviors.

Romantic relationally aggressive behaviors in couple relationships such as spreading rumors about and excluding the other partner may also disrupt protective boundaries around the couple subsystem or alter hierarchies in families. This is especially true if the children are involved in those behaviors through triangulation or being expected to be an emotional caretaker to their parent (Framo, 1996). Being triangulated into parent conflict has been related to child internalizing (Buehler & Welsh, 2009), depression (Wang & Crane, 2001), self-blame, and diminished parent-adolescent relations (Fosco & Grych, 2010). Emotional caretaking has been related to many outcomes including internalizing, externalizing, poorer competency in close friendships (Peris, Goeke-Morey, Cummings, & Emery, 2008), low independence (Mayseless & Scharf, 2009), and hiding worry from parents (Van Parys & Rober, 2013).

Romantic relational aggression in the couple may also affect adolescent children because problems in the parental subsystem may pose a threat to the child’s secure base (Posada & Pratt, 2008) which may lead to aggressive or insecure (e.g. depressed and anxious) behaviors (Bowlby, 1988). In fact, parental conflict has been related to adolescent relational aggression (Yan, Putallaz, & Yanjie, 2011) and internalizing (Davies & Lindsay, 2004; Stutzman, et. al., 2011). Based on Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), adolescent children of relationally aggressive parents may learn to be more relationally aggressive towards peers and romantic partners by watching these behaviors in their parents. They may also see the damage that such behavior can cause to others and may internalize and or disengage at school and/or at home. Adolescent relational aggression has also been connected to internalizing (Reed, Goldstein, Morris, & Keyes, 2008), anxiety (Ellis, Crooks, & Wolfe, 2009), and depression (Bagner, Storch, &
Preston, 2007; Spieker, et. al., 2012). Adolescents who are aggressive or internalize may also have lower socially desirable behaviors such as engagement in school (Bayer, et. al., 2011; Perdue, Manzeske, & Estell, 2009; Merrell, Buchanan, & Tran, 2006).

Less safety and security provided by the parent’s marriage may also lead to less soothing and regulating behaviors in the adolescent (Davies & Cummings, 1994). In fact, adolescent self-regulation has been used as a mediator in several studies (e.g. see Ning & Downing, 2012; Padilla-Walker, Harper, & Jensen, 2010). For this purpose, we intend to examine adolescent self-regulation as a potential mediator between parental romantic relational aggression and adolescent outcomes. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between marital romantic relational aggression and child adolescent relational aggression, internalizing behaviors, and school engagement one year later, while looking at the mediating effects of child self-regulation.

**Literature Review**

**Romantic Relational Aggression in Adult Romantic Relationships**

For the purposes of this paper, relational aggression will refer to behaviors aimed at harming a person socially or relationally through social sabotage (e.g. telling lies about the other person) and love withdrawal (e.g. giving someone the silent treatment). To date, no studies have been published that have looked at romantic relational aggression in marital relationships and how it is related to adolescent outcomes. Relational aggression has been vastly studied in adolescent relationships; however, only a handful of studies have been published on romantic relationships and only one study, to date, has examined relational aggression in two-parent.

In 2010, Carroll and colleagues published the first study on relational aggression in married couples with children. With a sample of 336 married couples (672 spouses) from Seattle
Washington who were a part of the Flourishing Families Project, the researchers measured relational aggression by asking partner’s to report on their spouses’ use of social sabotage and love withdrawal and how these factors were related to marital stability and marital quality. Descriptive statistics showed that the vast majority of spouses (96% of wives and 88% of husbands) engaged in love withdrawal and a lesser majority of spouses (64% of wives and 52% of husbands) engaged in social sabotage. They also found that relational aggression was related to lower levels of marital quality and greater levels of marital instability for both husbands and wives (Carroll, et. al., 2010). Given these findings and other research that has found relational aggression to happen more frequently among romantic partners than among friends (Goldstein, 2011), it is surprising that so little research has been done on relational aggression in marriage and other romantic adult relationships.

**Adolescent Relational Aggression**

Research on relational aggression in young adult romantic relationships has found relational aggression in this context to be associated with social anxiety in females (Bagner, Storch, & Preston, 2007; Ellis, Crooks, & Wolfe, 2009), loneliness (Bagner, et. al., 2007), alcohol and drug use (Bagner, et. al., 2007), depressive symptoms (Bagner, et. al., 2007; Ellis, et. al., 2009), delinquent behavior in females (Ellis, et. al., 2009), hostility, anger, impulsivity, history of abuse (Murray-Close, Ostrov, Nelson, Crick, & Coccaro, 2010), and emotional and behavioral problems in general (Leadbeater, Banister, Ellis, & Yeung, 2008). Romantic relational aggression has also been related to frustration, ambivalence, jealousy, anxious clinging, and lower trust in adolescent romantic relationships (Linder, Crick, & Collins, 2002).

Research has connected several variables to adolescent relational aggression including adolescent individual characteristics, peer experiences, and parenting behaviors (e.g. Kawabata,
Alink, Tseng, van Ijzendoorn, & Crick, 2011; Merrell, Buchanan, & Oanh, 2006). However, surprisingly little research has been done on the effects of parent-child relationship and parents’ marital relationship qualities and their relationship with relational aggression in teens. Linder, Crick, and Collins (2002) studied young adults ages 18-30. They used *The Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment* (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987) to look at parenting behaviors and a self-report measure of aggression and victimization to measure relational aggression. They found that higher levels of mother alienation were related to romantic relational aggression in the young adult child. Spieker and colleagues (2012) found that mother-child conflict in early childhood predicted later relational aggression.

Looking at marital conflict, Yan, Putallaz, & Yanjie (2011) studied a sample of 671 children in the 3rd-5th grades and their parent(s) in Beijing, China (96% dual parent families). They found that paternal overt aggression in marital conflict was positively related to boys’ relational aggression; this link was mediated through paternal coercive control. Maternal covert conflict, in this study triangulation, was found to positively relate to boy’s relational aggression, but was mediated by psychological control. While these findings were for Chinese adolescents from predominantly two-parent homes, this study suggests that there might be ways that parent conflict (overt and covert) impacts adolescent relational aggression. More research is needed to determine if similar effects can be generalized to other populations.

**Internalizing Behaviors**

Romantic relational aggression between marital partners might also be related to adolescent internalizing behavior. For the purpose of this study, internalizing behaviors will be defined as negative, self-directed behaviors such as symptoms of anxiety and depression, and feeling lonely, guilty, or embarrassed. Adolescent internalizing behaviors have been the subject
of many empirical studies. In regards to family and marital dynamics and adolescent internalizing, parent-adolescent relationship quality (Fanti, Henrich, Brookmeyer, & Kuperminc, 2008) and mother-adolescent communication problems (Taylor, 2010) have been found to predict adolescent internalizing behaviors. Similarly, early parental divorce/separation (Lansford, et. al., 2006), triangulation (Buehler & Welsh, 2009), marital stability, and marital satisfaction (Wang & Crane, 2001) have all been related to adolescent internalizing symptoms.

There has been a fair amount of research examining the relationship between marital conflict and adolescent internalizing symptoms. Crawford, Cohen, Midlarsky, & Brook (2001), found that marital conflict was related to internalizing symptoms for girls, but not for boys, and that this relation increased in size and significance as the girls got older. Similarly, Davies and Lindsay (2004) found that, although the link between marital conflict and child internalizing was significant for both genders, this relationship was stronger for girls than for boys.

Grych, Raynor, and Fosco (2004), studied a sample of 388 adolescents, ages 14-18. Their sample was more diverse with 56.5% Caucasian, 19.2% Latino, and 12.7% African American, and about half of the students eligible for free lunches. They reported that interparental conflict was associated with higher internalizing symptoms, and that this relationship was mediated by the adolescent feeling triangulated into their parents’ conflict. The relationship between interparental conflict and triangulation was positive and moderated by the strength of the parent-child alliance such that at low levels of conflict, having a high alliance was related to more triangulation, and high levels of conflict were related to high levels of triangulation regardless of the strength of the parent-child alliance.

Stutzman and colleagues (2011) looked at a sample of 2,292 adolescents, ranging from 9th-12th grade, comprised of a Latino sample and a European American sample that were similar
to each other in family composition (step-family, single parent, two biological parents) and SES. They reported that overt and covert (relational aggression) conflict were strongly related to each other, and that both were related to internalizing problems in adolescent children; this relationship was similar for the Latino and European American adolescents. Further, they found that overt conflict was more predictive of internalizing behaviors than was covert conflict, which they defined as parents going behind the other’s back in arguments to the adolescent child. While they found a stronger connection between overt marital conflict and adolescent internalizing than they did between covert marital conflict (relational aggression) and adolescent internalizing, there was a connection. This study will add to this research by testing the idea that other forms of more indirect marital conflict (romantic relational aggression) may also be related to higher internalizing in adolescent children.

School Engagement

Another adolescent outcome that may be impacted by relational aggression in the parent’s marriage is adolescent school engagement. Recent research on school engagement has mostly focused on student, teacher, and school characteristics such as self-efficacy (Rastegar, et. al., 2011; Wettersten, et. al., 2005), class emphasis on mastery goals (Kalil & Ziol-Guest, 2008), and, especially, teacher support (e.g. Kalil & Ziol-Guest, 2008; Wang & Eccles, 2012). A few studies have examined the association between parenting behaviors and school engagement, such as parental involvement and monitoring (Simons-Morton & Chen, 2009), psychological autonomy (Park, Holloway, Arendtsz, Bempechat, & Li, 2012), and parent-child relationship quality (Murray, 2009). However, very little has been published on the impact of family and marital dynamics and adolescent school engagement.
As of the time of the writing of this review, there were only two articles published on the impact of family dynamics on school engagement of children. In 2006, Annunziata, Hogue, Faw, and Liddle examined 211 at risk, inner city, African American adolescents in grades 6-8. They found that parent and adolescent reports of family cohesion predicted adolescent reports of school engagement. Family structure has also been connected to child school engagement. Brown, (2004) compared step-families, cohabiting two-parent biological families, cohabiting step-families, single-parent families, and two-parent married families. He found that the children in the two-parent married families had higher wellbeing (measured by behavioral and emotional problems and school engagement) than children residing in all other family groups.

While adolescent relational aggression, internalizing behaviors, and school engagement have been the subject of many empirical studies; there have been relatively few studies that have looked at the family dynamics that play a role in the development of relational aggression and school engagement. Of these studies that are available, no research could be found in published literature related to parents’ marital or other romantic relationships and adolescent school engagement or relational aggression. Even though there have been studies published on the impact of marital conflict and other aspects of the marital relationship on child and adolescent internalizing, no published research has looked at the effects of adult romantic relational aggression and child outcomes. The current study will add to the research by building on recent research on marital conflict by looking at the way it impacts adolescent relational aggression, internalizing behaviors, and school engagement.

Self-Regulation as a Potential Mediating Variable

Adolescent self-regulation has been shown to be a mediating variable in several studies (e.g. Hardaway, Wilson, Shaw, & Dishion, 2012; Ning & Downing, 2012; Padilla-Walker,
Harper, & Jensen, 2010; Zeinali, Sharifi, Enayati, Asgari, & Pasha, 2011). Because there is research to support that self-regulation is related to adolescent relational aggression (Bowie, 2010), internalizing symptoms (D’Acremont & Van der Linden, 2007), and school engagement (Eisenberg, Valiente, & Eggum, 2010), this study included self-regulation as a potential mediating variable in the relationship between parental romantic relational aggression and adolescent outcomes, namely relational aggression, romantic relational aggression, internalizing, and school engagement.

**Control Variables**

Research has found gender effects for relational aggression (Bowie, 2007), internalizing behaviors (Chen, 2010), school engagement (Smith, Ito, Gruenewald, & Yeh, 2010), and self-regulation (Klassen, et. al., 2009). Age has been found to impact relational aggression (Hemphill, et. al., 2010) and self-regulation (Bowers, et. al., 2011). Race and SES have been found to predict levels of self-regulation (Belsky & Beaver, 2011), relational aggression (Park, et. al., 2005), and internalizing (Lansford, et. al., 2006), but not school engagement (Wang, Willett, & Eccles, 2011). Therefore, age, race, parents’ education, and household income will be used as control variables. Group comparison in Structural Equation Modeling will be used to examine differences in the relationships between variables that are related to gender.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between parents’ romantic relational aggression and adolescent child outcomes one year later, looking at the mediating effects of child self-regulation. More specifically, husbands’ and wives’ reports of their spouse’s relational aggression at time 4 will be used to predict adolescent relational aggression (romantic and peer), internalizing behaviors, and school engagement at time 5. Child self-report and parent
report of child self-regulation at time 5 will be tested as a mediator, and adolescent relational aggression, internalizing behaviors, and school engagement at time 4 will be controlled for as shown in Figure 1.

The following hypotheses were tested (see Figure 1):

1. Higher levels of marital relational aggression at time 4 will predict higher levels of child peer and romantic relational aggression at time 5.

2. Higher levels of marital relational aggression at time 4 will predict higher levels of adolescent internalizing behaviors at time 5.

3. Higher levels of marital relational aggression at time 4 will predict lower levels of child school engagement at time 5.

4. Higher levels of marital relational aggression at time 4 will predict lower levels of child self-regulation at time 5.

5. The above hypothesized relationships will be stronger for same-gender parent-child pairs than for opposite-gender parent-child pairs.

6. Lower levels of child self-regulation at time 5 will predict higher levels of child peer and romantic relational aggression at time 5.

7. Lower levels of child self-regulation at time 5 will predict higher levels of child internalizing behaviors at time 5.

8. Lower levels of child self-regulation at time 5 will predict lower levels of child school engagement at time 5.

9. Child self-regulation will be a significant, partial mediator between marital relational aggression and child relational aggression, marital relational aggression and child internalizing behavior, and marital relational aggression and school engagement.
Method

Participants

The participants for this study were taken from Times 4 and 5 of the Flourishing Families Project (FFP). Earlier waves were not used because a measure of adolescent relational aggression was not added until Time 4. The FFP is an ongoing, longitudinal study of inner family life involving families with an adolescent child age 12 to 17 at Time 4 (M age of child = 14.24, SD = 1.00, 51% female). Because we were interested in the effects of marital relational aggression of parents toward each other, only two-parent families were included. At Time 4, this study consisted of 328 two-parent families, 98% (321) of whom had complete data for Time 5. At time 4, 0.99% of families reported a yearly household income of $20,000 and less, 2.63% reported $20,001-39,999, 15.46% reported 40,000-69,999, 24.34% reported $70,000-99,999, 33.88% reported 100,000-149,999, 11.51% reported $150,000-199,999, and 11.18% reported $200,000 or more.

In terms of race, 76.52 % of the children were European American, 4.88% were African American, 3.66% were Asian American, 1.52% were Hispanic, 9.76% were mixed, and 1.22% were of another ethnicity. Mothers reported 81.10% European American, 5.18% African American, 4.27% Asian American, 2.74% Hispanic, 4.27% mixed, and 2.44% of another ethnicity. Father ethnicity was: 84.40% European American, 4.75% African American, 1.36% Asian American, 1.36% Hispanic, 5.85% mixed, and 3.05% of another ethnicity.

Procedure

Participant families for the FFP were randomly selected from targeted census tracts of a purchased national telephone survey database (Polk Directories/InfoUSA) for a large northwestern city. The tracts were selected to mirror socio-economic and racial demographics.
based on reports from local school districts. This database claimed to contain information about 82 million households throughout the United States including information about presence and age of children in each household. Families were considered eligible to participate if they had a child age 10-14 and lived within a target census tract. Of the 692 eligible families contacted, 423 agreed to participate (61% response rate). Because the Polk Directory was created using magazine, telephone, and internet subscription reports, lower socioeconomic status families were underrepresented. To increase the socioeconomic and ethnic diversity of the sample, a limited number of families (n=77, 15%) were recruited through other means (e.g. referral). The final sample at Time 1 (n=500) were interviewed during the first 8 months of 2007 and each successive year through Time 6 (only questionnaire data was collected at Time 6).

A multi-stage recruitment procedure was used and all families were contacted directly. This process first included an introduction letter. The letter was sent to potentially qualified families (this first step was skipped for the 15 families who responded to fliers). Home visits and phone calls were then made to confirm eligibility as well as willingness to participate in the study. The most frequent reasons cited by families for not wanting to participate in the study were lack of time and concerns about privacy. Following the confirmation of eligibility and consent, interviewers made an appointment to come to the family’s home to conduct an assessment interview. The assessment interview included video-taped interactions (not used in the current study), in addition to questionnaires that were completed in the home. A similar format was used for waves 2-5. As interviewers collected each segment of the in-home interview, questionnaires were screened for missing answers and double marking resulting in very little missing data. Full Information Maximum Likelihood was used via AMOSs data imputation program to deal with missing values where necessary.
Measures

Marital Romantic Relational Aggression T4. Two latent variables for husband and wife romantic relational aggression T4 was created each using two indicators: the mean of items for the Love Withdrawal and Social Sabotage subscales from the Self-Report of Aggression and Victimization in Marriage scale (SRAV-M) developed by Nelson and Carroll (2006) for this sample. It is based on the original Self-Report of Aggression and Victimization (SRAV) measure that was developed by Morales and Crick (1998) and then extended to young adult romantic relationships by Linder, Crick, and Collins (2002), and has been modified to allow spouses to each report on the relational aggression of their partner. Each subscale has a total of six items that are measured with a 7-point likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 7 (very true) with overall scores ranging from 12-84 and higher scores indicating higher levels of relational aggression. Items from the Love Withdrawal subscale include, “Withholds affection or sex from me when he/she is angry with me,” “Has threatened to leave me to get me to do what she/he wants,” and “Gives me the silent treatment when I hurt his/her feelings in some way.” Social Sabotage items include, “Has gone ‘behind my back’ and shared private information about me with other people,” “Tries to embarrass me or make me look stupid in front of others,” and “Gets other people to ‘take sides’ with her/him and gets them upset with me too.” Chronbach’s Alpha scores for the current sample are .90 (Mother Love Withdrawal), .88(Father Love Withdrawal), .88 (Mother Social Sabotage), .89 (Father Social Sabotage), .91 (Mother Overall), and .90 (Father Overall).

In terms of validity, confirmatory factor analysis yielded factor loadings of .88 for love withdrawal and .91 for social sabotage. Predictive validity studies have also shown that this
measure of relational aggression is negatively related to marital quality and positively related to marital conflict (Carroll, et al., 2011).

**Adolescent Self-Regulation T5.** A latent variable called adolescent self-regulation was created using a child self-report and both parent reports of a revised 12 item version of the Novak and Clayton (2001) self-regulation measure completed at Time 5. This measure is intended to assess the child’s emotional, cognitive, and behavioral regulation. The parent version includes items such as: “My child has difficulty controlling his/her temper,” “My child thinks about the future consequences of his/her actions,” and “My child gets distracted by little things.” Child items mirror the parent items, but are written in the first person (e.g. “I get distracted by little things”). The parent version consists of 12 items scored with a likert type scale ranging from 1 (*never true*) to 4 (*always true*); the child version has 12 items scored by a 4-point likert scale ranging from 1 (*never true*) to 4 (*always true*). Combined, the child could score from 37-172 with higher scores indicating higher self-regulation. No overall reliability was originally reported for this measure; however, Chronbach’s Alpha scores for the subscales were reported as .95 (emotional), .96 (cognitive) and .94 (behavioral). Chronbach’s Alpha scores for the current sample were as follows. For mothers: .88 (overall), .88 (emotional), .84 (cognitive), and .79 (behavioral); for fathers: .88 (overall), .89 (emotional), .83 (cognitive), and .75 (behavioral); for the child: .81 (overall), .84 (emotional), .76 (cognitive), and .78 (behavioral).

**Adolescent Romantic and Peer Relational Aggression T5 and T4.** A latent variable called adolescent relational aggression T5 was created using individual items from an adolescent self-report six-item measure at Time 5 that were modified from other relational aggression assessments (e.g. Morales & Crick, 1998). Four of these items measure the child’s relational aggression in general (e.g. “When I have been angry at someone, I have tried to
damage that person’s reputation by gossiping about them,” and “When angered or provoked by another person, I react by giving that person the ‘silent treatment’”), and the other two measure the child’s relational aggression in romantic relationships if the child is in one (e.g. “If my boyfriend/girlfriend makes me mad, I will flirt with another person in front of him/her”). These items were assessed with a likert type scale ranging from 1 (*never true*) to 5 (*almost always true*) with overall scores ranging from 4-20 for general relational aggression and from 2-10 for romantic relational higher scores indicating higher levels of relational aggression. The adolescent answered these same items at Time 4 so they will be used as indicators to create a control variable, Adolescent Relational Aggression T4.

Reliability coefficients for Wave 5 were .72 and for Wave 4 were .74. Confirmatory factor validity indicated that item loadings ranged from .78 to .92.

**Adolescent Internalizing Behaviors T5 and T4.** A latent variable called child internalizing behaviors was created using adolescents’ reports on three measures at Time 5: Internalizing Behaviors (Barber, Stolz, Olsen, & Maughn, 2005), Spence Anxiety Scale (Spence, 1998), and Child Depression Inventory (Weissman, Orvaschel, & Padian, 1980). Three measures were used to create this latent variable because they are all slightly different but similar enough to load onto one variable, and creating a latent variable allowed for the control of measurement error.

Adolescents responded to 13 Internalizing items (Barber, et. al., 2005) that are scored on a 3-point likert scale ranging from 0 (*not true*) to 2 (*very true or often true*). These items included: “I feel lonely,” “I feel worthless or bad about myself,” and “I am self-conscious or easily embarrassed.” Chronbach’s Alpha for the current sample was .84 at Time 4 and .88 at Time 5. This measure has been used in several studies (Bean, Barber, & Crane, 2006; Daunic,
et. al., 2012; Krishnakumar, Buehler, and Barber, 2003) and has demonstrated predictive validity in that it is related to negative outcomes in adolescents. Factorial validity studies have shown that all of the items load on one factor with loadings ranging from .77 to .92.

Adolescents also responded to 6 items of the Generalized Anxiety Subscale of the Spence Child Anxiety Inventory including: “I feel afraid,” “When I have a problem, my heart beats really fast,” and “I worry that something bad will happen to me.” They were measured on a likert type scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 (always). Chronbach’s Alpha for the current sample was .83 at Time 4 and Time 5. Spence reported that all the items loaded onto one factor with loadings ranging from .88 to .93. This measure is widely used in studies of anxiety with children. Concurrent validity studies have shown that the overall score from this scale is correlated with other valid measures of anxiety (Murris, Merckelbach, Ollendick, King, & Bogie, 2002; Murris, Schmidt, and Merckelbach, 2000).

The depression items came from the 20-item self-report Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale for Children (CES-DC; Weissman, Orvaschel, & Padian, 1980). These 20 items were measured on a likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 4 (a lot) and included items such as: “I did not feel like eating, I wasn’t very hungry,” “I wasn’t able to feel happy, even when my family or friends tried to help me feel better,” and “I felt like I couldn’t pay attention to what I was doing.” Chronbach’s Alpha for the current sample was .91 at Time 4 and .92 at Time 5. Weissman and colleagues (1980) reported that this measure was significantly intercorrelated with other tests of child depression (CDI, CPQ, CBCL) when the tests were completed by the same informant. These same three measures taken at Time 4 were used to create a control variable called adolescent internalizing behaviors T4.
Adolescent School Engagement T5 and T4. A latent variable called adolescent school engagement was created using the adolescent’s, mother’s and father’s answers at Time 5 to a 9-item modified version of Fredericks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004) School Engagement Measure. Each of the 9 items are assessed using a likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) with overall scores ranging from 9-45 and higher scores indicating higher ability of the child to engage in prosocial behavior at and focus in school. Items include, “My child pays attention in class,” “My child feels excited by the work in school,” and “My child gets in trouble at school” (reverse coded). The child measure includes the same items, but they are written in the first person (e.g. “I pay attention in class”). The adolescent’s, mother’s, and father’s answers to the same questions at Time 4 were used to create a control variable, adolescent school engagement T4. Original reliability for this measure was reported at .72 to .77 (behavioral), .83 to .86 (emotional), and .82 (cognitive) for the child self-report; overall reliability was not reported in the original sample (Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2005). Chronbach’s Alpha scores for the current sample at Time 4 are as follows. For the child: .85 (overall), .79 (behavioral), and .85 (emotional); for the mother: .88 (overall), .84 (behavioral), and .83 emotional; for the father: .89 (overall), .83 (behavioral), and .86 (emotional). At Time 5 the Chronbach’s Alpha scores for the child were: .84 (overall), .77 (behavioral), and .81 (emotional); for the mother were: .88 (overall), .83 (behavioral), and .83 (emotional); and for the father were: .88 (overall), .83 (behavioral), and .84 (emotional).

Concurrent validity studies have shown that this measure is correlated with teacher report of behaviors in the classroom (.43) and correlated with school attachment (.57). The behavioral (.60) and emotional (.50) sub scales have also been found to be correlated across time.
Standardized regression coefficients were also found for work orientation ($\beta = .28$, $p \leq .001$), task challenge ($\beta = .23$, $p \leq .001$), and peer support ($\beta = .13$, $p \leq .01$; Fredericks, et al., 2005).

**Results**

**Mean Scores and Correlations**

Mean scores were calculated overall and by gender for all informants on the predictor, mediator, and outcome variables (see Table 1). The mean scores for indicators of the latent variable parental relational aggression were mother love withdrawal $2.66 (SD=1.13)$ and $2.80 (SD=1.17)$, mother social sabotage $1.38 (SD=.75)$ and $1.58 (SD=.83)$, father love withdrawal $2.41 (SD=1.23)$ and $2.38 (SD=1.21)$, and father social sabotage $1.39 (SD=.73)$ and $1.37 (SD=.65)$ for families with boys and girls, respectively.

Correlations between variables for boys and girls separately are also shown in Table 1. When correlations between variables were statistically significant, they were correlated in the hypothesized directions for all relationships. For example, mother love withdrawal and social sabotage were each, in order, negatively related to adolescent ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$ and $r = -.21$, $p < .01$), mother ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$ and $r = -.24$, $p < .001$), and father ($r = -.16$, $p < .05$ and $r = -.22$, $p < .01$) reports of self-regulation in girls. Mother love withdrawal was negatively related to mother ($r = -.15$, $p < .05$) and father ($r = -.17$, $p < .05$) reports of self-regulation; and mother social sabotage was negatively related to adolescent ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$) and father ($r = -.16$, $p < .05$) reports of self-regulation in boys. Father social sabotage was related to mother report ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$) of self-regulation in girls and to mother ($r = -.17$, $p < .05$) and father ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$) report of self-regulation in boys. Similarly, father love withdrawal was related to adolescent-report ($r = -.16$, $p < .05$) of self-regulation in boys only. One or more reports of adolescent self-regulation were then related to all items and subcategories of the other adolescent outcomes (see Table 1).
Path Model Results

As shown in Figure 2, the goodness of fit analysis for the model indicated that the hypothesized model had good fit with the data. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was .99 and above 0.95 for excellent fit. The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.021, which is well below the .05 cutoff for adequate fit. The Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) was .048, which is well below the .08 cutoff for adequate fit (Kline, 2010).

Structural equation modeling indicated mother romantic relational aggression was positively related to girls’ relational aggression ($\beta = .15, p<.01$) and negatively to boys’ romantic relational aggression ($\beta = -.15, p<.05$). Father romantic relational aggression was negatively related to girls’ romantic relational aggression ($\beta = -.25, p<.01$). Mother romantic relational aggression was negatively related to adolescent self-regulation for both boys ($\beta = -.15, p<.05$) and girls ($\beta = -.31, p<.001$). Father romantic relational aggression was negatively related self-regulation for boys ($\beta = -.15, p<.05$), but not for girls. Child self-regulation was negatively related to adolescent relational aggression ($\beta = -.14, p<.05, \beta = -.27, p<.001$), adolescent romantic relational aggression ($\beta = -.30, p<.001, \beta = -.33, p<.001$) and adolescent internalizing ($\beta = -.39, p<.001, \beta = -.38, p<.001$) for boys and girls respectively. Self-regulation was positively related to school engagement for both boys and girls ($\beta = .67, p<.001, \beta = .61, p<.001$). Child’s age, number of siblings, race, parents’ education and household income were all used as control variables in both models, but none of the paths were statistically significant so they are not shown in Figure 2. There were gender differences as shown in the group comparison which follows.

Group comparison was used to compare whether the coefficients for the various paths were different for boys and girls. A fully constrained model was tested against a fully
unconstrained model, and the Chi-square difference test showed that the models were different from each other. An approach was taken in which the fully constrained model was taken and beginning with the paths with the largest difference between standardized Betas, one path at a time was unconstrained until the best model fit was reached. In the model with the best fit, the following paths appeared to show significant differences between boys and girls: mother romantic relational aggression to adolescent self-regulation (stronger path for girls), mother romantic relational aggression to adolescent relational aggression (stronger path for girls), mother romantic relational aggression to adolescent romantic relational aggression (stronger path for boys), father romantic relational aggression to adolescent self-regulation (stronger path for boys), father romantic relational aggression to adolescent romantic relational aggression (stronger path for boys).

To test for mediation, bias-corrected bootstrapping with 2000 bootstrap samples was used. As can be seen in Table 2, adolescent self-regulation significantly mediated the relationship between mother romantic relational aggression and all four outcome variables for girls but not for boys. For boys, adolescent self-regulation significantly mediated the relationship between father romantic relational aggression and adolescent romantic relational aggression, internalizing behaviors, and school engagement.

**Discussion**

Gender differences indicated that as mother romantic relational aggression increased, relational aggression in girls a year later was higher, and romantic relational aggression in boys was lower. Similarly, as father romantic relational aggression was higher, romantic relational aggression in girls was lower one year later. Adolescent self-regulation appeared to be a process through which mother romantic relational aggression was related to general relational
aggression, romantic relational aggression, internalizing, and school engagement for girls. The association between father romantic relational aggression and romantic relational aggression, internalizing, and school engagement exhibited by boys was partially explained through boys’ self-regulation. These findings lend support to the idea from Family Systems Theory (White & Klein, 2008) that behavior in one in one unit, the marriage, which impacts the functioning of their dyad (Carroll, et. al., 2010), is related to a different family members’ behavior and functioning.

**Importance of Gender in Parent-Child Dyad on Direct Effects of the Model**

In terms of explaining the finding that mother relational aggression was related to relational aggression for girls but not for boys, it is also possible that girls may learn more from watching their mothers than from watching their fathers. Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) suggests that children learn from watching their parents and others, and gender typing suggests that these effects will be especially strong for same-gender parents and others. Underwood and colleagues (Underwood, Beron, Gentsch, Galperin, & Risser, 2008) found similar results in mother conflict behaviors being related to daughter aggression. Interparental aggression may also be related to lower self-concepts in children which has been shown to be predictive of relational aggression in girls, but not in boys (Moretti, Holland, & Mckay, 2001). However, research has not previously shown a direct link between marital conflict and adolescent relational aggression (Hart, Nelson, Robinson, Olsen, & McNeily-Choque, 1998; Lindsey, Chambers, Frabutt, & Mackinnon-Lewis, 2009). This may be because very little published research has looked at this relationship and no previous research has looked at interparental relational aggression and adolescent relational aggression.
Mother and father relational aggression was related to romantic relational aggression for the opposite-gender child. Specifically, higher romantic relational aggression from mother to father was directly negatively related to romantic relational aggression in adolescent boys. Higher romantic relational aggression from father to mother also had a direct negative (and stronger) relationship with romantic relational aggression with adolescent girls. The relationship between marital romantic relational aggression and adolescent romantic relational aggression has not been studied in previous published literature. It is possible that adolescents are more likely to identify with their same-gender parent and are, therefore, are less likely to be relationally aggressive when their opposite-gender parent behaves that way because they identify with their same-gender parent’s experience on the recipient end and decide to be different. The relationship may have been stronger from fathers to girls because relational aggression tends to be a more acceptable form of aggression for females than for males (Werner & Grant, 2009).

The Importance of Self-Regulation as a Mediating Variable

Adolescent self-regulation appears to be a process through which numerous parenting processes influence adolescent outcomes (e.g. Isasi, Ostrovsky, & Wills, 2013; Padilla-Walker, Harper, & Jensen, 2010; Quinn & Fromme, 2010). Again, there were differences based on gender composition of the parent-child dyad in that self-regulation mediated the relationship between mother romantic relational aggression and all outcomes for girls. Adolescent self-regulation also mediated the relationship between father romantic relational aggression and romantic relational aggression, internalizing, and school engagement for boys. It is possible that self-regulation reduces relational aggression both with peers and in romantic relationships because it provides the adolescent with more emotional composure which increases their options for responding to potentially stressful situations in relationships, rather than parroting their
parent’s behavior, which is what Social Learning Theory would predict. Similarly, self-regulation may help in reducing anxiety and responding to stressful situations in more effective ways rather than internalizing or disengaging at school.

This is the first study to utilized adolescent self-regulation with the particular variables of romantic relational aggression in the marriage and the outcomes in this study. However, self-regulation has been shown to mediate between interparental conflict in kindergarten and internalizing and externalizing in 7th grade (Cummings, George, McCoy, & Davies, 2012), and has been shown to moderate the impact of interparental hostility on adolescents with adolescents with higher self-regulation displaying positive engagement during interparental conflict, while adolescents with lower self-regulation were more likely to respond with hostility (Schulz, Waldinger, Hauser, & Allen, 2005). Self-regulation has also been related to school engagement (Iyer, Kochenderfer-Ladd, Eisenberg, & Thompson, 2010) and relational aggression (Bowie, 2010). It seems that adolescent self-regulation is a process through which many family processes are related to positive and negative adolescent outcomes.

There was a gender difference in the magnitude of the relationship between adolescent self-regulation and relational aggression with the relationship being stronger for girls. It is possible that self-regulation serves as a stronger buffer against relational aggression in girls than boys because relational aggression is generally more acceptable among adolescent girls (Werner & Grant, 2009) and, therefore, a girl’s ability to self-regulate may have a stronger relationship to this avenue of acting out.

**Clinical Implications**

There are several clinical implications for family therapists as well as implications for future research. It is common for married partners to display relational aggression, especially
Love-withdrawal behaviors (Carroll, et. al., 2010). Where romantic relational aggression is so common in this community sample from a large northwestern city, it is possible that it will be even more common in clinical families, although there is no published literature to support this. It is probable that many adolescents in therapy will have been exposed to these behaviors to some degree. In this study we found marital romantic relational aggression was related to adolescent relational aggression (in girls) and romantic relational aggression (in both boys and girls), and indirectly related to relational aggression (in girls), and to internalizing behaviors, school engagement, and romantic relational aggression in both boys and girls. Therefore, clinicians should consider these more covert dynamics, especially relational aggression, when working with families and adolescents in general, and especially when the presenting problem for the adolescent is related to any of the outcomes in this study.

While there is a lot of support that overt marital conflict has an impact on adolescent functioning (e.g. Buehler & Welsh, 2009; Franck & Buehler, 2007; Lindsey, Chambers, Frabutt, & Mackinnon-Lewis, 2009; Voisin, Neilands, & Hunnicutt, 2011), here we found support that even more covert forms of marital aggression seem to impact adolescent outcomes with different ultimate effects depending on whether these behaviors are displayed by the same-gender or opposite-gender parent. This provides further support for systems theory principles suggesting that functioning in one part of the system has effects on other parts of the same system. Therefore, it is important to include other members of a family, particularly parents, in an adolescent’s treatment, and therapists need to be tuned into less direct forms of aggression in families that may be impacting adolescents in negative ways.

Including other family members in treatment and paying attention to less direct forms of aggression in families may be especially true when the presenting problem is related to the
adolescent’s self-regulation or behaviors impacted by self-regulation including school engagement, aggression, and internalizing behaviors such as anxiety and depression. Because self-regulation was a significant predictor of all adolescent outcomes addressed here, and has been shown to be predictive of many other outcomes (e.g. Isasi, Ostrovsky, & Wills, 2013; Padilla-Walker, Harper, & Jensen, 2010; Quinn & Fromme, 2010), clinicians can include marital therapy in working to alleviate adolescent symptoms such as internalizing behaviors, relational aggression, and problems at school while conjointly working with adolescents to improve their self-regulation abilities through family therapies such as Attachment-Based Family Therapy developed by Diamond and colleagues (2014), in combination with an attachment-based couple therapy such as Emotionally Focused Therapy developed by Johnson and Greenberg (2004). Self-regulation may also be important when therapists do not have access to other family members and are aware that family dynamics may be impacting the adolescent’s functioning as there is some research to suggest that adolescents interact with marital conflict differently depending on their levels of self-regulation (Schulz, Waldinger, Hauser, & Allen, 2005).

**Limitations and Implications for Future Research**

This research was not without its limitations. First, our sample included only two-parent families, and we did not distinguish between biological married, biological cohabiting, step married and step cohabiting families. It is possible that different effects exist when comparing single-parent or different types of two-parent families. Also, although the ethnic diversity of the families in our sample closely resembled the demographic area they were selected from, it was not sufficiently diverse to examine ethnic or cultural differences, especially for Latino families, which may play a part in marital romantic relational aggression and its impacts on adolescent outcomes. More research is needed to examine these effects.
In addition to research suggested above, more research is needed to replicate these findings. This is the first time the relationship between these variables have been studied, and without more research, we are left to wonder if these findings are the results of true relationships or chance variance. There is more potential in studying this area beyond replication and expanding to other cultures and family types. Little is known about relational aggression in families. More information is needed to know if these same findings extend to other ages of children; if sibling dynamics change these relationships; if relational aggression displayed toward a child him/herself, toward a sibling, or toward a peer has differing effects; and if other factors play a mediating or moderating role in these relationships.

Conclusion

Family Systems Theory suggests that the functioning and behaviors of one part of the system will have an impact on other parts of that same system. This study seems to support this idea because father relational aggression was directly related to romantic relational aggression in girls and indirectly (through adolescent self-regulation) related to romantic relational aggression, internalizing behaviors, and school engagement in boys. Similarly, mother romantic relational aggression was directly related to relational aggression in girls and romantic relational aggression in boys, and was indirectly (through adolescent self-regulation) related to all outcomes measured in girls. It is important for therapists to examine the effects of marital dynamics on adolescents even when those dynamics are less overt. More research is needed to look at these relationships in other family types, cultures, and ages of children, and with other potential mediators and moderators that affect the impact of marital romantic relational aggression on child functioning.
References


Grych, J. H., Raynor, S. R., & Fosco, G. M. (2004). Family processes that shape the impact of


and adolescents’ peer aggression: The mediating and moderating role of mother-child emotional reciprocity. *Family Relations, 58*, 593-606.


Figure 1. Hypothesized Measurement and Structural Model with Mother and Father Romantic Relational Aggression T4 Predicting Adolescent Relational Aggression T5, Internalizing Behaviors T5, School Engagement T5 with Adolescent Self-Regulation T5 as Mediating and T4 Control Variables and Adolescent Age, Race, Parent Education, and Income
Figure 2. SEM Results with Mother and Father Romantic Relational Aggression Predicting Adolescent Relational Aggression, Romantic Relational Aggression, Internalizing, and School Engagement with Self-Regulation as Mediating Variable

NOTE: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. Coefficients for boys are before the / For girls after the /. Adolescent Relational Aggression, Romantic Relational Aggression, Internalizing, and School Engagement were controlled for at Time 4. Age, Race, Parent Education, and Income were covariates but none of them were significant. For clarity, the time 4 controls and covariates are not shown in this figure. Dotted lines indicate paths with significant gender differences.
Table 1. Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations for Measured Variables.

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*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001  NOTE: Families with boys below diagonal. Families with girls above diagonal.
Table 2. Decomposition of Effects on Adolescent Relational Aggression, Romantic Relational Aggression, Internalizing Behaviors, and School Engagement.

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*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001