The Dissertation Committee for Denise Susan Bartell
Certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

The Processes of Commitment in Premarital Romantic Relationships: An Elaboration of a Typology

Committee:

_____
Catherine A. Surra, Supervisor

_____
Sue Greninger

_____
Edward Anderson

_____
Ted Huston

_____
Norval Glenn

The Processes of Commitment in Premarital Romantic Relationships: An Elaboration of a Typology

By

Denise Susan Bartell, B.S., M.A.

Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

the University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

August 2002

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family. To my mother, whose selfless support and constant love throughout my life are more responsible for my achievements than any other single factor. To my father, who showed me the value of a father's love in my life. And to my Oma and Opa, who always encouraged me to achieve all that I could achieve.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my graduate advisor, Catherine Surra, whose guidance, support and encouragement have been invaluable to me in this dissertation and over the course of my graduate career. I would also like to thank the many graduate students who have contributed to the development, administration, and analysis of the UT-TRAC study that this dissertation was based upon, as well as the respondents in the study, who agreed to let us in on the intimate workings of their romantic lives for nine months. Finally, I would like to thank David Casey and Sylvia Niehuis for their assistance, support and their friendship as I completed this dissertation, and my husband Rob, for his understanding and encouragement over the past year.

The Processes of Commitment in Premarital Romantic Relationships: An Elaboration of a Typology

Publication No. _____

Denise Susan Bartell, Ph.D.
The University of Texas at Austin, 2002

Supervisor: Catherine A. Surra

The purpose of this study was to examine different processes by which commitment to marry changes over time for heterosexual premarital dating partners. The sample consisted of 464 randomly recruited heterosexual dating partners (232 couples) who completed up to nine monthly interviews in a comprehensive longitudinal study of premarital romantic relationships.

Previous research has identified two distinct processes of commitment for partners in dating relationships, event-driven and relationship-driven. The current study sought to identify and describe subtypes of these processes of commitment using a retrospective account of changes in commitment in the respondent's dating relationship from the day it began, and to replicate the subtypes using a more prospective account of changes in commitment in the same relationships over the nine months of the study.

The commitment processes were identified by means of cluster analyses using variables derived from a graphing procedure where respondents were asked to graph

the trajectory of changes in commitment in their relationship over time and to provide accounts of what happened to cause these changes. Results indicated four distinct types of commitment process, two sub-types of the event-driven process and two sub-types of the relationship-driven process. The dramatic event-driven were characterized by dramatic changes in level of commitment, and perceptions of high levels of individual interaction with the social network and negative attributions about the relationship. The conflict-ridden event-driven were characterized by perceptions of high levels of conflict and many downturns in commitment to the relationship. The socially-involved relationship-driven were characterized by perceptions of high levels of dyadic interaction with the social network and by positive attributions about that involvement. The positive-isolated relationship-driven were characterized by perceptions of high levels of dyadic interdependence and positive attributions about their relationship and were also relatively isolated from their social network.

A second goal of this paper was to identify relational predictors of the different pathways using commonly recognized relationship dimensions and commitment variables. Results indicated that trust in the partner's benevolence and the level of conflict perceived in the relationship were particularly useful in predicting commitment process.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents (cont'd)

Table of Contents (cont'd)

List of Tables

List of Tables (cont'd)

List of Figures

List of Figures (cont'd)

Literature Review

Introduction

Research has shown that romantic relationships progress towards marriage in a variety of ways, and that no one developmental progression can be applied to all premarital relationships (e.g., Cate, Huston & Nesselroade, 1986; Huston, 1994; Surra, 1985). Studying the development of commitment in premarital relationships, and particularly variations in development, is important in order to identify premarital patterns that predict healthy or problematic relationship outcomes. The assumption underlying these endeavors is that problematic premarital relationships will become problematic marriages, as whatever characteristics of the premarital relationship that made it problematic are expected to maintain in the marital relationship. Research indicates that we can indeed predict marital outcomes using information about the premarital characteristics of the relationship (Hill & Peplau, 1995; Huston, 1994; Huston, Houts, Caughlin, Smith & George, 2001). In addition, this research points to the importance of incorporating studies of the processes involved in commitment into studies that seek to predict relational outcomes in order to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the development of romantic relationships (Hill & Peplau, 1995). Ultimately, the information gathered in research such as this may be used to assist individuals in making mate selection decisions that are more likely to result in positive outcomes.

In my dissertation I will attempt to (a) identify and describe an elaboration of a typology of developmental processes of commitment, (b) examine whether commitment process classification is stable over the course of the relationship and with different degrees of retrospective data, and (c) predict commitment process from a series of commonly examined dimensions of the relationship and commitment variables.

Commitment in Romantic Relationships

Commitment to a personal relationship involves the intent to maintain that relationship into the foreseeable future (Kelley, 1983). Commitment is said to result from the combined effect of the causes that act to pull the partner into and those that draw them away from the relationship (Kelley, 1983). Researchers on courtship and marriage have argued that commitment is crucial to understanding the development and maintenance of romantic relationships. For example, one of the premises of Rusbult's investment model is the idea that the degree of commitment to the relationship plays a significant role in an individual's decision to maintain or end their relationship (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983). In addition, in their paper on the commitment in problematic relationships, Surra & Gray argue that levels of commitment to the relationship are much more important in predicting the likely continuation of a relationship than are levels of love (2000). These bodies of research, as well as others with the same focus, share the assumption that the intent to maintain a relationship (i.e., commitment) plays a primary role in whether that

relationship actually maintains over time (Kelley, 1983; Rusbult, 1983; Surra & Gray, 2000). As a result, much of the research that has attempted to identify different developmental pathways in romantic relationships has focused upon the partner's commitment to their relationship (e.g., Cate et al., 1986; Surra, 1985; Surra & Hughes, 1997).

Theoretical perspectives on commitment in personal relationships generally distinguish between different components of the intent to maintain in a relationship. For example, Kelley (1983) distinguishes between "pro" and "con" influences on the development of commitment, where "pros" are factors that promote maintaining in the relationship and "cons" are factors that promote leaving the relationship. According to Kelley's interdependence perspective, an individual can be expected to maintain in their relationship as long as, on average, the pros significantly outweigh the cons associated with their participation in the relationship (Kelley, 1983). Rusbult's investment model (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult, Martz & Agnew, 1998), an extension of interdependence theory, proposes that commitment results from the combined effects of the outcomes in the relationship, the investments made in the relationship, and the perceived attractiveness of alternatives to the relationship. Johnson's tripartite model proposes that commitment is made up of three distinct components. Specifically, personal commitment is the personal motivation to maintain the relationship, structural commitment is the structural factors that act to constrain an individual in or draw them from the relationship, and moral commitment

is the feelings of obligation to maintain the relationship. The three components of commitment are said to be the result of different causes and to have different consequences for the relationship (Johnson, 1991; Johnson, Caughlin & Huston, 1999). Stanley and Markman's (1992) conception of commitment distinguishes between personal dedication, the personal desire to maintain the relationship, and constraint commitment, the forces that constrain one to maintain the relationship, as determinants of commitment.

In summary, although there is considerable agreement on the basic definition of commitment to a personal relationship, there is considerable variety in perceptions of the components underlying commitment (Surra, Hughes & Jacquet, 1999). It should be mentioned here that these theoretical explanations of commitment vary in terms of where the components fit in the model, with the same components identified as causes of commitment in some theories and parts of the construct of commitment in others (Surra et al., 1999). The procedure by which the data on developmental trajectories of commitment was gathered in the present study has the advantage of clearly distinguishing commitment from the causes of commitment (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra et al., 1999). Therefore, one of the goals of this study is to take a first step in the development of a more comprehensive model of the role of commitment in romantic relationships, where these different theories of commitment can be combined into a more cohesive and consistent explanatory framework.

Although there are many differences in theories of commitment, there are also some significant similarities. First, most of these perspectives either overtly or implicitly account for influences that can promote as well as impede commitment. Interdependence theory overtly discusses promoting factors as "pros" and impeding factors as "cons" (Kelley, 1983). The components of each of Johnson's three types of commitment can act to promote involvement (e.g., feelings of love for the partner) or impede involvement in the relationship (e.g., pressures from family members to end the relationship; Johnson et al., 1999). In Stanley and Markman's conception of commitment (1992), low levels of personal dedication or constraints can be assumed to impede the development of commitment just as high personal dedication or constraints will promote it. It is important to identify this aspect of these theoretical explanations of commitment because this research seeks to examine both increases and decreases in commitment over time. Therefore, theories that only examined the components of increasing commitment over time would not be able to account for the full range of variation in developmental pathways of commitment to marriage.

A second important similarity among many of these theories is that they distinguish between components of commitment based on personal choice and those that are more the result of external forces that constrain the individual to maintain or dissolve the relationship. For example, both Stanley and Markman's theory (1992) and the tripartite model of commitment distinguish between personal dedication to maintain the relationship and structural forces that act to constrain the individual into

or out of relationship (Johnson et al., 1999). This aspect is important to my research because it is possible that differences in the developmental pathways of romantic relationships may be related to differences in these components of commitment to the relationship. For example, individuals who are committed mainly due to their love for their partner may be more likely to leave the relationship when a job opportunity arises in another state than are individuals who are constrained by their need for the economic assistance provided by their partner.

Previous Work on Developmental Relationship Typologies

A basic assumption of developmental research on romantic relationships is the idea that different developmental pathways can lead to different relational outcomes. Research on marital outcomes often seeks to examine the premarital relationship because of the underlying assumption that characteristics of the relationship crucial to marital success develop during the premarital relationship (e.g., Fowers, Montel & Olson, 1996; Hill & Peplau, 1995; Surra, Arizzi & Asmussen, 1988). Research on premarital relationships often seeks to identify different pathways to different outcomes in the premarital relationship, outcomes that include marriage but also maintenance in a dating relationship and breaking up (e.g., Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000).

In addition, much of the research that seeks to examine the development of romantic relationships assumes that a given outcome in these relationships, say marriage, can also be achieved through a variety of developmental pathways (e.g.

Cate et al., 1986; Huston et al., 2001; Surra, 1985; Surra & Hughes, 1997). This second assumption is important to address for at least three reasons. First, as stated above, it specifies that not all relationships that achieve a certain outcome do so in the same way. For example, some marriages are the result of a brief courtship with dramatic increases in commitment over a relatively short period of time, whereas others are the result of prolonged courtships with much slower increases in commitment over time (Surra, 1985). Second, this assumption implies that not all relationships that achieve a certain outcome exhibit the same characteristics in that outcome. For example, in some marriages partners are very satisfied with their relationship and have little conflict whereas in others the partners are not satisfied and have high levels of conflict (Huston et al., 2001). Third, this assumption involves related assumptions about what the "outcome" of importance is. For example, the researcher selects the outcome of interest to them, say marriage, as a stopping point, often ignoring the fact that relationships are continuous phenomena, and as such will continue to develop after the marriage occurs. These points indicate that the study of relationship development and outcomes should be concerned not only with the prediction of relational stability, but also with the characteristics of the relationships as long as they maintain over time (Huston et al., 2001) and with the examination of a variety of different outcomes as the relationships continue to develop. Eventually, this program of research may be used to help identify couples whose relationship development indicates problematic outcomes and help the individuals in these

couples take appropriate action, either to learn to modify their actions in ways that are more likely to result in better outcomes or, when necessary, to end the relationship.

Developmental Pathways to Marriage

Past research indicates the existence of multiple pathways of commitment to marriage. For example, Surra (1985) and Cate, Huston and Nesselroade (1986) identified different developmental pathways to marriage using a type of principle components analysis on newlyweds' retrospective graphs of the trajectory of commitment to marry during courtship. Surra (1985) identified four different courtship types and found that the types differed not only on patterns of the speed and variability of commitment, but also on other relationship characteristics such as the degree of interdependence between partners and social network involvement. In accelerated courtships, commitment to marry increased rapidly to high level and maintained at that level until marriage (Surra, 1985). In accelerated arrested courtships, commitment to marry increased rapidly to a high level but then stalled when the partners became engaged (Surra, 1985). In intermediate courtships, commitment progressed more slowly than in the accelerated courtship types (Surra, 1985). In prolonged courtships, commitment progressed the slowest of all courtship types, and partners spent more of their time in the less involved stages of the relationship than did partners in the other courtship types (Surra, 1985).

Cate et al. (1986) identified three component curves of the newlyweds' graphs and found that different characteristics of the courtship were associated with the

extent to which a partner's graph was represented by the different component curves. Partners whose graphs were more closely associated with the first component curve tended to have longer courtships with more time spent in the less involved stages of the relationships and more variability in level of commitment over time, as represented by more turning points and more downturns Cate et al., 1986). Partners whose graphs were more closely represented by the second component curve tended to have shorter courtships with rapid increases to a high level of commitment and more turbulence, as represented by more downturns for the number of months in the graph; Cate et al., 1986). Partners whose graphs were more closely represented by the third component tended to be initially hesitant about commitment, as indicated by a lower chance of marriage during casual dating, to have shorter courtships with less turbulence than partners high on component two and to have less variability in commitment than partners high on component three (Cate et al., 1986).

An additional study used the graphing procedure described above retrospectively with a newlywed sample in an attempt to identify courtship predictors of marital satisfaction (Huston, 1994). The author concluded that much of the variation in trajectories to marriage could be accounted for by: the length of the relationship, the rate of acceleration of commitment to marry (operationally defined as the number of months it took to progress from 25% to 75% committed), and the number of downturns in commitment to marry. As a whole, these studies clearly indicate the existence of different developmental pathways in romantic relationships.

Developmental Pathways to Different Marital Outcomes

The identification of different pathways to different outcomes has been the goal of a variety of research on romantic relationships. In this section I will summarize a few of the most significant contributions to this work. In a fifteen-year follow-up to the Boston Couples Study, the authors found that a variety of premarital characteristics were predictive of marital outcomes over the first fifteen years of marriage (Hill & Peplau, 1995). Specifically, they found that premarital reports of love for partner, rating the partner as a desirable mate, exclusively dating the partner, and perceptions of equal involvement in the relationship were all associated with staying together for at least two years (Hill & Peplau, 1995). However, the only characteristic that significantly predicted marital stability at the fifteen-year follow-up was the woman's premarital reports of love for the partner (Hill & Peplau, 1995). The investigators concluded that long-term studies such as theirs, that link marital outcomes to premarital relationship characteristics, will need to be combined with analyses of the processes by which these characteristics influence the relationship over time in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the development of romantic relationships (Hill & Peplau, 1995). The present study seeks to address this need, by examining the processes of commitment over time and seeking to predict relational outcomes from these processes.

Other research has attempted to identify different types of premarital relationships and use them to predict marital outcomes (Fowers, Montel, & Olson,

1996). This research has found differences in marital stability and marital satisfaction up to three years after marriage based upon premarital relationship classification. Specifically, individuals who were in highly satisfying and quite positive premarital relationships were more satisfied after three years of marriage, and individuals who were less satisfied with their premarital relationship yet were quite traditional in their attitudes about marriage were the least likely to have divorced after three years of marriage.

One of the most recent contributions to this work attempted to predict marital outcomes after 13 years of marriage using data collected during the first two years of marriage (Huston et al., 2001). The investigators placed each couple into one of four possible outcome groups (happily married, unhappily married, early divorced or later divorced) and attempted to predict each couples' group identification using characteristics of the newlywed relationship and changes in these characteristics over the first two years of marriage. Results indicated that individuals in couples who divorced over the course of the study exhibited greater increases in ambivalence and greater decreases in partner's responsiveness over the first two years of marriage than did individuals in couples who stayed married (Huston et al., 2001). In addition, individuals in couples who were happily married thirteen years after marriage reported higher levels of love and more partner responsiveness as newlyweds than did individuals in couples who were unhappily married after thirteen years of marriage (Huston et al., 2001). Individuals in couples who divorced quickly after marriage

exhibited greater decreases in love and increases in ambivalence over the first two years of marriage than did individuals in the other marital outcome groups (Huston et al., 2001). As newlyweds, individuals in couples who divorced later in the marriage exhibited more affection than any other group, and equivalent levels of love and responsiveness as the happily married group (Huston et al., 2001). However, during the first two years of marriage the later divorced group exhibited significantly greater declines in affection than did either group that stayed married (Huston et al., 2001). Taken as a whole, this research clearly indicates the existence of different pathways to different relational outcomes, and points to the need for additional research to identify premarital predictors of the different developmental trajectories as well as the processes by which these characteristics influence development.

Previous Work on Commitment Processes

The existence of different types of courtship trajectories in newlywed samples led Surra to examine individual's perceptions of the development of commitment to their dating relationships (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). This line of research is significant for a number of reasons. In comparison to most other work on premarital relationships, which sampled married couples and gathered retrospective data about their courtships (e.g., Cate et al., 1986; Huston, 1994; Surra et al, 1988), these studies sampled couples in dating relationships. Doing so increases the potential variability in outcomes in the sample, since it is likely that a significant portion of the relationships sampled will not result in marriage. Therefore, a dating

sample has the ability to capture both those relationships that result in marriage and those that do not, with partners either breaking up before marriage or remaining in dating relationships for long periods of time. Premarital samples, therefore, allow an examination of the greatest degree of variation in both patterns of development and relational outcomes. In addition, gathering information about courtship before marriage may be more truly representative of the nature of the premarital relationship, both because of the shorter length of time over which the sample is being asked to retrospect, as well as the fact that the act of marrying may affect an individual's perceptions of their courtship in significant ways.

Surra's previous work on courtship types and the development of commitment to marry led to the hypothesis that individuals engage in different types of subjective processes in the development of commitment (Surra et al., 1988; Surra & Hughes, 1997). In addition to finding different courtship types based upon the characteristics of partners' graphs of changes in commitment to marry (Surra, 1985), Surra also found that different types of reasons given for the reported changes in commitment were associated with the courtship types (Surra, 1987). For example, partners in accelerated courtships discussed more reasons dealing with intrapersonal norms than did partners in other courtship types, while partners in prolonged relationships discussed more reasons involving circumstantial issues than did partners in other courtship types (Surra, 1987). Other research indicated connections between specific characteristics of the graph and the types of reasons given for changes in commitment

(Surra et al., 1988). For example, reasons that involved the partner and the relationship were more often associated with upturns on the graph than downturns, whereas reasons concerning the social network were more often associated with downturns than upturns (Surra et al., 1988). As a result of such findings, Surra hypothesized that the different courtship types established are the product of different developmental processes that involve different subjective and objective causes of commitment (Surra, 1987; Surra & Hughes, 1997).

The Phenomenology of Commitment

Commitment is defined subjectively in research on commitment processes, as the individual's beliefs about the likelihood that their relationship will maintain over time (Surra et al., 1999). Marital commitment, which is the type of commitment assessed in the graphing procedure, assesses the individual's beliefs about the likelihood that their relationship will result in marriage. Marital commitment was defined as distinct from more global assessments of commitment because of the possibility that different causes of commitment operate in different types of commitment (e.g., commitment to a parent-child relationship and to a romantic relationship; Surra et al, 1999).

Surra's work expanded previous research using the graphing procedure by incorporating the individuals' subjective perceptions of the causes of commitment into analyses of the development of commitment (Surra & Hughes, 1997). This expansion is significant for two reasons. First, it separates out the construct of

commitment from the causes of commitment in a measurement model (Surra et al., 1999). As was stated earlier, this has been a common problem in both theoretical and empirical examinations of commitment. Second, it allows the researcher to examine the causes that partners consider important to the development of commitment in their relationship, causes that may or may not be similar to the causes the researcher, as an outsider to the relationship, identifies (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra et al., 1999). For example, the role of normative ideas about commitment is generally not assessed in mate selection research; however these ideas do seem to play a significant role in commitment for individuals in relationships. In addition, even when both the researcher and the partner consider a certain type of cause as important in the development of commitment, they may interpret the effects of that cause differently. For example, a researcher may consider strong network support for the relationship as contributing to increased commitment to the relationship, but it is possible that, for some individuals, perceived family approval of a potential partner may decrease their desire to maintain the relationship.

Commitment Processes

In order to test the hypothesis that individuals engage in different subjective processes in the development of commitment to marry, Surra performed cluster analyses on two samples of coupled dating partners (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). The cluster analysis included variables taken from the graphs of changes in commitment in the relationship as well as variables derived from the

accounts given for the changes in the graphs (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). The variables derived from the graph assessed the dramatic-ness of changes in level of commitment over time as well as the proportions of advances and declines in commitment (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). The variables derived from the accounts represented the individual's perceptions of the reasons for the changes in commitment they reported (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). Two distinct clusters, that maximized the similarity between individuals within each cluster as well as the difference between individuals in different clusters, were identified in the first sample (Surra & Hughes, 1997) and replicated with the second sample (Surra & Gray, 2000). These clusters were labeled event-driven commitment processes and relationship-driven commitment processes (Surra & Hughes, 1997).

Follow-up analyses on the variables used to create the clusters indicated that the development of commitment for relationship-driven individuals was relatively smooth, with few downturns and less dramatic change in level of commitment over time (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). Individuals in relationship-driven commitments were more likely to report reasons involving interacting with the partner and to report proportionately more positive attributions and fewer negative attributions about the relationship (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). In addition, relationship-driven women reported proportionately more reasons involving joint interaction with the social network and involving positive attributions about the social network (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). On the other hand, the

development of commitment for event-driven individuals was more turbulent, with proportionately more downturns and more dramatic changes in commitment over time (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). The reasons discussed by individuals in event-driven commitments tended to be more negative, as they reported proportionately more reasons involving conflict and negative attributions about the relationship (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). In addition, event-driven individuals reported proportionately more reasons involving individual interaction with the social network (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000).

Sub-Types of Commitment Processes

The two types of commitment process identified by Surra differ on the nature of changes in level of commitment to the relationship as well as on the types of attributions made to explain changes in commitment over time. But findings from the research conducted thus far indicate that two commitment processes do not differ on many measures of involvement, including the length of the relationship, the probability of breakup and the level of love for the partner (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). In addition, Surra and Hughes (1997) hypothesized that individuals with relationship-driven commitments are similar to the prototypical courtship in traditional mate selection literature, whereby individuals engage in a process of compatibility testing as a means to evaluate the quality of their relationship, as a result making decisions about future involvement in the relationship. According to compatibility testing theory, individuals should decide to

end a relationship when they do not perceive themselves as sufficiently compatible with their partner. However, Surra did not find such a group of individuals in previous research on commitment processes (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). In other words, the 2-group solution of commitment process did not identify a group of individuals whose commitment progressed relatively smoothly, but who over time decided to end the relationship as they determined that they and their partner were not suited for each other.

These findings are particularly interesting given that past research on developmental pathways in romantic relationships has been able to predict relational outcomes from a variety of characteristics of the relationship (Huston et al, 2001; Olson et al., 1996; Surra et al., 1988). It is possible that there are truly no differences in outcomes between event-driven and relationship-driven commitments, and that both are equally likely to maintain over time. However, both theory and past research refute this idea. For example, higher levels of problems in the premarital relationship have been found to be related to and increased probability of ending the relationship before marriage (Hill & Peplau, 1995). Therefore, it seems more likely there are differences between different trajectories of commitment, but that the two types of commitment processes are not capturing this variability. I hypothesize that no differences have been found on measures of involvement or outcomes in these studies because there are subtypes within the relationship-driven and event-driven

commitment processes and that grouping them together masks true variability in outcomes for different processes of commitment.

The existence of subtypes may also help to explain certain results in research on commitment processes. The finding that individuals in relationship-driven and event-driven commitments did not differ on many indicators of involvement led to the development and investigation of possible explanations for why some partners may maintain involvement in premarital relationships that are subjectively experienced as more negative and problematic (Surra & Hughes, 1997). The most recent study of commitment processes sought to explain this phenomenon by testing four potential explanations: (1) partners maintain involvement because they are structurally constrained to maintain the relationship (perceive few better alternatives or that the costs associated with leaving are too high), (2) partners maintain involvement because they are attracted to the excitement of these more dramatic relationships, (3) partners maintain involvement because they are more ambivalent about involvement in the relationship, and (4) partners maintain involvement because they attribute the problems they perceive in the relationship to themselves (Surra & Gray, 2000). In general, the authors found mixed support for these potential explanations (Surra & Gray, 2000). Contrary to their hypotheses, the authors found that the relationship-driven group was more structurally-constrained to maintain the relationship, and that there were no significant differences between the two groups on the perceived excitement of the relationship. Consistent with their hypotheses, the authors found

that the event-driven group was less trusting of their partner and more ambivalent about involvement in their relationship, and the event-driven group appeared to focus more on themselves in accounts of changes in their relationship. Given that these hypotheses were based in past theory and empirical work on commitment, and that support was found for some of the hypotheses but not others, the findings may be due to the existence of subtypes of commitment processes. First of all, the subtypes may actually differ on measures of involvement, which would make an exploration of reasons for the lack of difference unnecessary. Even if there are no differences in measures of involvement between the subtypes, they may differ on the extent to which each of these potential explanations applies to them. In other words, individuals in different commitment processes may maintain involvement in negative relationships for different reasons. Either way, the discovery of subtypes of commitment process will act to further research on the development of commitment in romantic relationships.

Based on the above reasoning, I hypothesize that subtypes of relationship-driven and event-driven commitment processes exist and can be identified. The first section of my dissertation will therefore consist of a re-analysis of the data used in the most recent research on commitment process (Surra & Gray, 2000) in order to identify subtypes of the event-driven and relationship-driven commitment processes. If sub-types are found to exist, I will describe these processes on the variables used to create them.

Relationship Dimensions

Certain constructs are commonly used in explorations of the development of romantic relationships. Variables such as trust, conflict, ambivalence, love and satisfaction represent how the individual feels about the relationship at the time of measurement. Theoretical explanations of commitment as well as empirical investigations have found these variables to be centrally related to commitment to the romantic relationship. Although not necessarily representative of the history of the relationship, the relationship dimensions do provide important information that can be used to examine the development of commitment. For example, in many investigations these variables are used to predict relational outcomes, including commitment to the relationship (e.g., Cate et al., 1986; Surra & Hughes, 1997) and relational stability (e.g., Hill & Peplau, 1995; Huston et al., 2001; Kurdek, 2002). Since these variables are hypothesized to be central to global commitment, it seems important to examine whether they help to predict commitment process. Therefore, in the second section of my dissertation I will examine whether common relationship dimensions can significantly predict an individual's commitment process. I hypothesize that these variables will significantly predict commitment process.

Trust, ambivalence and conflict

Trust, ambivalence and conflict are measures of uncertainty that have been found to be important in past research on romantic relationships. The importance of these variables to the development of romantic relationships is well illustrated by

examining them from an interdependence perspective. A fundamental property of all personal relationships is the mutual contingency of outcomes that exists between partners, or interdependence (Kelley, 1979; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). As relationships become increasingly interdependent, individuals' outcomes become increasingly dependent upon their partner's actions in the relationship (Kelley, 1979; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978), a situation which is, all things being equal, quite risky for the individual (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Rusbult, Yovetich & Verette, 1996). The amount of risk involved is directly related to the perceived likelihood that the partner will act to facilitate the individual's outcomes (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Rusbult et al., 1996).

Therefore, as commitment to a relationship increases, with corresponding increases in interdependence between partners, the potential risks involved in that relationship increase. This situation makes trust an increasingly important component in the development of commitment in romantic relationships (Boon & Holmes, 1991). The level of interdependence may also be related to conflict between partners, as not receiving desired outcomes in the relationship is likely to create conflict. In addition, the level of interdependence between partners and the degree of correspondence of outcomes may be related to ambivalence about the relationship, as a lack of desired outcomes or a lack of trust in the partner may make the individual uncertain about their participation in the relationship.

Trust. Trust in romantic relationships is defined as a belief in the benevolent intentions of the partner and in the partner's concern for the individual's well-being (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Rempel, Holmes & Zanna, 1985). Since involvement in romantic relationships involves significant risks, trust in the partner allows individuals to maintain in relationships without the constant fear of hurt. In addition, the amount of risk involved in a given situation may determine whether the individual calls into play their level of trust in the partner in making decisions about commitment (Boon & Holmes, 1991).

The degree of correspondence of outcomes is also important to the development of trust in a romantic relationship, as the individual's outcomes are a function of the degree of correspondence between their and their partner's outcomes (Kelley, 1979). Correspondence of outcomes is indicated by the degree of partners' mutual liking of, or similarity of preferences for, activities (Kelley, 1979). From an interdependence perspective, partners with a high degree of correspondence in their preferences are more likely to be satisfied in the relationship, because both partners' needs are often met through the same activities (Kelley, 1979; Surra & Longstreth, 1990). The amount of risk involved in the relationship increases to the extent that partners' preferences are not completely correspondent, to the extent that a conflict exists between the needs of each partner (Boon & Holmes, 1991). With low correspondence of outcomes, there is an increased possibility that at least one partner will not have their needs met in relational interactions (Kelley, 1979). In order for

individuals to feel comfortable in relationships with non-correspondent preferences, they must trust that their partner is concerned with their well-being, and so will act in ways that will allow them both to receive an adequate level of valued outcomes (Boon & Holmes, 1991).

Interdependence theory suggests that trust develops in qualitatively different ways as the relationship develops. Initially, individual's sense of trust in their partner is centered upon the patterns of exchange of valued resources in the relationship (Rempel et al., 1985). At this stage the individual is most concerned about the rewards they receive from the relationship, whether the relationship seems equitable, and whether they can accurately predict their partner's actions (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Rempel et al., 1985). Since these relationships tend to be more superficial and less interdependent, the amount of risk involved is generally not very significant and, therefore, trust in the partner is not as critical to relational development (Boon & Holmes, 1991).

As the relationship continues to develop and the partners become more interdependent, individuals become more concerned with assessing the character of their partner, especially the underlying motives behind their partner's actions (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Rempel et al., 1985). This shift in concerns is self-protective, and allows the individual to evaluate the degree of risk of potential hurt that becomes increasingly possible as the relationship becomes more interdependent (Boon & Holmes, 1991). The partner's behaviors are the main source of information about

their character and motivations at this stage in the development of trust (Boon & Holmes, 1991). For example, if an individual feels that her partner drove her to work because he cares about her well-being she is more likely to trust him than if she feels that he only drove her to work to avoid an argument with her about it.

At the final stage in the development of trust, individuals must achieve a sense of faith in the benevolence and dependability of their partner in the face of incomplete information about him or her (Boon & Holmes, 1991). Faith in the partner is a necessary component of romantic relationships because it allows the individual to maintain and increase their commitment to the relationship without an overwhelming sense of uneasiness in an increasingly risky situation. When negative events happen in a relationship, individuals who have not developed faith may be less likely to give their partner 'the benefit of the doubt', making them more likely to use these events to negatively evaluate the partner's motivations in and attitudes about the relationship and ultimately to be more uncertain about the future of the relationship (Boon & Holmes, 1991). Therefore, trust is an important component of the development of romantic relationships at all stages of involvement. As such, levels of trust in the partner should predict the individual's processes of commitment.

Most of the research conducted on developmental patterns in romantic relationships has not examined the influences of trust in the partner. In one exception, a longitudinal study of marital outcomes found that low levels of trust, as well as decreases in trust over the first four years of marriage predicted early divorce

as well as lower levels of marital satisfaction after eight years of marriage (Kurdek, 2002). These findings provide empirical evidence for the theoretical premise that trust plays an important role in relational development. The most recent research on commitment process also found a link between trust and relational development. Specifically, individuals with event driven commitments were found to be less trusting in the honesty and benevolence of their partner than were individuals with relationship driven commitments (Surra & Gray, 2000).

This finding is particularly interesting given striking similarities between Surra's descriptions of the cognitive processes underlying commitment process (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997) and theoretical discussions of the nature of trusting and uncertain relationships (Boon & Holmes, 1991). Boon and Holmes (1991) stated that individuals who have a fully developed sense of trust in their partner assess the meaning and impact of events in the relationship using a relatively long-term perspective, with no one singular event having too much of an impact on attitudes about the nature of the relationship. Surra stated that relationship-driven individuals tend to focus on global assessments of the nature of the partner and the relationship when discussing reasons for changes in commitment to their relationship (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997).

Boon and Holmes (1991) go on to theorize that individuals who have not developed a fully integrated sense of trust in their partner are more uncertain about that partner and about the future of the relationship. Therefore, these individuals take

more of a short-term perspective, focusing on moment-to-moment events and behaviors in the relationship because they are constantly seeking information that will help them to assess their partner's motives and the likely future of their relationship (Boon & Holmes, 1991). As a result, individuals who are uncertain are more volatile in their attitudes about the relationship, as these attitudes are based on specific events in the relationship and hence change as the events change. Surra stated that individuals with event-driven commitments tend to focus on specific events and interactions when discussing reasons for changes in commitment to their relationship (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). Surra also found that the development of commitment for event-driven individuals tended to be more volatile than for relationship-driven individuals, with more downturns and more dramatic changes in commitment (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). Surra hypothesized that the development of commitment for event-driven individuals is more volatile because they focus on singular events as causing changes in commitment (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). Taken together, these findings indicate that trust in the partner may be a significant predictor of individuals' commitment processes.

Ambivalence. Ambivalence in romantic relationships is uncertainty about involvement. Ambivalence results from the conflict between the desire to be in a relationship and the hope that the relationship will be successful and the simultaneous fear that the relationship will not be successful and will lead to negative outcomes (Boon & Holmes, 1991). Ambivalence about involvement may result from

uncertainty over whether the partner is trustworthy (Boon & Holmes, 1991), or for a variety of other reasons. Research on the development of romantic relationships has hypothesized that ambivalence about involvement plays a significant role in relational development.

Individuals in commitments that progress more slowly and with more downturns in commitment appear to be more ambivalent about their involvement in the relationship. Specifically, event-driven individuals are more ambivalent about involvement in their relationship than are relationship-driven individuals (Surra & Gray, 2000; Surra & Hughes, 1997). Married individuals with premarital commitments that progressed slowly with more downturns retrospectively reported more ambivalence during many stages of the premarital relationship than did individuals in premarital commitments that progressed more quickly with fewer downturns (Cate et al., 1986; Huston, 1994). In addition, changes in ambivalence seem to be related to the stability of the relationship, as one study found that individuals in couples who divorced experienced greater increases in ambivalence about the relationship during the first two years of marriage than did individuals in couples who stayed together (Huston et al., 2001). Taken together, these findings indicate that ambivalence influences relational development, and, therefore, that it may help to predict individuals' commitment processes.

Conflict. According to interdependence theory, conflict may result from non-correspondent outcomes between partners in romantic relationships. When partners

prefer or value different outcomes in a relationship, at least one partner must transform their motives from being based purely in self-interest to based on concern over the partner's interests as well as their own (Kelley, 1979; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). Doing so ensures that both partners receive some adequate level of desired outcomes in the relationship (Kelley, 1979; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). If transformations do not occur when non-correspondent outcomes exist, then partners may become engaged in conflicts that result from their perceptions of an inequitable distribution of outcomes in the relationship.

Studies of the development of romantic relationships have often included measures of conflict as a predictor of relational outcomes, with the underlying assumption that conflict plays a significant role in the development of romantic relationships. Some of these studies assessed premarital conflict as a predictor of relational development, finding that individuals who reported higher levels of conflict in their premarital relationship experienced commitments to marriage that progressed less smoothly, with more downturns in commitments along the way (Cate et al., 1986; Huston, 1994). Other studies addressed the relationship between premarital conflict and marital outcomes, finding that higher levels of conflict were related to lower marital satisfaction for the first two years of marriage (Huston, 1994). Research on the two commitment processes found that event driven individuals reported more reasons for change in commitment involving conflict than did relationship driven individuals (Surra & Hughes, 1997).

The findings just reviewed indicate that conflict is related to the developmental trajectory of commitment to the relationship. For this reason I am including conflict as a predictor of commitment process. However, it is possible that conflict may influence relational development in qualitatively different ways for individuals with different commitment processes. For example, some individuals may use the amount and degree of conflict in a relationship to assess their compatibility with their partner. In relationships with little conflict individuals may quickly determine that they are compatible with their partner. In relationships with higher levels of conflict, compatibility-testing may continue for longer periods of time in the relationship, as uncertainty about the compatibility of the partners that results from the continual conflict in the relationship leads the individual use each instance of conflict as a tool to assess the nature of the relationship (Cate et al., 1986). This description bears some resemblance to the description of the decision-making process of event-driven individuals, as specific events are used to assess the likely future of the relationship. Since individuals with event-driven commitments do report more conflict in their relationship, perhaps the variability seen in their commitments is due to a process of continual assessment of the relationship that results from more problems that result in conflicts in the relationship. If this is the case, then conflict may prove to be an especially influential predictor of commitment processes.

Other authors have suggested that individual differences in the belief that conflict is harmful to a relationship may relate to findings on the association between

conflict and relational outcomes. For example, Hill and Peplau (1995) found that premarital reports of conflict were associated with relational satisfaction but not with level of love for the partner or perceived likelihood of marrying the partner. If an individual does not perceive conflict as harmful they will likely not see it as an indicator of problems in the relationship. Therefore, for these individuals the amount of conflict in the relationship will not be related to their desire to end or maintain the relationship (Hill & Peplau, 1995). This hypothesis provides a possible explanation for why the event-driven group was not more likely to end their relationship, even though they perceived it as more conflict-ridden and negative. Perhaps perceiving the conflict and negativity is only important for those individuals who see it as something worthy of ending a relationship over. The identification of subtypes of event-driven commitments may reveal a group for whom conflict, and the assessments of the relationship that result from it, may prompt the dissolution of the relationship.

Love

Love is a positive interpersonal attitude that attracts us towards increasing involvement with another person (Kelley, 1983; Kurdek, 2002). Although love may contribute to the development of commitment in a romantic relationship, it doesn't always do so (e.g., partners may be in love but have no commitment to maintain the relationship or partners may be committed to a relationship with a partner they do not love). So while love may act as a positive contribution to the development of commitment, commitment may also develop in the absence of strong feelings of love

for the partner. Although different theories of love associate it in different ways with commitment, for example Sternberg's (1986) perception of commitment as the cognitive dimension of love, this paper takes the perspective that Kelley (1983) best described, with love as one of a variety of factors that act to promote commitment in personal relationships. As such, it seems important to examine whether love for the partner helps to predict commitment processes.

Past research has identified a link between love for the partner and relational development and outcomes. In a newlywed sample, retrospective reports of lower premarital love for the partner were associated with longer courtships for both men and women, and with more downturns in commitment and a slower rate of acceleration of commitment for men (Huston, 1994; Huston et al., 2001). In addition, retrospective reports of lower premarital love predicted lower levels of love and marital satisfaction as newlyweds and two years into the marriage, as well as the timing of divorce for those whose marriages ended in divorce (Huston et al., 2001). In a prospective study of premarital predictors of marital outcomes, higher premarital levels of love were related to an increased probability of staying with the partner for at least two years, an increased probability of marrying the partner, as well as with a decreased probability of divorce over the fifteen-year period of the study (Hill & Peplau, 1995).

Although an association has been found between relational development and the global conception of love, it may be more useful to examine the influences of love

on relational development by separating the concept into two distinct types of love that have been identified in romantic relationships. The first type, passionate love, is characterized by a state of intense longing for the partner coupled with significant physiological arousal (Berscheid & Walster, 1978). The intensity of passionate love is hypothesized to derive from the combination of high levels of excitement when the individual is with the partner coupled with the intense pain involved in uncertainty about the partner's feelings and in separation from the partner (Berscheid & Walster, 1978; Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986). Although passion may be an important contribution to the initial development of commitment in a relationship (Berscheid & Walster, 1978), some research indicates that the level of passion in a relationship typically levels off and even begins to decline with increasing time and involvement in the relationship (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986).

The second type of love, friendship-based love, may act to compensate for these declines in passionate love (Berscheid & Walster, 1978; Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986). This more companionate form of love is often defined as an intense form of liking or affection (Berscheid & Walster, 1978) that results from the patterns of interaction between partners, the degree of compatibility between partners and the degree of satisfaction with their interactions (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1992). Friendship-based love develops more slowly than passionate love because it is the result of the increasing interdependence between partners' lives that occurs with increasing time spent in the relationship. As opposed to passionate love, which can

be fueled by both positive and negative experiences in the relationship, friendship-based love is strengthened only by the positive experiences, and negative experiences may weaken friendship-based love (Berscheid & Walster, 1978).

A prospective study of early marital characteristics and marital success found that decreases in the amount of passionate and friendship-based love predicted early divorce as well as lower levels of marital satisfaction after eight years of marriage (Kurdek, 2002). In addition, this study found that low levels of friendship-based love at the beginning of marriage predicted early divorce as well as lower levels of marital satisfaction after eight years of marriage (Kurdek, 2002). These findings indicate that passionate and friendship-based love are distinct constructs and may have different types of influences on relational development. Thus far, however, research on developmental typologies of commitment to marry has generally failed to find any differences between the groups on either passionate or friendship-based love (Cate et al., 1986; Surra & Gray, 2000). It is for this reason that I feel it is especially important to examine whether passionate and friendship-based love can be used to predict subtypes of commitment processes. Research on relational development and love has found significant associations, which would suggest that the different types of love play some role in the processes of commitment to marry. Using a more refined typology of commitment processes may allow us to identify the influences of different types of love. For example, passionate love may help to maintain individuals in relationships even when they are highly ambivalent about involvement.

So while passionate love may not play a significant role in the commitment processes of all individuals, it may play more of a role for individuals whose commitment processes are more conflicted or uncertain.

Satisfaction with the relationship

Relational satisfaction, like love, is often perceived as a factor that contributes to the development of commitment, where individuals who are more satisfied with their relationship will be more committed to the relationship (Johnson et al., 1999; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Rusbult et al., 1998). The degree of satisfaction with a relationship may be conceived of as a function of the ratio of perceived rewards received to costs incurred in the relationship, relative to the individual's standards for the characteristics of an acceptable relationship (Rusbult et al., 1998). Therefore, an individual's satisfaction with their relationship is determined by how well it compares to their standards for what the relationship should be like (Kelley, 1983). The relationship between satisfaction and commitment in romantic relationships is often conceptually muddled, with satisfaction considered as a cause of commitment in some models and a component of commitment in others. In the present research satisfaction will be treated as a factor that causes commitment, and therefore as a predictor of commitment processes.

Relational satisfaction appears to play a significant role in relational stability and success (Berscheid & Lopes, 1997). It has even been suggested that satisfaction is becoming a more important determinant of relational stability as the barriers to

ending a relationship decrease (Berscheid & Lopes, 1997). According to this perspective, maintaining in a relationship is becoming more a matter of personal commitment as the degree of external influences on commitment has decreased. Since satisfaction is a key component of personal commitment (Johnson et al., 1999), it is therefore becoming a key determinant of relational stability.

The significance of the association between relational satisfaction and development is supported in research on the development of romantic relationships. Individuals who are satisfied in their dating relationships tend to have higher levels of interdependence in the relationship and to perceive themselves as more similar to their partner (Hill & Peplau, 1995). Newlyweds who are satisfied in their marital relationship tend to retrospectively report higher levels of premarital love than newlyweds who are less satisfied in their relationship (Huston, 1995). On the other hand, individuals who are less satisfied in their premarital relationship tend to report more problems and conflict in the relationship (Hill & Peplau, 1995), and individuals who are less satisfied in their marital relationship retrospectively report higher levels of conflict and ambivalence in the premarital relationship (Huston, 1995). In terms of relational outcomes, higher satisfaction with the relationship is related to a higher probability of the relationship maintaining for at least two years and of the relationship ending in marriage (Hill & Peplau, 1995).

Previous research on commitment process is consistent with other research on the association between relational satisfaction and relational development.

Specifically, compared to event-driven individuals, relationship-driven individuals were more satisfied with their relationship and experienced greater increases in satisfaction over a one-year period in the dating relationship (Surra & Hughes, 1997). Therefore, I will include relational satisfaction as a predictor of commitment processes. Since past research indicates that different patterns of development as well as different relational outcomes are related to satisfaction with the relationship, and since event-driven and relationship-driven individuals appeared different on measures of satisfaction with their relationship, it is likely that satisfaction will significantly predict subtypes of the commitment processes.

Commitment Variables

Commitment is often discussed as incorporating two components, or as including two types of causal conditions, personal dedication and structural constraints (Kelley, 1983; Stanley & Markman, 1992). Personal dedication or personal commitment involves the individual's desire to maintain the relationship, and so is motivated by a sense of personal choice to act in certain ways (Johnson et al., 1999; Stanley & Markman, 1992). Constraints or structural commitment involve the barriers that act to keep the individual in or repel them from the relationship regardless of their desire to do so, acting through the costs associated with continuation or termination of the relationship (Johnson et al., 1999; Stanley & Markman, 1992). Personal dedication and constraints appear to be relatively distinct constructs, as scores for each type of commitment tend not to be highly inter-

correlated (Johnson et al., 1999; Stanley & Markman, 1992). Theory and research vary on whether they consider these constructs as components of commitment or causes of commitment. In this study they will be addressed as causes of commitment, since the methods used facilitate the theoretical separation of commitment from the causes of commitment.

Research on these causes of commitment indicates that personal dedication is more highly correlated with global assessments of commitment than are constraints, so individuals seem to think more about the personal aspects of commitment when making general assessments of their level of commitment to their relationship (Stanley & Markman, 1992). However the structural constraints involved in a relationship tend to increase with increasing involvement in the relationship (Stanley & Markman, 1992). In one study, the partners even discussed structural constraints as helping them to maintain a long-term perspective on the relationship, so that individual difficulties do not lead them to immediately end their relationship (Stanley & Markman, 1992). In addition, it is possible that constraints play an especially important role in the maintenance of the relationship when levels of personal dedication and relational satisfaction are low (Johnson et al., 1999; Stanley & Markman, 1992). Therefore structural constraints, although not always recognized by partners as contributing towards global commitment, play an important and often positive role in relational development.

Although most research on commitment processes has not examined their relationship to these causes of commitment, Surra & Gray (2000) found that individuals with relationship-driven commitments seem to perceive more structural constraints to maintain their relationship than do individuals with event-driven commitments. Specifically, event driven individuals perceived that they would be better off without their partner and that it would be easier to replace their partner than do relationship driven individuals. In addition, relationship-driven women reported less of a desire for alternative partners and relationship-driven men reported more positive concern over the relationship from the social network (Surra & Gray, 2000). These findings indicate that different processes of commitment may vary in the extent to which personal and structural causes of commitment influence the development of commitment. In addition, it is possible that the same cause may have different influences on commitment for individuals with different processes of commitment. Finally, the subtypes of commitment process may differ in the influence of the causes of commitment in significant ways. For these reasons, I will examine whether personal and structural causes of commitment can be used to predict commitment processes.

The Stability of Commitment Process Classification

Thus far, commitment process classification has been identified at only one point in time, using retrospective information on the progress of commitment from the beginning of the relationship to the date of the first interview in the study (Surra

& Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). In this study, I will also assess commitment process using concurrent data gathered over the course of the study. Doing so will allow me to evaluate whether commitment process is a fairly stable phenomenon, with little change over relatively brief periods of time or with different methods of data collection (e.g., retrospective or concurrent). I hypothesize that commitment process classification will be consistent for the two periods of measurement.

True change in commitment process classification should be the result of intra-individual change over time in subjective perceptions about the relationship that results from continuing participation in the relationship. Commitment process should therefore be influenced by stable characteristics of the relationship, including fairly established patterns of interaction, as well as by stable individual-level characteristics, such as personality traits and relationship schemas that stem from previous experiences. The data used for the second assessment of commitment process begins one month after the data for the first assessment were gathered, and as such I expect that the classification will be generally consistent across times of measurement, as the amount of time elapsed between measurements is probably not sufficient to bring about changes in the stable characteristics of the individual and the relationship.

It is possible that differences in commitment process classification between the two times of measurement will occur as the result of methodological issues, specifically differences in the degree to which retrospection is required for the first and the second times of measurement. In the first time of measurement the individual

is retrospectively reporting on the relationship from the day it began to the date of the first interview. This period of time varies greatly for different individuals in the sample, as some had only recently begun their relationship and others had been involved for a period of several years before the relationship began. In general, however, it required a greater degree of retrospection than did the data gathered for the second time of measurement. For the second assessment of commitment process, data will be used from the monthly interviews that occurred over the next eight months of the relationship. Since this data was generally gathered monthly, it required less retrospection than the data from the first interview. As such, this data may be qualitatively different from the more retrospective data, and therefore the individual's commitment process may differ depending on the type of data used to assess it. Although I am hypothesizing that commitment process classification will be consistent over the two times of measurement, it is possible that the degree of retrospection over the two times of measurement significantly influences my results.

Method

Sample

The sample for this study was recruited by a process of random digit dialing of households in the greater Austin, Texas area. Men and women were eligible to participate in the study if they were between the ages of 19 and 35, had never been married and were currently involved in a heterosexual dating relationships. If there was someone in the household dialed who met these criteria, that person was asked if they would consider participating in "a study of the way relationships with the opposite sex change over time." If the initial contact in the household agreed to participate in the study, they were then asked to provide us with the name and phone number of their dating partner. The dating partner was then contacted and asked to participate in the study. If both the initial contact and the dating partner completed the first interview, the couple was then included in the study.

This recruitment procedure yielded a sample of 232 coupled dating partners (464 respondents). When taking into consideration the constraints of the selection criteria, the sample was heterogeneous with respect to socio-economic and social background characteristics, and was fairly representative of the population of the greater Austin area at the time of the data collection (see Table 1 for more detailed demographic information on the sample by gender). The mean age of the sample was 23.59 years (*SD*=3.60), and the median age in Austin according to the 1990 census was 28.9 years (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990). The sample was 70% Caucasian,

16% Hispanic, 7% African-American, and 6% Asian or Pacific Islander. Compared to the population of 19 to 34 year olds in the Austin metropolitan area, the sample is slightly over-representative of Caucasians (Austin is 58% Caucasian) and under-representative of Hispanics and African-Americans (Austin is 19% and 9%, respectively).

Procedure

The data used in this study were collected as part of a longitudinal study on the development of commitment in heterosexual relationships conducted at the University of Texas at Austin by Catherine Surra. The study consisted of three Phases, with each respondent completing a maximum of nine face-to-face interviews at monthly intervals either at their home or in an interview room on campus. Phase 1 consisted of a single interview that lasted between 1 _ and 3 hours. During this interview, demographic information as well as information about personal characteristics was gathered. A graphing procedure was conducted where information on the development of commitment in the relationship from its inception was gathered, and information on a variety of other aspects of their dating relationship was gathered using a variety of questionnaires. Phase 2 consisted of seven shorter (30 minute) interviews approximately once a month for seven months. During these interviews, information on changes in the development of commitment since the last interview was gathered using the graphing procedure, and a variety of questionnaires that assessed characteristics of the individual and the relationship.

Phase 3 consisted of another long interview (1 _ to 3 hours) that was primarily a repeat of the Phase 1 interview as well as an update on changes in the development of commitment to the relationship since the last interview. See Table 2 for information on the number of respondents who completed the eight monthly interviews and the mean number of days since the last interview for each interview.

Respondents were paid $20 for their participation in each of the Phase 1 and Phase 3 long interviews, and $5 for each of seven shorter interviews during Phase 2 of the study. Partners in a relationship completed their interviews separately and were informed that the information they provided us with would not be shared with their dating partner. The respondents were also asked not to discuss the interviews with anyone, including their dating partner, over the course of the study. All respondents were encouraged to complete all interviews, regardless of their status in the relationship or whether their dating partner was still an active member of the study.

Graphing Procedure

A graph of the development of commitment in the relationship from its inception to the date of the interview was gathered during the Phase 1 interview. Respondents were asked to graph, retrospectively, the changes in commitment in their relationship from the day the relationship began to the day of the interview. Respondents were shown a blank grid with "time in months" along the horizontal axis and "chance of marriage", which ranged from 0% to 100%, along the vertical axis.

The dates and descriptions of important marker events in the relationship were identified and written in along the horizontal axis to serve as memory aids in the reconstruction of the development of commitment in the relationship. The "chance of marriage" was defined for the respondent as the chance that they would marry their partner, taking all things into consideration and not just how much they were in love with their partner. It the respondent was certain that they would marry their partner, the chance of marriage was 100%, if they were certain that they would not marry their partner, the chance of marriage was 0%.

The interviewer asked the respondent what the chance of marriage was at the date of the interview, marked it on the graph, and then asked what the chance of marriage was on the day the relationship began, and marked that date. The respondent was then asked when they were first aware that the chance of marriage had changed from its initial value. The new chance of marriage at that time was established and the interviewer than drew a line connecting these two percentages using the respondent's description of what the line should look like. An account, consisting of reasons for why this change in chance of marriage had occurred, was then gathered as the interviewer asked the respondent to, "Tell me, in as specific terms as possible, what happened here from [date] to [date] that made the chance of marriage go [up/down] [__ %]?" The respondent was repeatedly probed by the interviewer, "Is there anything else that happened…" to cause this change, until the respondent answered, "No". A single change in chance of marriage, with its

corresponding account of why the change occurred, is considered a single turning point. After the respondent had given a complete account of the first turning point, they were asked when they were next aware that the chance of marriage was different, what the chance of marriage was at that time, and what had happened to cause this change. This process was repeated until the relationship had been graphed up until the date of the interview.

At the end of the graphing procedure, respondents were asked to divide up their graph into different stages of involvement using the following categories: casually dating, seriously dating, privately committed to marriage, publicly engaged, and broken-up. The respondent marked off self-determined sections of the graph into one of these five stages of involvement, with no restrictions placed on the number of stages they could use or the progression through stages.

During each of the next eight monthly interviews, respondents updated these graphs by reporting on any changes that had occurred since the date of the last interview using the same graphing procedure just described. Taken in combination, the information from these graphs provides a continuous picture of the development of commitment in the relationship from the day it began to the last day of the study.

Measurement

Cluster Analysis

The cluster analysis to identify sub-types of commitment processes was conducted using two variables derived from the graph as well as seven of the reasons

variables coded from the accounts of changes in commitment. The procedure was identical to the method used in past research on commitment process, using the correlation coefficient as the measure of similarity and the average linking between groups as the cluster method. Two separate cluster analyses were performed: one on the data from the graphing procedure at Phase 1 and another using the combined data gathered from the graphing procedures at each of the eight monthly interviews at Phase 2.

In Phase 1, 24 of the 464 valid respondents for this phase were not included in the cluster analysis for the following reasons: 13 reported no changes in chance of marriage over the length of their relationship up to the Phase 1 interview, 7 chose to graph lifelong commitment instead of chance of marriage and so were not included in subsequent analyses, 3 were missing their data for the graphing procedure due to equipment failure at the interview, and 1 person had such an extreme mean absolute slope that they were treated as an outlier on this variable and excluded from the cluster analysis. In Phase 2, 38 of the 464 valid respondents were not included in the cluster analysis because they had no valid graph or reasons data for all of the 8 possible interviews. For each respondent, this lack of valid data at Phase 2 occurred for one or more of the following reasons: missing one or all of the Phase 2 interviews, having no change in chance of marriage for one or all interviews, or no longer being involved in a dating relationship with the partner they came into the study with at one or all interviews. In other words, respondents were included in the Phase 2 cluster

analysis if they had at least one Phase 2 interview with valid data for their first relationship.

Graph variables. The first cluster variable derived from the graph, the proportion of downturns, is an assessment of regressions in commitment. The proportion of downturns in the graph was measured by dividing the number of downturns (i.e., a decrease in chance of marriage for that turning point) in a respondent's graph by the total number of turning points in the graph. The second cluster variable derived from the graph, mean absolute slope, is a measure of the dramatic-ness of change in commitment. Mean absolute slope was measured by dividing the absolute slope of each turning point by the total number of turning points in the respondent's graph. The slope of each turning point was calculated as the amount of change in chance of marriage in each turning point divided by the number of months in each turning point. Slope indicates the rate of increase or decrease in chance of marriage for each turning point.

Reasons variables. The reasons given in the accounts of causes of the changes in chance of marriage identified in the graphs were each coded using a thirty-category coding scheme; however, only a subset of these reasons were included in the cluster analysis. The transcripts of accounts were coded by the principal investigator of the research project and by research assistants who had each undergone extensive training in the coding scheme. The coders broke down each account into codeable thought units and assigned one of thirty possible categories of reasons to each thought

unit. Half of the transcripts were coded by two independent coders, and the reliability between the two versions of the coding needed to reach at least 70% using Cohen's Kappa in order to be completed. The reliability-checked transcripts had three chances to reach the 70% criterion, as the coders were able to recode the transcript twice if it did not make 70% reliability. All of the transcripts were consensus coded after they had either been coded individually for those transcripts coded by only one coder, after it had reached the criterion of 70% reliability for reliability-checked transcripts, or after it had been coded recoded two additional times if a reliability checked transcript never reached the 70% criterion. The trained coders met in teams of two to review any discrepancies between the two versions of all transcripts that had been reliability-checked, as well as to resolve any questions that had occurred in the transcripts that were only coded by a single coder. This process resulted in coding which had been reviewed by at least two separate coders during the coding process, which further increased the reliability of the coding scheme.

Each category of reasons was measured by dividing the frequency of occurrence for the category by the total number of reasons reported by the respondent in their graph. Arc sin transformations of the proportions were then used in any analyses.

Relationship Dimensions

Love and Trust. Love and trust were assessed in a questionnaire administered at the Phase 1 interview. A factor analysis of the questionnaire yielded four factors:

passionate love, friendship-based love, trust in the partner's honesty, and trust in the partner's benevolence. The items used to assess passionate love were adapted from a measure developed by Hatfield and Sprecher (1986), while those used to assess friendship-based love were adapted from a measure developed by Grote and Frieze (1992), and all items used a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Passionate love was assessed by items such as "I would rather be with ___ than with anyone else" and "I would feel despair if ____ left me." Items measuring friendship-based love included "I express my love for my partner through the enjoyment of common activities and mutual interests" and "My partner is one of the most likeable people I know."

The items used to assess trust in the partner were adapted from a measure developed by Larzelere & Huston (1980). The measure included 8 items for which respondents were asked to respond on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 7 represented "strongly agree". The factor for trust in the honesty of the partner included items such as, "My partner is perfectly honest and truthful with me", and the factor for trust in the benevolence in the partner included items such as, " I feel that my partner can be counted on to help me."

Ambivalence and conflict. Ambivalence about involvement and conflict were assessed using a questionnaire developed by Braiker and Kelley (1979) that was administered at the Phase 1 interview. The ambivalence factor was composed of 5 items that assessed attitudes such as "How confused are you about your feelings

towards your partner?" and "How ambivalent or unsure are you about continuing your relationship with your partner?" on a nine-point Likert scale. The conflict factor assessed attitudes such as "How often do you and your partner argue with one another?" and "How much time do you and your partner spend discussing and trying to work out problems between you?" on a nine-point Likert scale.

Satisfaction. A measure of satisfaction with the relationship was administered at the Phase 1 interview. The multiple-item questionnaire yielded one factor, and was developed by Huston & Vangelisti (1991).

Commitment variables

The commitment variables used to predict commitment process were assessed using a questionnaire on commitment to romantic relationships that included subscales of a commitment inventory developed by Stanley & Markman (1992). The questionnaire consisted of 42 items that were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", and was administered at the Phase 1 interview. The factor analysis of the items yielded six factors, which were labeled: coupleness, alternative monitoring, social concern, moral commitment, satisfaction with sacrifice, and investments.

Coupleness concerns the degree to which the individual perceives themselves as part of a couple (e.g., "I am willing to have or develop a strong sense of an identity as a couple with my partner"). Alternative monitoring concerns the degree to which the individual perceives and desires alternative partners (e.g., "I think a lot about what

it would be like to be dating someone other than my partner"). A higher score on this factor indicates lower levels of alternative monitoring, as the scale was developed to measure commitment, and lower levels of alternative monitoring indicate higher commitment to the relationship. Social concern deals with the perceived degree of social support for the relationship (e.g., "It would be difficult for my friends to accept if I ended the relationship with my partner"). Moral commitment concerns the extent to which the individual feels morally obligated to maintain the relationship (e.g., "I don't make commitments unless I believe I will keep them"). Satisfaction with sacrifice concerns the individual's satisfaction with making sacrifices for the partner in the relationship (e.g., "I get satisfaction out of doing things for my partner, even if it means I miss out on something I want for myself"). Investments concern the perception of structural constraints that keep the individual in or draw them out of the relationship (e.g., "I would lose valuable possessions if I left my partner").

Results

Identification of Subtypes of Commitment Process at Phase 1

A hierarchical cluster analysis was performed on the nine graph and reasons variables used in the original analyses of commitment process as described above (see Table 3 for definitions and examples of cluster variables). These variables were initially selected for inclusion in the cluster analysis on the basis of previous research on the development of commitment conducted by Catherine Surra. The cluster analysis used the correlation coefficient as the measure of similarity and the average linking between groups as the clustering method.

Results were consistent with the hypothesis that subtypes of the event-driven and relationship-driven commitment processes exist. The cluster analysis indicated that a four-group solution was meaningful, with the event-driven and relationship-driven commitment processes each breaking into two subtypes. I made the decision to use the four-group cluster solution after examining the cluster printout. After the two-group solution, the next apparent solution was four groups. This solution broke the relationship-driven and the event-driven processes each into two distinct sub-types, and the types appeared different in easily identifiable ways on the variables used to create them. A six-group solution was also apparent from the cluster printout, but I felt that it with six groups it might become too difficult to identify meaningful differences between each of the groups, and also that the number of respondents in

each cluster might become too small to use in analyses. Therefore, I decided to use the four-group solution of commitment process at Phase 1.

Based on their characteristics on the variables used to create them, the clusters were labeled: (1) dramatic event-driven, (2) conflict-ridden event-driven, (3) socially-involved relationship-driven, and (4) positive-isolated relationship-driven. In the interest of brevity, the groups will hereafter be referred to as dramatic, conflict-ridden, socially-involved and positive-isolated. One-way analyses of variance with follow-up tests of mean differences between the four groups indicated that the groups differed significantly on all of the cluster variables. The results of this analysis for Phase 1 are presented in Table 4 and Table 5.

Dramatic Event-Driven Commitment Process

A defining feature of the dramatic group at Phase 1 (n = 77 for men and n = 86 for women) was a high mean absolute slope. The average rate of change per month in chance of marriage for the dramatic group was 34% for men and 28% for women, whereas the highest slope in any of the other groups was only 18% (see Figure 1). In addition, the dramatic group had more downturns in commitment, as 34% of men's and 36% of women's changes in commitment were downturns in this group (see Figure 2). Individuals in the dramatic group also made more negative attributions about their relationship, accounting for 16% of both men's and women's reasons for changes in commitment (see Figure 6). Finally, men and women in the dramatic group perceived themselves as maintaining more individual interaction with

the social network, as reports of this interaction accounted for 4% of men's and 3% of women's reasons for changes in commitment (see Figure 7).

The overwhelming majority of the differences discussed above were statistically significant (see Table 4 and Table 5). Individuals in the dramatic group had a significantly higher mean absolute slope on the graphs and reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving negative attributions about the relationship and individual interaction with the social network than did individuals in the other three groups. In addition, individuals in the dramatic group had a significantly higher proportion of downturns on their graphs than did individuals in the two relationship-driven groups.

Conflict-Ridden Event-Driven Commitment Process

The conflict-ridden group at Phase 1 (n = 24 for men and n = 32 for women) was defined by high perceptions of conflict in the relationship, as 6% of the reasons for changes in commitment reported by men and 8% of the reasons reported by women involved conflict (see Figure 3). The conflict-ridden group also had a high proportion of downturns in their graphs of commitment, as 25% of men's and 26% of women's changes in commitment were downturns (see Figure 2). But the rate of change in commitment per month in the graphs of conflict-ridden individuals was only 10%, which was considerably lower than the slope for the dramatic group (see Figure 1).

Most of the differences reported above were also statistically significant (see Table 4 and Table 5). Individuals in the conflict-ridden group reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving conflict than did individuals in the other three groups (all differences significant except compared to the socially-involved for men). In addition, conflict-ridden individuals had a significantly higher proportion of downturns on their graphs than did individuals in the two relationship-driven groups, and their mean absolute slope of changes in commitment was significantly lower than the for dramatic group but not significantly different from the two relationship-driven groups.

Socially-Involved Relationship-Driven Commitment Process

The socially-involved group at Phase 1 (n = 46 for men and n = 39 for women) was defined by a high proportion of reasons involving dyadic interaction with the social network as well as by positive perceptions of their social network involvement. Specifically, 8% of the reasons reported by socially-involved men and 6% of the reasons reported by socially-involved women dealt with their and their partner's joint interaction with the social network, whereas the next highest percentage was only 3% (see Figure 8). In addition, 10% and 8% of socially-involved men and women's reasons for changes in commitment involved positive attributions about their social network, whereas the next highest proportion was only 2% (see Figure 9).

These differences were also statistically significant (see Table 4 and Table 5). Individuals in the socially-involved group reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving joint interaction with the social network than the other three groups (all differences significant except compared to the conflict-ridden for women) and a higher proportion of reasons involving positive attributions about the social network than all other groups.

Positive-Isolated Relationship-Driven Commitment Process

The positive-isolated group at Phase 1 (n = 74 for men and n = 62 for women) was defined by a high proportion of reasons involving interaction with the partner as well as by extremely positive perceptions of the relationship, coupled with a low proportion of reasons involving interaction with the social network. Specifically, 18% of the reasons reported by men in the positive-isolated group and 16% of the reasons reported by women concerned interacting with their dating partner (see Figure 4), and 50% of the reasons reported by positive-isolated men and 48% of the reasons reported by positive-isolated women involved positive attributions about the partner or the relationship (see Figure 5). In comparison, barely 1% of the reasons reported by positive-isolated individuals involved any form of interaction with or attributions about the social network (see Figure 7 through Figure 9). Finally, positive-isolated individuals at Phase 1 had few negative perceptions of their relationship, as only 4% of their reasons involved negative attributions about the relationship (see Figure 6).

Many of these differences were statistically significant (see Table 4 and Table 5). Individuals in the positive-isolated group reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving behavioral interdependence than did individuals in the two event-driven groups (these differences significant except as compared to the conflict-ridden for men) as well as a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving positive dyadic attributions than the other three groups. In addition, positive-isolated individuals reported a significantly lower proportion of reasons involving joint interaction with the social network than the other three groups (all differences significant except compared to the dramatic for men) as well as a significantly lower proportion of reasons involving positive network attributions than the other three groups (all differences significant except compared to the conflict-ridden). Finally, positive-isolated individuals reported a significantly lower proportion of reasons involving negative attributions about the relationship than did individuals in the dramatic group (for both men and women) or the conflict-ridden group (for women).

Identifying Commitment Processes at Phase 2

I had hypothesized that the groups identified in the cluster analysis at Phase 1 could be replicated using the graph data from Phase 2. In order to perform a second cluster analysis, the reasons and graph data for all eight Phase 2 interviews were aggregated to create a continuous representation of changes in commitment over the course of the Phase 2 interviews. Although it was possible for respondents who had

broken up with their first dating partner to begin graphing a new partner during the Phase 2 interviews, only data for the first relationship was included in these analyses, since the goal was to compare Phase 1 and Phase 2 commitment process classification for individuals in order to assess the stability of the trait.

A hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted using the same nine variables and the same cluster procedure used in Phase 1. This analysis revealed a four-group solution of commitment process groups. As in Phase 1, the cluster printout also indicated a six-group solution, but I decided to use the four-group solution for the same reasons as discussed in the results for Phase 1, namely that the four groups were distinguishable on the cluster variables and that a larger number of groups did not appear useful for the purposes of this research.

Correlations were used to assess the stability of the variables from Phase 1 to Phase 2, and the results indicated that the variables were not all highly correlated between Phase 1 and Phase 2 (see Table 6 for correlations between cluster variables at Phase 1 and Phase 2). The lack of significant correlations between the cluster variables at Phase 1 and Phase 2 may indicate unreliability in the measurement of the variables at the two points in time, or it may indicate developmental change between Phase 1 and Phase 2. Either way, the longer the period of time between measurements, the lower the expected stability. In addition, the lack of stability across phases was found even though the four cluster groups visually appeared quite similar from Phase 1 to Phase 2. Therefore, the groups themselves may be similar

even though the variables used to create them are not very stable from Phase 1 to Phase 2.

The four groups appeared quite similar to the groups identified in Phase 1, and so were given the same names: (1) dramatic event-driven, (2) conflict-ridden event-driven, (3) socially-involved relationship-driven, and (4) positive-isolated relationship-driven. Univariate ANOVA's and follow up-tests of mean differences revealed that significant differences existed between the groups on most of the cluster variables, with the exception of mean absolute slope for women and joint network interactions for men (the *F*-test only approached significance for both). The results of this analysis for Phase 2 are presented in Table 7 and Table 8.

Dramatic Event-Driven Commitment Process

In Phase 2, the average rate of change in commitment per month for the dramatic group ($n = 18$ for men and $n = 23$ for women) was not higher than for the other groups, with men averaging 11% change per month and women averaging 19% change per month (see Figure 1). The dramatic group at Phase 2 exhibited a high proportion of downturns in commitment, as 32% of men's and 34% of women's changes in commitment were downturns (see Figure 2). Individuals in the dramatic group also made more negative attributions about their relationship than did individuals in the two relationship-driven groups, accounting for 14% of men's and 15% of women's reasons for changes in commitment (see Figure 6). Finally, men and women in the dramatic group at Phase 2 appeared to perceive more individual

interaction with the social network than did the other three groups, as reports of this interaction accounted for 7% of dramatic men's and 8% of dramatic women's reasons for changes in commitment, whereas the highest proportion in any of the other groups was less than 2% (see Figure 7).

Many of the differences discussed above were statistically significant (see Table 7 and Table 8). Individuals in the dramatic group at Phase 2 did not have a significantly higher mean absolute slope on the graphs than the other three groups, but had a significantly higher proportion of downturns on their graphs than did individuals in the two relationship-driven groups. This group also reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving individual interaction with the social network than did individuals in the other three groups. However, individuals in the dramatic group reported a significantly smaller proportion of reasons involving negative attributions about the relationship than did individuals in the conflict-ridden group, and the differences with the two relationship-driven groups were not significant.

Conflict-Ridden Event-Driven Commitment Process

At Phase 2, the conflict-ridden group (n = 64 for men and n = 59 for women) was defined by a high proportion of reported conflict in the relationship, as 10% of the reasons for changes in commitment reported by men and 6% of the reasons reported by women involved conflict (see Figure 3). In addition, at Phase 2 the conflict-ridden group had a relatively high average rate of change per month in

commitment, as the slope of changes in commitment approached 15% for men and women (see Figure 1), and also exhibited a very high proportion of downturns in their graphs of commitment, as 49% of men's and 43% of women's turning points were downturns (see Figure 2). Finally, individuals in the conflict-ridden group at Phase 2 made more negative attributions about their relationship than did individuals in the other three groups, as these reasons accounted for 27% of conflict-ridden men's and women's reasons for changes in commitment (see Figure 6).

Most of the differences reported above were also statistically significant (see Table 7 and Table 8). Individuals in the conflict-ridden group reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving conflict and negative dyadic attributions, and had a significantly higher proportion of downturns in commitment than did individuals in the other three groups. In addition, the mean absolute slope of changes in commitment for conflict-ridden men at Phase 2 was significantly higher than for the two relationship-driven groups.

Socially-Involved Relationship-Driven Commitment Process

At Phase 2, individuals in the socially-involved group (n = 81 for men and n = 78 for women) were defined by a high proportion of reasons involving joint interaction with their social network as well as by positive perceptions of this interaction. For socially-involved individuals at Phase 2, 3% of men's and 4% of women's reasons involved their interaction with their partner and their social network (see Figure 8), and 3% of men's and 4% of women's reasons involved positive

attributions about the social network (see Figure 9). In addition, at Phase 2 socially-involved individuals made many fewer positive attributions about their relationship than did individuals in the other three groups, as they accounted for only 5% of socially-involved men's and 9% of socially-involved women's reasons, whereas the next lowest proportion for the other groups was 20% (see Figure 5).

Most of the differences discussed above were statistically significant (see Table 7 and Table 8). Women in the socially-involved group at Phase 2 reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving joint interaction with the social network than did women in the conflict-ridden group, and socially-involved men and women report a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving positive network attributions than did individuals in the conflict-ridden or positive-isolated groups. In addition, socially-involved individuals in Phase 2 reported a significantly lower proportion of reasons involving positive attributions about the relationship than did individuals in all other groups.

Positive-Isolated Relationship-Driven Commitment Process

At Phase 2, individuals in the positive-isolated group (n = 50 for men and n = 52 for women) were defined by a high proportion of reasons involving interaction with their partner as well as by highly positive perceptions of their relationship. Specifically, 28% of men's and 12% of women's reasons in this group involved interactions with their partner (see Figure 4), and 39% of men's and 34% of women's reasons in this group involved positive attributions about their relationship (see

Figure 5). In addition, positive-isolated individuals did not report many negative perceptions of their relationship, as only 5% of men's and 8% of women's reasons in this group involved negative attributions about the relationship (see Figure 6).

Many of these differences were statistically significant (see Table 7 and Table 8). Individuals in the positive-isolated group at Phase 2 reported a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving behavioral interdependence than did individuals in the three other groups (all differences significant except compared to the dramatic group for women) as well as a significantly higher proportion of reasons involving positive dyadic attributions than the other three groups and a significantly lower proportion of negative dyadic attributions than the conflict-ridden group.

The Stability of Commitment Process Classification

I had hypothesized that commitment process would be a fairly stable phenomenon. A Chi Square test was therefore performed to assess the degree of stability in individual's commitment process classification from Phase 1 to Phase 2. The results were not consistent with my assertion that commitment process would be stable for respondents across the two times of measurement. Instead, the results indicated that commitment process changed for many individuals in the sample between Phase 1 and Phase 2 [χ^2 (9, N = 408) = 13.86, p = .127] (see Table 9).

One potential explanation for this finding was that it was influenced by the lack of valid data for those respondents who did not complete a large proportion of the Phase 2 interviews. In other words, it is possible that the lack of significance in

the Chi Square test was related to the number of Phase 2 interviews that were missed by respondents (see Table 2 for the number of respondents who completed each monthly interview). So 3 additional Chi Square tests were performed using those respondents who had completed at least 3, 4 and 5 of the 8 possible Phase 2 interviews, respectively. The results of all three analyses were not significant [3 interviews: χ^2 (9, N = 339) = 9.489, p = .393; 4 interviews: χ^2 (9, N = 307) = 9.528, p = .390; 5 interviews: χ^2 (9, N = 265) = 8.064, p = .528], which indicates that the lack of significance in the Chi Square test was not strongly related to the number of interviews completed by respondents in Phase 2.

Another potential explanation for this finding is that certain commitment process groups were more difficult to classify correctly, and that these groups may be contributing to the degree of movement in commitment process classification from Phase 1 to Phase 2. In order to examine this possibility, two discriminant function analyses were performed using the cluster variables to predict cluster membership for both the Phase 1 and Phase 2 data. This procedure provides a classification table that allows the examination of the accuracy of respondent classification into clusters using the cluster variables (see Table 10 through Table 13).

In Phase 1, 88.4% of the sample was correctly classified by the discriminant functions (whereas 28.6% of the sample would be correctly classified by chance alone), and the accuracy of prediction across the cluster groups was quite high (see Table 12 for Phase 1 classification). Specifically, the discriminant functions correctly

classified 89.6% of the dramatic group, 80.4% of the conflict-ridden group, 85.9% of the socially-involved group, and 91.9% of the positive-isolated group. So while it appears that the functions were slightly less accurate in predicting conflict-ridden and socially-involved group membership, these differences do not appear large.

In Phase 2, 83.8% of the sample was correctly classified by the discriminant functions, whereas 29.1% of the sample would be correctly classified by chance alone, and the accuracy of prediction across cluster groups was high, but lower than that at Phase 1 (see Table 13 for Phase 2 classification). Specifically, the discriminant functions correctly classified 73.2% of the dramatic group, 85.4% of the conflict-ridden group, 84.9% of the socially-involved group, and 84.3% of the positive-isolated group. The Phase 2 discriminant functions therefore appear to be less accurate in predicting dramatic group membership than in predicting membership in the other groups at Phase 2. However, the Phase 2 discriminant functions also appear less accurate in predicting group membership than were the Phase 1 discriminant functions. Therefore, it appears possible that some degree of the changes in group membership for respondents from Phase 1 to Phase 2 could be due to increased error in group classification at Phase 2. However, since the accuracy of overall classification is still quite high at Phase 2 (83.8%), and since the degree of movement across phases is considerable, it seems unlikely that this factor alone could account for the entire effect.

The results of the Chi Square conducted on the entire sample indicate that, of those respondents who were classified as dramatic at Phase 1 (n = 150), only 10.0% (n = 15) were similarly classified at Phase 2, with 32% (n = 48) classified as conflict-ridden at Phase 2, 38% (n = 57) classified as socially-involved, and 20.0% (n = 30) classified as positive-isolated (see Table 9 for the Chi Square results). Of those respondents who were classified as conflict-ridden at Phase 1 (n = 51), 41.2% (n = 21) were similarly classified at Phase 2, with 7.8% (n = 4) classified as dramatic at Phase 2, 29.4% (n = 15) classified as socially-involved, and 21.6% (n = 11) classified as positive-isolated. Of those respondents who were classified as socially-involved at Phase 1 (n = 80), 37.5% (n = 30) were similarly classified at Phase 2, with 16.3% (n = 13) classified as dramatic at Phase 2, 21.3% (n = 17) classified as conflict-ridden, and 25.0% (n = 20) classified as positive-isolated. Finally, of those respondents who were classified as positive-isolated at Phase 1 (n = 127), 28.3% (n = 36) were similarly classified at Phase 2, with 5.5% (n = 7) classified as dramatic at Phase 2, 27.6% (n = 35) classified as conflict-ridden, and 38.6% (n = 49) classified as socially-involved.

The dramatic group experienced the most movement from Phase 1 to Phase 2, with only 15 of the original 150 individuals remaining in the group at Phase 2 (see Table 9). In addition, relatively few individuals moved into the dramatic group at Phase 2, as there were only 39 total individuals in the group at Phase 2. Therefore, it seems that the increases in group size for some of the other groups from Phase 1 to

Phase 2 may be caused by individuals moving out of the dramatic group. The conflict-ridden group experienced less movement from Phase 1 to Phase 2, as 21 of the original 51 individuals remained in the group at Phase 2. However, the size of the conflict-ridden group increased at Phase 2, with 100 individuals moving into the group from other groups at Phase 1 (total $n = 121$). The socially-involved group also experienced movement from Phase 1 to Phase 2, as only 30 of the original 80 individuals remained in the group at Phase 2. In addition, 121 individuals moved into the group at Phase 2 from other groups at Phase 1. Finally, the positive-isolated group also experienced movement from Phase 1 to Phase 2, as only 36 of the original 127 individuals remained in the group at Phase 2. However, the total size of the positive-isolated group decreased from Phase 1 to Phase 2, as there were only 97 individuals in the group at Phase 2.

In sum, the conflict-ridden and the socially-involved groups exhibited the most stability in group membership from Phase 1 to Phase 2 (41.2% and 37.5%, respectively) and both exhibited increases in group size from Phase 1 to Phase 2. In addition, the dramatic and the positive-isolated groups, both of whom exhibited less stability in group membership from Phase 1 to Phase 2 (10% and 28.3%), both exhibited decreases in group size from Phase 1 to Phase 2. Taken together, these findings indicate that the more stable groups (i.e., conflict-ridden and socially-involved) experienced increases in total group size that resulted largely from

individuals moving out of the less stable groups (i.e., dramatic and positive-isolated) from Phase 1 to Phase 2.

Predicting Commitment Process at Phase 1

In order to test the hypothesis that commonly recognized dimensions of the relationship and commitment at Phase 1 could be used to predict commitment process at Phase 1, two direct discriminant function analyses (one each for men and women) were performed using the seven relationship dimensions and six commitment variables assessed at Phase 1 as predictors of membership in the four commitment process groups at Phase 1.

Three discriminant functions were calculated for men, with a combined χ^2 (39) = 59.028, p = .021. After removal of the first function, there was no longer a significant association between the groups and predictors, χ^2 (24) = 23.958, p = .464. The first function accounted for 60.8% of the between-subjects variability. The plots of the group centroids for each group on the functions indicated that the first discriminant function maximally separated the two event-driven groups from the two relationship-driven groups.

The loading matrix of correlations between the predictors and discriminant functions suggested that the best predictors for distinguishing between the two event-driven groups and the two relationship-driven groups (the first function) were satisfaction, conflict, and trust in the partner's benevolence (see Table 14). As per

common convention in discriminant analyses, loadings of less than .330 were not interpreted (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

A comparison of the means on the significant predictors for each group revealed that the dramatic group was characterized by the lowest satisfaction with the relationship (*M* = -.3525, *SD* = 1.0871), a high level of conflict (*M* = .1268, *SD* = .8063), and the lowest degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = -.1910, *SD* = .7912). The conflict-ridden group was characterized by lower satisfaction with the relationship (*M* = -.1248, *SD* = .8554), the highest level of conflict (*M* = .3538, *SD* = .8685), and a lower degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = -.1068, *SD* = .6976). The socially-involved group was characterized by the highest satisfaction with the relationship (*M* = .2949, *SD* = .6011), a low level of conflict (*M* = -.1934, *SD* = .7518), and a moderate degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = .0972, *SD* = 1.0105). Finally, the positive-isolated group was characterized by high satisfaction with the relationship (*M* = .2492, *SD* = 7261), the lowest level of conflict (*M* = -.3085, *SD* = .7799), and the highest degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = .2387, *SD* = .7062).

The classification procedure for men indicated that 95 individuals (46.1%) were classified correctly, which is substantially greater than the percentage that would be correctly classified by chance alone, n = 59.85 (29.1%). Specifically, the discriminant functions correctly classified 39.4% (*n* = 28) of the dramatic group,

54.5% (n = 12) of the conflict-ridden group, 42.9% (n = 18) of the socially-involved group, and 52.1% (n = 37) of the positive-isolated group.

Three discriminant functions were also calculated for women, with a combined χ^2 (39) = 74.410, p = .001. After removal of the first function, there was no longer a significant association between the groups and predictors, χ^2 (24) 30.257 =, p = .176. The first function accounted for 61.1% of the between-subjects variability. The plots of the group centroids for each group on the functions indicated that the first discriminant function maximally separated the two event-driven groups from the two relationship-driven groups, and the socially-involved group from the positive-isolated group.

The loading matrix of correlations between the predictors and discriminant functions suggested that the best predictors for distinguishing between the two event-driven groups, the socially-involved group and the positive-isolated group (the first function) were conflict, satisfaction, trust in the partner's benevolence and alternative monitoring (see Table 15). Loadings of less than .330 were not interpreted.

A comparison of the means on the significant predictors for each group revealed that the dramatic group was characterized by a high level of conflict (M = .3026, SD = .8994), the lowest satisfaction with the relationship (M = -.3097, SD = 1.186), a low degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (M = -.2170, SD = .9235), and the highest level of alternative monitoring (M = .0780, SD = .9474). The conflict-ridden group was characterized by the highest level of conflict (M = .4306,

SD = .9211), low satisfaction with the relationship (*M* = -.1228, *SD* = 1.0871), the lowest degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = -.3992, *SD* = 1.1626), and a low level of alternative monitoring (*M* = .3278, *SD* = .9015). The socially-involved group was characterized by a low level of conflict (*M* = -.0342, *SD* = .7684), high satisfaction with the relationship (*M* = .3985, *SD* = .5081), a high degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = .3004, *SD* = .4822), and a low level of alternative monitoring (*M* = .3665, *SD* = .6389). The positive-isolated group was characterized by the lowest level of conflict (*M* = -.4247, *SD* = .8404), the highest satisfaction with the relationship (*M* = .4966, *SD* = .6335), a high degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = .3017, *SD* = .7043), and the lowest level of alternative monitoring (*M* = .5683, *SD* = .7831).

A classification procedure for women indicated that 92 individuals (45.3%) were classified correctly, which is substantially greater than the percentage that would be correctly classified by chance alone, *n* = 58.23 (28.68%). Specifically, the discriminant function correctly classified 35.0% (*n* = 28) of the dramatic group, 48.3% (*n* = 14) of the conflict-ridden group, 52.6% (*n* = 20) of the socially-involved group, and 53.6% (*n* = 30) of the positive-isolated group.

To summarize the findings, at Phase 1 the most powerful predictors of the groups were satisfaction with the relationship, conflict, trust in the partner's benevolence and the monitoring of alternatives to the relationship (this last factor was only significant for women). In terms of the group means on these predictors (see

Figure 10 and Figure 11 for a profile of these means for men and women, respectively, at Phase 1), dramatic individuals were very unsatisfied with their relationship, reported high levels of conflict, and did not trust in their partner's benevolence. Dramatic women also reported more of a desire for alternative partners. Conflict-ridden individuals were unsatisfied with their relationship, reported very high levels of conflict, and did not trust in their partner's benevolence. Conflict-ridden women also reported a moderate desire for alternative partners. Socially-involved individuals were very satisfied with their relationship, reported low levels of conflict, and trusted in their partner's benevolence. Socially-involved women also reported a moderate desire for alternative partners. Positive-isolated individuals were very satisfied with their relationship, reported very low levels of conflict and were very trusting in their partner's benevolence. Positive-isolated women also reported little desire for alternative partners.

Predicting Commitment Process at Phase 2

In order to test the hypothesis that commonly recognized dimensions of the relationship and commitment at Phase 1 could be used to predict commitment process at Phase 2, two direct discriminant function analyses (one each for men and women) were performed using the seven relationship dimensions and six commitment variables assessed at Phase 1 as predictors of membership in the four commitment process groups at Phase 2.

Three discriminant functions were calculated for men, with a combined χ^2 (39) = 57.987, p = .026. After removal of the first function, there was no longer a significant association between the groups and predictors, χ^2 (24) = 26.563, p = .325. The first function accounted for 55.3% of the between-subjects variability. The plots of the group centroids for each group on the functions indicated that the first discriminant function maximally separated the dramatic group from the conflict-ridden group and the two relationship-driven groups, and the conflict-ridden group from dramatic group and the two relationship-driven groups.

The loading matrix of correlations between the predictors and discriminant functions suggested that the best predictors for distinguishing between the dramatic group, the conflict-ridden group, and the two relationship-driven groups (the first function) were trust in the partner's honesty, a sense of coupleness, and trust in the partner's benevolence (see Table 16). As in Phase 1, loadings of less than .330 were not interpreted.

A comparison of the means on the significant predictors for each group revealed that the dramatic group was characterized by the lowest degree of trust in the partner's honesty (M = -.4468, SD = 1.1409), the lowest sense of coupleness (M = -.1840, SD = .8492), and a low degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (M = -.1821, SD = .9576). The conflict-ridden group was characterized by a low degree of trust in the partner's honesty (M = .0147, SD = .8694), a low sense of coupleness (M = -.0691, SD = .9596), and a low degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (M = -

.1522, *SD* = .8860). The socially-involved group was characterized by the highest degree of trust in the partner's honesty (*M* = .2631, *SD* = .7682), the highest sense of coupleness (*M* = .3235, *SD* = .7940), and the highest degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = .1837, *SD* = .7492). The positive-isolated group was characterized by a high degree of trust in the partner's honesty (*M* = .1183, *SD* = .7226), a low sense of coupleness (*M* = -.0808, *SD* = .7121), and a moderate degree of trust in the partner's benevolence (*M* = .0895, *SD* = .7459).

A classification procedure for men at Phase 2 indicated that 90 individuals (42.3%) were classified correctly, which is substantially greater than the percentage that would be correctly classified by chance alone, *n* = 63.29 (29.71%). Specifically, the discriminant functions correctly classified 44.4% (*n* = 8) of the dramatic group, 32.8% (*n* = 21) of the conflict-ridden group, 54.3% (*n* = 44) of the socially-involved group, and 34.0% (*n* = 17) of the positive-isolated group.

Three discriminant functions were also calculated for women, with a combined χ^2 (39) = 61.677, *p* = .012. After removal of the first function, there was no longer a significant association between the groups and predictors, χ^2 (24) = 27.140, *p* = .298. The first function accounted for 57.1% of the between-subjects variability. The plots of the group centroids for each group on the functions indicated that the first discriminant function maximally separated the positive-isolated group from the other three groups.

The loading matrix of correlations between the predictors and discriminant functions suggested that the best predictors for distinguishing between the positive-isolated relationship-driven group and the other three groups (the first function) were conflict, alternative monitoring and perceived investments in the relationship (see Table 17). Loadings of less than .330 were not interpreted. A comparison of the means on the significant predictors for each group revealed that the dramatic group was characterized by the highest level of conflict (M = .3337, SD = 1.0018), a moderate level of alternative monitoring (M = .1851, SD = .7187), and a low level of perceived investments in the relationship (M = -.0221, SD = .8416). The conflict-ridden group was characterized by a high level of conflict (M = .1833, SD = .8823), the highest level of alternative monitoring (M = .0269, SD = .9113), and a high level of perceived investments in the relationship (M = .1521, SD = .7955). The socially-involved group was characterized by a low level of conflict (M = .0835, SD = .8803), a low level of alternative monitoring (M = .3640, SD = .8100), and a high level of perceived investments in the relationship (M = .1087, SD = .8739). The positive-isolated group was characterized by the lowest level of conflict (M = -.2820, SD = 1.0014), the lowest level of alternative monitoring (M = .5383, SD = .9048), and the lowest level of perceived investments in the relationship (M = -.2746, SD = .8758).

A classification procedure for women at Phase 2 indicated that 94 individuals (44.3%) were classified correctly, which is substantially greater than the percentage that would be correctly classified by chance alone, n = 60.38 (28.48%). Specifically,

the discriminant functions correctly classified 34.8% (n = 8) of the dramatic group, 32.2% (n = 19) of the conflict-ridden group, 44.9% (n = 35) of the socially-involved group, and 61.5% (n = 32) of the positive-isolated group.

To summarize, at Phase 2 the most powerful predictors of commitment process for men were trust in the partner's honesty and benevolence and a sense of coupleness in the relationship (see Figure 12 for a profile of the means for men at Phase 2). A comparison of the group means on these predictors revealed that dramatic men had low levels of trust in their partner's honesty and benevolence and did not perceive a sense of coupleness in their relationship. Conflict-ridden men were moderately trusting of their partner's honesty but not very trusting of their benevolence, and reported a moderate sense of coupleness in their relationship. Socially-involved men had very high trust in their partner's honesty and benevolence as well as a strong sense of coupleness in the relationship. Positive-isolated men were very trusting in their partner's honesty and benevolence and reported a moderate sense of coupleness in their relationship.

For women at Phase 2, the most powerful predictors of commitment process were conflict, alternative monitoring and perceived investments in the relationship (see Figure 13 for a profile of the means for women at Phase 2). A comparison of the group means on these predictors revealed that dramatic women reported high levels of conflict in their relationship, a moderate desire for alternative partners and a moderate level of investments in the relationship. Conflict-ridden women reported

moderate levels of conflict, a high desire for alternative partners and a high level of investments in the relationship. Socially-involved women reported moderate levels of conflict, little desire for alternative partners and a high level of investments in the relationship. Positive-isolated women reported very low levels of conflict, very little desire for alternative partners and a very low level of investments in the relationship.

Discussion

Four-Group Solution of Commitment Process

Results of the cluster analyses at Phase 1 and Phase 2 were consistent with the hypotheses that subtypes of the event-driven and relationship-driven commitment processes existed and could be identified in both retrospective and more concurrent accounts of the development of commitment in individual's romantic relationships. Four commitment process types were identified, two subtypes of the event-driven process (dramatic and conflict-ridden) and two sub-types of the relationship-driven process (socially-involved and positive-isolated). The four-group solution of commitment process appears to be an improvement over the two-group solution because the sub-types of the event-driven and relationship-driven groups are different from each other in theoretically meaningful ways.

In terms of the variables used to create the commitment process groups, the dramatic group was characterized by dramatic changes in level of commitment coupled with a high proportion of downturns in commitment on their graphs. The dramatic group also reported many negative perceptions about their partner and relationship in their accounts of changes in commitment. These findings indicate that the dramatic group perceives a relatively rocky progression of commitment in their relationship and perceives the relationship itself as relatively negative, findings that are quite consistent with many of the defining features of the event-driven group in earlier research on commitment processes (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray,

2000). Finally, the dramatic group reported a relatively high degree of individual interaction with the social network. This finding was also indicated in the earlier research on event-driven commitments, and is quite interesting in that it indicates that these individuals may be in some way hedging their bets in what they perceive to be a relatively negative relationship by maintaining their ties to their individual networks of friends and families. If their relationships were to end, these individuals would have an active social network that was not significantly associated with their ex-partner, which might make it easier for them to move on from the relationship.

The conflict-ridden group was characterized by extremely high proportions of reported conflict in the relationship, and by a high proportion of downturns in commitment, although the changes in commitment that occurred were less dramatic than for the dramatic group. Both of these findings are consistent with the findings for the event-driven group in earlier research on commitment processes (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000).

A comparison of the findings for the sub-types with the event-driven process as a whole indicates the importance of the identification of the subtypes because some of the findings for the event-driven process seem to be accounted for by the dramatic type and others by the conflict-ridden type. Specifically, the findings of a high level of dramatic change and highly negative perceptions about the relationship seem to be accounted for by the dramatic group, while the finding of a high perceptions of conflict seems to be accounted for by the conflict-ridden group. Therefore, the

identification of sub-types of the event-driven process seems to indicate that, while some individuals may report high proportions of conflict in their relationship, this conflict is not necessarily associated with a high degree of dramatic change in commitment in the relationship or with negative perceptions of the partner or the relationship. These ideas are consistent with much of the research on conflict in romantic relationships, which indicates that conflict, in and of itself, does not necessarily have a negative impact on relationship development or satisfaction (e.g., Gottman, 1994; Markman, Stanley & Blumberg, 1994). Of course the reverse is also true, and individuals who perceive their relationship as rocky and negative do not necessarily perceive much conflict in the relationship. To complicate the picture a little further, both sub-types report a relatively high proportion of downturns, and so downturns in commitment seem to be relatively common in event-driven commitment processes whether there is a lot of conflict in the relationship or it is perceived as rocky and negative.

The socially-involved group was characterized by a lower proportion of downturns than the event-driven groups, and by high proportions of joint interaction with, and positive attributions about, the social network. These findings are consistent with the findings for the relationship-driven group in earlier research on commitment processes (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000).

The positive-isolated group was characterized by a lower proportion of downturns than the event-driven groups, as well as by high proportions of behavioral

interdependence and of positive attributions about the partner and the relationship. These findings are consistent with some of the defining features of the relationship-driven commitment process, as identified in earlier research (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). In addition, the positive-isolated group reported relatively low proportions of interaction with and attributions about the social network. This finding is particularly interesting because it departs from the findings of earlier research on the relationship-driven commitment process (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000).

A comparison of the findings for the sub-types of the relationship-driven process with the relationship-driven process as a whole indicates the importance of the identification of the subtypes because some of the findings for the relationship-driven process seem to be accounted for by the socially-involved type and others by the positive-isolated type. Specifically, the socially-involved group seems to completely account for the finding that the relationship-driven commitment process reported more joint interaction with and positive attributions about the social network, since the positive-isolated group reported significantly less involvement with the social network. In addition, the positive-isolated group seems to account for the finding that the relationship-driven commitment process reported more behavioral interdependence and positive attributions about the partner and the relationship, as they reported significantly more of these reasons than did the socially-involved group.

The socially-involved group, therefore, may be motivated to maintain involvement in their relationship more by structural aspects of commitment, specifically the rewards they receive from their joint network interactions, than by interactions with their dating partner or positive feelings about the relationship. The positive-isolated group, on the other hand, may be motivated to maintain their relationship more by the personal aspects of commitment, specifically the rewards they receive from interactions with their partner.

Regardless of the source of rewards in the relationship, individuals in the two relationship-driven groups exhibit less dramatic rates of change and fewer downturns in commitment than do individuals in the two event-driven groups. For relationship-driven individuals, changes in commitment may be more moderate because the relationship provides the individual with valued rewards, either from the dyadic components of the relationship or from the couple's interactions with their social network. In the event-driven commitment processes, on the other hand, changes in commitment may be more dramatic and negative because the individuals do not perceive many positive aspects of involvement in the relationship, as indicated by fewer positive attributions and more negative attributions in their discussions of changes in commitment.

The Stability of Commitment Process

I had hypothesized that commitment process was a relatively stable phenomenon, and two aspects of stability were addressed in this study. First, I

predicted that the commitment process groups identified at Phase 1 would reproduce at Phase 2 and appear quite similar to the Phase 1 groups. Second, I predicted that individuals would maintain in the same commitment process group across the two times of measurement. The results of this study provide some support for the first aspect of stability but little for the second aspect.

Similarity of Commitment Process Groups at Phase 1 and Phase 2

It was hypothesized that commitment process would be a stable phenomenon, and that the groups identified at Phase 1 would be highly similar to the groups identified at Phase 2. The profiles of commitment process groups on the cluster variables used to create them (see Figure 1 through Figure 9) indicate that corresponding groups were indeed similar to each other across the phases in many ways.

The dramatic group. Across the two times of measurement, the dramatic groups appeared similar to each other on the proportion of downturns in commitment, and on the proportions of reasons involving negative dyadic attributions and individual interaction with the social network (see Figure 2, Figure 6 and Figure 7). However, the dramatic group at Phase 1 had a more dramatic rate of changes in commitment than the dramatic group at Phase 2 (see Figure 1), and in Phase 2 the dramatic group no longer had a significantly higher rate of changes in commitment than the other three groups. Since the slope of changes in commitment was a defining characteristic of the dramatic group in Phase 1, it is possible that the lower slope at

Phase 2 represents a qualitative difference between the groups at the different phases. However, a comparison of this group on the cluster variables in their entirety indicates that, in most ways, the group is quite similar from Phase 1 to Phase 2. In addition, the small number of respondents in the dramatic group at Phase 2 may have limited the finding of statistical significance in the differences between this group and the others. Based on these indications, I made the decision to call the group "dramatic" at Phase 2 as well as at Phase 1.

The conflict-ridden group. Across the two times of measurement, the conflict-ridden groups appeared similar on the proportions of reasons involving conflict (see Figure 3) and on the proportion of downturns in commitment on the graphs (see Figure 2). The conflict-ridden group at Phase 2 also exhibited a more dramatic rate of change in commitment than it had at Phase 1 (see Figure 1), as well as a higher proportion of reasons involving negative dyadic attributions (see Figure 6). The findings for the conflict-ridden group at Phase 2 may indicate developmental change in the group over the course of the study. Specifically, conflict-ridden individuals at Phase 2 may perceive their relationship as negative on a broader array of aspects of the relationship than was the case in Phase 1, where negativity was exhibited mainly in high proportions of conflict and in a high proportion of downturns in commitment. Perhaps as relationships progress over time, the negativity apparent in high rates of conflict extends into other aspects of the

relationship, and as such conflict-ridden individuals' perceptions of their relationship becomes more negative over time.

The socially-involved group. Across the two times of measurement, the socially-involved groups appeared similar on the proportions of reasons involving joint interaction with the social network and reasons involving positive social network attributions (see Figure 8 and Figure 9). The socially-involved group at Phase 2 also reported a smaller proportion of reasons involving positive dyadic attributions than it had at Phase 1 (see Figure 5).

At Phase 2, the socially-involved group appeared to report fewer reasons involving joint interaction with the social network and make fewer positive social network attributions than it did at Phase 1. The socially-involved group also experienced significant movement in group membership from Phase 1 to Phase 2, as indicated by the results of the Chi Square test. This movement was accounted for by individuals moving both out of, and into, the group from Phase 1 to Phase 2. In fact, more individuals moved into the group at Phase 2 than were in the entire group at Phase 1. This large degree of movement into the group at Phase 2 may indicate that the characteristics of the group at Phase 2, namely lower proportions of joint involvement with the social network and a less highly positive perception of the social network, while still maintaining higher proportions than the other three groups in the phase, applied to a relatively larger portion of the sample at Phase 2 than the higher proportions of these variables applied to at Phase 1.

The positive-isolated group. Across the two times of measurement, the positive-isolated groups appeared similar on the proportions of reasons involving behavioral interdependence, positive dyadic attributions, and negative dyadic attributions (see Figure 4 through Figure 6). The positive-isolated group at Phase 1 also reported a smaller proportion of reasons involving joint interaction with the social network than it did at Phase 2 (see Figure 8). Across all of the variables used to create the clusters, the positive-isolated group exhibited much similarity on the characteristics from Phase 1 to Phase 2.

Stability of Group Classification Between Phase 1 and Phase 2

Contrary to what had been hypothesized, individuals changed commitment process group in relatively large numbers from Phase 1 to Phase 2. These changes occurred in ways that indicated few clear patterns of movement across the phases. Although the overall level of stability in classification from Phase 1 to Phase 2 was low, certain groups exhibited more stability than others, with the dramatic group exhibiting the least stability and the conflict-ridden and socially-involved groups exhibiting the most stability.

It is possible that the lack of stability in classification was due to a lack of reliability in the Phase 2 data that stems from the fact that certain respondents may have missed a significant proportion of the Phase 2 interviews and therefore that their data may not be as reliable as those respondents who completed more of the Phase 2 interviews. However, Chi Square tests on respondents who had completed at least 3,

4, or 5 of the 8 Phase 2 interviews failed to find a more significant pattern of stability in group classification across the phases. Therefore, the lack of stability in classification across the phases does not appear strongly linked to this particular issue of reliability.

Another potential issue that might account for a lack of stability in commitment process group classification concerns a lack of reliability in group classification at Phase 1 and Phase 2. It may be, for example, that one group is much more difficult to predict than the others. Errors in the classification of this group may contribute to a high degree of change in group membership between Phase 1 and Phase 2 by making it more likely that this group will be misclassified at either phase. In order to preliminarily assess this possibility, discriminant function analyses were performed for the Phase 1 and Phase 2 data, using the cluster variables to predict group membership. The overall accuracy of classification at each phase was quite high in these analyses. In an examination of the accuracy of classification for the specific groups, none of the accuracy levels appeared low enough to significantly affect the stability of group membership across phases. Therefore, this explanation does not seem to be able to account for the relatively large extent of change in commitment process from Phase 1 to Phase 2.

Another possibility is that the lack of stability from Phase 1 to Phase 2 was due to changes in the criteria for membership in the groups from Phase 1 to Phase 2. If the criteria for membership changed, for example if a high mean absolute slope was

required to be classified as dramatic at Phase 1 but not at Phase 2, then individuals could have the same characteristics on the cluster variables at both phases but still be classified into different groups. A comparison of respondents' means on the cluster variables at Phase 1 and Phase 2 would provide an indication of the extent of similarity across phases. If there exists a high level of similarity in respondents' cluster variable means across the phases, then we may see more stability in group membership across phases if we force the same membership criteria for the groups at Phase 2 as existed at Phase 1.

It is also possible that the repeated measurement of the development of commitment in the graphing procedure is partially responsible for the lack of stability in group membership from Phase 1 to Phase 2. Perhaps as respondents became more familiar with the graphing procedure and the procedure became less novel the changes they reported became less dramatic. For example, the first time a respondent was asked to graph changes in commitment in their relationship it is pretty likely that they had not done such a thing before. As such, the novelty of the situation may lead them to report changes as more dramatic, or to report reasons they consider to be particularly interesting or exciting. But as the respondent becomes more familiar with the procedure the may begin to report changes as less dramatic and reasons they do not consider to be as interesting or exciting. These changes could result in changes in commitment process classification from Phase 1 to Phase 2. In order to

explore this possibility, we could examine patterns of changes in the nature of the graphs of commitment and in the types of reasons given over the length of the study.

Finally, it is possible that changes in commitment process group were due to developmental change, where respondents' perceptions of the development of commitment in their relationship qualitatively changed from Phase 1 to Phase 2. Although only one month of time (on average) elapsed between the Phase 1 data collection and the beginning of the Phase 2 data collection, Phase 2 continued for eight months (on average), and this period is probably long enough for some level of developmental change to occur. This possibility is discussed further in the next section of the paper.

The Confounding of Developmental Change With Methodological Issues

The above discussion of stability in commitment process touches upon a major issue in the interpretation of the results in this study, namely the confounding of developmental change with methodological differences in the nature of the data. Specifically, differences in group membership between Phase 1 and Phase 2 may be due to actual differences the way that individuals perceive their relationships across the phases. On the other hand, these differences may be due to differences in the degree of retrospection required in the Phase 1 and Phase 2 points of data collection.

As discussed in the method section, at Phase 1 the respondent graphed retrospectively the development of commitment in the relationship from the day the relationship began until the date of the interview. For those respondents whose

relationships were relatively new, this period may have been as short as a few months. But for those respondents with long relationships, this period extended up to eight or more years. In Phase 2, respondents were asked to come in once a month for 8 months to update the graph they began at Phase 1. Although many respondents missed one or more interviews over the course of Phase 2, thereby extending the period of time they reported on in a given interview, most of the Phase 2 interviews covered a period of time of one or two months. In most cases, then, the respondent was asked to retrospect over a significantly longer period of time at Phase 1 than at Phase 2.

Accuracy of Memory and the Degree of Retrospection

There are a variety of ways that the degree of retrospection could potentially influence the data. It could simply be a matter of memory distortion, where memory is less accurate the further back the respondent is being asked to remember. This possibility implies that the Phase 2 data would be more accurate than the Phase 1 data in terms of representing what actually happened in the relationship. If problems with memory were a significant factor in the differences in data between the phases, the Phase 2 data should also contain proportionately more of the reasons that refer to specific incidents or interactions (e.g., reports of conflict, behavioral interdependence, interactions with the social network), since these would be more likely to be remembered when the respondent is asked to retrospect over a shorter period of time. An examination of the group means for these types of reasons at Phase 1 and Phase 2

does not support this idea. For example, conflict does not appear to be reported any more frequently in Phase 2 than it was in Phase 1, and variables like behavioral interdependence and joint interactions with the social network actually seem to be reported less frequently in Phase 2 than they were in Phase 1, for some groups.

Perceptions of Relationship Events and the Degree of Retrospection

It is also possible that the degree of retrospection influences the nature of perceptions about the development of commitment. From a phenomenological perspective, this is not a matter of the ability to remember specific events, per se, but more a matter of how looking back at events over a period of time influences the meaning an individual makes of the specific events. For example, perhaps individuals are more likely to perceive negative aspects of their relationship if they are asked to report about something that has just recently happened, and are more likely to perceive the same events in a more positive light if they are asked to report on it after a significant period of time has occurred. This might be the case if the time that has elapsed between the event and the report has allowed the individual to process the event, draw conclusions about it, and make meaning of it in the larger scheme of the development of the relationship. In more concurrent accounts, in addition to the fact that the individual has had less time to process the events being discussed, these events may still be active issues in the relationship, and so could be more emotionally charged than events in the more distant past. Differences in perceptions with different degrees of retrospection could then affect the stability of

group classification by, for example, increasing the likelihood that individuals report fewer negative reasons in Phase 2 than in Phase 1. In addition, perceptions of the development of commitment may be influenced by the respondent's current stage of involvement in the relationship. A respondent who has just broken up with their dating partner may be more likely to perceive past events in the relationship negatively, whereas someone who has just become engaged to their partner may be more likely to gloss over any potentially negative events in the relationship.

The above examples are merely a few of the ways in which perceptions could vary with the degree of retrospection required in accounts of the development of commitment. In future research endeavors, this effect could be assessed by comparing the Phase 1 and Phase 2 data to a third time of measurement. Specifically, respondents were asked, during the last interview (at Phase 3), to re-graph the entire relationship from its inception to the date of the last interview. The Phase 1 and the Phase 2 data could be compared against the data provided in the Phase 3 graph for the corresponding time periods. Doing so would allow a comparison of the accuracy of accounts of the same periods of time with different degrees of retrospection. For example, comparing the Phase 2 data to the more retrospective account at Phase 3 for the same time period could explore the extent to which accuracy of memory is affected by the degree of retrospection as well as the extent to which perceptions of the same events in the relationship tend to change over time. If the accounts at Phase 2 and Phase 3 are quite similar, then we can assume that individuals are fairly

accurate in discussing the development of commitment across different degrees of retrospection. If the accounts differ, we can examine differences in the specific reasons reported (i.e., the respondent reported some events in Phase 2 that he or she forgot to include in the Phase 3 graph) as well as in differences in the perceptions of the events in that time period (i.e., the respondent discussed the same event in both phases, but was more positive about it at Phase 3).

Developmental Change in Commitment Processes

As discussed above, changes in commitment process group from Phase 1 to Phase 2 may also be due to developmental change. Although commitment process was hypothesized to be a relatively stable phenomenon, changes in commitment process would be expected when the individual's relationship changes in significant ways or the individual's perceptions of the relationship change, arguably the same thing from a phenomenological perspective. For example, a number of respondents who were in the dramatic group at Phase 1 moved to the conflict-ridden group or the socially-involved group at Phase 2. Both of these Phase 2 groups were characterized by structural constraints to maintain in the relationship, either in the reasons given for changes in commitment or in the predictors that were significant in the discriminant function analyses. It seems possible, then, that individuals may move from dramatic to conflict-ridden if they become more structurally constrained in the relationship but still do not perceive their relationship positively, or from dramatic to socially-

involved if their increasing dyadic involvement with the social network provides a source of rewards for maintaining in the relationship.

This research supports the idea that premarital relationships do not always proceed in a manner consistent with the prototypical conceptions of relationship development, and that commitment in relationships can maintain or increase through a variety of developmental pathways. According to interdependence theory, romantic relationships should become increasingly interdependent as individuals become more committed to the relationship, with partners becoming more positive about their relationship, withdrawing from their individual social networks, and developing a joint social network (Braiker & Kelly, 1979). The results of this study indicate that commitment does not progress in this manner for all individuals, as some appear to maintain active individual involvements with their social network, others do not appear to become increasingly interdependent or positive about the relationship, and yet others do not seem to establish joint social networks. Past research indicates that some courtships that end in marriage do not progress prototypically (e.g., Cate et al., 1986; Surra, 1985), and the results of this study indicate that this is also true for the development of commitment in premarital dating relationships.

In future research, the degree to which developmental change is responsible for changes in commitment process group membership from Phase 1 to Phase 2 could be examined by controlling for aspects of the relationship associated with developmental change. For example, controlling for the length and the stage of

involvement of the relationship would take out some of the variance accounted for by developmental change. The amount of change that exists after controlling for these factors (to the extent that the factors are associated with developmental change) may then be due more to the methodological issues described above than to true developmental change in commitment process.

It seems likely that certain individuals in certain types of relationships are more likely than others to change commitment process over time, and future research should explore this issue. Individuals who are more ambivalent about involvement, for example, may be more likely to change commitment process over time. Those who are very certain about involvement in their relationship may be more likely to perceive it similarly at different points in time, and so would be less likely to change commitment process. Changes in commitment process over time may also be more likely for individuals who are at less involved stages in their relationship, or when the relationship is newer. Future research could examine whether individuals who were at higher stages of involvement at Phase 1 were less likely than individuals at lower stages of involvement to change commitment process from Phase 1 to Phase 2.

Predicting Commitment Process Using Dimensions of the Relationship

I had hypothesized that dimensions of the relationship and commitment variables as measured at Phase 1 would predict commitment process group at both Phase 1 and Phase 2. Consistent with this hypothesis, the discriminant function analyses performed on these variables indicated a significant function for both men

and women at each phase. The fact that the four-groups were significantly discriminated by functions composed of relationship dimensions and commitment variables for both men and women at both Phase 1 and Phase 2 points to the conceptual meaningfulness of the subtypes. However, the variables that best predicted commitment process group membership differed between Phase 1 and Phase 2. In addition, at Phase 1 the best predictors of commitment process were highly similar for men and women, whereas at Phase 2 they were not.

A comparison of the mean differences on the significant predictors and the cluster variable characteristics of the commitment process groups revealed that, in general, the two event-driven groups were less satisfied with their relationship, reported more conflict in the relationship, trusted their partners less, and had more of a desire for alternative partners than the two relationship-driven groups. These findings are all consistent with past research on the two-group solution of commitment process (Surra & Hughes, 1997; Surra & Gray, 2000). So it appears that individuals who perceive the development of commitment in their relationship as more negative and rocky (i.e., dramatic and conflict-ridden individuals) also have more negative evaluations of their relationship's characteristics, and that individuals who perceive the development of commitment as more positive and moderate (i.e., socially-involved and positive-isolated individuals) also have more positive evaluations of their relationship's characteristics.

The two event-driven groups differ on certain dimensions of the relationship in ways that may relate to the specific characteristics of each commitment process. Specifically, the dramatic group perceived having made fewer investments in the relationship and perceived less of a sense of coupleness in the relationship than did the conflict-ridden group. Since individuals in the dramatic group were quite negative about their partner and their relationship, this negativity may have made it less likely that they would invest many resources in the relationship and also impeded the development of a sense of coupleness. In addition, the high level of independent involvement with the social network maintained by dramatic individuals may have prevented the investment of many resources in the relationship and impeded the development of a perception of themselves as part of a couple. For example, if Joe goes out with his friends three nights a week, he will likely have little money left over to spend on dates with his partner during the weekend and may not see his relationship with his partner as a central component of his life.

A comparison of the two relationship-driven groups indicates that the socially-involved group perceived having made many more investments in the relationship than the positive-isolated group. Since the socially-involved group was, by definition, more involved as a couple with their social network, it is possible that some of the investments they perceive having made in their relationships stem from their network involvement. For example, if Joe's family has come to treat his partner as a member of their family, then Joe may perceive that he has invested a lot of time

in developing the relationship between his family and his partner. The socially-involved group also perceived more of a sense of coupleness than the positive-isolated group, and it possible that the social network helped to instill and reinforce the concept of themselves as part of a cohesive couple. For example, if Joe only does things with his friends as part of a couple, then Joe's social network may come to treat him and his partner as one unit, which may cause Joe to see himself more as part of a couple than as an individual who happens to be dating someone. In the socially-involved commitment process, the social network may act as a structural constraint that reinforces individuals' commitment to their relationship. For individuals in the positive-isolated group, the perception of having made very few investments in the relationship, coupled with the very positive dyadic characteristics of their relationships and their lack of involvement with the social network, indicate that commitment for this group may be driven much more by the personal components of commitment than by structural constraints.

The results of the discriminant function analyses provide evidence for the validity of the four commitment process groups here identified, as well as for the improvement they represent over the two-group typology. Specifically, the discriminant functions often distinguished between the two sub-types of event-driven commitment processes or relationship-driven commitment processes. This indicates that the sub-types are indeed distinct from each other in conceptually meaningful ways, as membership in the groups can be significantly predicted by variables known

to relate to the development of commitment in romantic relationships. In addition, the discriminant functions at Phase 2 may better distinguish the sub-types from each other than the functions at Phase 1. Specifically, at Phase 1 the discriminant functions only separated the socially-involved from the positive-isolated group from women, and all other separations occurred between both relationship-driven groups and both event-driven groups (e.g., separated the event-driven groups from the relationship-driven groups). At Phase 2, the functions separated the sub-types from each other more often, as they separated the dramatic from the conflict-ridden group for men and the positive-isolated from the socially-involved group for women.

Developmental Change and Significant Predictors of Commitment Process

The finding that different relationship dimensions and commitment variables were significant predictors of commitment process at Phase 1 and Phase 2 may have to do with developmental changes in the relationship over the length of the study. As people move from Phase 1 through Phase 2, it is possible that the relationship dimensions that predict cluster membership change. The discriminating variables were assessed during the Phase 1 interview, and were used to predict commitment process both at Phase 1 and Phase 2. The specific variables that best predict commitment process may vary with the degree of involvement in the relationship, and individuals may have, on average, become more involved in the relationship over the 9-month period in which the two phases of data collection occurred. For example, satisfaction and conflict may be particularly important in predicting commitment

process at Phase 1 because they represent basic characteristics of the relationship that are widely-recognized as important to relationship success. As such, perceptions of the development of commitment in the earlier stages of a relationship may be strongly related to these types of relationship dimensions.

As relationships become more involved, either through increasing length or depth of involvement, characteristics more closely tied to the potential for long-term success in the relationship may become more important in the prediction of commitment processes. This could be why both types of trust become significant predictors for men at Phase 2. As discussed in the literature review, trust in the partner becomes more important as individuals become more involved in the relationship because the potential risks involved in the relationship increase with increasing involvement. Therefore, trust may become more important in the prediction of commitment process as relationships became more involved. Even though trust was assessed before the Phase 2 data collection in this study, it is possible that initial perceptions of trust in the partner, although not very important in the earlier stages of a relationship, become significant predictors of the nature of the relationship as it becomes more involved, perhaps foreshadowing the issues to come.

As a second example of the possible effect of developmental change on changes in the types of predictors that are significant across the phases, the desire for alternative partners and the level of perceived investments in the relationship are both significant predictors of commitment process for women in Phase 2 but not at Phase

1. Both of these commitment variables represent aspects of the structural component of commitment. As discussed in the literature review, structural constraints involve barriers that act to keep the individual in or repel them from involvement in a relationship, and are hypothesized to act on the intent to maintain in a relationship through the costs associated with its continuation or termination. The structural component of commitment is hypothesized to increase with increasing involvement in a relationship, and this may account for why these variables are significant predictors of commitment process for women at Phase 2 but not at Phase 1. It is possible that these structural factors, although present during earlier stages of the relationship, are not strongly related to commitment process until the relationship becomes more involved.

The possibility that differences in the types of relationship dimensions that predict commitment process in Phase 1 and Phase 2 are related to developmental differences in the respondents' relationships could be tested in future research by the inclusion of measures of developmental change such as the length of the relationship when the study began, the stages of involvement experienced over the course of the study, and perhaps even the cohabitation status of the relationship, as over 30% of the respondents in this study were cohabiting with their dating partner for at least some part of the study (see Table 18 for the percentages of respondents cohabiting at each interview).

Conclusions

The primary goals of this study were to identify and describe subtypes of the event-driven and relationship-driven commitment processes and to replicate these types using more concurrent accounts of changes in commitment in premarital romantic relationships. Four types of commitment process were identified at both times of measurement, and the types were quite similar across phases, but there was a significant degree of individual change in commitment process from Phase 1 to Phase 2. A secondary goal of the study was to identify relationship dimensions that could predict commitment process, and results indicated that the groups differed on certain combinations of these variables in ways that could predict commitment process at Phase 1 and Phase 2.

The research design used here has significant advantages over many of the other designs commonly used to assess the development of romantic relationships in that it is a premarital sample that was gathered through a random sampling procedure and is fairly representative of the population of the area in which it was gathered. However, there are limitations of this design that may affect the ability to generalize the results of this study to the population of never-married young adults. For example, in order to examine the entire course of the relationship, we would need to begin studying individuals at the beginning of their relationship and follow them for the entire length of the relationship, whereas in this study we began with individuals who had been involved in their relationships for varying lengths of time and followed

them for a nine-month period. It is possible that this design failed to capture shorter relationships that end relatively quickly in a break-up. A research design that requires individuals to be involved in a dating relationship in order to be included in the sample also excludes those individuals who never get romantically involved in ways they consider to be dating relationships, or who never get involved in any sort of romantic relationship. In order to be truly representative of the nature of mate selection for all individuals, future research should attempt to deal with these limitations, perhaps by using longitudinal designs that follow individuals for longer periods of time through a variety of romantic involvements.

Future research on the commitment processes should seek to explore the patterns of change in commitment process over time identified in this study, in order to establish the extent to which these changes are due to methodological issues or developmental change. If these changes are determined to be developmental, analyses should examine specific patterns of individual change, in order to identify developmental patterns in commitment processes. Eventually, these commitment process groups could be used to predict relational outcomes, both in terms of the status of the relationship (i.e., break-ups, marriage) as well as the quality of the relationship (i.e., abusive, satisfactory).

Table 1

Demographic Information for the Sample at Phase 1

	Men	Women
Mean age (years)	24.22	22.96
Race (%)		
African American	8.6	6.5
Asian	6.9	4.7
Caucasian	70.3	69.4
Native American	0.9	0.0
Hispanics	13.4	19.4
Median Income (in thousands of dollars)	10-15	10-15
Education (%)		
Less than a high school diploma	2.5	0.4
High school diploma	15.9	12.1
Some college	44.0	47.8
Bachelor's degree	29.7	30.2
Graduate school	7.7	9.5
Religion (%)		
Protestant	18.5	19.8
Roman Catholic	22.0	24.6
Jewish	2.6	3.0
Baptist	7.8	9.5
Other religions	13.0	15.1
Atheistic, Agnostic or No affiliation	36.2	28.0

Table 2

Descriptive Information on the Number of Interviews Completed at Phase 2

Interview Number	Number of Respondents Who Completed the Interview	Mean # of Days Since Last Interview	Standard Deviation of Days Since Last Interview	Range of Days Since Last Interview
Men				
1	185	34.42	6.339	21-55
2	157	36.13	13.12	11-77
3	133	38.16	14.50	15-103
4	141	41.65	21.943	10-142
5	129	40.62	21.72	14-133
6	129	46.23	30.88	15-187
7	121	41.36	24.43	14-206
8	183	76.20	72.74	9-385
Women				
1	182	34.31	6.56	21-57
2	156	37.28	13.82	11-77
3	155	38.53	15.79	16-107
4	140	37.53	16.11	11-122
5	140	43.27	25.59	14-166
6	142	39.25	17.25	14-119
7	140	41.27	26.00	12-171
8	193	65.29	61.99	14-385

Table 3

Definitions and Examples of Graph and Reasons Variables

Variables Derived From the Graphs	Definition
Mean absolute slope	The absolute slope of each turning point (where slope is the amount of change in each turning point divided by the number of months in each turning point) added together, and divided by the total number of turning points in a graph.
Proportion of downturns	The number of negative turning points (decreases in chance of marriage) in a graph divided by the total number of turning points in the graph.

Variables Derived from the Accounts		
Reason	Definition	Example
Conflict	A statement about an exchange of negative affect, tension, hostility or fighting between the self and the partner on one or more occasions.	"We had been arguing a lot lately."
Behavioral interdependence	A reference to doing or planning to do activities together, to change in the kinds of behaviors done together, or to spending time or planning to spend time together.	"We made love for the first time."
Positive dyadic attributions	A reference to the positive characteristics of the partner, the self in relation to the partner, or the relationship.	"We liked a lot of the same types of things."
Negative dyadic attributions	A reference to the negative characteristics of the partner, the self in relation to the partner, or the relationship.	"He was really acting like a jerk that night."
Individual interaction with the social network	A reference to behaviors or activities done by one partner with any network members, except alternative dating partners.	"My friends were telling me that Sue was no good for me."
Joint interaction with the social network	A reference to behaviors or activities done by both partners together with any network members, except alternative dating partners.	"We double-dated with our friends James and Alice a lot."

Table 3 (Cont'd)

Definitions and Examples of Graph and Reasons Variables

Variables Derived from the Accounts		
Positive network attributions	Any statement of a positive attribution about the self's, the partner's, or the couple's interaction with the network, or about interaction between members of the network independent of the couple.	"His mom really seemed to like me."

Table 4

Means, Univariate F-Tests, and Follow-up Tests of Mean Differences on Cluster Variables for Commitment Processes at Phase 1 for Men

Cluster Variables	F (3, 217)	Commitment Process			
		Dramatic Event Driven (n=77)	Conflict-ridden Event Driven (n=24)	Socially-involved Relationship Driven (n=46)	Positive-isolated Relationship Driven (n=74)
Mean Absolute Slope	7.904***	33.5208[a]	10.3817[b]	17.5789[ab]	10.1241[b]
Proportion of Downturns	21.093***	.3411[a]	.2514[a]	.1166[b]	.1175[b]
Conflict	97.889***	.0099[a]	.0601[b]	.0043[ac]	.0028[c]
Behavioral Interdependence	6.817***	.1135[a]	.1733[ab]	.1287[ab]	.1757[b]
Positive Dyadic Attributions	23.897***	.2763[a]	.2884[ab]	.3605[b]	.4975[c]
Negative Dyadic Attributions	27.743***	.1566[a]	.0855[b]	.0391[b]	.0440[b]
Individual Interaction with the Network	14.402***	.0369[a]	.0084[b]	.0095[b]	.0081[b]
Joint Interaction with the Network	20.430***	.0215[ac]	.0339[c]	.0782[b]	.0119[a]
Positive Network Attributions	56.805***	.0158[a]	.0212[ac]	.0971[b]	.0064[c]

Note: Means are from the One-way ANOVA. Means in the same row that do not share superscripts differ at $p < .05$ on the Games-Howell follow-up test of mean differences.
*** $p < .001$.

Table 5

Means, Univariate F-Tests, and Follow-up Tests of Mean Differences on Cluster Variables for Commitment Processes at Phase 1 for Women

Cluster Variables	F (3, 215)	Commitment Process			
		Dramatic Event Driven (n=86)	Conflict-ridden Event Driven (n=32)	Socially-involved Relationship Driven (n=39)	Positive-isolated Relationship Driven (n=62)
Mean Absolute Slope$_1$	5.766***	27.8873^a	9.9094^b	10.9308^b	12.6626^b
Proportion of Downturns$_2$	28.117***	.3620^a	.2628^a	.1188^b	.1034^b
Conflict$_1$	106.719***	.0122^a	.0793^c	.0037^b	.0028^b
Behavioral Inter-dependence$_1$	8.976***	.0925^a	.1233^{ab}	.0999^a	.1610^b
Positive Dyadic Attributions$_1$	22.537***	.2701^a	.2911^a	.3223^a	.4773^b
Negative Dyadic Attributions$_1$	39.369***	.1561^a	.0988^c	.0545^b	.0378^b
Individual Interaction with the Network$_1$	8.886***	.0336^a	.0123^b	.0166^b	.0127^b
Joint Interaction with the Network$_1$	20.004***	.0193^a	.0328^{ab}	.0632^b	.0087^c
Positive Network Attributions$_1$	53.304***	.0181^a	.0199^{ac}	.0824^b	.0048^c

Note: Means are from the One-way ANOVA. Means in the same row that do not share superscripts differ at $p < .05$ on follow-up tests of mean differences.
*** $p < .001$.
$_1$ = Games-Howell post-hoc test. $_2$ = Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

Table 6

Correlations Between Cluster Variables at Phase 1 and Phase 2

Cluster Variable	Men	Women
Mean Absolute Slope	.127†	.687***
Proportion of Downturns	.217**	.161*
Conflict	.299**	.196**
Behavioral Interdependence	.095	.095
Positive Dyadic Attributions	.126†	.016
Negative Dyadic Attributions	.031	.242***
Individual Interaction with the Network	.173*	.031
Joint Interaction with the Network	.002	.105
Positive Network Attributions	-.037	.012

† $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 7

Means, Univariate F-Tests, and Follow-up Tests of Mean Differences on Cluster Variables for Commitment Processes at Phase 2 for Men

Cluster Variables	F (3, 209)	Commitment Process			
		Dramatic Event Driven (n=18)	Conflict-ridden Event Driven (n=64)	Socially-involved Relationship Driven (n=81)	Positive-isolated Relationship Driven (n=50)
Mean Absolute Slope	7.256***	10.9444 [ab]	14.6803 [b]	5.1595 [a]	5.7458 [a]
Proportion of Downturns	31.259***	.3169 [b]	.4858 [b]	.0687 [a]	.0910 [a]
Conflict	27.848***	.0255 [a]	.1019 [b]	.0033 [a]	.0152 [a]
Behavioral Interdependence	16.832***	.0873 [b]	.0560 [b]	.0365 [b]	.1769 [a]
Positive Dyadic Attributions	44.467***	.2357 [c]	.1977 [c]	.0488 [b]	.3907 [a]
Negative Dyadic Attributions	34.519***	.1410 [a]	.2667 [c]	.0328 [b]	.0456 [ab]
Individual Interaction with the Network	49.844***	.0748 [b]	.0053 [a]	.0070 [a]	.0012 [a]
Joint Interaction with the Network	2.409[†]	.0180	.0091	.0340	.0087
Positive Network Attributions	3.607*	.0097 [ab]	.0040 [a]	.0257 [b]	.0046 [a]

Note: Means are from the One-way ANOVA. Means in the same row that do not share superscripts differ at $p < .05$ on Tukey HSD follow-up test of mean differences.
[†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 8

Means, Univariate F-Tests, and Follow-up Tests of Mean Differences on Cluster Variables for Commitment Processes at Phase 2 for Women

Cluster Variables	F (3, 208)	Commitment Process			
		Dramatic Event Driven (n=23)	Conflict-ridden Event Driven (n=59)	Socially-involved Relationship Driven (n=78)	Positive-isolated Relationship Driven (n=52)
Mean Absolute Slope$_2$	2.277†	18.8217 ^{ab}	15.1203 ^{ab}	21.5144 ^{b}	6.3867 ^{a}
Proportion of Downturns$_2$	19.812***	.3434 ^{b}	.4326 ^{b}	.1450 ^{a}	.1248 ^{a}
Conflict$_2$	16.761***	.0299 ^{a}	.0588 ^{b}	.0137 ^{a}	.0090 ^{a}
Behavioral Interdependence$_2$	17.178***	.0745 ^{ab}	.0367 ^{b}	.0345 ^{b}	.1222 ^{a}
Positive Dyadic Attributions$_1$	34.375***	.2207 ^{c}	.2129 ^{c}	.0941 ^{b}	.336 ^{a}
Negative Dyadic Attributions$_2$	28.184***	.1482 ^{a}	.2658 ^{b}	.0945 ^{a}	.0758 ^{a}
Individual Interaction with the Network$_2$	38.237***	.0803 ^{b}	.0054 ^{a}	.0180 ^{a}	.0043 ^{a}
Joint Interaction with the Network$_2$	5.746**	.0128 ^{ab}	.0082 ^{b}	.0433 ^{a}	.0194 ^{ab}
Positive Network Attributions$_2$	5.665**	.0090 ^{ab}	.0035 ^{a}	.0379 ^{b}	.0103 ^{a}

Note: Means are from the One-way ANOVA. Means in the same row that do not share superscripts differ at $p < .05$ on follow-up test of mean differences.

† $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

$_1$ = Games-Howell post-hoc test. $_2$ = Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

Table 9

Percentage of Respondents in Phase 2 Clusters by Phase 1 Cluster Membership

	Phase 1 Cluster Group			
Phase 2 Cluster Group	Dramatic Event Driven	Conflict-ridden Event Driven	Socially-involved Relationship Driven	Positive-isolated Relationship Driven
Dramatic Event Driven	10% (15)	7.8% (4)	16.3% (13)	5.5% (7)
Conflict-ridden Event Driven	32% (48)	41.2% (21)	21.3% (17)	27.6% (35)
Socially-involved Relationship Driven	38% (57)	29.4% (15)	37.5% (30)	38.6% (49)
Positive-isolated Relationship Driven	20% (30)	21.6% (11)	25.0% (20)	28.3% (36)
Total	100.0% (150)	100.0% (51)	100.1% (80)	100.0% (127)

Note: The number of cases is in parentheses.
χ^2 (9, N = 408) = 13.86, p = .127.

Table 10

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,436)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors			
	1	2	3		Proportion of Downturns	Conflict	Positive Network Attributions	Positive Dyadic Attributions
Negative Dyadic Attributions	.405*	-.215	.353	65.227***	.416	.041	-.106	-.160
Proportion of Downturns	.383	-.141	.288	49.572***	1.000	.073	-.070	-.263
Conflict	.627	.741*	-.070	201.379***		1.000	-.041	-.010
Positive Network Attributions	-.439	.319	.550*	110.029***			1.000	-.074
Positive Dyadic Attributions	-.257	-.057	-.458*	47.268***				1.000

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function

For Univariate F's: *** $\underline{p} < .001$.

Table 10 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,436)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors			
	1	2	3		Joint Interaction with the Network	Behavioral Inter-dependence	Individual Interaction with the Network	Mean Absolute Slope
Negative Dyadic Attributions	.405*	-.215	.353	65.227***	-.131	-.090	-.217	-.214
Proportion of Downturns	.383	-.141	.288	49.572***	-.114	-.097	-.019	-.066
Conflict	.627	.741*	-.070	201.379***	.032	-.050	-.059	.087
Positive Network Attributions	-.439	.319	.550*	110.029***	.002	-.055	.316	.045
Positive Dyadic Attributions	-.257	-.057	-.458*	47.268***	-.149	-.379	-.135	.055

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *** $p < .001$.

Table 10 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1

ßPredictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,436)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors			
	1	2	3		Joint Interaction with the Network	Behavioral Inter-dependence	Individual Interaction with the Network	Mean Absolute Slope
Joint Interaction with the Network	-.216	.252	.332*	40.178***	1.000	.157	.056	.044
Behavioral Inter-dependence	-.060	.052	-.302*	15.279***		1.000	-.026	.018
Individual Interaction with the Network	.169	-.203	.235*	23.268***			1.000	-.073
Mean Absolute Slope	.109	-.159	.188*	13.173***				1.000
Canonical *R*	.779	.765	.715					
Eigenvalue	1.541	1.409	1.047					

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function

For Univariate F's: *** p < .001.

Table 11

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,421)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors			
	1	2	3		Proportion of Downturns	Conflict	Positive Network Attributions	Joint Interaction with the Network
Negative Dyadic Attributions	.418*	.403	-.013	61.377***	.162	-.119	.111	.059
Proportion of Downturns	.391*	.341	.093	50.660***	1.000	-.089	.069	.120
Conflict	.353*	.322	-.085	42.694***		1.000	.046	.013
Positive Network Attributions	-.204*	.043	.020	9.165***			1.000	.290
Joint Interaction with the Network	-.181*	.029	.016	7.150***				1.000

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *** p < .001.

Table 11 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,421)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors			
	1	2	3		Positive Dyadic Attributions	Behavioral Inter-dependence	Mean Absolute Slope	Individual Interaction with the Network
Negative Dyadic Attributions	.418*	.403	-.013	61.377***	.000	-.055	.160	.020
Proportion of Downturns	.391*	.341	.093	50.660***	-.158	.062	.202	.122
Conflict	.353*	.322	-.085	42.694***	.150	.022	.094	.022
Positive Network Attributions	-.204*	.043	.020	9.165***	.108	.108	-.014	.236
Joint Interaction with the Network	-.181*	.029	.016	7.150***	.052	.210	-.007	.255

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *** $\underline{p} < .001$.

Table 11 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,421)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors			
	1	2	3		Positive Dyadic Attributions	Behavioral Inter-dependence	Mean Absolute Slope	Individual Interaction with the Network
Positive Dyadic Attributions	.411	-.520*	-.135	77.908***	1.000	-.132	.193	-.015
Behavioral Inter-dependence	.129	-.429*	-.077	31.552***		1.000	.059	.058
Mean Absolute Slope	.004	.122*	.073	2.716*			1.000	.121
Individual Interaction with the Network	.028	-.035	.946*	84.333***				1.000
Canonical *R*	.776	.718	.633					
Eigenvalue	1.515	1.063	.668					

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *** $p < .001$.

Table 12

Classification Statistics From Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1

	Predicted Group Membership					
Actual Group Membership	Dramatic Event Driven	Conflict-ridden Event Driven	Socially-involved Relationship Driven	Positive-isolated Relationship Driven	Total	% of Sample for Actual Group Membership
Dramatic Event Driven	89.6% (146)	3.1% (5)	2.5% (4)	4.9% (8)	100.1% (163)	37.1%
Conflict-ridden Event Driven	8.9% (5)	80.4% (45)	5.4% (3)	5.4% (3)	100.1% (56)	12.7%
Socially-involved Relationship Driven	1.2% (1)	2.4% (2)	85.9% (73)	10.6% (9)	100.1% (85)	19.3%
Positive-isolated Relationship Driven	7.4% (10)	0.7% (1)	0% (0)	91.9% (125)	100.0% (136)	30.9%
Total	(162)	(80)	(53)	(145)		
% of Sample for Predicted Group Membership	36.8%	12.1%	18.2%	33.0%		

Note: The number of cases is in parentheses.

Note: 88.4% of original cases were correctly classified (28.6% of cases would be correctly classified by chance alone).

Table 13

Classification Statistics From Discriminant Function Analysis of Cluster Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2

	Predicted Group Membership					
Actual Group Membership	Dramatic Event Driven	Conflict-ridden Event Driven	Socially-involved Relationship Driven	Positive-isolated Relationship Driven	Total	% of Sample for Actual Group Membership
Dramatic Event Driven	73.2% (30)	7.3% (3)	4.9% (2)	14.6% (6)	100.0% (41)	9.7%
Conflict-ridden Event Driven	0.8% (1)	85.4% (105)	9.8% (12)	4.1% (5)	100.1% (123)	28.9%
Socially-involved Relationship Driven	6.9% (11)	4.4% (7)	84.9% (135)	3.8% (6)	100.0% (159)	37.4%
Positive-isolated Relationship Driven	0.0% (0)	3.9% (4)	11.8% (12)	84.3% (86)	100.0% (102)	24.0%
Total	(42)	(119)	(161)	(103)		
% of Sample for Predicted Group Membership	9.9%	28.0%	37.9%	24.2%		

Note: The number of cases is in parentheses.

Note: 83.8% of original cases were correctly classified (29.1% of cases would be correctly classified by chance alone).

Table 14

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Conflict	Trust in P's benevolence	Alternative monitoring	Social concern	Friendship-based love
Satisfaction	.704*	.452	-.120	7.730***	-.285	.392	.363	.159	.459
Conflict	-.657*	.073	-.339	6.025**	1.000	-.390	-.093	.079	-.048
Trust in P's benevolence	.521*	.052	-.188	3.683*		1.000	.139	.158	.155
Alternative monitoring	.272*	-.026	.096	1.000			1.000	-.085	.001
Social concern	.258*	.137	-.116	1.022				1.000	.181
Friendship-based love	.081	.809*	-.100	3.855*					1.000
Coupleness	.164	.623*	-.207	2.691*					

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; *$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 14 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Coupleness	Ambivalence	Satisfaction with sacrifice	Moral committment	Investments
Satisfaction	.704*	.452	-.120	7.730***	.338	-.425	.233	.226	-.055
Conflict	-.657*	.073	-.339	6.025**	.054	.118	-.037	-.141	.260
Trust in P's benevolence	.521*	.052	-.188	3.683*	.066	-.210	.099	.158	-.159
Alternative monitoring	.272*	-.026	.096	1.000	.126	-.438	.145	.018	-.052
Social concern	.258*	.137	-.116	1.022	.002	.025	.035	.001	.079
Friendship-based love	.081	.809*	-.100	3.855*	.383	-.128	.243	.117	.113
Coupleness	.164	.623*	-.207	2.691*	1.000	-.330	.132	.052	-.063

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; *$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 14 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors	
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Trust in P's honesty	Passionate love
Satisfaction	.704*	.452	-.120	7.730***	.230	.429
Conflict	-.657*	.073	-.339	6.025**	-.071	.062
Trust in P's benevolence	.521*	.052	-.188	3.683*	-.080	.047
Alternative monitoring	.272*	-.026	.096	1.000	.156	.333
Social concern	.258*	.137	-.116	1.022	.109	.117
Friendship-based love	.081	.809*	-.100	3.855*	-.059	.199
Coupleness	.164	.623*	-.207	2.691*	.174	.558

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; *$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 14 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Satisfaction with sacrifice	Moral committment	Investments	Trust in P's honesty	Passionate love
Ambivalence	-.356	-.388*	.223	2.664*	-.122	-.276	.151	-.182	-.200
Satisfaction with sacrifice	.071	.354*	-.108	7.730***	1.000	-.057	.004	.095	.333
Moral commitment	.011	.285*	.000	.464		1.000	.038	.159	.004
Investments	.040	-.183	-.496*	.896			1.000	.077	.122
Trust in P's honesty	.342	.178	.446*	2.275 †				1.000	.149
Passionate love	.193	.257	-.445*	1.421					1.000
Canonical *R*	.404	.280	.199						
Eigenvalue	.195	.085	.041						

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; *$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 15

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Women

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Satisfaction	Trust in P's benevolence	Alternative monitoring	Investments	Ambivalence
Conflict	-.750*	-.039	.332	9.985***	-.483	-.518	-.181	.240	.081
Satisfaction	.738*	.291	.274	10.143***	1.000	.551	.426	-.139	-.266
Trust in P's benevolence	.608*	.457	-.228	7.951***		1.000	.236	-.282	-.142
Alternative monitoring	.447*	-.069	.313	3.800*			1.000	-.021	-.466
Investments	-.228*	.177	.145	1.181				1.000	.047
Ambivalence	-.221*	-.085	-.204	1.042					1.000
Social concern	.114	.617*	.009	2.890*					

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *$p < .05$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 15 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Women

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Social concern	Moral commitment	Trust in P's honesty	Friendship-based love	Passionate love
Conflict	-.750*	-.039	.332	9.985***	-.083	-.077	-.182	-.044	-.005
Satisfaction	.738*	.291	.274	10.143***	.264	.035	.303	.234	.202
Trust in P's benevolence	.608*	.457	-.228	7.951***	.249	.060	.162	-.021	-.084
Alternative monitoring	.447*	-.069	.313	3.800*	.118	-.056	.284	.207	.400
Investments	-.228*	.177	.145	1.181	-.070	.001	-.095	.112	.102
Ambivalence	-.221*	-.085	-.204	1.042	-.204	-.007	-.144	-.227	-.171
Social concern	.114	.617*	.009	2.890*	1.000	-.077	.286	.141	.079

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *$\underline{p} < .05$; *** $\underline{p} < .001$.

Table 15 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Women

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors	
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Coupleness	Satisfaction with sacrifice
Conflict	-.750*	-.039	.332	9.985***	.118	-.120
Satisfaction	.738*	.291	.274	10.143***	.028	.120
Trust in P's benevolence	.608*	.457	-.228	7.951***	-.057	.082
Alternative monitoring	.447*	-.069	.313	3.800*	.036	.097
Investments	-.228*	.177	.145	1.181	.082	-.001
Ambivalence	-.221*	-.085	-.204	1.042	-.176	-.067
Social concern	.114	.617*	.009	2.890*	.053	-.047

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *$p < .05$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 15 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 1 for Women

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,202)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3		Trust in P' honesty	Friendship-based love	Passionate love	Coupleness	Satisfaction with sacrifice
Moral commitment	-.155	.348*	.272	1.542	.036	.092	.033	.053	.048
Trust in P's honesty	.256	.296*	.211	1.901	1.000	.083	-.104	-.043	-.037
Friendship-based love	.254	.258*	-.180	1.686		1.000	.078	.321	.062
Passionate love	.098	.159	.442*	1.082			1.000	.440	.361
Coupleness	.252	.050	.400*	1.706				1.000	.018
Satisfaction with sacrifice	-.077	.077	-.177*	.263					1.000
Canonical *R*	.452	.309	.233						
Eigenvalue	.256	.106	.058						

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: *p < .05; *** p < .001.

Table 16

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Coupleness	Trust in P's benevolence	Passionate love	Ambivalence	Satisfaction
Trust in P's honesty	.550*	.212	-.221	3.954**	.166	-.088	.133	-.110	.206
Coupleness	.538*	.090	.435	4.183**	1.000	.041	.546	-.306	.341
Trust in P's benevolence	.442*	-.231	-.022	2.551†		1.000	.041	-.211	.417
Passionate love	.317*	-.291	.161	1.722			1.000	-.245	.429
Ambivalence	-.261*	-.082	-.228	1.042				1.000	-.423
Satisfaction	.538	-.587*	.110	5.235**					1.000
Satisfaction with sacrifice	.045	-.347*	-.110	.708					

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 16 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,202)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3		Satisfaction with sacrifice	Conflict	Friendship-based love	Investments	Alternative monitoring
Trust in P's honesty	.550*	.212	-.221	3.954**	.130	-.128	-.025	.086	.182
Coupleness	.538*	.090	.435	4.183**	.158	.043	.401	-.058	.143
Trust in P's benevolence	.442*	-.231	-.022	2.551†	.101	-.419	.152	-.151	.163
Passionate love	.317*	-.291	.161	1.722	.305	.067	.153	.119	.364
Ambivalence	-.261*	-.082	-.228	1.042	-.115	.128	-.047	.151	-.419
Satisfaction	.538	-.587*	.110	5.235**	.246	-.330	.435	-.038	.387
Satisfaction with sacrifice	.045	-.347*	-.110	.708	1.000	-.057	.286	.029	.143

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 16 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors	
	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Social concern	Moral commitment
Trust in P's honesty	.550*	.212	-.221	3.954**	.099	.123
Coupleness	.538*	.090	.435	4.183**	.022	.051
Trust in P's benevolence	.442*	-.231	-.022	2.551†	.171	.162
Passionate love	.317*	-.291	.161	1.722	.125	.015
Ambivalence	-.261*	-.082	-.228	1.042	.021	-.246
Satisfaction	.538	-.587*	.110	5.235**	.195	.213
Satisfaction with sacrifice	.045	-.347*	-.110	.708	.042	-.019

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 16 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Men

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,202)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3		Friendship-based love	Investments	Alternative monitoring	Social concern	Moral commitment
Conflict	-.076	.346*	.306	1.084	-.054	.229	-.127	.066	-.157
Friendship-based love	.136	-.206	-.002	.439	1.000	.123	.008	.226	.112
Investments	.105	.113	-.511*	1.272		1.000	-.020	.055	.059
Alternative monitoring	-.057	-.098	.323*	.519			1.000	-.053	.035
Social concern	.173	.277	-.320*	1.174				1.000	-.021
Moral commitment	.205	.105	.238*	.781					1.000
Canonical *R*	.378	.265	.236						
Eigenvalue	.167	.076	.059						

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function

For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 17

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Women

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,202)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3		Alternative monitoring	Investments	Trust in P's benevolence	Ambivalence	Friendship-based love
Conflict	.486*	-.038	.389	3.395*	-.215	.225	-.544	.102	-.111
Alternative monitoring	-.452*	.366	.057	3.639*	1.000	.005	.238	-.473	.162
Investments	.452*	.098	-.258	2.855*		1.000	-.274	.052	.138
Trust in P's benevolence	-.176*	.124	-.072	.527			1.000	-.152	.031
Ambivalence	.141*	-.093	-.055	.329				1.000	-.215
Friendship-based love	-.087	.702*	-.161	3.824*					1.000
Satisfaction	-.103	.540*	-.002	2.310†					

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 17 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Women

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,202)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3		Satisfaction	Passionate love	Coupleness	Social concern	Moral commitment
Conflict	.486*	-.038	.389	3.395*	-.556	.044	.106	-.126	-.064
Alternative monitoring	-.452*	.366	.057	3.639*	.435	.384	.079	.139	-.103
Investments	.452*	.098	-.258	2.855*	-.148	.106	.092	-.080	.055
Trust in P's benevolence	-.176*	.124	-.072	.527	.588	-.090	-.041	.282	.059
Ambivalence	.141*	-.093	-.055	.329	-.286	-.162	-.184	-.227	-.009
Friendship-based love	-.087	.702*	-.161	3.824*	.270	-.004	.290	.167	.126
Satisfaction	-.103	.540*	-.002	2.310†	1.000	.160	.051	.285	.039

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 17 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Women

	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions				Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors	
Predictor Variable	1	2	3	Univariate *F* (3,202)	Satisfaction with sacrifice	Trust in P's honesty
Conflict	.486*	-.038	.389	3.395*	-.088	-.208
Alternative monitoring	-.452*	.366	.057	3.639*	.034	.273
Investments	.452*	.098	-.258	2.855*	-.007	-.066
Trust in P's benevolence	-.176*	.124	-.072	.527	.087	.188
Ambivalence	.141*	-.093	-.055	.329	-.029	-.144
Friendship-based love	-.087	.702*	-.161	3.824*	.038	.118
Satisfaction	-.103	.540*	-.002	2.310†	.077	.333

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 17 (Cont'd)

Results of Discriminant Function Analysis of Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables to Predict Commitment Process at Phase 2 for Women

Predictor Variable	Correlations of Predictor Variables with Discriminant Functions			Univariate *F* (3,202)	Pooled Within-Group Correlations Among Predictors				
	1	2	3		Coupleness	Social concern	Moral commitment	Satisfaction with sacrifice	Trust in P's honesty
Passionate love	-.230	.478*	-.145	2.434†	.468	.086	-.027	.311	-.114
Coupleness	.115	.370*	.044	1.192	1.000	.062	.023	-.013	-.026
Social concern	.293	.325*	-.101	1.916		1.000	-.026	-.063	.296
Moral commitment	-.149	.214	.505*	1.202			1.000	.069	.072
Satisfaction with sacrifice	.007	.312	-.426*	1.137				1.000	-.018
Trust in P's honesty	-.103	.082	-.124*	2.855*					1.000
Canonical *R*	.396	.311	.178						
Eigenvalue	.186	.107	.033						

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function
For Univariate F's: † $p < .10$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 18

Percentage of Respondents in Different Statuses of Cohabitation at Each Interview

Interview	Men			Women		
	Do not live together	Live together but keep separate residences	Live together in one residence	Do not live together	Live together but keep separate residences	Live together in one residence
Phase 1 Interview	31.9	30.6	37.5	31.0	31.4	37.5
Phase 2						
Interview 1	23.7	20.7	30.6	20.2	23.7	30.6
Interview 2	21.0	18.1	24.1	18.9	18.5	25.4
Interview 3	14.2	15.9	24.1	19.8	17.7	24.1
Interview 4	16.8	13.8	23.7	16.8	15.9	22.8
Interview 5	16.3	12.5	22.4	18.5	15.1	22.4
Interview 6	16.3	10.8	22.0	16.3	14.3	24.1
Interview 7	12.9	10.4	24.6	15.1	12.9	23.3
Phase 3						
Interview 8	18.5	12.1	34.5	17.6	15.5	35.3

Figure 1

Mean Absolute Slope by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

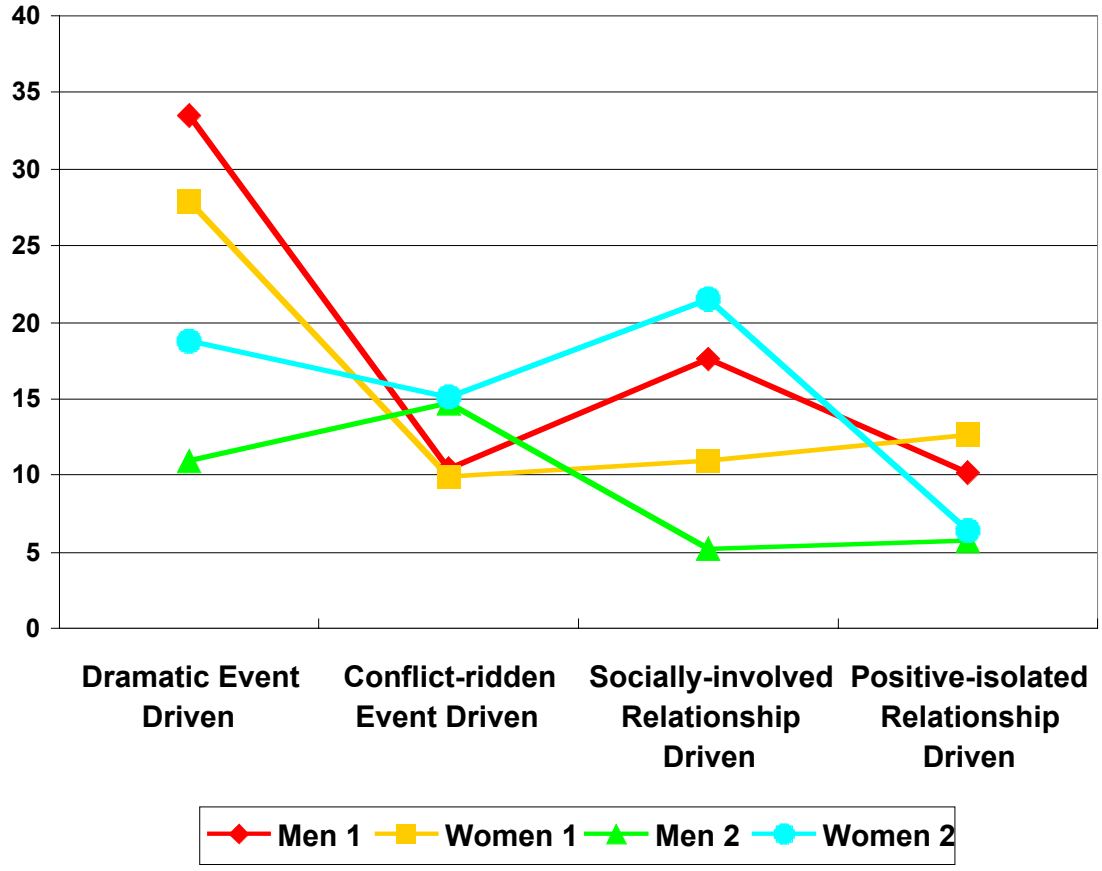


Figure 2

Proportion of Downturns by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1

and Phase 2

Figure 3

Conflict by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

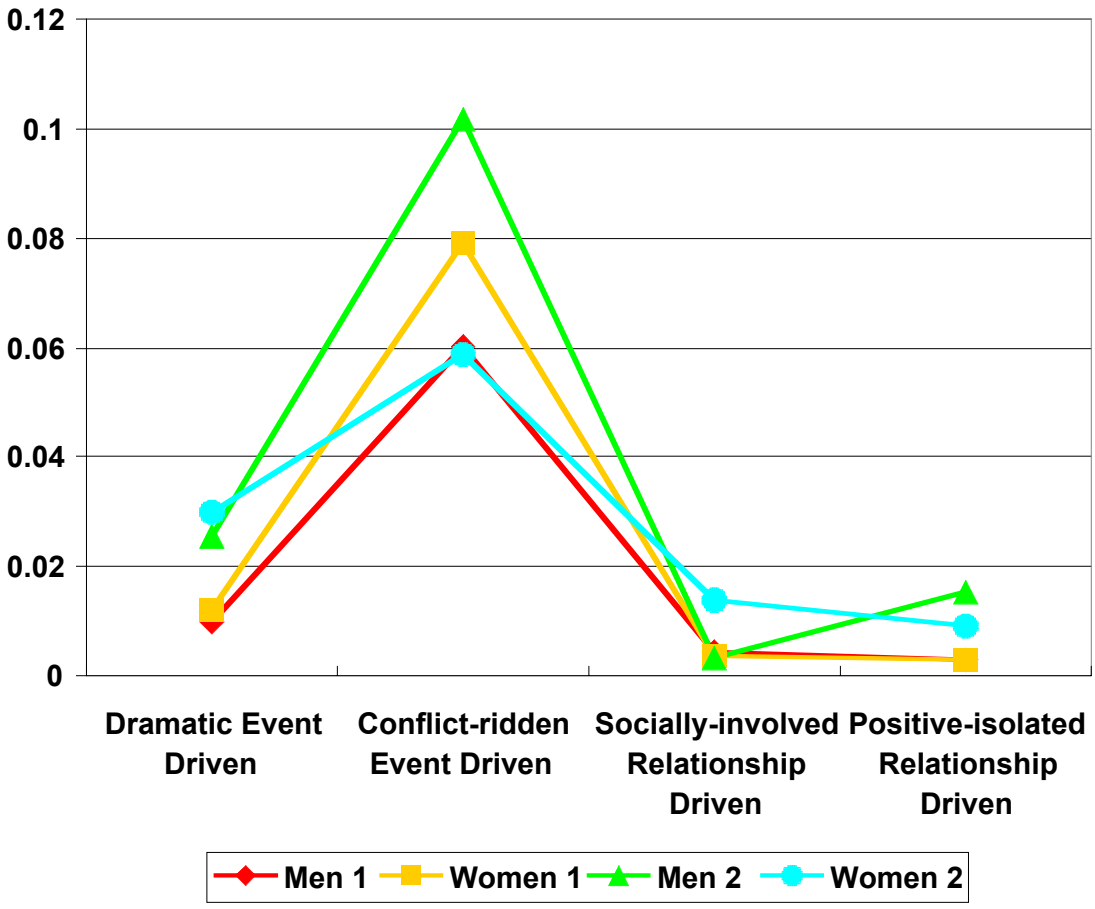


Figure 4

Behavioral Interdependence by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

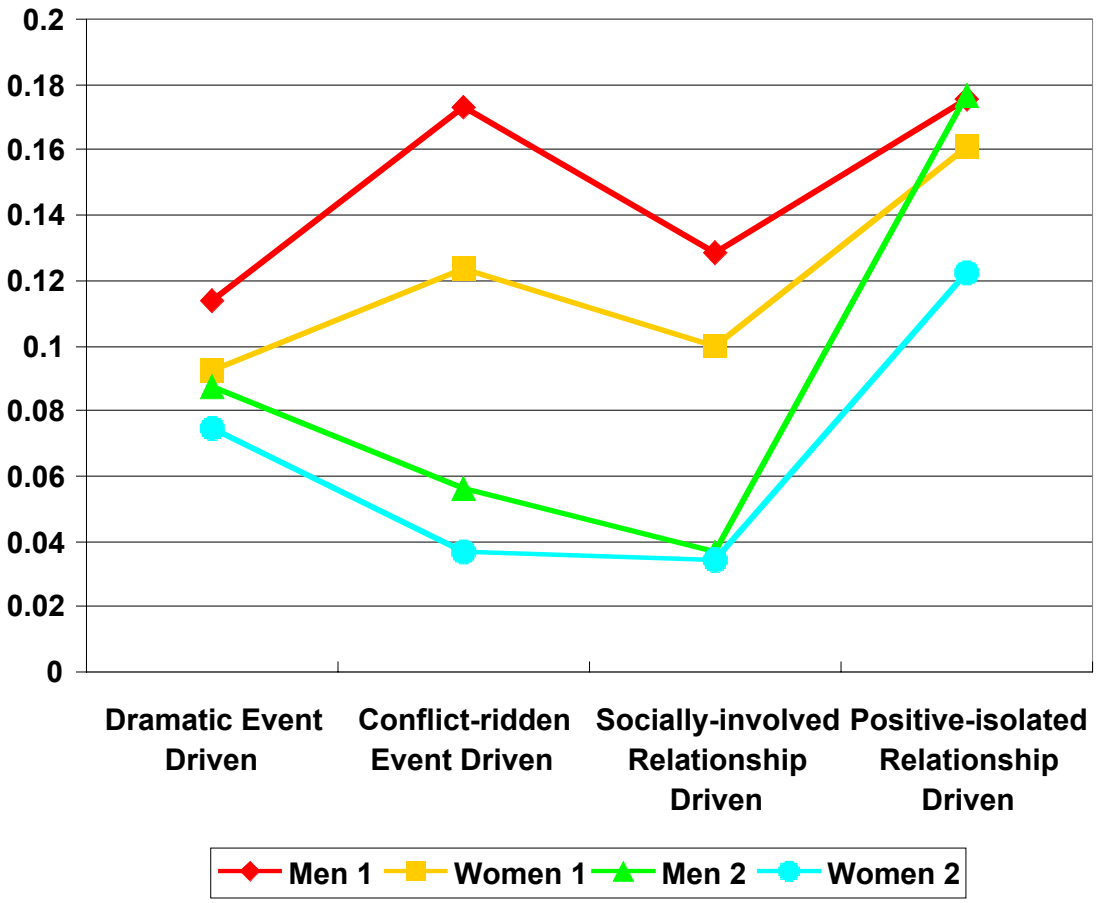


Figure 5

Positive Dyadic Attributions by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

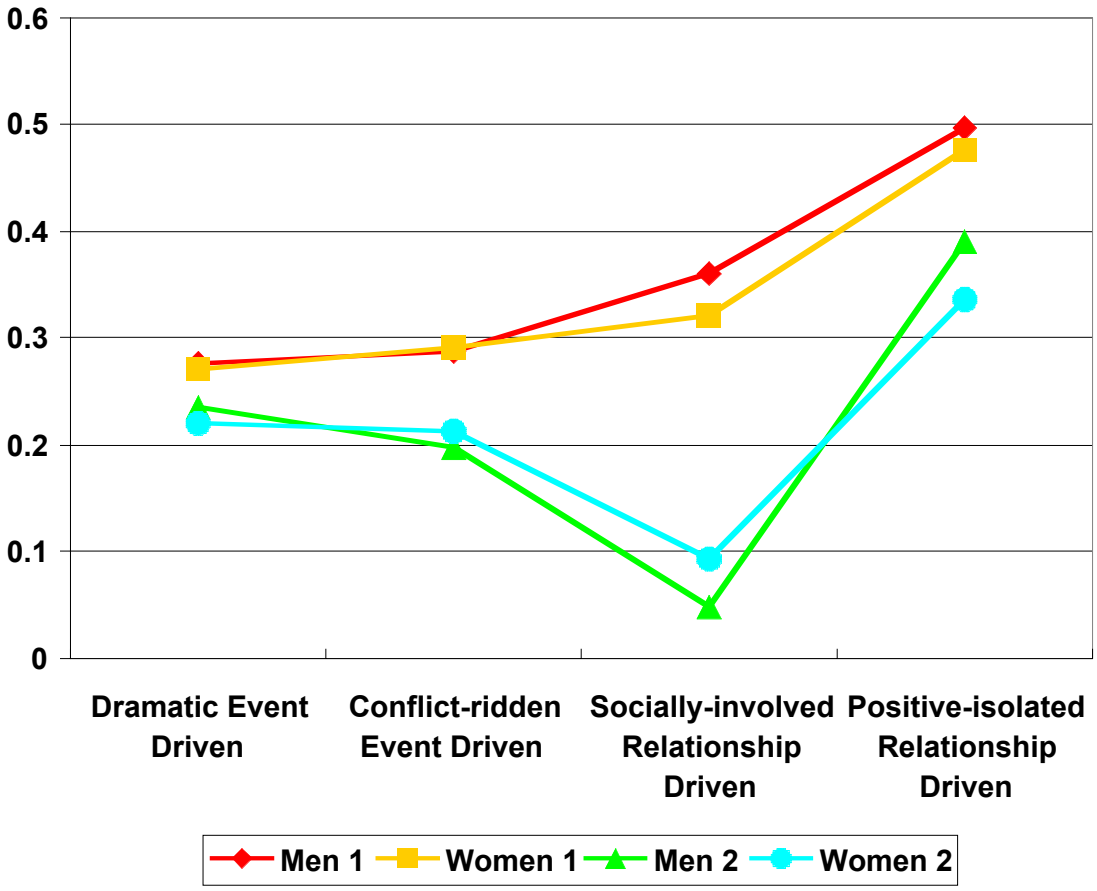


Figure 6

Negative Dyadic Attributions by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

Figure 7

Individual Interaction with the Social Network by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

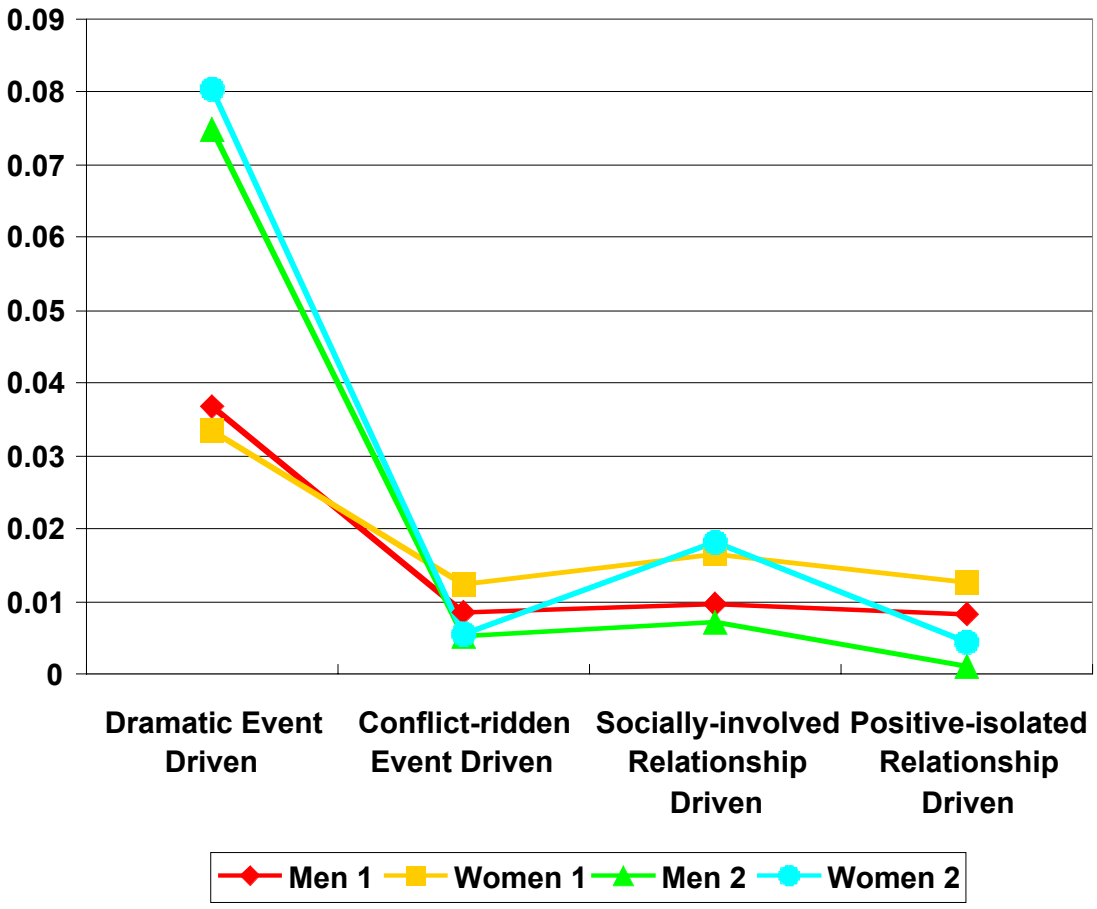


Figure 8

Joint Interaction with the Social Network by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

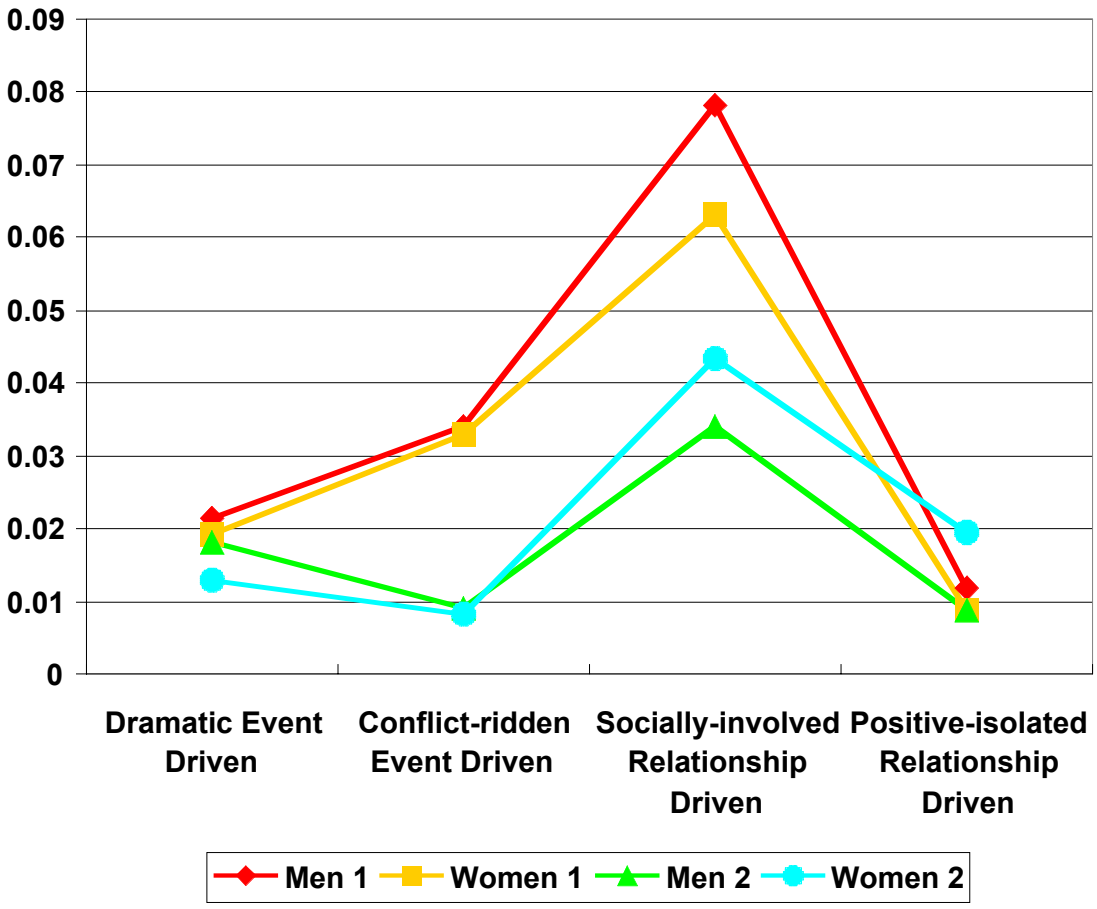


Figure 9

Positive Social Network Attributions by Commitment Process for Men and Women at Phase 1 and Phase 2

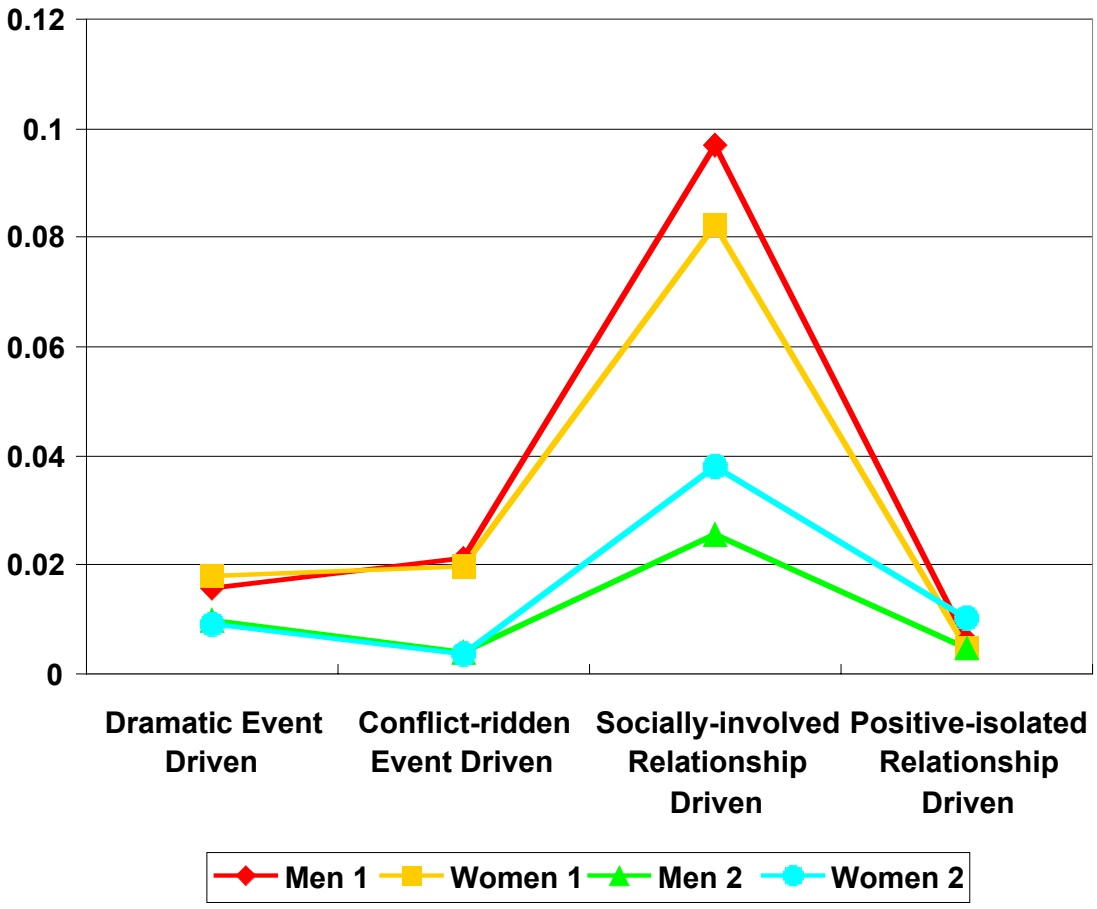


Figure 10

Means for Significant Predictors of Commitment Process in Discriminant Function Analysis with Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables for Men at Phase 1

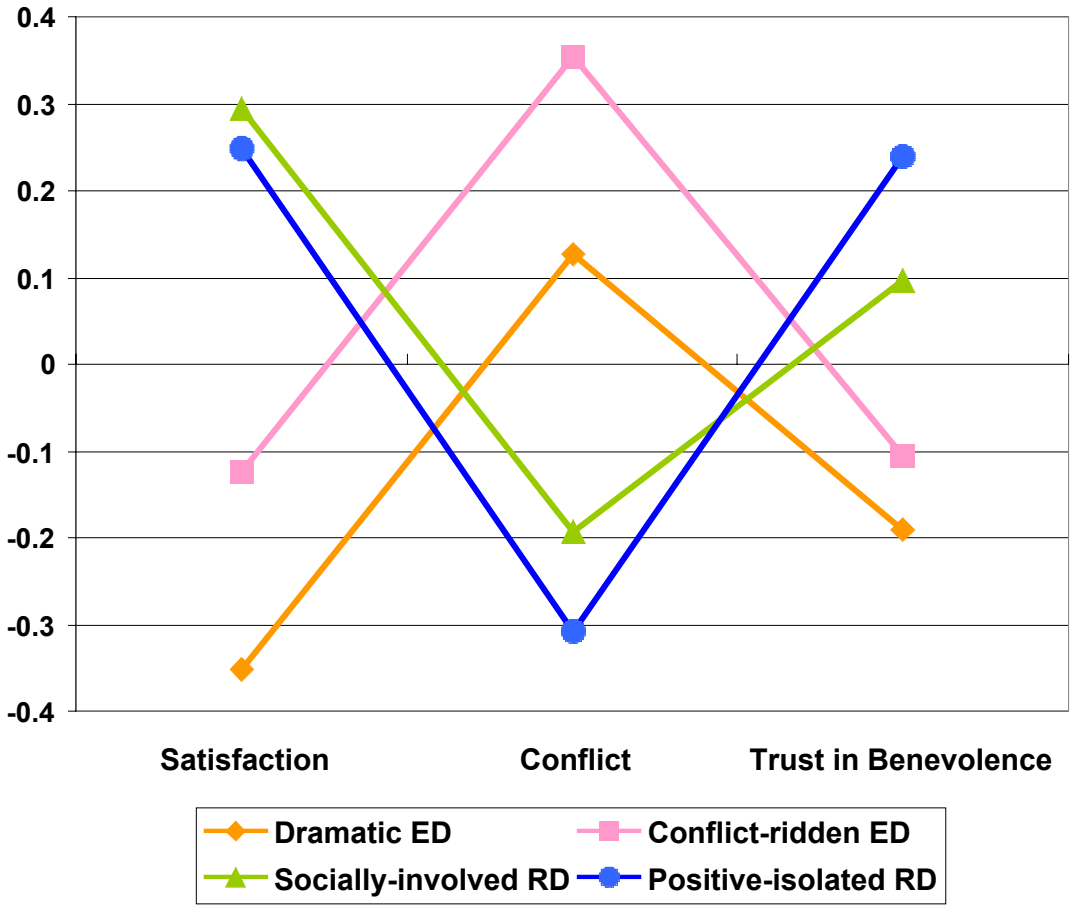


Figure 11

Means for Significant Predictors of Commitment Process in Discriminant Function Analysis with Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables for Women at Phase 1

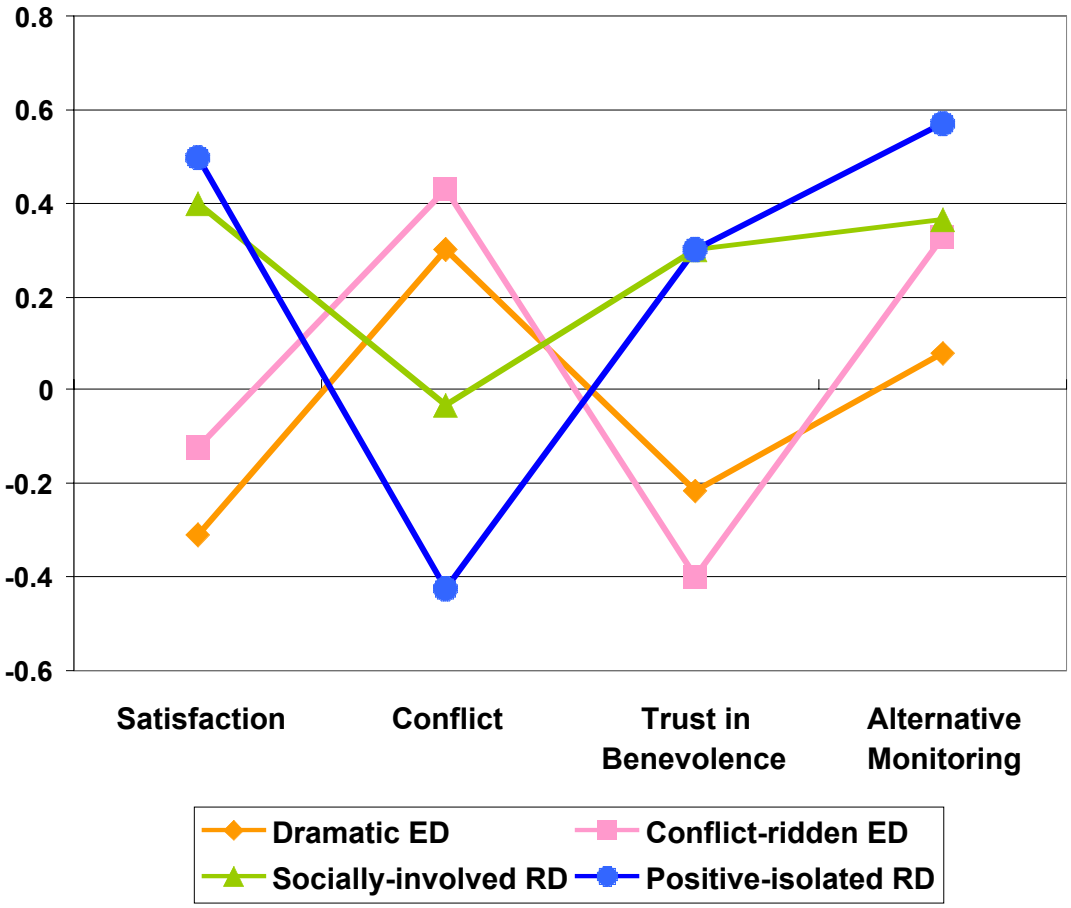


Figure 12

Means for Significant Predictors of Commitment Process in Discriminant Function Analysis with Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables for Men at Phase 2

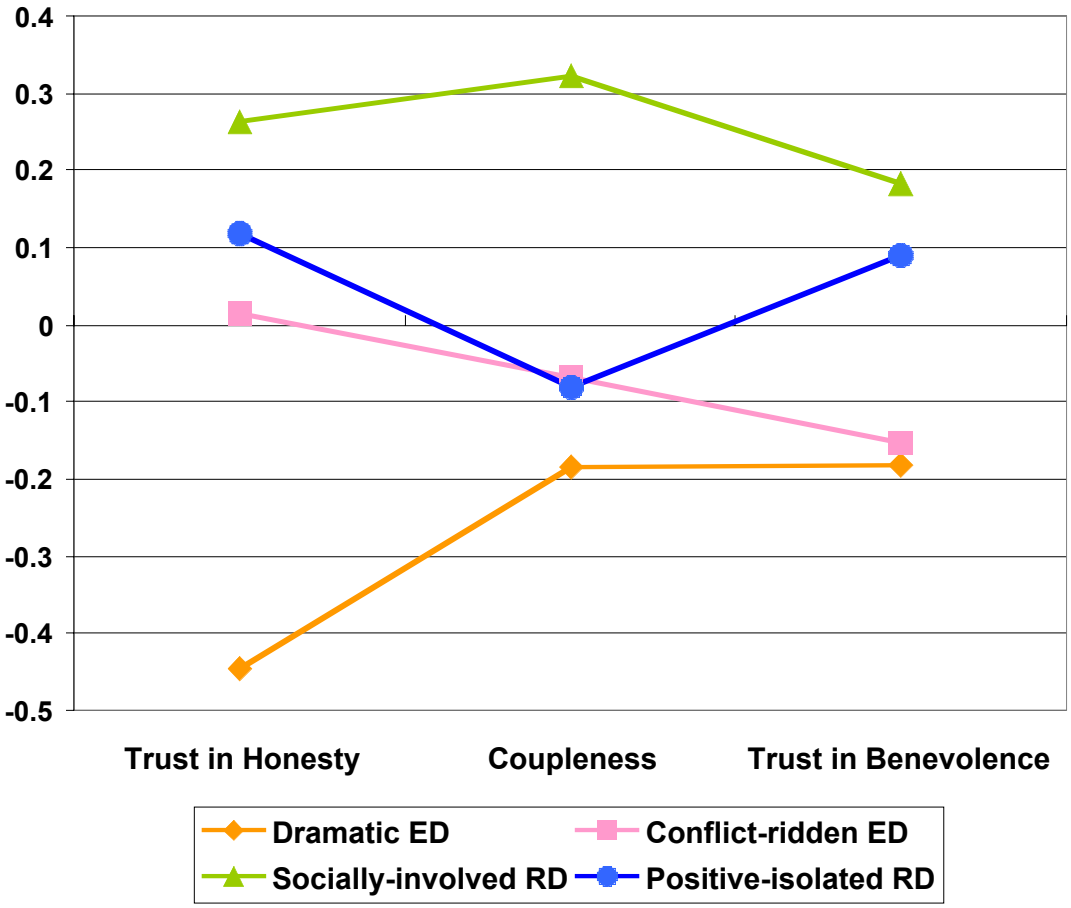
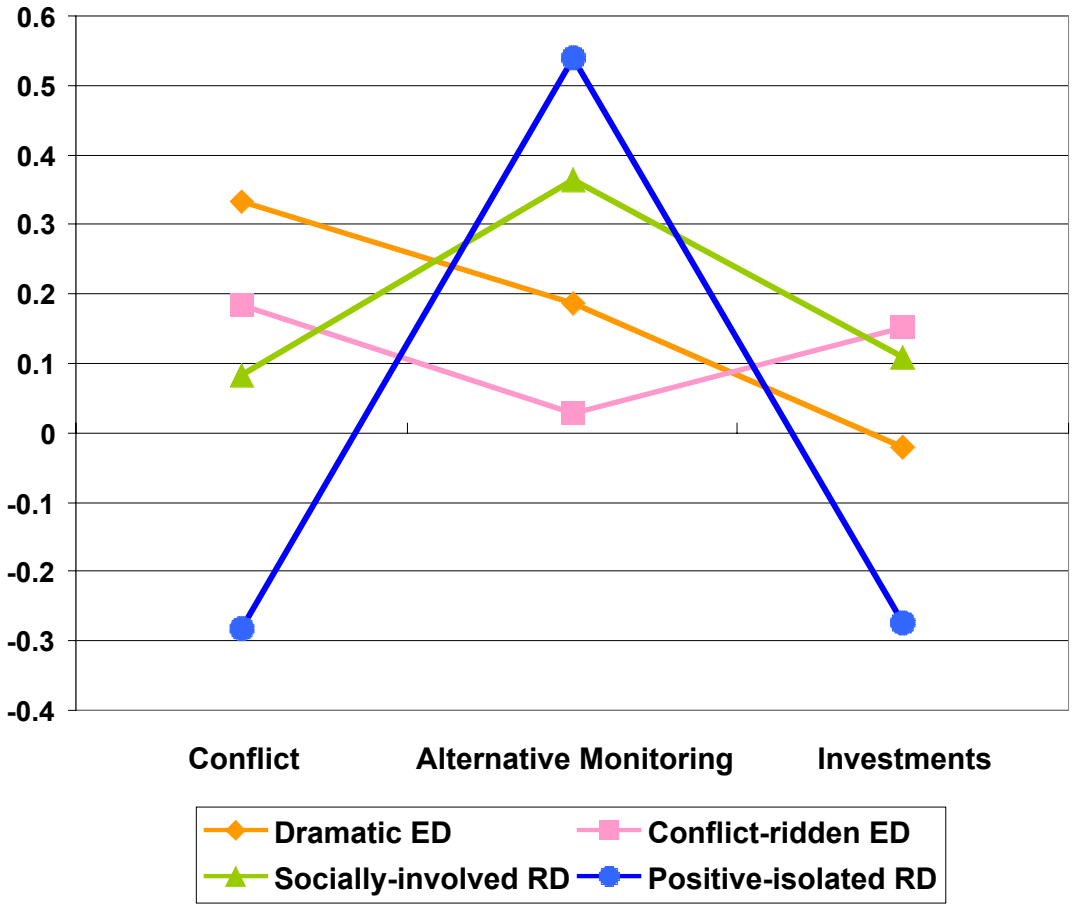


Figure 13

Means for Significant Predictors of Commitment Process in Discriminant Function Analysis with Relationship Dimensions and Commitment Variables for Women at Phase 2



References

Berscheid, E. & Lopes, J. (1997). A temporal model of relationship satisfaction and stability. In Sternberg, R.J. & Hojjat, M. (Eds.), *Satisfaction in Close Relationships* (pp. 129-159). New York: Guilford.

Berscheid, E. & Walster, E. (1978). *Interpersonal Attraction.* MA: Addison Wesley.

Boon, S.D., & Holmes, J.G. (1991). The dynamics of interpersonal trust: Resolving uncertainty in the face of risk. In Hinde, R.H., & Groebel, J. (Eds.), *Cooperation and Prosocial Behavior.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Braiker, H.B. & Kelley, H.H. (1979). Conflict in the development of close relationships. In Burgess, R.L. & Huston, T.L. (Eds.), *Social Exchange in Developing Relationships.* New York: Academic Press.

Cate, R.M., Huston, T.L., & Nesselroade, J.R. (1986). Premarital relationships: Toward the identification of alternative pathways to marriage. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 4*(1), 3-22.

Fowers, B.J., Montel, K.H. & Olson, D.H. (1996). Predicting marital success for premarital couple types based on PREPARE. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 22*(1), 103-119.

Gottman, J.M. (1994). *What Predicts Divorce?* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grote, N.K. & Frieze, I.H. (1992). Friendship-based love in intimate relationships. Paper presented at the International Conference on Personal Relationships in Orono, Maine.

Hatfield, E. & Sprecher, S. (1986). Measuring passionate love in intimate relations. *Journal of Adolescence, 9*, 383-410.

Hendrick, S.S. & Hendrick, C. (1992). *Romantic Love.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Hill, C.T., & Peplau, L.A. (1995). Premarital predictors of relationship outcomes: A 15-year follow-up of the Boston Couples Study. In Bradbury, T.N. (Ed.), *The Developmental Course of Marital Dysfunction.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Huston, T.L. (1994). Courtship antecedents of marital satisfaction and love. In Erber, R. & Gilmour, R. (Eds.), *Theoretical Perspectives on Personal Relationships.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Huston, T.L., Houts, R.M., Caughlin, J.P., Smith, S.E., & George, L.J. (2001). The connubial crucible: Newlywed years as predictors of marital delight, distress, and divorce. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(2), 1-16.

Huston, T.L., McHale, S.M. & Crouter, A.C. (1986). When the honeymoon's over: Changes in the marriage relationship over the first year. In Gilmore, R. & Duck, S., (Eds.), *The Emerging Field of Personal Relationships* (pp. 109-132). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Huston, T.L. & Vangelisti, A.L. (1991). Socioemotional behavior and satisfaction in marital relationships: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 41,* 721-733.

Johnson, M.P. (1991). Commitment to personal relationships. In Jones, W.H. & Perlman, D.W. (Eds.), *Advances in Personal Relationships* (Vol. 3, pp. 117-143). London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Johnson, M.P., Caughlin, J.P., & Huston, T.L. (1999). The tripartite nature of marital commitment: Personal, moral, and structural reasons to stay married. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61*(1), 160-177.

Kelley, H.H. (1979). *Personal Relationships: Their Structures and Processes.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kelley, H.H. (1983). Love and commitment, In Kelley, H.H., Berscheid, E., Christnsen, A., Harvey, J.H., Huston, T.L., Levinger, G., McClintock, E., Peplau, L.A. & Peterson, D. (Eds.), *Close Relationships* (pp. 265-314). New York: W.H. Freeman.

Kelley, H.H. & Thibaut, J.W. (1978). *Interpersonal Relations: A Theory of Interdependence.* New York: Wiley.

Kurdek, L.A. (2002). Predicting the timing of separation and marital satisfaction: An eight-year prospective longitudinal study. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 64*(1), 163-179.

Larzelere, R.E. & Huston, T.L. (1980). The dyadic trust scale: Toward understanding interpersonal trust in close relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family,* 595-604.

Markman, H.J., Stanley, S., & Blumberg, S.L. (1994). *Fighting for Your Marriage: Positive Steps for Preventing Divorce and Preserving a Lasting Love.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Rempel, J.K., Holmes, J.G., & Zanna, M.P. (1985). Trust in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49*(1), 95-112.

Rusbult, C.E. (1980). Commitment and satisfaction in romantic associations: A test of the investment model. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 16,* 172-186.

Rusbult, C.E. (1983). A longitudinal test of the investment model: The development (and deterioration) of satisfaction and commitment in heterosexual involvements. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45*(1), 101-117.

Rusbult, C.E., Martz, J.M. & Agnew, C.R. (1998). The investment model scale: Measuring commitment level, satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. *Personal Relationships, 5,* 357-391.

Rusbult, C.E., Yovetich, N.A. & Verette, J. (1996). An interdependence analysis of accommodation processes. In Fletcher, J.O. & Fitness, J. (Eds.), *Knowledge Structures in Close Relationships: A Social Psychological Approach.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Stanley, S.S. & Markman, H.J. (1992). Assessing commitment in personal relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 54*(3), 595-608.

Sternberg, R. J. (1986). A triangular theory of love. *Psychological Review, 93,* 119-135.

Surra, C.A. (1985). Courtship types: Variations in interdependence between partners and social networks. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49*(2), 357-375.

Surra, C.A. (1987). Reasons for changes in commitment: Variations by courtship type. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 4,* 17-33.

Surra, C.A., Arizzi, P., & Asmussen, L.A. (1988). The association between reasons for commitment and the development and outcome of marital relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 5,* 47-63.

Surra, C. A. & Gray, C. R. (2000). A typology of processes of commitment to marriage: Why do partners commit to problematic relationships? In Waite, L.J., Backrach, C., Hindin, M., Thomson, E., & Thornton, A. (Eds.), *The Ties That Bind: Perspectives on Marriage and Cohabitation.* New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Surra, C.A. & Hughes, D.K. (1997). Commitment processes in accounts of the development of premarital relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 59,* 5-21.

Surra, C.A., Hughes, D.K. & Jacquet, S.E. (1999). The development of commitment to marriage: A phenomenological approach. In Adams, J.M. & Jones, W.H. (Eds.), *Handbook of Interpersonal Commitment and Relationship Stability.* New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Surra, C.A. & Longstreth, M. (1990). Similarity of outcomes, interdependence, and conflict in dating relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*93), 501-516.

Tabachnick, B.G. & Fidell, L.S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1992). *Statistical Abstract of the United States 1992: The National Data Book.* (112th Ed.). Washington DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

VITA

Denise Susan Bartell was born in Huntington, New York on August 21, 1971, the daughter of Rosemary Ackermann Bartell and Richard Bartell. After completing her work at Commack High School, Commack, New York, in 1989, she entered Cornell University in Ithaca, New York. She received the degree of Bachelor of Science from Cornell University in May 1994. In September 1994 she entered the Graduate School of the University of Texas at Austin. She received the degree of Master of Arts from the University of Texas at Austin in 1998. Since December 2001 she has been employed as an assistant professor at the University of Wisconsin – Green Bay.

Permanent Address: 925 Emilie Street, Green Bay, Wisconsin 54301

This dissertation was typed by the author.