

## **NOTE TO USERS**

**This reproduction is the best copy available.**

UMI<sup>®</sup>



**INTROJECTED PARENTAL PERCEPTIONS AND CHOICE OF ROMANTIC  
PARTNERS IN DEPENDENTS AND SELF-CRITICS**

Oren Aaron Amitay

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies in  
partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

Graduate Programme in Psychology

York University

Toronto, Ontario

October, 1999



National Library  
of Canada

Acquisitions and  
Bibliographic Services

395 Wellington Street  
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4  
Canada

Bibliothèque nationale  
du Canada

Acquisitions et  
services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington  
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4  
Canada

*Your file Votre référence*

*Our file Notre référence*

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-56159-3

Canada

by Oren Aaron Amitay

a thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of York  
University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree  
of

Master of Arts

©

1999

Permission has been granted to the LIBRARY OF YORK  
UNIVERSITY to lend or sell copies of this thesis, to the  
NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to  
lend or sell copies of the film, and to UNIVERSITY  
**MICROFILMS** to publish an abstract of this thesis.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the  
thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise  
reproduced without the author's written permission.

### **Abstract**

This study investigated possible links among parental representations, self-images, and current romantic relationships as they relate to two personality styles hypothesized to be risk factors for depression: Dependency and Self-criticism. One-hundred-and-eighty-seven females and 65 males with varying levels of Dependency and Self-criticism completed questionnaires assessing (a) their perceptions of parental and romantic interpersonal relationships, and (b) self-images and self-directed behaviours in response to these relationships. Analyses indicated that dependents perceived mother and father as more submissive. Father was also rated as more loving, and made participants feel better about themselves. However, Dependency predicted less loving, and for women, more restraining attitudes toward the self. Dependents reported wanting an ideal mate who would be submissive, like their parents, but ended up with partners who were more controlling. Self-critics described a less loving father who made them feel more badly about themselves. Correspondingly, these participants were more self-attacking and self-restraining. These negative attitudes toward the self were perpetuated in current romantic relationships, as self-critics depicted their mates as more controlling and making them feel badly about themselves. Self-critics in general described an ideal mate who would make them feel less positively about themselves, and interestingly, self-critical men reported wanting a less loving partner. Additional interaction effects suggested that the presence of both dependent and self-critical traits is a pernicious combination associated with more negative representations of mother and disturbed self-images, while “pure” Dependency was found to have more positive outcomes.

## **Acknowledgments**

I wish to express my sincerest appreciation to my supervisor, mentor, and inspiration, Myriam Mongrain, whose expert guidance helped make this project possible. I also wish to thank Norman Fazaa, for helping collect the data from students participating in this project, whom I also appreciate. My committee members, David Reid and Doug McCann, are also greatly appreciated for their time commitment and immediate, supportive, constructive feedback. My greatest support came from my wife, Junko, who helped me find time to complete every step of this project, and whose love provided the inspiration I needed to continue during the rough times. My mother also made sure to be there to help take care of my daughter, Maya, whose birth coincided with the start of my Master's programme, and whose smile and character never fail to energize me. The rest of my family also provided support throughout the project. Finally, I owe a debt of gratitude to my friend and colleague, Lisa Vettese, whose invaluable advice and support, especially as one who has "been there," served as a guiding light.

## Table of Contents

<b>Abstract.....</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>Acknowledgments.....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>Table of Contents.....</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>List of Figures.....</b>	<b>x</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
Anaclitic and Introjective Depression.....	2
Cognitive Approaches to Studying Depression.....	3
Comparing Dependency and Self-criticism with Sociotropy and Autonomy.....	4
Limitations of Cognitive Models.....	6
Interpersonal Approaches to Studying Depression.....	7
Limitations of Interpersonal Models.....	8
Integration of Theoretical Approaches.....	9
Hypothesized Links Between Parenting Styles and Self-schemas.....	10
Theoretical Associations Between Relational Schemas and Interpersonal Behaviours.....	12
Further Applications of Integrative Approaches.....	15
<b>Overview of the Present Study.....</b>	<b>20</b>
A Tool to Investigate Relationships Between Self-schemas and Interpersonal Behaviours.....	22
Guiding Hypotheses.....	25
Parental Perceptions.....	25



Introjected Behaviours.....	26
Romantic Partners.....	26
Self-images in Response to Significant Others.....	26
<b>Method.....</b>	<b>27</b>
Participants.....	27
Measures.....	28
The Beck Depression Inventory-II. ....	28
The Depressive Experiences Questionnaire.....	28
The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior.....	29
The Self-referent Affective Adjective Scale.....	32
Procedure.....	34
<b>Results.....</b>	<b>35</b>
Participants' Relationship Status.....	35
Psychometric Properties of the SAAS, SASB, and BDI.....	35
Data Analyses.....	36
Perceptions of Interactions With Mother.....	38
Dependency.....	39
Self-criticism.....	39
Perceptions of Interactions With Father.....	42
Dependency.....	42
Self-criticism.....	42
Intrapsychic Behaviours.....	44

Dependency.....	44
Self-criticism.....	44
Summary of Parental Perceptions and Intrapsychic Behaviours.....	45
Perceptions of Interactions With Romantic Partner.....	46
Dependency.....	46
Self-criticism.....	46
Desired Interactions With Ideal Partner.....	47
Dependency.....	47
Self-criticism.....	47
Summary of Interactions With Real and Ideal Romantic Partners.....	48
Relationship Status as a Predictor Variable.....	50
General Summary.....	50
<b>Discussion.....</b>	<b>53</b>
Dependency.....	54
Exploring Control Through SASB Interpersonal Principles.....	57
Affiliation in Romantic Relationships.....	58
Self-criticism.....	59
Interactions Between Dependency and Self-criticism.....	63
Theoretical, Methodological, and Treatment Implications.....	64
Limitations.....	67
Future Directions.....	71
References.....	74

Appendix A: Consent Form.....	87
Appendix B: The Beck Depression Inventory-II.....	89
Appendix C: The Depressive Experiences Questionnaire.....	94
Appendix D: The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior—Parent’s Form (Father).....	99
Appendix E: The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior—Intrapsychic Scale.....	103
Appendix F: The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior—Romantic Partner’s Form (Female).....	106
Appendix G: The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior—Ideal Mate’s Form (Female).....	108
Appendix H: The Self-referent Affective Adjective Scale—Parent’s Form (Father)....	110
Appendix I: The Self-referent Affective Adjective Scale—Romantic Partner’s Form...	112
Appendix J: The Self-referent Affective Adjective Scale—Ideal Mate’s Form (Female).....	114

## List of Figures

Figure 1.	SASB Circumplex.....	23
Figure 2.	Perceptions of Level of Mother's Love in Relation to Participants' Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism.....	40
Figure 3.	Negative Cognitive-affective Responses to Mother in Relation to Participants' Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism.....	41
Figure 4.	Positive Cognitive-affective Responses to Mother in Relation to Participants' Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism.....	43
Figure 5.	Men's Desired Level of Ideal Partner's Love in Relation to Men's Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism.....	49
Figure 6.	Location of Dependents and Their Significant Others on the SASB Circumplex's Love and Control/Enmeshment Dimensions.....	51
Figure 7.	Location of Self-critics and Their Significant Others on the SASB Circumplex's Love and Control/Enmeshment Dimensions.....	53

## Introjected Parental Perceptions and Choice of Romantic Partners in Dependents and Self-critics

### Introduction

Recent research on depression has distinguished between depressive experiences associated with threats either to interpersonal relations or to self-identity and self-esteem (e.g. Blatt, 1974; Blatt, Quinlan, Chevron, McDonald, & Zuroff, 1982; Blatt & Shichman, 1983). The phenomenology associated with these types of depression, labeled "anacletic" and "introjective" respectively, has been discussed extensively by Blatt and colleagues (e.g. Blatt, 1974; Blatt et al., 1982; Blatt & Shichman, 1983; Blatt & Zuroff, 1992). Underlying personality styles associated with these two types of depression have also been postulated (Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Shichman, 1983). The following literature review will discuss the distinction between anacletic and introjective depression and their underlying personality predispositions, as hypothesized by Blatt and colleagues from a psychoanalytic and developmental orientation. Cognitive and interpersonal models of depression will also be introduced while outlining the need for integrative approaches to investigating the many factors involved in the origin and maintenance of this mood disorder. Specifically, theoretical links between personality vulnerability and one's perceptions of parents (e.g., McCranie & Bass, 1984), as well as one's choice of romantic partners (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989; Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995), will be examined. These relationships will lay the foundation for the hypotheses of the current project and will be elaborated in the next section.

### **Anaclitic and Introjective Depression**

Anaclitic depression is associated with "feeling helpless, weak, and depleted....[and] painful and unfulfilled wishes to be cared for, loved, fed, and protected, and intense fears of being abandoned" (Blatt & Shichman, 1983, pp. 211-212).

Dependent individuals have been postulated to be vulnerable to this type of depression. They are hypothesized to require love, nurturance, and support (Blatt, 1974), which they desperately seek in frequent and intimate interpersonal relationships (Blatt et al., 1982). These individuals have been shown to idealize their romantic partners (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989) and may have difficulty in expressing anger or hostility toward those around them, for fear that such displays might disrupt these relationships. Consequently, the possibility of interpersonal losses such as the death of a loved one or the break-up of a romantic relationship causes great fear and anxiety in dependents prone to anaclitic depression (Blatt, D'Afflitti, & Quinlan, 1976; Blatt & Zuroff, 1992).

Introjective depression is "characterized by feelings of worthlessness, guilt, and a sense of having failed to live up to expectations and standards....[and] intense fears of loss of approval, recognition and love from the object" (Blatt, 1974, p. 107). Introjective depression is also characterized by a feeling that one is unlovable or unworthy of others' love, thus impeding one's ability to form close, lasting relationships with others (Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Shichman, 1983). Self-critical individuals are hypothesized to be vulnerable to this type of depression. They are theorized to strive for autonomy, respect, and feelings of self-worth, while the possibility of failure invokes anxiety and depression (Blatt & Shichman, 1983). Self-critics often harshly scrutinize and evaluate themselves, leading to lowered self-esteem and, ironically, an inability to enjoy the success for which

they strive. Moreover, research has demonstrated that self-critics undervalue intimacy in their relationships (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989), which tend to be characterized by conflict and hostility (Mongrain, Vetteuse, Shuster, & Kendal, 1998; Zuroff & Duncan, in press).

It is imperative to understand better how Dependency and Self-criticism might relate to the etiology and maintenance of depression. Namely, what factors in people's early development might lead some individuals to place such an importance on intimate relationships, and others to depend on success in order to feel a sense of self-worth? Also, what do these people do to increase their chances of attaining these goals, and what happens when they are unsuccessful?

Because these questions involve complex relationships among thoughts, feelings, and behaviours, more than one theoretical approach may be necessary. Fortunately, Blatt and colleagues' psychoanalytic and developmental account of depression (e.g., Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Homann, 1992; Blatt et al., 1982; Blatt & Shichman, 1983) is consistent with models from other orientations (for a review of these models, see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992). For example, Beck (1983), from a cognitive perspective, has defined a sociotropic (social dependency) and autonomous type of depression which parallel Blatt's delineation of anaclitic and introjective depression, respectively.

### **Cognitive Approaches to Studying Depression**

The core elements of Beck's (e.g., 1974, 1983) theory of depression are what he refers to as the "cognitive triad," one's distorted or negative views of self, current situation, and the future. Negative self-schemas are postulated to lead to faulty information processing and misinterpretation of one's environment, which, in turn,

contribute to feelings of depression. A common example of such illogical thinking is arbitrary inference, whereby a depressed individual arrives at a negative conclusion about the situation or self, despite either a lack of corroborating evidence, or evidence to the contrary. Similarly, selective abstraction refers to interpreting a situation based on only one or a few (mostly negative) factors related to the outcome. For example, a student gives a mostly competent speech in class but, due to one mistake, believes that the entire presentation was a failure.

Beck's (1983) cognitive triad is essentially a diathesis-stress model of depression. Maladaptive schemas of self and others, which develop during negative experiences in one's childhood, are postulated to make that person vulnerable to future episodes of depression in the face of negative life events. Beck (1983) also argues that people's negative schemas usually belong to one of two major domains, sociotropy or autonomy, which become active in response to relevant stressors. Therefore, sociotropic people should be vulnerable to depression following interpersonal crises such as the loss of a loved one, whereas impediments to achieving one's goals, such as becoming ill before an exam, are expected to activate autonomous individuals' negative schemas.

### **Comparing Dependency and Self-criticism with Sociotropy and Autonomy.**

Several differences exist between Blatt's (1974) and Beck's (1983) theories of depression and their proposed therapeutic interventions (see Blatt & Maroudas, 1992, for a more comprehensive comparison). For instance, Blatt (Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Shichman, 1983) attempts to explicate the development of each subtype of depression and corresponding personality trait. These formulations incorporate adverse interpersonal experiences, defense mechanisms, and unconscious conflicts starting from early childhood. Along



these lines, Dependency and Self-criticism are hypothesized to comprise stable, enduring personality styles (Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Shichman, 1983).

Conversely, Beck (1983) deals mostly in terms of current behaviours and cognitions, which he argues vary greatly depending on whether an individual is depressed or not. For instance, people vulnerable to autonomous depression may harshly criticize themselves and infer a personal weakness if their goals are thwarted. At other times, however, such self-critical attitudes would be replaced by intense strivings for success and autonomy (Beck, 1983). Unlike Blatt (1974), Beck (1983) posits that individuals can switch between sociotropy and autonomy, depending on their specific life circumstances, though most people have an inclination toward one or the other mode at any given time. Moreover, based on the course and symptomatic profiles of these two types of depression, Beck (1983) has hypothesized that sociotropic and reactive types of depression are related, as are autonomous and endogenous types, whereas Blatt is unpronounced on this issue.

Despite the preceding differences, Blatt's (1974) and Beck's (1983) models of depression share several important features. Both emphasize the interrelated role of cognition and affect in the development of vulnerability to depression. Most important, both authors identify two different subtypes of depression, related to either interpersonal or goal-oriented stressors. Such similarities aid in integrating psychodynamic and cognitive approaches. For example, Mongrain and Zuroff (1989) hypothesized that dependent and self-critical individuals would have specific dysfunctional attitudes germane to their personality dimensions. Similarly, hypothetical scenarios depicting either interpersonal or achievement-related life events were expected to be more

"upsetting, depressing, or emotionally disturbing" (Mongrain & Zuroff, p. 243) to dependents and self-critics, respectively. These hypotheses were largely supported (Mongrain & Zuroff, 1989), highlighting the usefulness of integrating cognitive and psychoanalytic models for the understanding of depressive phenomena.

**Limitations of cognitive models.** Unfortunately, these integrative studies are still the exception (Andrews, 1989). Many cognitive theorists instead rely on studies based exclusively on the cognitive model of depression, despite the limitations of such an approach (see Andrews, 1989; Baldwin, 1992; Coyne, 1976; Gotlib & Hammen, 1992; Safran, 1990). The first limitation is the lack of clear evidence to support Beck's (1974) hypothesis that depressed individuals possess stable, negative schemas that lead them to distort information about themselves and their environments universally. Recent studies have demonstrated that depressed participants process information similarly to their nondepressed counterparts (Dykman, Abramson, Alloy, & Hartlage, 1989) and accurately perceive their poorer social skills (Dykman, Horowitz, Abramson, & Usher, 1991). In other words, depressed people's negative cognitions may accurately reflect what is transpiring in their interpersonal environments (Coyne & Gotlib, 1983).

A related limitation of cognitive-based approaches is that they have often ignored the role relational scripts and expectations of interpersonal relationships play in determining how one interacts with others (Baldwin, 1992; Mongrain, 1998). For example, if one expects, based on past interactions, that others will react in a certain way in particular contexts (e.g., with hostility), that person might avoid those situations entirely, or enter into them defensively, congruent with his or her expectations (Safran, 1990). These negative expectations might influence the actual outcome of the

interactions, as the individual's behaviours could cause others to respond negatively. These unfavourable interpersonal experiences, in turn, would exacerbate one's vulnerability to depression (Coates & Wortman, 1980). Thus, without considering relational schemas, cognitive approaches provide only a partial explanation of depressed people's behaviours and beliefs.

### **Interpersonal Approaches to Studying Depression**

Recognizing the inadequacy of focusing only on the cognitions of depressed individuals, researchers from an interpersonal perspective (e.g., Arieti & Bemporad, 1978, 1980; Brown & Harris, 1978; Coyne, 1976; Coyne, Burchill, & Stiles, 1991; Coyne & DeLongis, 1986; Coates & Wortman, 1980) have investigated contextual factors in the origin and maintenance of depression. For example, Coyne and his colleagues (Coyne, 1976; Coyne et al., 1991; Coyne & DeLongis, 1986) have argued that studies on depression must include the often problematic ongoing interactions of depressed people and those close to them, as well as the personal and interpersonal problems significant others bring to these relationships. Similarly, Coates and Wortman (1980) have hypothesized that others attempt to control depressed people's behaviours, yet inadvertently exacerbate their sense of helplessness and contribute to more hostile and negative interactions and relationships. These authors also argue that depressed individuals are often subjected to ambivalent and hostile behaviours, as well as demands to suppress their true feelings. Given such an interpersonal environment, even initially nondepressed people would likely find themselves suffering from anxiety, distress, or depression. Proponents of interpersonal models of depression all agree that depressed

individuals must be examined and treated within the context of their relationships with significant others.

**Limitations of interpersonal models.** The emphasis of these approaches on interpersonal factors unfortunately neglects other important issues such as individual differences in vulnerability to depression. For example, although interpersonal models postulate that unhealthy relationships might exacerbate depressive predispositions (e.g., Coyne, 1976), they do not address the fact that not all people become depressed in the face of interpersonal difficulties. Moreover, interpersonal theorists appear to ignore the growing evidence for the existence of two clusters in the interpersonal dynamics of depression-prone individuals, as exemplified by dependents and self-critics (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992; Hokanson & Butler, 1992). Given that one cluster involves loving yet needy displays, while the other is typified by hostility and social distancing (Mongrain, 1998; Mongrain et al., 1998), the behavioural sequences described in interpersonal models likely do not apply uniformly to such different social environments (see also, McCann, 1990). Finally, these models do not acknowledge stressors related to autonomy strivings and depression associated with failure to achieve one's goals (Beck, 1983; Blatt, 1974).

Interpersonal models' description of the environmental factors which likely contribute to the onset and maintenance of depression is also incomplete. For instance, romantic partners of individuals vulnerable to depression tend to be unsupportive and distant, which might increase the stressful nature of these relationships (Brown, Bifulco, Harris, & Bridge, 1986; Brown & Harris, 1978; Coyne et al., 1991). Moreover, compared with controls, depressed women tend to be married to men with substance

abuse problems or personality disorders (Coyne & DeLongis, 1986). Yet little is known about why depressed individuals end up or remain in such dysfunctional relationships. Early interpersonal relationships likely influence later mate selection, but as Hammen (1999) notes, empirical evaluation of such theories is still lacking. In sum, interpersonal theorists have yet to address sufficiently cognitive, affective, biological, and developmental factors which might make depression-prone individuals active agents in the creation and maintenance of their stressful environments.

### **Integration of Theoretical Approaches**

It is most likely that both cognitive and interpersonal factors contribute to vulnerability to depression. Accordingly, researchers (e.g., Gotlib & Hammen, 1992; Safran, 1990; Strupp & Binder, 1984) have proposed models of depression which "integrate multiple ideas and constructs that concern both the inner experiences of the depressed person and his or her transactions with the environment" (Gotlib & Hammen, 1992, p. 87). This description applies to the cognitive-interpersonal perspective, which states that one's interpersonal behaviours result from that person's working model of how one must act in order to maintain interpersonal relatedness.

Gotlib and Hammen (1992) explain that interpersonal working models, or schemas, are formed by early interactions with parents (see also Bowlby, 1982, for a comprehensive theory of attachment) and are maintained by the consequences of the individual's subsequent interpersonal behaviours. If these early interactions are adverse (e.g., the mother is rejecting or provides inconsistent love), children are postulated to acquire negative schemas of the self (e.g., low self-worth, feeling unlovable) and of others (e.g., rejecting, unreliable). These schemas are hypothesized to be stored together,

along with the affective state characteristic of interactions between the self and each significant other (Kernberg, 1976). Consequently, poor social interactions can trigger negative feelings or thoughts and memories related to the self and/or others (Bower, 1981; Dobson, 1985). This initial sadness or distress might then lead to the negatively biased information processing proposed by cognitive theorists (e.g., Beck, 1983), and to further faulty interactions, as described in interpersonal models (e.g., Coates & Wortman, 1980). The result is a possible downward spiral of despair into a depressive episode.

The preceding summary only begins to demonstrate how the cognitive-interpersonal perspective integrates several psychological orientations to explain the development of vulnerability to depression, from early childhood, to the future onset and maintenance of depressive episodes. In the following sections, specific theories related to the cognitive-interpersonal model of depression, as well as relevant research, will be discussed in greater detail.

**Hypothesized links between parenting styles and self-schemas.** Because most people's first significant interactions are with their parents, several researchers (e.g., Andrews, 1989; Benjamin, 1974; Blatt & Homann, 1992; Bowlby, 1982; Koestner, Zuroff, & Powers, 1991; McCranie & Bass, 1984; Rosenfarb, Becker, Khan, & Mintz, 1994) have postulated that particular faulty parenting styles may prevent the development of a child's healthy sense of self (Blatt & Homann, 1992) and contribute to his or her inability to interact well with others in future relationships (Benjamin, 1974). Research on parenting styles related to Dependency and Self-criticism has shown that dependents describe their mother as the more dominant parent, who employed strict control and emphasized conformity to authority in their childhood (McCranie & Bass, 1984).

Conversely, self-critics report that both parents emphasized strict control, expressed inconsistent affection, and demanded achievement and performance as they were growing up (McCranie & Bass, 1984). The latter findings are consistent with Koestner et al.'s (1991) data from a longitudinal study of parenting style and Self-criticism. These researchers found that maternal restrictiveness and rejection were predictors of Self-criticism in girls at the age of 12, whereas paternal restrictiveness predicted Self-criticism in adolescent boys (Koestner et al., 1991).

It is important to note that studies involving retrospective self-reports of parenting style may suffer from mood-biasing effects (Lewinsohn & Rosenbaum, 1987; Segal, 1988; although see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992; and Brewin, Andrews, & Gotlib, 1993, for alternative positions). For example, when Whiffen and Sassequille (1991) controlled for current depressed mood, they failed to replicate most of McCranie and Bass' (1984) findings. Instead, they found that parenting style was unrelated to Dependency. However, paternal control and demands for conformity, as well as maternal emphasis on achievement, were still associated with Self-criticism. Conversely, Rosenfarb, et al. (1994), who also controlled for depression by examining bipolar, unipolar depressed, and nonpsychiatric women, reported that Dependency was related to perceptions of distant relationships with fathers, and marginally related to increased parental attention. Self-criticism was related to a faulty affective bond with fathers and somewhat related to perceptions of increased paternal power and control (Rosenfarb et al., 1994).

Taken together, these studies indicate that low parental affection, inconsistent or conditional love, and strict control may contribute to the development of Dependency and Self-criticism. Although the behaviours may differ, parents of both dependents and

self-critics have been postulated to use their children to fulfill their own needs for love and recognition (McCranie & Bass, 1984). In order to maintain their parents' (especially mother's) love, which is contingent on conformity and submissiveness, dependents are theorized to learn to behave passively and obediently; consequently, they fail to attain sufficient autonomy from their parents. Conversely, parental demands for conformity and success may be associated with a higher degree of independence in self-critics. However, these children appear to become overly critical of themselves and have difficulty establishing and maintaining satisfying interpersonal relationships (McCranie & Bass, 1984). Although the relationship between reported parenting practices and personality styles is far from established, an abundance of research supports the assertion that earlier interactions and experiences with parents influence one's sense of self and future interactions with others.

**Theoretical associations between relational schemas and interpersonal behaviours.** The following studies from the Dependency and Self-criticism literature support the notion that perceptions of negative childhood experiences are associated with individuals' concepts of themselves and others. Such schemas, in turn, might influence how these people create, behave in, and maintain their social environments (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992; Wachtel, 1977). These environments provide feedback that confirms negative cognitive-affective representations of the self and others, and maintains vulnerability to depression (Andrews, 1989).

Theoretically, women vulnerable to anaclitic depression feel weak, helpless, and depleted in response to real or perceived interpersonal loss. They may consequently be



motivated to avoid rejection and loss (Blatt, 1974). Furthermore, dependent women tend to select both ideal and actual romantic partners who value intimacy (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989), supporting the notion that Dependency is associated with an extreme need for closeness and a fear of being alone (Blatt, 1974). An initial investigation of interpersonal schemas related to Dependency has shown that friendly and submissive behaviours are associated with dependents' expectations of more positive, warm, accepting responses from parents (Mongrain, 1998). On the other hand, dependents associate hostile behaviour with the anticipation of more negative and less affiliative parental responses from parents (Mongrain, 1998). These results suggest that dependent individuals may be "conditioned" to act in more submissive and less hostile ways.

These interpersonal schemas for interactions with parents have been postulated to influence current interpersonal behaviours (Mongrain, 1998). In line with this theory, dependent females have been found to behave in a more friendly and less hostile way toward peers (Mongrain, 1998), and to display somewhat increased loving behaviours toward their boyfriends (Mongrain et al., 1998). These boyfriends, however, sometimes experience increased hostility and reduced positive affect, which is not perceived by the dependent partner. Such dynamics have several possible implications. First, boyfriends of dependents may interpret their loving behaviour negatively, perhaps as excessive neediness. Second, if dependents fail to appraise and respond appropriately to their partner's negative reactions or dissatisfaction, problematic issues may remain unaddressed. Furthermore, the partner's dissatisfaction will likely continue to grow, possibly leading to more overt displays of hostility or rejection, which would worsen dependents' insecurities and fears. Finally, if dependents' mates are unable to tolerate

their constant neediness or reassurance-seeking (Mongrain et al., 1998), they may end the relationship, an act which would activate dependents' fear of abandonment and potentially trigger a depressive episode.

In contrast, self-critics are prone to feelings of worthlessness and inferiority (Blatt, 1974). They expect others to be critical of them (Blatt & Shichman, 1983) and perceive their parents to be less accepting and less affiliative (Mongrain, 1998). Thus, they might avoid becoming very close or intimate with others in order to protect their fragile self-image from potentially harmful interactions (Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995). Congruent with such a theory, self-critical women tend to display this distancing behaviour with their peers (Mongrain, 1998), and value ideal and actual partners for whom intimacy is relatively unimportant (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989). Given the lack of intimacy in these relationships, it is not surprising that, during a conflict-resolution task, both self-critics and their partners display more hostile and less loving behaviours (Mongrain et al., 1998; see also Zuroff & Duncan, in press, for similar findings).

Notwithstanding their fear of intimacy, self-critics appear to value others as a means of helping to define their identity and improve their self-esteem (Blatt & Shichman, 1983). Unfortunately, their social-distancing behaviours reduce self-critics' chances of revising their negative schemas of self and others, and of receiving the benefits associated with social support (Billings & Moos, 1984; Cohen & Wills, 1985). Also, constant hostile interactions and perceptions of low social support might lead self-critics to infer a personal fault or weakness, further confirming their negative self-views. In short, one might speculate that self-critical women's perception of parents' lack of affiliation and greater rejection (Koestner et al., 1991; Mongrain, 1998) helps contribute

to their lowered self-esteem, negative representations of others, and distancing behaviours in current interpersonal relationships (Zuroff, Moskowitz, & Cote, 1999).

**Further applications of integrative approaches.** The preceding examples do not do justice to the complexity of depression, but they do underscore the importance of considering the ways in which particular personality styles, thoughts and feelings, and interpersonal behaviours interact and contribute to the onset and maintenance of this mood disorder. Recent studies on Dependency and Self-criticism thus far have demonstrated the benefits of such integrative approaches and have accumulated evidence for links between past parental relations and current maladaptive socialization (e.g., Mongrain, 1998; Mongrain et al., 1998). The significance of this possible association must not be overlooked.

That is, dependents and self-critics are postulated to develop negative self-images and interpersonal styles during early childhood (e.g., Blatt & Homann, 1992). These children obviously have no control over being placed into their family, and once interaction patterns have been established, they are very difficult to break (e.g., Benjamin, 1974). Therefore, ongoing faulty relations with parents are not surprising. However, later in life, when they are in a better position to choose with whom they interact, these individuals still enter, create, or manipulate “different types of interpersonal environments that can result in vulnerabilities to different types of stressful life events” (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992, p. 536). Moreover, impaired interactions have been found with, among others, romantic partners, peers, and roommates (see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992; Mongrain, 1998; Mongrain et al., 1998), suggesting a generally problematic social milieu.

Two issues remain unaddressed, however. First, direct comparisons between dependents' and self-critics' early relationships with parents and their adult social functioning have been lacking. Conclusive statements about associations between these two phenomena are therefore not possible. Furthermore, given the obvious distinction between the manner in which these individuals end up in family environments compared with other social contexts, there should be no a priori reason to assume similar interpersonal processes are at play. Second, direct comparisons among the different significant others (e.g., colleagues, spouses, best friends) of dependents and self-critics have not been made either, so it is unclear whether negative self-images or other earlier influences have similar impacts on these different relationships.

In short, evidence has been mounting recently that suggests a powerful general effect of early parental relations on later interpersonal environments of dependents and self-critics. Due to the lack of direct comparative studies, however, possible dynamics involved are not well understood. In order to guide future research and treatment pertaining to Dependency, Self-criticism, and problematic relationships, integrative studies on these individuals' significant others is essential.

A review of the interpersonal literature provides a good rationale for which significant other to investigate. That is, interpersonal models of depression suggest that spouses of those vulnerable to depression play an extremely important role in determining the likelihood of both a depressive episode (Brown et al., 1986; Lewinsohn, Hoberman, & Rosenbaum, 1988; Weissman, 1987) and posthospital relapse (Hooley, Orley, & Teasdale, 1986; Vaughn & Leff, 1976). Yet little is known about the specific qualities or behaviours of romantic partners associated with an increased risk of

depression (but see Hooley et al., 1986; Vaughn & Leff, 1976, for hypothesized factors). Reasons for choosing or remaining with partners who fail to provide sufficient intimacy and support (Brown et al., 1986), and who contribute to conflictual and hostile interactions (Kahn, Coyne, & Margolin, 1985) are also not well understood. Dependency and Self-criticism are both associated with depression (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992), and romantic partners have strong impacts on their lives, whether as targets of dependents' craving for close interpersonal relationships (Blatt et al., 1982), or as members in hostile relationships with self-critics (Zuroff & Duncan, in press). Investigating these people's motives for choosing romantic partners might thus help explain links between each personality style and potentially problematic interpersonal contexts.

Along these lines, studies of dependents' and self-critics' ideal and actual romantic partners (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989; Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995) have provided important initial findings. Based on Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna's (1985) model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and Clark and Mills' (1979) theory of exchange orientation, Zuroff and de Lorimier (1989) attempted to show that dependent and self-critical female college students prefer romantic partners who value either intimacy or achievement, respectively. These predictions were based largely on the hypothesis that dependents would value a loving relationship in itself, which represents intrinsic motivation, whereas self-critics would seek successful mates who might bring them external rewards such as approval and respect, and improved social status. The data mostly supported their hypotheses (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989).

Zuroff and Fitzpatrick (1995) have further described dependents' and self-critics' romantic relationships from an attachment-theory perspective (e.g., Ainsworth, Blehar,

Waters, & Wall, 1978; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Their research suggests that Dependency is associated with an anxious attachment style, characterized by the following statements:

I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me or want to stay with me. I want to merge completely with another person, and this desire sometimes scares people away.  
(Hazan & Shaver, 1987, p. 515)

Self-criticism appears to be associated with a **fearful** avoidant attachment style, described below:

I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.  
(Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 244)

This latter finding is important in that it demonstrates that self-critics' lack of intimacy is not necessarily driven by a need for independence and autonomy as much as it is by a fear of closeness (Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995).

The preceding results illustrate the possible role that dependents' and self-critics' intimate relationships play in the development or maintenance of vulnerability to depression. In particular, romantic relationships are hypothesized to be strongly influenced by working models of early significant relationships (Bowlby, 1982), and to provide psychological security similar to that provided by parents or early caregivers (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Faulty interpersonal working models likely lead to problematic

romantic relationships, thus undermining healthy psychological and emotional development.

The perpetuation of negative self-schemas through interpersonal experiences has also been researched and discussed in the recent literature. Andrews (1989) has formulated a self-confirmation feedback loop whereby individuals unconsciously engage in ongoing "self-fulfilling prophecies that support the person's initial expectations about self and experience....selectively interacting with the environment and selectively assimilating feedback from it....[and channeling] action and experiences in ways that are congruent with, and confirmatory of, the self-concept" (Andrews, p. 577). This model, hypothesized to apply to both positive and negative self-views, has received support from Swann and colleagues (Giesler, Josephs, & Swann, 1996; Swann, 1983; Swann, Hixon, & De La Ronde, 1992; Swann, Stein-Seroussi, & Giesler, 1992; Swann, Wenzlaff, Krull, & Pelham, 1992; Swann, Wenzlaff, & Tafarodi, 1992). Their studies have shown that, on the one hand, nondepressed individuals prefer people who provide them with positive feedback. On the other hand, people suffering from depression or low self-esteem tend to prefer others who provide negative feedback about themselves. These authors argue that the same desire to increase one's sense of intrapsychic and interpersonal prediction and control underlies the motivation to employ self-verifying strategies in both healthy and unhealthy ways (e.g., by depressed people). That is, eliciting confirming feedback about the self from others reassures individuals that their self-views are valid and reliable, thus fostering a sense of intrapsychic coherence. These hypotheses were examined further in the present study to help elucidate the mechanisms underlying dependents' and self-critics' choice of romantic partners.

### **Overview of the Present Study**

Researchers have thus far investigated many factors possibly related to the development and maintenance of depression. For example, particular parenting styles have been associated with the development of Dependency and Self-criticism (Koestner et al., 1991; McCranie & Bass, 1984; Mongrain, 1998; Rosenfarb et al., 1994; Whiffen & Sasseville, 1991). Furthermore, one's self-concept in relation to significant others has been postulated to influence his or her interpersonal style (e.g., Andrews, 1989; Baldwin, 1992; Gotlib & Hammen, 1992) and choice of romantic partners (e.g., Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989; Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995). Finally, certain social behaviours related to the self-concept have been related to unfulfilling or conflictual relationships, contributing to depressive vulnerability or prolonging a depressive episode (Andrews, 1989; Baldwin, 1992; Coates & Wortman, 1980; Coyne et al., 1991).

The present study was intended to explore hypothetical relationships among the preceding themes. Specifically, the following psychological mechanisms related to Dependency and Self-criticism were investigated: (a) perceptions of parental behaviours, (b) self-views emanating from interactions with parents, (c) behaviours and attitudes towards the self, (d) perceptions of real and ideal romantic partners' interpersonal behaviours, (e) self-views resulting from these behaviours, and (f) comparisons between actual and ideal partners. This is the first study to compare directly (i.e., within the same sample) dependents' and self-critics' perceptions of interactions with parents and romantic partners, along with self-images emanating from these relationships. It was hoped that this methodology would reveal a more comprehensive picture of the continuity of problematic interpersonal and intrapsychic environments.



One important assumption of this study was that dependents and self-critics choose romantic partners who help perpetuate their negative self-view. This choice may be due to faulty interpersonal working models (e.g., Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995), or perhaps a need to maintain control over their interpersonal and intrapsychic environments (e.g., Andrews, 1989; Swann, 1983). However, discrepancies likely exist between what people want or expect in a mate and who they actually end up with. For example, although being in hostile relationships could confirm self-critics' negative self-concept (e.g., Mongrain et al., 1998), there is no evidence that they desire or seek such relationships. Instead, self-critics (or dependents) may want someone who can improve their negative self-image, but end up with partners who fail to do so (see Morling & Epstein, 1997, for self-enhancement research on people suffering from depression and/or low self-esteem). The present study thus asked participants to describe their ideal and actual romantic partners with respect to how these significant others (would) act toward them, and the effects these behaviours (would) have on their self-image. Both positive and negative interpersonal behaviours were assessed to tap the full range of potential interaction patterns.

This study also attempts to link mate selection to parental representations. It should thus complement Zuroff and Fitzpatrick's (1995) work on adult attachment styles related to Dependency and Self-criticism, as well as earlier research (e.g., Koestner et al., 1991; McCranie & Bass, 1984; Mongrain, 1998; Rosenfarb et al., 1994; Whiffen & Sasseville, 1991) on childhood antecedents to these two personality variables.

## **A Tool to Investigate Relationships Between Self-schemas and Interpersonal Behaviours**

A promising integrative approach to addressing the relationships between an individual's self-concept and the behaviours of significant others is Benjamin's (1974; 1984; 1993a; 1993b; 1994; 1995; 1996) Structural Analysis of Social Behavior (SASB). This instrument is based on interpersonal circle literature (IPC; Freedman, Leary, Ossorio, & Coffey, 1951; Leary, 1957; see also, Sullivan, 1953). Unlike earlier interpersonal circumplex models, which are two-dimensional, the SASB is comprised of three surfaces which assess: (a) people's perceptions of how others behave toward them, (b) their reactions to others' (perceived) initiations, and (c) the hypothesized outcomes of interpersonal experiences in the form of introjection. The first two surfaces are considered interpersonal domains, while the third is an intrapsychic one. The SASB's complexity allows its user to compare one's (childlike) reactions to others' (originally parents') behaviours, as well as to investigate the impact these behaviours have on the individual's self-concept. These behaviours are plotted on multi-plane axes which run horizontally from Hate to Love and vertically from Differentiation to Enmeshment (see Figure 1). The other four points on the SASB circumplex derive from combining these two underlying dimensions. For example, a person who is perceived as both loving and controlling would be placed in the bottom-right octant, "Nurturing/Protecting." Conversely, someone who responds to others with hostility while taking autonomy would fall in the top-left octant, "Walling Off/Distancing."

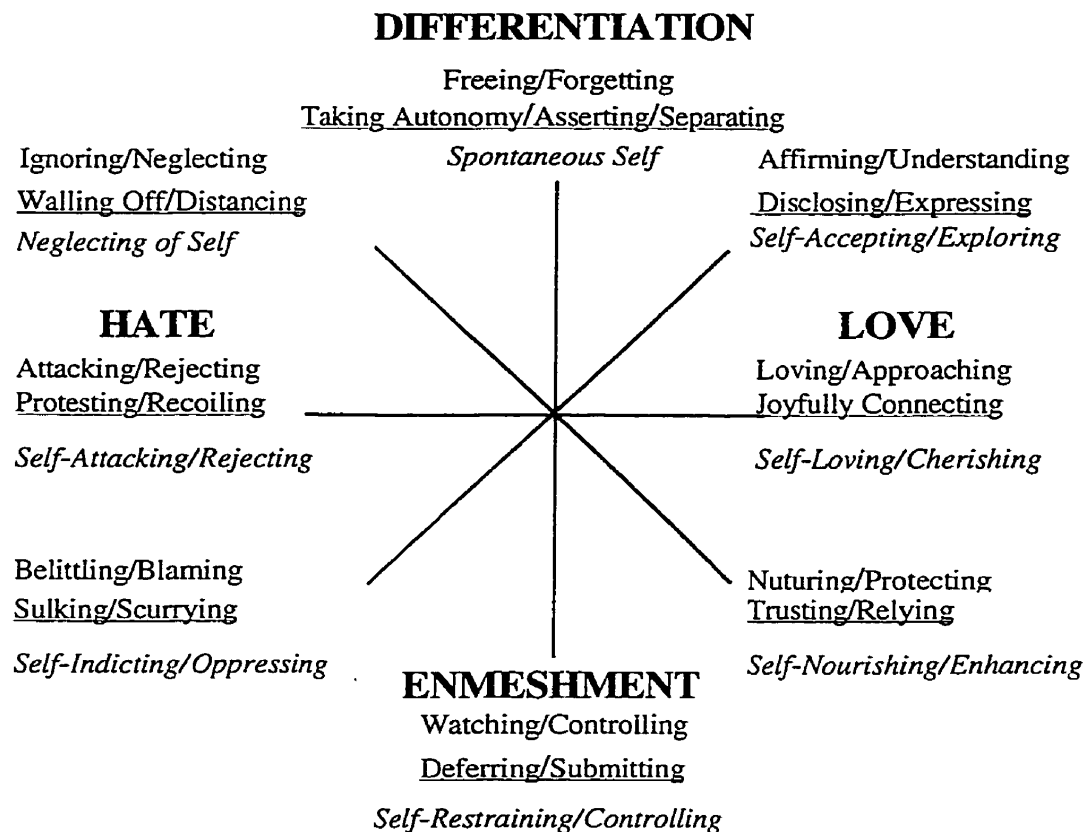


Figure 1. SASB Circumplex. For each octant, the three descriptors represent SASB's three surfaces along two orthogonal axes: Differentiation vs. Enmeshment and Love vs. Hate. The first plane (first line, normal text) describes individuals' perceptions of how a significant other acts toward them. The second plane (underlined text) represents these individuals' responses to such initiations. The third plane (italicized text) depicts their introjected behaviours (from Benjamin, 1993a, 1995).

An important SASB principle is that early interaction patterns with parents are expected to influence present behaviours with significant others in one or more of the following three ways: (a) by treating the self as significant others have treated you (**introjection**); (b) by treating others the way you were treated in the past (**identification**); or (c) by behaving in the present the same way you behaved when interacting with others in the past (**recapitulation**). One thus uses the preceding interpersonal formulations to compare how an individual interacts with people in current and past relationships. The SASB can also be used to compare how significant others (e.g., mother) behaved toward an individual in the past, with how others (e.g., romantic partner) treat that person now (Benjamin, 1995).

In short, the SASB assesses the level of love and control individuals perceive in their close relationships, as measured by both their own and significant others' interpersonal behaviours. Because of its comprehensive and integrative properties, the SASB has demonstrated its utility in examining a variety of psychological phenomena and was thus used to help address the questions of interest in the current study.

Although the SASB provides valuable information on the effects that the behaviours of others can have on an individuals' own attitudes towards the self, the exclusion of the individual's explicit cognitions is a serious limitation of this model. That is, the SASB does not assess what people actually think about themselves as a result of their interactions with significant others. For example, SASB statements about others' behaviours include "(S)he happily, gently, very lovingly approaches me, and warmly invites me to be as close as I would like," and "(S)he puts me down, blames me, punishes

me." Examples of corresponding introjected behaviours include "I tenderly, lovingly, cherish myself," and "I punish myself by blaming myself and putting myself down." Although inferences can be drawn from such self-directed statements, a better indication of the affective impact of interpersonal behaviours on people's self-concepts would result from directly asking them to describe how they feel when significant others interact with them as endorsed on the SASB. In order to supplement the SASB with a more direct assessment of one's affective response, a measure was designed specifically for the purposes of this study. This instrument is described in detail in the Method section, but will be outlined briefly here. Following each SASB, participants were asked to describe how interactions with their significant others made them feel about themselves. They rated 18 adjectives taken from the Dependency and Self-criticism literature, which described anaclitic and introjective cognitive-affective responses (e.g., unloved and self-critical, respectively) to their intimate others. To tap a wider range of possible responses, antonyms of these words were also included (e.g., loved and self-accepting).

### **Guiding Hypotheses**

The guiding hypotheses of the present study pertain to relationships among levels of Dependency and Self-criticism and parental perceptions, self views, and choice of real and ideal romantic partners.

**Parental perceptions.** It was proposed that Dependency would be related to perceptions of controlling mothers (McCranie & Bass, 1984) and distant fathers (Rosenfarb et al., 1994). Self-critical individuals were hypothesized to perceive their

parents as being unaffectionate and controlling (Koestner et al., 1991; McCranie & Bass, 1984).

**Introjected behaviours.** The predicted parenting styles were hypothesized to be reflected in introjected<sup>1</sup> or self-directed behaviours (e.g., Benjamin, 1974). Specifically, dependents were expected to be more self-restraining. Self-critics were also predicted to be more self-restraining, as well as less loving toward themselves.

**Romantic partners.** Dependents were hypothesized to choose mates who were loving and intimate (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989) and more controlling (Mongrain, 1998). Conversely, Self-criticism was expected to predict a choice of partner who was low on intimacy (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989; Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995) and affection (Mongrain et al., 1998). In line with previous research (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989), ideal mates were expected to resemble actual partners, though no formal predictions were made.

**Self-images in response to significant others.** Dependents were expected to have a mixture of positive and negative feelings about the self in relationship to mother and father, depending on how they interpreted their parenting styles<sup>2</sup> (Benjamin, 1974; Blatt & Homann, 1992). Hypotheses with respect to self-images in response to romantic partners remained tentative, but, based on previous findings, were expected to be generally positive (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989; Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995). In contrast,

---

<sup>1</sup>This usage of the term, introjection, should be considered to describe self-directed behaviours of any individual, and is not related exclusively to those prone to introjective depression.

<sup>2</sup>For example, a controlling parent may be seen as either oppressive or protective, depending on the child's perception of that parent's motives (e.g., Benjamin, 1974; 1993a). These perceptions, in turn, would lead to differential cognitive-affective responses.

self-critics were postulated to feel badly in response to interactions with parents (e.g., Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Shichman, 1983) and romantic partners (Mongrain et al., 1998; Zuroff & Duncan, in press).

Given the paucity of research on Dependency and Self-criticism in males, the preceding hypotheses were based on findings derived from mostly female samples.<sup>3</sup> However, there is little empirical evidence that predictions for male participants should differ from those for their female counterparts (Mongrain & Zuroff, 1995).<sup>4</sup> Conversely, possible interaction effects of Dependency and Self-criticism (Coyne & Whiffen, 1995; Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989) with respect to the questions addressed in this research were examined without a priori assumptions, due to the absence of clear theorizing on this personality constellation.<sup>5</sup>

## Method

### Participants

Two hundred and fifty-two participants (187 females and 65 males) from first-year undergraduate introductory psychology classes at York University were recruited. They were required to have been in a romantic relationship for at least three months within the past year. These students received course credit for participation in the study.

---

<sup>3</sup>The exception was the Koestner et al. (1991) study, which included both male and female dependents and self-critics

<sup>4</sup>Blatt and Shichman (1983) do state, however, that men and women are differentially susceptible to introjective- and anaclitic-related disorders, respectively; moreover, Self-criticism has been found to be more stable in men in some cases (Brewin & Firth-Cozens, 1997), and women in others (Koestner et al., 1991). Regardless, these findings should not have a bearing on the specific hypotheses of this study.

<sup>5</sup>It should be noted, however, that past research has found people with high levels of both Dependency and Self-criticism to be at high risk for depression or to be severely depressed (Blatt et al., 1982; Klein, Harding, Taylor, & Dickstein, 1988; Rosenfarb et al., 1994).

## **Measures**

**The Beck Depression Inventory-II.** The Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II; Beck, 1996) is a revised version of the widely-used BDI (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, & Erbaugh, 1961), a 21-item self-report instrument measuring the severity of depressive symptoms (see Appendix B). Beck, Steer, and Brown (1996) reported that the BDI-II demonstrates high internal consistency and reliability, with coefficient alphas for psychiatric outpatients and college students of .92 and .93, respectively. Test-retest scores after one week showed a correlation of .93,  $p < .001$ . Convergent validity is evidenced by the BDI-II's positive relation to both the Beck Hopelessness Scale (BHS; Beck & Steer, 1988) and the Scale for Suicide Ideation (Beck, Kovacs, & Weissman, 1979). Furthermore, the BDI-II shows discriminant validity and more strongly correlates with the Hamilton Psychiatric Rating Scale for Depression (Hamilton, 1960) than with the Hamilton Psychiatric Anxiety Rating Scale (Hamilton, 1959) (Beck et al., 1996).

**The Depressive Experiences Questionnaire.** The Depressive Experiences Questionnaire (DEQ; Blatt et al., 1976), is a 66 Likert-type item scale measuring Dependency and Self-criticism (see Appendix C). The DEQ demonstrates high reliability, with test-retest coefficients of .80 and .75 for Dependency and Self-criticism, respectively, over a 3- and 12-month period (Zuroff, Igreja, & Mongrain, 1990; Zuroff, Moskowitz, Wielgus, Powers, & Franko, 1983). The DEQ's convergent and discriminant validity have been demonstrated by Blaney and Kutcher (1991), who compared the DEQ with instruments measuring similar constructs: the Sociotropy-Autonomy Scales (SAS; Beck, Epstein, Harrison, and Emery, 1983), and Mongrain and Zuroff's (1989) Anacletic



& Introjective Dysfunctional Attitude Scales . Construct validity for these two factors has been evidenced in a variety of contexts involving clinical and nonclinical populations (see Blatt & Homann, 1992; Blatt et al., 1976; Blatt et al., 1982; Blatt & Zuroff, 1992; and Zuroff et al., 1983), including research on parenting experiences (e.g., Koestner et al., 1991; McCranie & Bass, 1984; Mongrain, 1998), peer and romantic relationships (e.g., Mongrain, 1998; Mongrain et al., 1998; Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995; Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989; Zuroff et al., 1983), and cognitive vulnerability to depression (Mongrain & Zuroff, 1989; Zuroff & Mongrain 1987).

**The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior.** The SASB, as described earlier, measures perceptions of one's own and significant others' behaviours towards the self. In the present study, the Short Form Questionnaire was used (see Appendix D). To complete the interpersonal scale, participants rate how well 16 statements describe a significant other's actions towards them. For the intrapsychic scale, participants rate how well eight statements describe their self-directed behaviours.

Responses for each SASB questionnaire are entered into a computer and analyzed by software that calculates pattern coefficients<sup>6</sup> for the two axes or dimensions of Affiliation (love) and Control. There are two subscales on the Affiliation and Control dimensions for the questions pertaining to significant others' behaviours. The first affiliation subscale focuses on significant others' behaviours toward the participant and ranges from "Attacking/Rejecting" to "Loving/Approaching." Respective corresponding SASB items are "Without thought about what might happen, father wildly, hatefully,

---

<sup>6</sup>Although different from the standard usage of the term, coefficient, this is the phrase Benjamin (1995) employs, so it will be used here.

destructively attacked me,” and “Father happily, gently, very lovingly approached me, and warmly invited me to be as close as I wanted.” The second subscale is concerned with significant others’ responses to interactions with the participant and ranges from “Protesting/Recoiling” to “Joyfully Connecting.” This subscale is exemplified by “With much fear and hate, father tried to hide from or get away from me,” and “Father relaxed, freely played and enjoyed being with me as often as possible,” respectively. Analyses of the data revealed very high correlations between responses on these two subscales for each dependent variable (ranging from  $r = .60$  to  $.84$  for each significant other), so it was decided to collapse them to create one independent variable labelled “love” or “affiliation”.

Control also has two subscales. The first one, which assesses the behaviour of a significant other toward the participant, ranges from “Freeing/Forgetting” to “Watching/Controlling.” SASB items include, respectively, “Without much worry, father left me free to do and be whatever I wanted,” and “To keep things in good order, father took charge of everything and made me follow his rules.” The other subscale is focused on the significant other and ranges from “Taking Autonomy/Separating” to “Deferring/Submitting.” Representative items include “Father knew his own mind and ‘did his own thing’ separately from me,” and “Father thought, did, became whatever I wanted,” respectively. The two Control subscales were not significantly correlated and were thus kept distinct.

The intrapsychic questionnaire consists of one pattern coefficient each for the Affiliation and Control axes. The Affiliation axis (ranging from “Self-Attacking/Rejecting” to “Self-Loving/Cherishing”) is represented by the items, “Without

considering what might happen, I hatefully reject and destroy myself,” and “I tenderly, lovingly cherish myself,” respectively. The Control axis (ranging from “Spontaneous Self” to “Self-Restraining/Controlling”) is represented by the statements, “Without concern or thought, I let myself do and be whatever I feel,” and “To make sure I do things right, I tightly control and watch over myself,” respectively (see Appendix E).

Benjamin (1995) has reported high internal consistency and test-retest reliability for the SASB: The alpha coefficient is .90 for the 108-item long form (such calculations are not possible with the short form). Test-retest correlations between undergraduate students’ responses on short forms of the SASB for current romantic partner, memories of mother and father, and introject, ranged from  $r = .66$  to  $r = .90$  over one-month periods (Benjamin, 1995).

Benjamin's (1995) tests of the SASB's face, construct, and content validity have produced data that conform strongly to the three theoretical surfaces of the SASB circumplex model. Construct and discriminant validity for the SASB have also been demonstrated by numerous studies on clinical and nonclinical populations (see also Benjamin, 1993a, 1995, 1996). Examples include research on eating disorders (Humphrey, 1986; Swift, Bushnell, Hanson, & Logemann, 1986; Wonderlich, Klein, & Council, 1996), schizophrenia, borderline personality, and mood disorders (Benjamin & Wonderlich, 1994; Ohman & Armelius, 1990), and changes during psychotherapy (Henry, Schacht, & Strupp, 1986; Laird, 1987; Rudy, McLemore, & Gorsuch, 1985).

The SASB can be used for either past or present interactions (Benjamin, 1995). In the current study, participants completed the SASB for interactions with parents while growing up, and for current (or recent past) interactions with a romantic partner (see

Appendix F). The intrapsychic scale was for current self-directed behaviours. Finally, the SASB was modified slightly for descriptions of ideal partners, such that a statement such as "He likes me and tries to see my point of view, even if we disagree" became "He would like me and try to see my point of view, even if we disagreed" (see Appendix G).

**The Self-referent Affective Adjective Scale.** The principal investigator constructed this scale (SAAS ; see Appendixes H-J) by assembling a pool of 38 adjectives describing anaclitic and introjective states, as described in the writings of Blatt and his colleagues (e.g., Blatt, 1974; Blatt et al., 1976; Blatt & Shichman, 1983; Blatt & Zuroff, 1992). Four judges familiar with Blatt's constructs (principal investigator, thesis supervisor, graduate and honour student) were instructed to "select descriptors that would unambiguously belong to the anaclitic or introjective personality style." Words achieving at least three out of four interrater agreement were selected as candidates for the final scale, which was comprised of nine anaclitic and nine introjective descriptors (see Mongrain & Zuroff, 1989; and Zuroff & Mongrain, 1987, for a similar procedure). The anaclitic items included: "abandoned, alone, helpless, insecure, lonely, neglected, rejected, unloved, and unwanted." The introjective items selected were: "blameworthy, dissatisfied with self, guilty, incompetent, inferior, insignificant, like a failure, self-critical, and worthless."

In order to examine the possibility that participants seek ideal partners to compensate for their negative self-images, antonyms of the original 38 anaclitic and introjective adjectives were generated. Words achieving at least three out of four interrater agreement were then selected for the final scale (see Mongrain & Zuroff, 1989; Zuroff & Mongrain, 1987). The nine antonyms to the anaclitic state were: "accepted,

cared for, connected, loved, nurtured, secure, supported, surrounded, and wanted." The nine antonyms to the introjective state were: "competent, content, important, praiseworthy, proud, respected, self-accepting, successful, and worthy."

The adjectives in the final scale were presented to the participants in a fixed, alphabetical order in two columns: the left contained the 18 negative adjectives, while the right consisted of the 18 opposite positive ones. Participants rated how they felt following interactions with their significant others from 1 (rarely or none of the time) to 5 (most or all of the time). It was decided to separate the adjectives into negative and positive columns following a pilot run of the SAAS.

An important issue pertaining to the SAAS is the terminology used when describing the results of this instrument. Although the items on the SAAS have been referred to as measures of anaclitic and introjective state depression (Zuroff & Mongrain, 1987), they can also be interpreted as cognitive-affective responses to interactions with their significant others. Specifically, participants might indicate on the SAAS that relationships with their significant others make them feel guilty and like a failure. Such descriptions have been hypothesized to comprise the self-schema component of a relational schema, that is, one's experience of self in an interpersonal situation (Baldwin, 1992; see also Greenberg, Rice, & Elliot, 1993). Therefore, responses measured by the SAAS will be referred to as participants' "self-image" or "self-view" in subsequent sections of this paper. Initial analyses of the data revealed that the anaclitic and introjective subscales were highly correlated and did not provide discriminant validity for the two types of negative and positive self-views. Therefore, the anaclitic and

introjective items were collapsed to form a global measure of negative and positive self-views.

### **Procedure**

Students participated in the study on two separate occasions, separated by one week. In the first session of the experiment, all participants completed the DEQ. Half of the participants (Group A) then completed the questionnaires relating to parents and self in the first session, and the questionnaires relating to their romantic and ideal partner in the second session. The other half of the sample (Group B) completed the procedure with the partner measures assessed in the first session and the parent measures assessed in the second session. Participants were randomly assigned to one of these two conditions to help demonstrate that answering questions about either parents or romantic partners during one session did not influence answers during the following session.

In session one, Group A completed the intrapsychic scale of the SASB, followed by the interpersonal scale for each parent. After each interpersonal SASB, participants completed the corresponding SAAS to describe the impact of their interactions with significant others on their self-image. The SASB and SAAS for the mother and father were presented in random order to reduce possible order effects. The final questionnaire was the BDI-II in order to avoid negative mood biases that might result from filling it out (Bargh, 1992). These participants came back the next week for the second phase of the experiment. During this stage, they completed the interpersonal scale of the SASB for whom they considered to be their most significant romantic partner within the past year (for a relationship of a duration of at least three months), followed by the SAAS to indicate how they feel or felt about themselves in relation to this mate. They then

indicated on the SASB how an ideal romantic partner would behave towards them, and then completed the SAAS to rate how this mate would make them feel about themselves. All participants answered questions about actual and ideal partners in that order to eliminate the possibility that their responses to their ideal mate would positively (or negatively) bias their opinions of their actual one. They then completed the BDI-II for a second time.<sup>7</sup>

Group B completed the questionnaires for actual and ideal partners in the first session, followed by those for the self and parents in the second session. Possible order effects could thus be tested and controlled for.

All participants were debriefed about the purpose of the study. They were then able to ask any questions they had about any aspect of the study.

## **Results**

### **Participants' Relationship Status**

Of the 250 participants, 38 men (58.46 %) and 123 women (65.78%) were in a romantic relationship of at least three months at the time of the study. The mean length of current relationships ( $M = 20.25$  months,  $SD = 16.71$ ) was significantly longer than that of past ones ( $M = 15.04$ ,  $SD = 15.06$ ), ( $t(248) = 2.53$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

### **Psychometric Properties of the SAAS, SASB, and BDI**

Because the SAAS was designed for this study, it was necessary to inspect this instrument's psychometric properties, namely its internal consistency and test-retest

---

<sup>7</sup>Prior to completing the second BDI-II, participants in Group A also completed a second SASB and SAAS for mother, while those in Group B did so for their romantic partner. This procedure was used to assess the test-retest reliability of these questionnaires, as discussed in the Results section.

reliability. It was also possible to test the internal consistency of the BDI-II,<sup>8</sup> as well as the BDI-II's and SASB's test-retest reliability, since each of these tests was administered twice.

High internal consistency of the SAAS was demonstrated by Cronbach coefficient alphas ranging from 0.87 to 0.98 for both the negative and positive subscales across significant others. With respect to the test-retest reliability of the SAAS, for negative and positive self-images in response to mother, correlations between the two administrations were, respectively,  $r = .91$  and  $r = .89$  ( $p$ 's  $< .0001$ ); for negative and positive self-images in response to romantic partners, test-retest correlations were  $r = .79$  and  $r = .77$ , respectively ( $p$ 's  $< .0001$ ).

For the BDI-II, the high Cronbach coefficient alpha of .91 was almost identical to the .93 reported by Beck et al. (1996). The BDI-II's test-retest reliability was also statistically significant ( $r = .62$ ,  $p < .0001$ ), though considerably lower than the  $r = .93$  found by Beck et al. (1996).

For the SASB, test-retest correlations between the two administrations ranged from  $r = .66$  to  $r = .90$  for mother and from  $r = .67$  to  $r = .80$  for partner (all  $p$ 's  $< .0001$ ).

### **Data Analyses**

This study was primarily concerned with the relationships among Dependency, Self-criticism, and the participants' perceptions of parents and romantic partners, as well as the cognitive-affective impact of their interactions with these significant others. The ability of these two personality styles to predict participants' behaviours and attitudes toward themselves, and choice of ideal mate was also investigated. Data were analyzed

---

<sup>8</sup>Alpha coefficients can not be calculated for the DEQ nor short-form of the SASB.



using hierarchical regression models, with levels of Dependency and Self-criticism as independent variables. Dependent variables included: (a) reported interpersonal styles of parents, romantic partners, and ideal mates, as measured by the interpersonal SASB questionnaires; (b) the impact of these significant others on participants' cognitive-affective states or self-images, as measured by the SAAS; and (c) behaviours and attitudes toward the self, as measured by the intrapsychic scale on the SASB.<sup>9</sup>

Dependency and Self-criticism were significantly correlated with sex, such that women scored higher on Dependency ( $r(248) = .25, p < .0001$ ), while men had higher levels of Self-criticism ( $r(248) = .12, p < .05$ ). Furthermore, Dependency predicted greater levels of depression measured during the first session ( $r(247) = .16, p < .05$ ),<sup>10</sup> as did Self-criticism ( $r(247) = .55, p < .0001$ ). Therefore, all regressions controlled for sex, depression, and the effect of the other personality variable. When significant interactions between sex and personality were observed, data for men and women were examined separately. The following regression model was used in all tests:

$$y = \text{Sex} + \text{Depression} + \text{Dependency} + \text{Self-criticism} + \text{Sex} * \text{Dependency} + \text{Sex} * \text{Self-criticism} + \text{Dependency} * \text{Self-criticism} + \text{Sex} * \text{Dependency} * \text{Self-criticism}.$$
<sup>11</sup>

The results of the analyses are presented in the following order. First, the

---

<sup>9</sup>It should be noted that, except for three dependent variables (participants' negative self-images in response to mother and ideal partner, and ideal partner's level of affiliation), the data were normally distributed. Comparisons of these data with and without transformations revealed no significant differences; likewise, eliminating outliers did not alter the results significantly. Given these initial findings, together with the large number of participants, I decided not to statistically manipulate the raw data.

<sup>10</sup>Reduced degrees of freedom in this and subsequent analyses were due to missing or incomplete data for questionnaires.

<sup>11</sup>Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism were used in analyses, as opposed to classifying participants based on specific cut-off points. For the sake of brevity and convenience, however, the terms "dependents" and "self-critics" will be used periodically to discuss the results of this study.

relationship between each personality style and perceptions of interactions with mother and father are presented. This is followed by the cognitive-affective responses or self-views associated with interactions with parents. Next, the relationship between each personality style and participants' introjected behaviours are described. Then, the relationship between each personality style and perceptions of interactions with current (or recent) romantic partner, and the effects of these interactions on participants' affect are detailed. Next, desired behaviours of the ideal partner endorsed by dependents and self-critics, as well as how this partner would make them feel, are presented. Finally, given that 91 of the participants (36%) were not currently in a relationship, all regression analyses were performed once again with relationship status as a predictor variable to see whether it interacted with the personality variables. These results are presented last.

Due to the large number of statistical analyses performed, an adjusted alpha level of .02 for each test was used to maintain the familywise error rate at 10% (M. Friendly, personal communication, June 17, 1999). This conservative level was based on conducting five analyses for each dependent variable (four for introjection).

### **Perceptions of Interactions With Mother**

There were five dependent variables for perceptions of interactions with mother. The SASB assessed mother's level of affiliation, her level of control directed toward the participant, and her own level of either autonomy or submission within the relationship. The SAAS measured participants' negative and positive cognitive-affective responses or self-images in response to interactions with mother.

**Dependency.** There was a significant main effect for Dependency on the SASB Control dimension for mother's behaviour ( $F(1, 236) = 9.21, p < .01, B = -11.85$ ). Dependency predicted perceptions of mothers being **less** autonomous or more submissive with participants. Dependent participants were thus more likely to endorse items such as "mother thought, did, became whatever [the participant] wanted."

**Self-criticism.** There was a significant Dependency by Self-criticism interaction effect for mother's level of affiliation ( $F(1, 236) = 7.51, p < .01, B = -18.60$ ). Interaction effects were examined by plotting the regression weights used for high and low levels of each predictor (West, Aiken, & Krull, 1996). A plot of the regression for high and low levels of Dependency and Self-criticism indicated that perceptions of mother's affiliation decreased with higher scores on Self-criticism, but only for highly dependent participants. That is, highly dependent, non-self-critical participants reported mother to be the **most** loving, while those scoring high on both Dependency and Self-criticism reported her to be the **least** loving (see Figure 2).

A significant Dependency by Self-criticism interaction was also obtained for participants' negative affective responses to interactions with mother ( $F(1, 234) = 8.68, p < .01, B = 0.44$ ). Negative self-views in relation to mother increased with higher scores on Self-criticism, but only for individuals with high levels of Dependency (see Figure 3). Specifically, those scoring high on both Dependency and Self-criticism reported feeling **most** negatively about themselves (e.g., self-critical, incompetent, insecure) following interactions with mother, whereas highly dependent, non-self-critical participants felt **least** negatively about themselves.

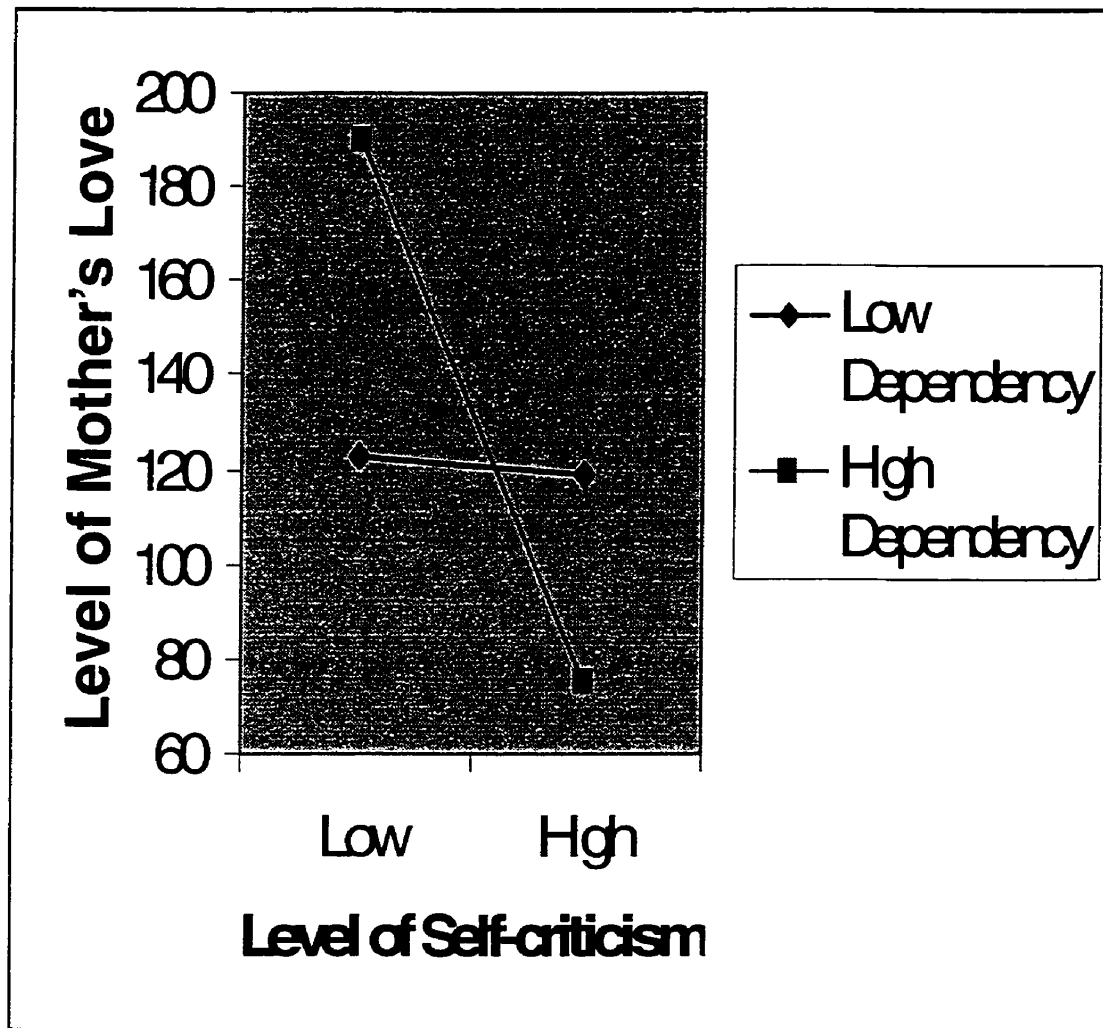


Figure 2. Perceptions of Level of Mother's Love in Relation to Participants' Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism. Higher values indicate more loving mothers, as measured on the SASB.

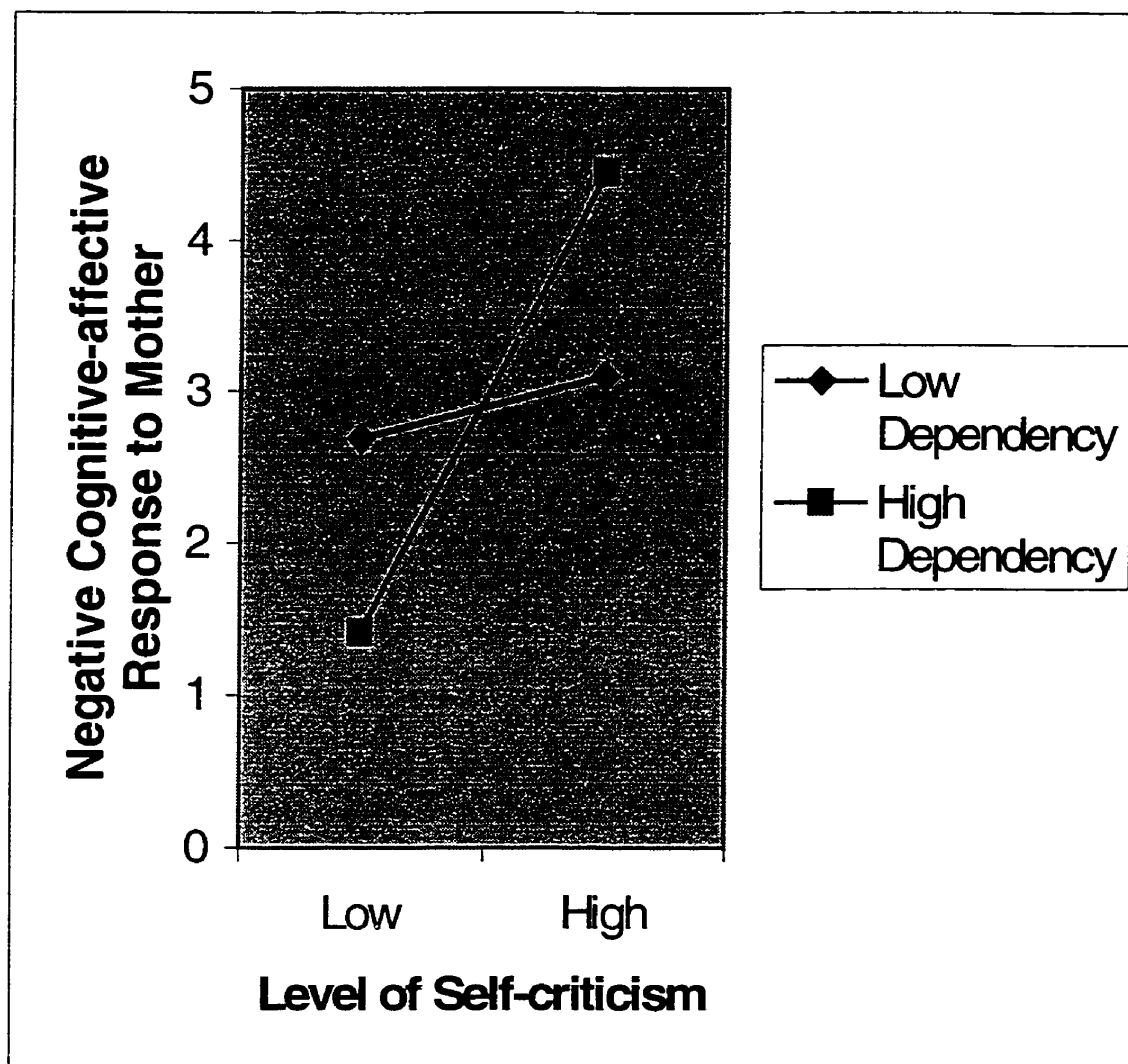


Figure 3. Negative Cognitive-affective Responses to Mother in Relation to Participants' Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism. Higher values correspond to more negative self-images, as assessed by the SAAS.

Interactions between the personality styles were also obtained for participants' positive affective responses to interactions with mother ( $F(1, 234) = 7.00, p < .01, B = -0.44$ ). Highly dependent, non-self-critical participants (i.e., "pure" dependents) felt **most** positively about themselves (e.g., wanted, loved, important) following interactions with mother (see Figure 4).

### **Perceptions of Interactions With Father**

There were five dependent variables for perceptions of interactions with father. The SASB assessed father's level of affiliation, his level of control directed toward the participant, and his own level of either autonomy or submission within the relationship. The SAAS measured participants' negative and positive self-images in response to interactions with father.

**Dependency.** A main effect for Dependency was obtained in the prediction of father's level of affiliation ( $F(1, 231) = 8.71, p < .01, B = 18.59$ ). For dependents, father was more likely to "happily, gently, very lovingly approach [participants] and warmly invite [them] to be as close as [they] wanted." Dependency also predicted perceptions of fathers as being more submissive ( $F(1, 231) = 10.98, p < .01, B = -13.86$ ), such that "Father thought, did, became, whatever [the participant] wanted." Dependents also reported feeling more positively about themselves (e.g., cared for, praiseworthy, respected) following interactions with father ( $F(1, 228) = 9.16, p < .01, B = 0.51$ ).

**Self-criticism.** There was a significant main effect for Self-criticism on the SASB affiliation dimension ( $F(1, 231) = 18.13, p < .0001, B = -32.51$ ). Self-criticism predicted perceptions of father being less loving toward participants, and making them

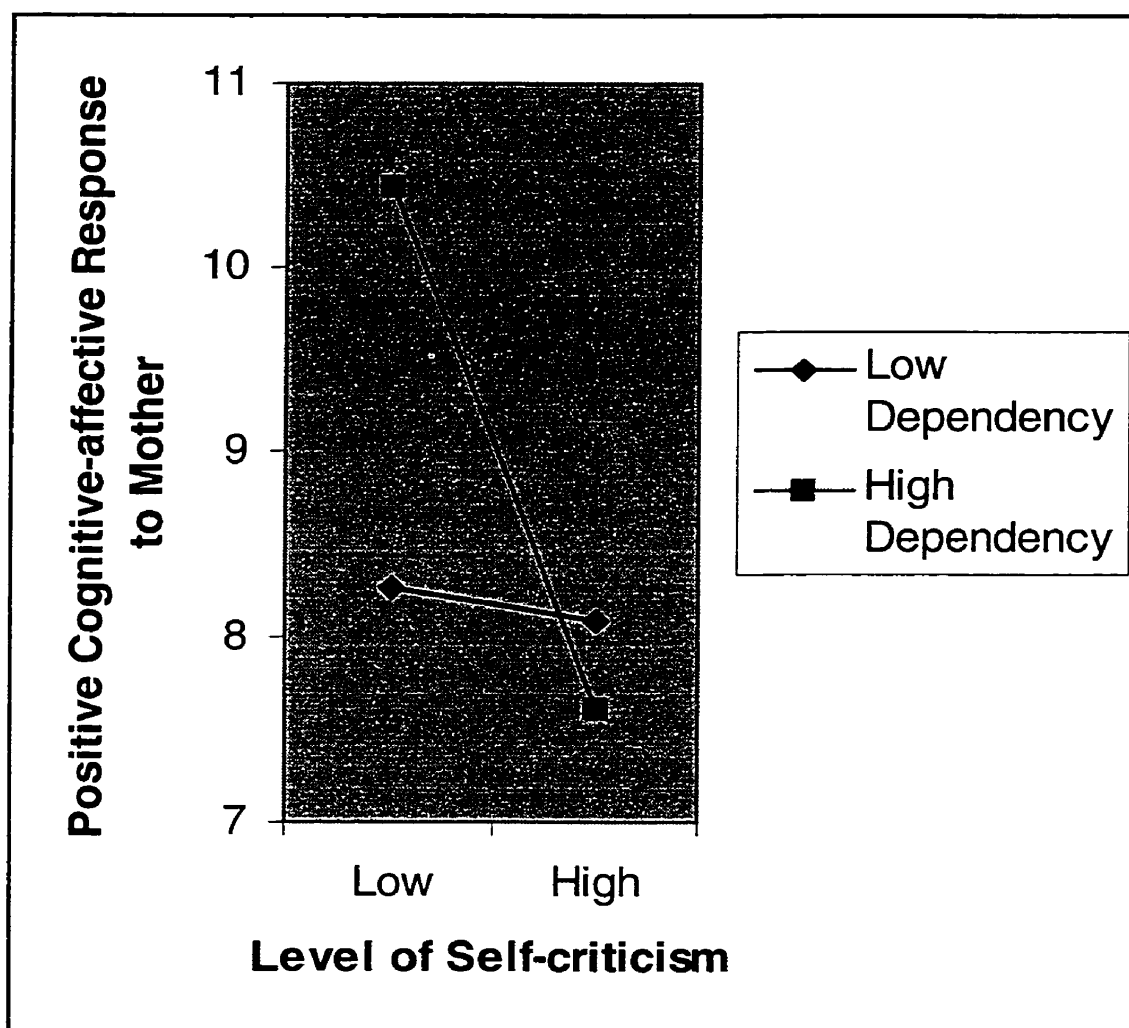


Figure 4. Positive Cognitive-affective Responses to Mother in Relation to Participants' Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism. Higher values correspond to more positive self-images, as assessed by the SAAS.

feel less positively about themselves (e.g., not as connected, successful)

( $F(1, 228) = 15.87, p < .0001, B = -0.77$ ).

A main effect for Self-criticism was also obtained in the female sample for negative responses to father. For women, Self-criticism was associated with more negative self-images (e.g., like a failure, abandoned, helpless) in relation to father ( $F(1, 168) = 18.29, p < .0001, B = 0.85$ ).

### **Intrapsychic Behaviours**

There were two dependent variables for intrapsychic behaviours. The SASB assessed participants' levels of self-love and self-control.

**Dependency.** There was a significant main effect for Dependency on the self-love dimension of the SASB ( $F(1, 236) = 23.42, p < .0001, B = -16.19$ ). Dependency predicted reports of participants being less loving toward themselves. For example, they were less likely to "tenderly, lovingly, cherish" themselves, instead "hatefully rejecting and destroying" themselves.

There was also a significant sex by Dependency interaction on the Self-control dimension of the SASB ( $F(1, 236) = 7.03, p < .01, B = -9.61$ ). The analyses for men and women indicated that female dependents were more self-restraining, and tended to report that, "to make sure [they] do things right, [they] tightly control and watch over [themselves]" ( $F(1, 176) = 28.30, p < .0001, B = -23.63$ ).

**Self-criticism.** A significant main effect for Self-criticism on the self-love dimension of the SASB was obtained ( $F(1, 236) = 110.66, p < .0001, B = -40.97$ ). As was found for Dependency, these participants were less loving toward themselves. There



was also a significant main effect for Self-criticism on the Self-control dimension of the SASB ( $F(1, 236) = 17.14, p < .0001, B = -12.05$ ). These participants were more self-restraining and more likely to "punish [themselves] by blaming and putting [themselves] down."

### **Summary of Parental Perceptions and Intrapsychic Behaviours**

The preceding significant findings are particularly impressive given that level of depression was controlled for, thus precluding arguments that these results reflected participants' mood state during the study. Dependency predicted reports of both mother and father being more submissive, with father also being perceived as more loving and making participants feel more positively about themselves. Surprisingly, in spite of these apparently positive transactions, dependents reported a less loving attitude toward the self. Dependent women also reported using greater self-restraint.

Self-criticism was associated with a less loving father who made participants feel less positively about themselves and, for women, also more negatively. Self-critics correspondingly showed less loving and more controlling self-directed behaviours.

The data highlighted the importance of assessing interactions between Dependency and Self-criticism. Individuals scoring high on both personality variables reported that mother was **least** loving and made them feel **most** negatively about themselves. Conversely, highly dependent participants scoring low on Self-criticism (i.e., "pure" dependents) described mother as being the **most** loving and making them feel **least** negatively and most positively about themselves. In short, the combination of Dependency and Self-criticism had the most deleterious effects with respect to

perceptions of interactions with mother, whereas “pure” Dependency was associated with the most favourable outcomes.

### **Perceptions of Interactions With Romantic Partner**

There were five dependent variables for perceptions of interactions with romantic partners. The SASB assessed mates’ level of affiliation, level of control directed toward the participant, and their own level of either autonomy or submission within the relationship. The SAAS measured participants’ negative and positive self-images in response to interactions with their partner.

**Dependency.** A marginally significant main effect for Dependency was obtained in the prediction of partner’s level of control on the SASB scale ( $F(1, 234) = 5.01$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $B = -6.13$ ). As hypothesized, Dependency was associated with perceptions of the romantic partner as exerting more control over the participant. Therefore, dependents tended to report that, “To keep things in good order [my partner] takes charge of everything and makes me follow [his or her] rules.”

**Self-criticism.** There was a significant main effect for Self-criticism in the prediction of the SASB Control dimension. Self-critics also perceived their partners as being more controlling and described them as taking charge and making the participant follow his or her rules ( $F(1, 234) = 6.46$ ,  $p < .02$ ,  $B = -7.91$ ). There was also a marginal trend for self-critics to report feeling more negatively about themselves (e.g., guilty, dissatisfied with self, insecure) following interactions with their mates ( $F(1, 234) = 4.36$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $B = -0.23$ ).

A marginally significant two-way interaction between sex and Self-criticism was obtained in the prediction of partners' affiliation ( $F(1, 234) = 4.75, p < .05, B = 8.45$ ). However, the analyses for men and women revealed only a nonsignificant trend for self-critical men to report that their mates were less loving ( $F(1, 57) = 2.61, p = .11, B = -14.54$ ).

### **Desired Interactions With Ideal Partner**

There were five dependent variables for desired interactions with an ideal mate. The SASB assessed ideal partners' level of affiliation, level of control directed toward the participant, and their own level of either autonomy or submission within the desired relationship. The SAAS measured how participants wanted to feel about themselves in response to interactions with their ideal mate.

**Dependency.** A main effect for Dependency was obtained in the prediction of ideal partner's level of control on the SASB scale ( $F(1, 234) = 5.63, p < .02, B = -8.23$ ). Dependent participants reported wanting an ideal partner who would be more submissive, such that he or she "would think, do, become whatever [the participant] wanted."

**Self-criticism.** A marginally significant main effect for Self-criticism was obtained in the prediction of the SASB dimension of Control ( $F(1, 234) = 3.99, p < .05, B = -9.86$ ). Self-critics described an ideal partner as one who would be more submissive. Surprisingly, Self-criticism also predicted a tendency to want a partner who would make the participants feel less positively about themselves (e.g., not as secure, proud, respected) ( $F(1, 234) = 3.91, p < .05, B = -0.12$ ).

There was also a significant three-way interaction among sex, Dependency, and Self-criticism in the prediction of ideal partner's level of affiliation ( $F(1, 234) = 5.17$ ,  $p = .02$ ). The analyses for men and women indicated a marginally significant Dependency by Self-criticism interaction for men only ( $F(1, 57) = 4.16$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $B = -14.26$ ). A plot of the regression for high and low levels of Dependency and Self-criticism indicated that self-critical men who were also low on Dependency (i.e., "pure" self-critics) described an ideal partner as one who would be less loving (see Figure 5).

### **Summary of Interactions With Real and Ideal Romantic Partners**

Due to the number of statistical analyses performed in this study, a conservative error rate was used. Therefore, marginally significant data refer to values that would normally be significant with an alpha level of .05. Nevertheless, these marginal findings failed to reach significance at the predetermined alpha level of .02, so they must be interpreted cautiously.

The preceding analyses revealed both similarities and differences between dependents' and self-critics' real and ideal partners. Dependency appeared to be associated with a discrepancy between real and ideal mates, in that their ideal mate would be more submissive, but there was a marginally significant trend for dependents to report that their partner was more controlling. In other words, dependents appear to be controlled in their romantic relationships, but want to secure more control themselves, as indicated by their desire for a more submissive mate.

Like dependents, self-critics endorsed items describing a more controlling actual mate, while they tended to desire a more submissive ideal one. There was another marginal trend for these participants to report that their partner made them feel more negatively

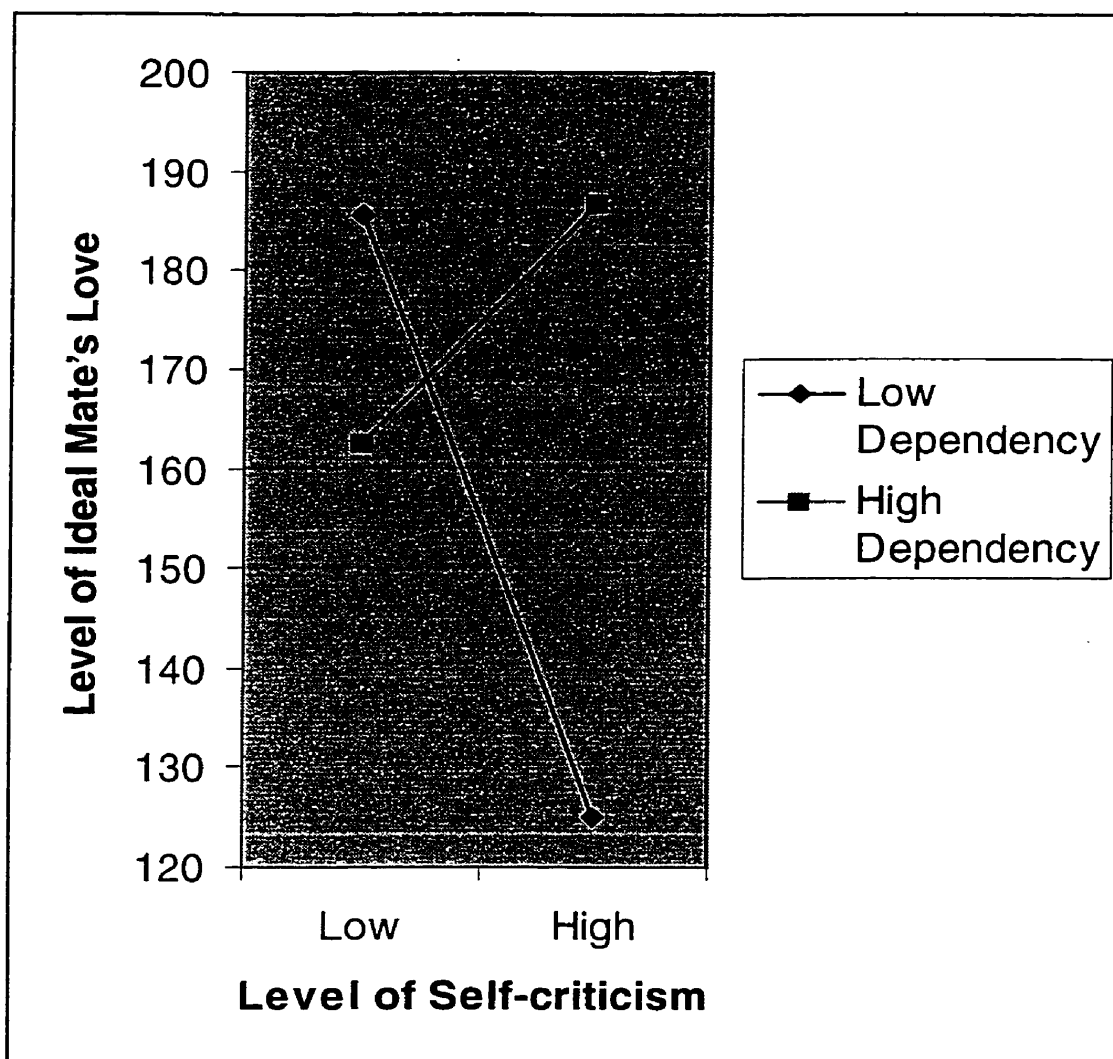


Figure 5. Men's Desired Level of Ideal Partner's Love in Relation to Men's Levels of Dependency and Self-criticism. Higher values indicate more loving ideal mates, as measured by the SASB.

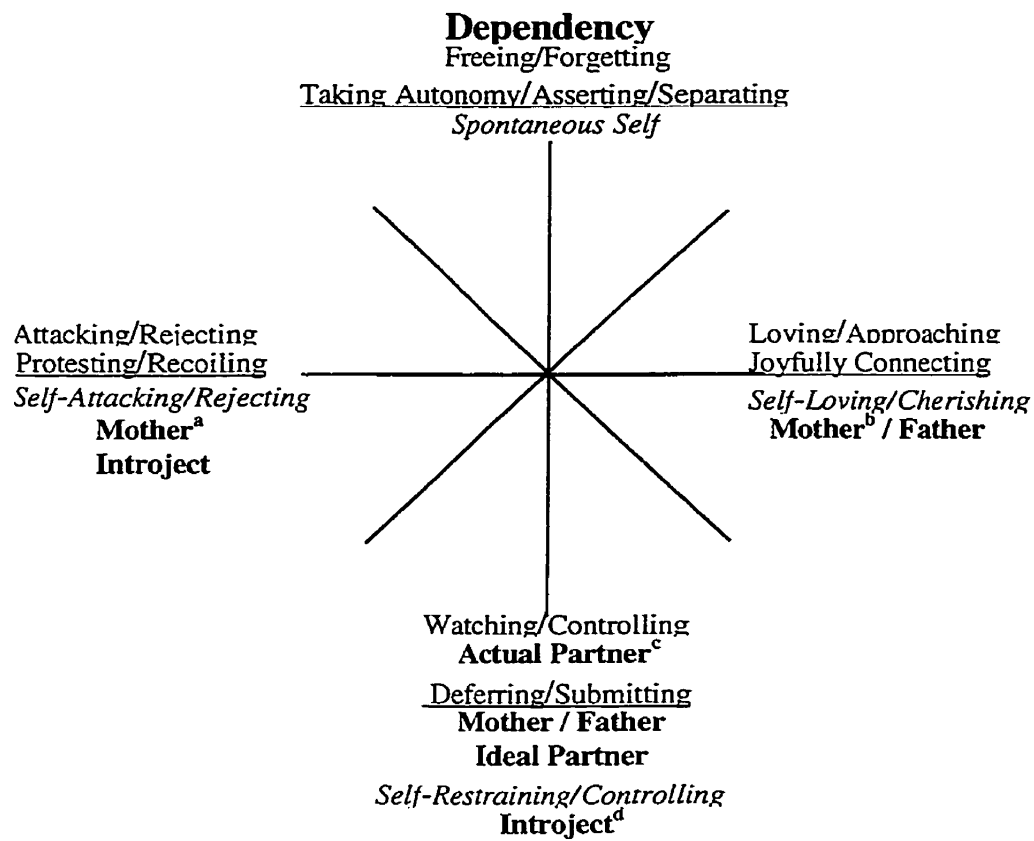
about themselves. Self-critics also tended to indicate that their ideal mate would make them feel less positively about themselves, and for males, would also be less loving. Therefore, self-critical individuals tend not to seek love and positive validation in romantic relationships.

### **Relationship Status as a Predictor Variable**

When each of the preceding regression analyses was re-analyzed with relationship status entered as a predictor variable, two new main effects were found for level of real and ideal partners' level of affiliation. **Not** being in a current relationship predicted both a more loving mate ( $F(1, 231) = 40.56, p < .0001, B = 39.88$ ) and more loving ideal partner ( $F(1, 231) = 11.55, p < .001, B = 11.98$ ). However, relationship status did not interact with either of the personality variables, meaning that dependents and self-critics currently in a relationship did not respond differently from those who were not.

### **General Summary**

Figures 6 and 7 show where, on the SASB circumplex, dependents and self-critics, as well as their respective significant others, lie. For Dependency (Figure 6), one notes the reports of more loving and submissive parents who elevated dependents' self-views. For the introject, however, participants were more self-attacking and rejecting, while female dependents were also more self-controlling. In the choice of romantic partners, dependents wanted a significant other who, like parents, would be more submissive, yet there was a marginal trend for these participants to end up with a more controlling mate.



**Figure 6.** Location of Dependents and Their Significant Others on the SASB

Circumplex's Love and Control/Enmeshment Dimensions.

Note: <sup>a</sup>For dependents also high on Self-criticism. <sup>b</sup>For "pure" dependents (i.e., low on

Self-criticism). <sup>c</sup>This result was marginally significant ( $p < .05$ ). <sup>d</sup>For women only.

Self-critics reported more attacking and rejecting fathers who made them feel badly about themselves (see Figure 7). Those who were also high on Dependency reported a less loving mother who made them feel worse about themselves. These negative parental interactions were reflected in more self-attacking and rejecting introjections, along with greater self-restraint. With respect to romantic relationships, the actual partners of self-critics were reportedly more controlling. There was also a marginal trend for self-critics to report that their mates made them feel more negatively about themselves, similar to how they felt in response to father and, for those also high on Dependency, mother. Interestingly, there was also a marginal trend for these individuals to identify an ideal partner who would make them feel less positively about themselves, and who would also be less loving in the case of self-critical men. This pattern follows interesting parallels with the data obtained for father, and for mother of self-critics also high on Dependency. Finally, in contrast to more controlling partners, ideal mates were described as more submissive.

### **Discussion**

Recently, great interest has been directed at the role of two personality styles, Dependency and Self-criticism, in the development and maintenance of depression related to either interpersonal loss or threats to self-esteem (see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992, for a review of the literature). A number of investigators (e.g., Blatt & Homann, 1992; Koestner et al., 1991; McCranie & Bass, 1984; Rosenfarb et al., 1994; Whiffen & Sasseville, 1991) have hypothesized relationships between parenting styles and development of these two personality traits, but unequivocal evidence has thus far remained elusive. Other researchers have attempted to explicate ways in which



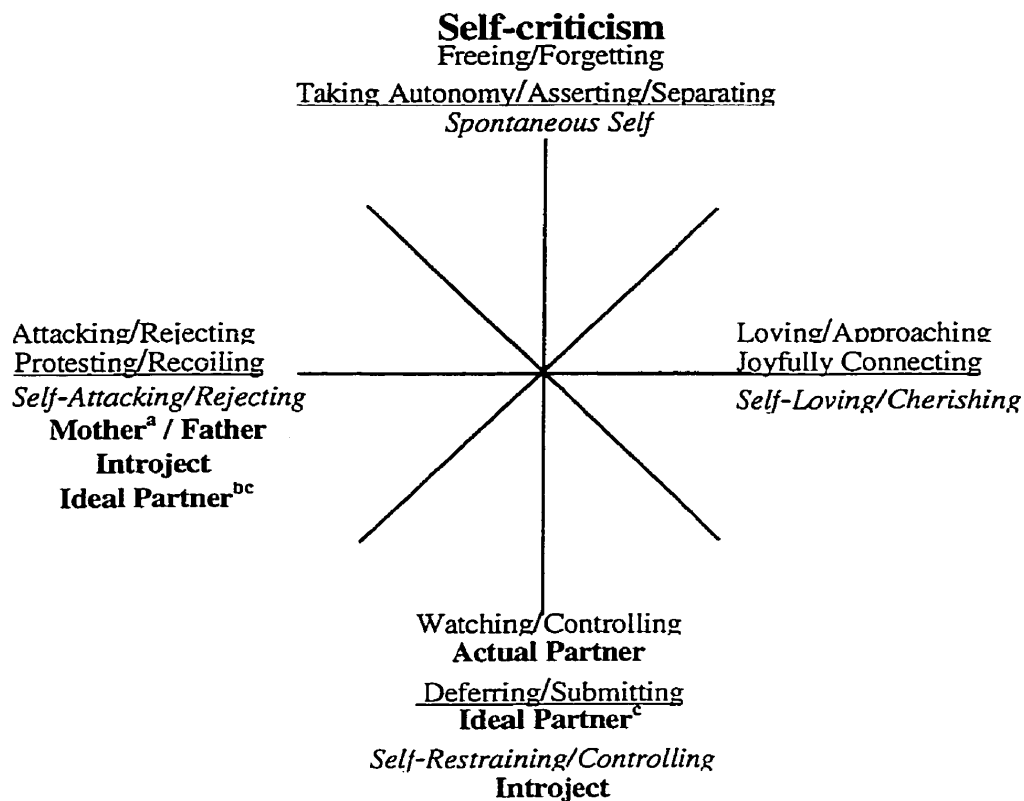


Figure 7. Location of Self-critics and Their Significant Others on the SASB Circumplex's Love and Control/Enmeshment Dimensions..

Note: <sup>a</sup>For self-critics also high on Dependency. <sup>b</sup>For men only. <sup>c</sup>This result was marginally significant ( $p < .05$ ).

dependents' and self-critics' choice of romantic partners and interpersonal relationships may exacerbate their vulnerability to depression (e.g., Mongrain, 1998; Mongrain et al., 1998; Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989). Initial findings have demonstrated the fruitfulness of such research strategies, especially those integrating cognitive and interpersonal approaches. The present study attempted to help clarify possible relationships among parental representations, self-images, choice of romantic partners, and vulnerability to depression in students with varying degrees of Dependency and Self-criticism. Although some of the results for real and ideal mates are only marginally significant, they do not represent a large departure from values required to reach statistical significance at the study's relatively conservative alpha level. These should thus be considered as potentially important findings that deserve further investigation in future research.

### **Dependency**

The present data contradict the study's hypotheses with respect to associations between Dependency and perceptions of past interactions with parents. Dependency was related to reports of loving and submissive parents who made participants feel positively about themselves. Such parents lie in the "Trusting/Relying" octant of the SASB (See Figures 1 and 6). These findings are contrary to the prediction that dependents would see mother as controlling (McCranie & Bass, 1984) and father as distant (Rosenfarb et al., 1994).<sup>12</sup>

Such positive recollections of interactions with parents do not appear to support the hypothesized link between parenting styles and the development of a depression-

---

<sup>12</sup>Blatt and Shichman (1983) have, however, forwarded the notion that Dependency might be related to overindulging parents, whose behaviour may be interpreted as loving and submissive.

prone personality. Dependents' introjections, however, may shed some light on this formulation. That is, according to SASB introject theory, "the self-concept derives from treating the self as have important others" (Benjamin, 1995, p. 41). Contrary to reports of loving parents, Dependency was associated with less self-loving behaviours. Women in this group also employed greater self-restraint, in contrast to their submissive parents. These women therefore fall in the "Self-Indicting/Oppressing" octant of the SASB circumplex, which is characterized by "punishing [oneself] by blaming and putting [oneself] down" (see Figures 1 and 6). Such harmful **self-directed** behaviours might help account for dependents' fragile self-esteem, which they nonetheless attempt to bolster through intimate relations with **others** (Blatt, 1974). The prospect of losing a significant other should thus be perceived by dependents as a threat to their tenuous sense of well-being. The resulting fear and stress (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992) would then serve as precursors to the onset of depressive symptoms, as postulated by the diathesis-stress model (Zuroff & Mongrain, 1987).

It is important to note that dependents' negative introjects were obtained while controlling for current mood (cf. Whiffen & Sasseville, 1991), so they likely were not artifacts of depression, which is associated with negative self-images (Beck, 1983). Instead, the preceding results and discussion may point to possible intrapsychic processes that contribute to increased risk for depression in dependent individuals.

Dependents' self-directed behaviours are especially intriguing in that they do not follow from descriptions of positive interactions with their parents. One explanation for this discrepancy parallels McCranie and Bass' (1984) theory for their failure to find

support for several hypothesized associations between Dependency and reported parenting styles (Blatt, 1974). Namely, dependents may be unwilling or unable to recall, recognize, or express anger with regard to negative interactions with their parents (see also Blatt & Homann, 1992), for fear of losing their desired sense of security associated with loving and intimate relationships (Blatt, 1974). The possibility that dependents might engage in such ideation argues for the use of introjects as an alternative means of investigating parental perceptions, as opposed to relying on self-reports for the behaviours of significant others.

Having explored dependents' recollections of early relationships with parents, the next question to address is the possible impact of negative introjected behaviours on these individuals' romantic relationships. Consonant with the self-restraining behaviours of females in this sample, there was a marginal trend for dependents to report more controlling mates, as predicted (Mongrain, 1998). Therefore, "to keep things in good order, [these partners] take charge of everything and make [dependents] follow their rules." Taken together with dependents' unassertiveness (Riley & McCranie, 1990), these data suggest that such individuals assume a deferring role in their romantic relationship. According to SASB theory, the dynamics between submissive dependents and their controlling partners<sup>13</sup> should maintain relationship harmony (Benjamin, 1984).

However, dependent participants rated an ideal mate as one who would be more submissive. Such an apparent discrepancy between real and ideal mates implies that

---

<sup>13</sup>This is referred to as interpersonal complementarity (Benjamin, 1974), whereby each person in the dyad occupies the same position on his or her respective interpersonal surface on the SASB circumplex (see Figures 1 and 6).

dependents want more control in their relationship. The issue of control in romantic relationships deserves more consideration, in light of the unpredicted association between Dependency and submissive parents (cf. McCranie & Bass, 1984).

**Exploring control through SASB interpersonal principles.** When examined within the context of SASB principles, interesting comparisons exist among the reported interpersonal styles of dependents' parents, actual partners, and ideal mates. On the SASB Control dimension, ideal mates strongly resembled dependents' mother and father (**interpersonal similarity**). It is possible that these individuals desire a mate who will submit to them as their parents reportedly did but, due to their negative self-image, are unable to pursue or maintain such a relationship. Instead, they end up deferring to more controlling partners.

The marginal trend for dependents to end up with controlling partners may also reflect some ambivalence about their parents' reported submissiveness. Although dependents might ideally want to dominate their mate as they did their parents, these individuals might also perceive such parenting styles in a negative light (e.g., as "spineless" and easily manipulated). Consequently, they chose a partner that they can respect, and who will "take charge, that is, someone "opposite" to their parents.

Returning to the SASB concepts of **introjection**, **identification** and **recapitulation** (Benjamin, 1984), a much different interpretation of the data is possible. One might hypothesize that dependents' self-controlling introjections reflect an overly controlling mother who demanded conformity (McCranie & Bass, 1984) and a father whose affiliation was contingent on submissiveness (Mongrain, 1998). As adults, these

individuals may have a childlike desire to copy their parents' behaviours and direct them toward significant others (identification), hence the wish for a submissive partner. Nevertheless, dependents may seek or stay with controlling partners to whom they defer, due to the intrapsychic and interpersonal stability derived from repeating early interaction patterns with their parents (recapitulation; see also Andrews' self-confirmation model, 1989). However, the preceding must be treated as conjecture only, since one can not assume that dependents' introjects are more veridical than their recollections of interactions with parents.

**Affiliation in romantic relationships.** Finally, it should be noted that, contrary to the study's hypotheses, dependents' real and ideal partners were not described as more loving (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989). The most parsimonious explanation for this discrepancy can be found by examining the specific items endorsed on the SASB. Many of the participants, regardless of level of Dependency, selected statements depicting loving characteristics in real and ideal mates. Such response patterns likely caused a ceiling effect for this factor, which would have reduced Dependency's ability to predict uniquely loving and intimate partners, as measured by the SASB.<sup>14</sup>

In sum, the present focus on dependents' perceptions of interactions with parents and romantic partners, as well as the effect these behaviours have on their self-concepts, has provided several possible explanations for inconsistencies in past studies. Future

---

<sup>14</sup>Because real and ideal mates' levels of control and submissiveness were not uniformly endorsed, Dependency's predictive power was not obscured, as indicated by the obtained significant results for these factors.

research should further explore the role of control in dependents' ongoing interpersonal relationships. Their significant others should be queried as well, to help determine the "accuracy" of the perceptions reported in this study (for an example of the value of this strategy, see Mongrain et al., 1998).

### **Self-criticism**

The findings pertaining to Self-criticism present a much different picture from the interpersonal relationships of dependents. First, as predicted, Self-criticism was associated with perceptions of father as less loving and making these participants feel less positively about themselves. Female self-critics also felt more negatively about themselves following interactions with father. For self-critics also high on Dependency, mother was described as less loving and making them feel more negatively (e.g., incompetent and insecure) and less positively (e.g., less self-accepting and successful) about themselves. However, the hypothesized relation between Self-criticism and controlling parents was not supported.

In general, Self-criticism was related to negative perceptions of parents. Unlike their dependent counterparts, self-critics' introjected behaviours coincide nicely with their parental representations. Although these participants did not rate parents as controlling, Self-criticism predicted less loving and more restraining self-directed behaviours, as hypothesized. The combination of these introjections places self-critics in the "Self-indicting/Oppressing" octant of the SASB circumplex (see Figures 1 and 7). These individuals thus "punish [themselves] by blaming and putting [themselves] down," as described in the Self-criticism literature (see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992). These data contribute to the empirical support for the developmental theory of faulty parenting

styles leading to corresponding self-critical attitudes and behaviours directed toward the self (Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Shichman, 1983; Koestner et al., 1991; McCranie & Bass, 1984).

The next question is whether self-critics' early interactions with parents and negative introjects are perpetuated in their romantic relationships. The results mostly corresponded to the study's hypotheses and clinical and nonclinical descriptions of self-critics' romantic relationships (see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992). Self-criticism was marginally associated with the expected negative self-images (e.g., feeling guilty and insecure) in relation to interactions with their partners.

Self-critics' increased hostility might lead to negative responses in their partners (Mongrain et al., 1998; Zuroff & Duncan, in press), causing self-critics to feel badly about themselves; however, there was also a marginal trend for these men to describe an ideal mate as one who would be less loving and would foster less positive self-images (e.g., feeling less nurtured and praiseworthy). Why would self-critics want a partner who is less loving and makes them feel badly about themselves? This question can be addressed by integrating both SASB and self-verification perspectives and, in this case, applying them to self-critical males. First, according to SASB theory, self-critics respond to father's and mother's (for those also high on Dependency) early attacking and rejecting behaviours and the corresponding negative self-images by internally attacking and rejecting themselves (introjection). Put another way, parents' lack of love leads self-critics to infer that they are unlovable. According to self-verification theory, individuals are motivated to find significant others who confirm their self-image, in order to "provide a sense of inter- and intrapersonal coherence" (Giesler & Swann, 1999, p. 210).



A reliable way for self-critics to achieve this goal is to find someone who treats them the way they have been treated by their parents and themselves (interpersonal similarity).

These hypotheses appear to be supported by the present study's.

Another interpretation of the data is that self-critics avoid becoming intimate for fear of being hurt by partners they can not fully trust (Zuroff & Fitzpatrick, 1995). This fear could stem from self-critics' working model of relationships, based on attacking parents who made them feel badly about themselves. Alternatively, the present results may reflect self-critics' tendency to consider need for intimacy as less of a priority in a mate than need for achievement and masculinity, which they hope will bring them extrinsic rewards such as improved social status (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989).

However, neither of these hypotheses accounts for the marginal trend for self-critics to desire a partner who would make them feel less positively about themselves. SASB and self-verification principles, which are still compatible with the two preceding theories, appear to be most congruous with the present data.

The apparently maladaptive dynamics of self-critics' romantic relationships can be elaborated further by considering the role of control in these couples. That is self-critics perceived their partners as more controlling, which was not predicted. Controlling and unloving mates of self-critical men would belong in the "Belittling/Blaming" octant of the SASB (see Figures 1 and 7), which is represented by statements such as "[My girlfriend] puts me down, blames me, punishes me." This behaviour corresponds to both parenting styles<sup>15</sup> and introjected behaviours of self-critics in the current study. These

---

<sup>15</sup>An exploration of the individual SASB items revealed that Self-criticism predicted endorsement of the statements, "Mother/Father put me down, blamed me, punished me."

findings lend support to the hypothesis that negative self-images originating from interactions with parents are perpetuated in self-critics' romantic relationships.

However, there was also an unexpected finding that, in contrast to their more controlling partners, self-critics desire a more submissive ideal mate. The Self-criticism literature indicates that such a disparity reflects a problem in these individuals' romantic relationships. For example, self-critical females engaging in a conflict-resolution task with their boyfriends rated themselves as more submissive than did objective judges (Mongrain et al., 1998). These authors suggest that depression and low self-esteem associated with Self-criticism can lead to an exaggerated sense of subordination. This may help explain why self-critics would seek an ideal mate who is more submissive, thus enabling them to reassert their control and gain a sense of empowerment. However, in reality these women choose boyfriends high on need for masculinity and achievement (Zuroff & de Lorimier, 1989), so many of these men likely are indeed controlling. This suggests the presence of a power struggle in self-critics' romantic relationships, which may contribute to the hostility and lack of affiliation that characterize these couples (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992; Mongrain et al., 1998; Zuroff & Duncan, in press).

To recapitulate, the results, pertaining to Self-criticism are mostly in accord with the study's hypotheses.<sup>16</sup> Self-critics appear to perpetuate early faulty interactions with their parents, as well as concomitant negative introjections and self-views, in later romantic relationships. The findings for male self-critics are particularly instructive.

---

<sup>16</sup>Keeping in mind that several of the findings were marginally significant at a conservative alpha rate.

These individuals' responses can be interpreted to indicate that unloving relationships with parents have led them to not wish for another's love and positive feedback.

### **Interactions Between Dependency and Self-criticism**

The data also demonstrated that high levels of Dependency appear to have either beneficial or detrimental effects on parental perceptions, depending on the level of Self-criticism. For parental perceptions, increasing levels of both Dependency and Self-criticism were associated with reports of a mother who was **less** loving and made participants feel **more** negatively and **less** positively about themselves. These data are in stark contrast to the reports by "pure" dependents of **more** loving mothers who made them feel **more** positively and **less** negatively about themselves. In other words, Dependency on its own predicts positive reports of past interactions with parents. In conjunction with Self-criticism, however, Dependency is associated with worsening of representations of mother. Instead of mitigating or acting as a "buffer" against self-critics' negative interpersonal relationships, the presence of Dependency, in this case, appears to exacerbate such problems (see Figures 2 and 3).<sup>17</sup>

The one exception to the deleterious effects of high levels of both Dependency and Self-criticism relates to the level of love men reported wanting in an ideal mate (see Figure 5). In this case, purely self-critical males described ideal mates as the **least** loving. In contrast, self-critical males also high on Dependency did not differ from participants

---

<sup>17</sup>Because regression models were used to analyze the data, post-hoc comparisons of means would not be appropriate. Therefore, comments about the trends of participants with differing levels of Dependency and Self-criticism should be considered descriptive, as opposed to declarations of the statistical significance of differences between means.

with low levels of both personality traits in their endorsement of loving ideal mates. It thus appears that the combination of Dependency and Self-criticism may serve to ameliorate possible beliefs by purely self-critical males that they are unlovable or not deserving of love.

In short, the present study's results underscore the need to consider the impact that differing levels of Dependency and Self-criticism, relative to each other, have on individuals' intrapersonal and interpersonal environments. "Pure" dependents or self-critics are relatively rare in general populations, so investigating vulnerability to depression in such groups likely leads to loss of valuable information and severely limits the generalizability of findings (Coyne, 1994; Coyne & Whiffen, 1995).

### **Theoretical, Methodological, and Treatment Implications**

A number of studies have recently begun to explore the possible role that the social milieus of dependents and self-critics play in their theorized depressive vulnerabilities (see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992). This study attempts to augment the current understanding of such processes by using the SASB and reported self-images to draw specific links among early interactions with parents, introjections, and present romantic relationships.

It is hoped that the obtained findings will help contribute to the elucidation of internal and external processes by which self-critics perpetuate negative self-images and hostile relationships. By controlling for level of depression, which was highly correlated with Self-criticism, it was demonstrated that self-critics' unfavourable responses are not simply the product of current negative mood. Instead, the interpersonal environments and

self-views of these participants, especially males, appear to be marred by consistent absences of love or affiliation.

The present findings also suggest ways to help avoid equivocal findings of previous research on Dependency. For instance, dependents' negative introjections (i.e., self-attacking and restraining) are discordant with their reports of loving and submissive parents. These results lend support to the theory that dependents may minimize or not perceive negative interactions with parents (Blatt & Homann, 1992; McCranie & Bass, 1984). Therefore, in order to corroborate dependents' descriptions of early parenting styles, future research should try to include reports from family members such as parents or siblings (e.g., Koestner et al., 1991).

Contradictory results pertaining to Dependency may also stem from many studies' tendency to focus on "pure" groups of dependents (as well as self-critics). Such research strategies that impose arbitrary categories of "pure" Dependency and Self-criticism on the data ignore much valuable information and reduce the external validity of the findings (Coyne & Whiffen, 1995). Accordingly, data in the present study were analyzed by hierarchical regression models to retain the full distribution of scores and provide a more comprehensive picture of Dependency and Self-criticism. The findings demonstrate the advantages of exploring ways in which different levels of these two personality variables interact with each other and relate to perceptions of interpersonal relationships.

This research also has methodological implications for self-verification studies, most of which have involved verbal feedback or evaluation from others (see Giesler &

Swann, 1999, for a review). Spoken evaluations are only one facet of a relationship, while ongoing social interactions arguably have a stronger impact on how people perceive themselves, their partners, and their relationships (Baldwin, 1992; Benjamin, 1993b). Therefore, comparing specific behaviours of both actual and ideal mates, and participants' resultant self-images helps present a more comprehensive picture of individuals' reasons for choosing or staying with partners who contribute to maladaptive interpersonal contexts and lowered self-esteem.

In addition to a further demonstration of the SASB's utility for research purposes, the present study also suggests how this system can be used for treatment purposes with dependents and self-critics. Therapists can use the SASB to help clients identify particular interpersonal patterns which help explain reasons for entering or remaining in poor or harmful relationships (Benjamin, 1982). For instance, dependents might be shown to desire mates who will be submissive like their parents, thus allowing them to maintain familiar and reassuring behaviours which were adaptive in the past (Benjamin, 1984). The therapist could explain that these individuals' negative introjections indicate that their interpersonal strategy is not currently adaptive. For example, a dependent who imposes unrealistically high demands for enmeshment and submissiveness on her partner might have her fear of rejection and abandonment set off by any signs of his trying to take autonomy (Mongrain, 1998); this fear might lead to incessant reassurance seeking, which serves to drive him farther away and, consequently, cause or exacerbate a depressive episode (Coyne et al., 1991). For a male self-critic, a therapist can forward the notion that responding to his belittling partner by expressing his love and joyfully connecting to her may "pull" her from the bottom left octant of the SASB to a more

affiliative position, that is, in the right half of the SASB (see Figure 1; Benjamin, 1974, 1995).<sup>18</sup>

### **Limitations**

The first limitation of this study is the reliance on self-report measures. Corroboration of the findings from objective sources would be desirable. Moreover, although research generally supports the contention that “recall of significant past events does not appear to be affected by mood state” (Brewin, Andrews, & Gotlib, 1993, p. 94; see also Blatt & Zuroff, 1992), mood biases in perceptions of significant others’ behaviours are still possible (Segal, 1988; Lewinsohn & Rosenbaum, 1987). To counter this problem, mood was statistically controlled for. Unfortunately, given the high correlation between depression and Self-criticism, partialling out the former variable greatly reduced the predictive power of the latter one. Negative mood in self-critics is not restricted to this study, but instead appears to be a persistent trait in these individuals (see Blatt & Zuroff, 1992). Depression thus likely plays an important role in self-critics’ choice of mates and ongoing interactions, so relevant information was undoubtedly lost.<sup>19</sup> Nevertheless, despite controlling for mood and employing a conservative alpha level, the study revealed interesting findings pertaining to Dependency and Self-criticism.

---

<sup>18</sup>This invokes the SASB principle of interpersonal antithesis, which involves members of the dyad occupying opposite complementary positions on the SASB; the antithesis of “Belittling/Blaming” is thus “Disclosing/Expressing” (see Figure 1 and Footnote 5). Benjamin (1982, 1984) also discusses conditions under which employing an antithetical strategy may be unwise.

<sup>19</sup>In fact, when the data were re-analyzed while not controlling for level of depression, numerous significant findings pertaining to Self-criticism that had previously been nonsignificant or marginally significant were observed. Each of these new findings was in accord with the study’s hypotheses. Moreover, only one of the findings with respect to parenting styles changed, supporting the contention that retrospective reports are relatively immune to current mood.

Another methodological limitation is the instructions for participants to "indicate how well each statement [on the SASB] typically characterizes" their significant others. Benjamin (1995) recommends that respondents complete the SASB for each significant other twice, once at their best and once at their worst. This procedure is intended to account for the volatility often present in troublesome relationships. Given the number of questionnaires involved in the present study, a single administration was adopted. It was believed that this procedure would still allow for a characteristic depiction of participants' relationships. Moreover, because depression was controlled for, the probability of current mood biasing recollections was decreased. Nonetheless, compared with Benjamin's (1995) recommended administration of the SASB, the present methodology may have failed to tap important information regarding participants' relationships with significant others.

Despite the SASB's demonstrated advantages, the short-form's questions pertaining to significant others' controlling behaviours may not be well-suited to capture the hypothesized controlling styles of self-critics' and dependents' parents. For example, an exploration of the SASB's specific items revealed that Self-criticism predicted descriptions of both a mother and father who "put down, blamed, and punished" participants. This statement depicts the hypothesized "controlling, intrusive, punitive, excessively critical, and judgmental" parents of self-critics (Blatt & Shichman, 1983, p. 207). It also corresponds to the "Belittling/Blaming" octant of the SASB (see Figure 1). However, this item is not weighed heavily in the calculation of the SASB Control pattern coefficient, so a potential relationship between Self-criticism and controlling parents was obscured.



As for Dependency, parents are theorized to employ strict control by “manipulating the expression of care and affection” (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992, p. 544), which they make contingent on the child’s displays of love and obedience (see McCranie & Bass, 1984). Along these lines, dependents expect that friendly and submissive behaviours will be met with positive, accepting, and warm responses from mother and father (Mongrain, 1998). This type of dynamic is not well captured by the SASB Control items and may not have been assessed adequately.

Finally, the long form of the SASB contains many more specific items which might better capture parenting styles theorized to relate to Dependency and Self-criticism, and which carry more weight in the calculation of the Control pattern coefficient (e.g., Benjamin, 1974). Examples include enforcing conformity, intruding, blocking, resisting, pampering, and overindulging. However, the number of questionnaires required for the present study precluded administering the long form.

A related problem stemming from time constraints was that participants completed SASB questionnaires for their significant others, but not for themselves. It would be informative to learn how these participants contribute to their larger interpersonal environments. Such responses would also allow for further applications of the SASB concepts of identification and recapitulation, and interpersonal similarity, complementarity, and antithesis.

Another issue related to questionnaires pertains to the SAAS that was developed for this study. The SAAS was intended to capture respective self-images related to anaclitic and introjective depression and personality styles, as described in the relevant literature, along with their positive counterparts. However, the scales failed to

distinguish between these two dimensions, and were consequently combined to form global negative and positive self-images. These results can be interpreted as failure to provide support for the distinct phenomenological experiences associated with each personality style (Blatt, 1974; Blatt & Shichman, 1983). Or, this problem might have resulted from the use of a non-clinical sample. That is, the relationships of participants not scoring in the extreme ranges of Dependency and Self-criticism may not be maladaptive enough to lead these individuals to endorse particular responses strongly enough to differentiate one scale from the other. It should also be noted that participants were asked to list any additional words to describe their cognitive-affective reactions to significant others. Among the very few responses provided, no common descriptors emerged, implying that the SAAS items adequately represented participants' self-images.

The following limitations relate to the choice of participants for this study. First, the data were obtained from a university sample. This sample is potentially problematic because university students on a whole are motivated to succeed and may thus be more "self-critical" than the general population. Conversely, it has been argued that such students comprise a special population that generally has many advantages over both depressed and non-depressed populations, including higher intelligence, better socio-economic statuses, and brighter futures (Coyne, 1994); as Nolen-Hoeksema states with respect to female university students, "[they] are self-selected for positive mental health" (1987, p. 265). Therefore, one must be cautious when trying to generalize the current results to either the general population or individuals with clinically significant levels of Dependency or Self-criticism.

Caution must also be employed in generalizing these data because of the ethnic diversity and reported sexual orientation of the participants. That is, results were not categorized based on individuals' ethnic or cultural background. However, such factors may have influenced participants' interpretation of questions and responses on the questionnaires. Similarly, one can not be certain that results from one ethnocultural group represent or approximate those from another group. Moreover, only one participant reported being in a homosexual relationship. Therefore, this study may not address associations among Dependency, Self-criticism, parental perceptions, and romantic relations of homosexual individuals.

Finally, although the data mostly did not differ as a function of relationship status or duration of such relations, one must still consider the possibility that these variables influenced participants' moods or responses to questionnaires. Along these lines, the mean duration of current relationships was 20 months, with the longest one being 78 months. It is possible that older people in longer-term relationships would provide significantly different results from those of first-year university students.

### **Future Directions**

This study used self-reports of students with varying degrees of Dependency and Self-criticism to examine their perceptions of past and present interactions with significant others. Intriguing results relating to Self-criticism and self-verification theory were obtained, especially the finding that self-critical males may not seek loving and validating relationships. Future studies should thus continue to investigate the strategies these individuals employ to ensure confirmation of their negative self-views. Further research also needs to be conducted on the interpersonal styles of dependents' parents.

The results to date have been equivocal, and the current data did not clarify this issue. The study's use of SASB introject questionnaires did, however, help show possible problems associated with relying on only dependents' perceptions of past interactions with mother and father to assess parenting styles related to the development of this personality trait. Perhaps directly questioning parents and siblings of dependents on child-rearing practices in the family will help explain why these individuals report such negative self-directed attitudes and behaviours, even when mood was controlled for.

A related avenue of research involves obtaining reports from significant others, as well as objective ratings of each person's behaviours, along the SASB dimensions. This strategy would allow one to compare directly how each member of a relationship dyad perceives ongoing interactions. Such comparisons might shed some light on actual partner characteristics, as well as perceptual distortions, which would provide a more complete picture of the relationship dynamics associated with Dependency and Self-criticism.

Future research should also recognize a recent distinction made with regard to the existence of two distinct forms of Dependency, mature and immature (Blatt, Zohar, Quinlan, Zuroff, & Mongrain, 1995; Rude & Burnham, 1995). The former type is related to connectedness and healthier outcomes in interpersonal relations, while the latter is associated with neediness, submissiveness, and depression (Blatt et al., 1995). Dependents displaying these immature behaviours are more likely to be seen in a negative light by their significant others, who might then react in such a way as to foster dependents' fear of rejection (Mongrain, 1998).

Finally, the study revealed several similarities between dependents' and self-critics' perceptions of their parents' interpersonal behaviours and how they would want their ideal mate to treat them.<sup>20</sup> Together with SASB and self-confirmation theories, such findings suggest that early interactions with parents have at least a partial impact on later choices of romantic partners. It remains to be seen whether this possible underlying process also applies to other relationships of varying degrees of intimacy and importance (e.g., long-term mates, neighbours, friends of the same and opposite sex); likewise, this question should be addressed with respect to people of different ages, ethnocultural backgrounds, and sexual orientations. Verification of this theory would serve as strong support for the notion that personality factors or self-schemas have strong, enduring, general influences on social behaviours across situations.

---

<sup>20</sup>Although, for self-critics, the finding for ideal mates was only marginally significant.

## References

- Ainsworth, M. D., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation. NJ: Erlbaum.
- Andrews, J. D. W. (1989). Psychotherapy of depression: A self-confirmation model. Psychological Review, 96, 576-607.
- Arieti, S., & Bemporad, J. (1980). The psychological organization of depression. American Journal of Psychiatry, 137, 1360-1365.
- Baldwin, M. W. (1992). Relational schemas and the processing of social information. Psychological Bulletin, 112, 461-484.
- Bargh, J. A. (1992). The ecology of automaticity: Toward establishing the conditions needed to produce automatic processing effects. American Journal of Psychology, 105, 181-199.
- Bartholomew, K., & Horowitz, L. M. (1991). Attachment styles among young adults: A test of a four category model. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61, 226-244.
- Beck, A. T. (1983). Cognitive therapy of depression: New perspectives. In P.J. Clayton & J.E. Barrett (Eds.), Treatment of depression: Old controversies and new approaches (pp. 265-290). New York: Raven.
- Beck, A. T., (1996). BDI-II, Beck Depression Inventory: Manual. Boston: Harcourt Brace.
- Beck, A. T., Rush, A. J., Shaw, B. F., & Emery, G. (1979). Cognitive theory of depression. New York: Guilford.

Beck, A. T, & Steer, R. A. (1987). Manual for the Beck Depression Inventory. San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation.

Beck, A. T, & Steer, R. A. (1988). Manual for the Beck Hopelessness Scale. San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation.

Beck, A. T, & Steer, R. A. (1991). Beck Scale for Suicide Ideation. San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation.

Beck, A. T, Steer, R. A., & Brown, G. K. (1996). Manual for the Beck Depression Inventory-II. San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation.

Beck, A. T., Steer, R. A., & Garbin, M. G. (1988). Psychometric properties of the Beck Depression Inventory: Twenty-five years of evaluation. Clinical Psychology Review, 8, 77-100.

Beck, A. T., Ward, C. H., Mendelson, M., Mock, J. E., & Erbaugh, J. K. (1961). An inventory for measuring depression. Archives of General Psychiatry, 4, 561-571.

Benjamin, L. S. (1974). Structural Analysis of Social Behavior. Psychological Review, 81, 392-425.

Benjamin, L. S. (1980). INTREX users manual, Parts. I and II. Madison: INTREX Interpersonal Institute, Incorporated.

Benjamin, L. S. (1982). Use of structural analysis of social behavior (SASB) to guide intervention in psychotherapy. In J. Anchin & D. Kiesler (Eds.), Handbook of interpersonal psychotherapy (pp. 190-212). Elmsford, New York: Pergamon Press.

Benjamin, L. S. (1984). Principles of prediction using Structural Analysis of Social Behavior. In R. A. Zucker, J. Aronoff, & A. J. Rabin (Eds.), Personality and the prediction of behavior (pp. 121-173). New York: Guilford.

- Benjamin, L. S. (1993a). Every psychopathology is a gift of love. Psychotherapy Research, 3, 1-24.
- Benjamin, L. S. (1993b). Interpersonal diagnosis and treatment of personality disorders. New York: Guilford Press.
- Benjamin, L. S. (1994). SASB: A bridge between personality theory and clinical psychology. Psychological Inquiry, 5, 273-316.
- Benjamin, L. S. (1995). SASB Intrex Short Form user's manual. University of Utah.
- Benjamin, L. S. (1996). Introduction to the special section on Structural Analysis of Social Behavior. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64, 1203-1212.
- Benjamin, L. S., & Wonderlich, S. (1994). Social Perceptions and borderline personality disorder: The relationship to mood disorders. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 103, 610-624.
- Billings, A. G., & Moos, R. H. (1984). Coping, stress, and social resources among adults with unipolar depression. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46, 877-891.
- Blaney, P. H., & Kutcher, G. S. (1991). Measures of depressive dimensions: Are they interchangeable? Journal of Personality Assessment, 56, 502-512.
- Blatt, S. J. (1974). Levels of object representation in anaclitic and introjective depression. Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 29, 107-157.
- Blatt, S. J., D'Afflitti, J. P., & Quinlan, D. M. (1976) Experiences of depression in normal young adults. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 85, 383-389.



Blatt, S. J., & Homann, E. (1992). Parent-child interaction in the etiology of depression. Clinical Psychology Review, 12, 47-91.

Blatt, S. J., & Maroudas, C. (1992). Convergence of psychoanalytic and cognitive behavioral theories of depression. Psychoanalytic Psychology, 9, 157-190.

Blatt, S. J., Quinlan, D. M., Chevron, E. S., McDonald, C., & Zuroff, D. (1982). Dependency and Self-criticism: Psychological dimensions of depression. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 150, 113-124.

Blatt, S. J., & Shichman, S. (1983). Two primary configurations of psychopathology. Psychoanalysis and Contemporary Thought, 6, 187-254.

Blatt, S. J., Zohar, A. H., Quinlan, D. M., Zuroff, D. C., & Mongrain, M. (1995). Subscales within the Dependency factor of the Depressive Experiences Questionnaire. Journal of Personality Assessment, 64, 319-339.

Blatt, S. J., & Zuroff, D. C. (1992). Interpersonal relatedness and self-definition: Two prototypes for depression. Clinical Psychology Review, 12, 527-562.

Bower, G. H. (1981). Mood and memory. American Psychologist, 36, 129-148.

Bowlby, J. (1982). Attachment and loss. London: Hogarth.

Brewin, C. R., Andrews, B., & Gotlib, I. H. (1993). Psychopathology and early experience: A reappraisal of retrospective reports. Psychological Bulletin, 113, 82-98.

Brewin, C. R., & Firth-Cozens, J. (1997). Dependency and Self-criticism as predictors of depression in young doctors. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 2, 242-246.

Brown, G. W., Bifulco, A., Harris, T., & Bridge, L. (1986). Life stress, chronic subclinical symptoms and vulnerability to clinical depression. Journal of Affective Disorders, 11, 1-19.

Brown, G. W., & Harris, T. (Eds.). (1978). Social origins of depression: A study of psychiatric disorder in women. New York: Free Press.

Bumbery, W., Oliver, J. M., & McClure, J. N. (1978). Validation of the Beck Depression Inventory in a university population using psychiatric estimate as the criterion. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 46, 150-155.

Coates, D., & Wortman, C. D. (1980). Depression maintenance and interpersonal control. In A. Baum & J. E. Singer (Eds.), Advances in environmental psychology (pp. 149-182). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cohen, S., Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. Psychological Bulletin, 98, 310-357.

Coyne, J. C. (1976). Toward an interactional description of depression. Psychiatry, 39, 28-40.

Coyne, J. C. (1994). Self-reported depression: Analog or ersatz depression? Psychological Bulletin, 116, 29-45.

Coyne, J. C., Burchill, S. A. L., & Stiles, W. B. (1991). An interactional perspective on depression. In C. R. Snyder & D. R. Forsyth (Eds.), Handbook of social and clinical psychology: The health perspective (pp. 327-349). New York: Pergamon Press.

Coyne, J. C., & DeLongis, A. (1986). Going beyond social support: The role of social relationships in adaptation. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 54, 454-460.

Coyne, J. C., & Gotlib, I. H. (1983). The role of cognition in depression: A critical appraisal. Psychological Bulletin, 94, 472-505.

Coyne, J. C., & Whiffen, I. H. (1995). The role of cognition in depression: A critical appraisal. Psychological Bulletin, 118, 358-378.

Dobson, K. S. (1985). The relationship between anxiety and depression. Clinical Psychology Review, 3, 307-324.

Freedman, M. B., Leary, T. F., Ossorio, A. G., & Coffey, H. S. (1951). The interpersonal dimension of personality. Journal of Personality, 20, 143-161.

Giesler, R. B., Josephs, R. A., & Swann, W. B., Jr. (1996). Self-verification in clinical depression: The desire for negative evaluation. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 105, 358-368.

Giesler, R. B., & Swann, W. B., Jr. (1999). Striving for confirmation: The role of self-verification in depression. In T. Joiner & J. C. Coyne (Eds.), The interactional nature of depression: Advances in interpersonal approaches (pp. 189-217). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Gotlib, I. H., & Hammen, C. L. (1992). Psychological aspects of depression: Toward a cognitive-interpersonal integration. Chichester, England: John Wiley.

Greenberg, L. S., Rice, L. N., & Elliott, R. (1993). Facilitating emotional change. The moment-by-moment process. New York: The Guilford Press.

Hamilton, M. (1959). The assessment of anxiety states by rating. British Journal of Medical Psychology, 32, 50-55.

Hamilton, M. (1960). A rating scale for depression. Journal of Neurology and Neurological Psychiatry, 23, 56-62.

Hammen, C. (1999). The emergence of an interpersonal approach to depression. In T. Joiner & J. C. Coyne (Eds.), The interactional nature of depression: Advances in interpersonal approaches (pp. 21-35). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. (1987). Conceptualizing romantic love as an attachment process. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52, 511-524.

Henry, W. P., Schacht, T. E., & Strupp, H. H. (1986). Structural analysis of social behavior: Application to a study of interpersonal process in differential psychotherapeutic outcome. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 54, 190-195.

Hooley, J. M., Orley, J., & Teasdale, J. D. (1986). Levels of expressed emotion and relapse in depressed patients. British Journal of Psychiatry, 148, 642-647.

Horowitz, M. J. (1989). Relationship schema formulation: Role-relationship models and intrapsychic conflict. Psychiatry, 52, 260-274.

Humphrey, L. L. (1986). Structural analysis of parent-child relationships in eating disorders. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 95, 395-402.

Kahn, J., Coyne, J. C., & Margolin, G. (1985). Depression and marital conflict: The social construction of despair. Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 2, 447-462.

Klein, D. A., Harding, K., Taylor, E. B., & Dickstein, S. (1988). Dependency and self-criticism in depression: Evaluation in a clinical population. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 97, 399-404.

Koestner, R., Zuroff, D. C., & Powers, T. A. (1991). The family origins of adolescent Self-criticism and its continuity into adulthood. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 100, 191-197.

Laird, H. (1987). Complementarity as a function of stage in therapy: An analysis of Minuchin's Structural Family Therapy. Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 13, 127-137.

Leary, T. (1957). Interpersonal diagnosis of personality: A functional theory and methodology for personality evaluation. New York: Ronald Press.

Lewinsohn, P. M., Hoberman, H. M., & Rosenbaum, M. (1988). A prospective study of risk factors for unipolar depression. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 97, 251-264.

Lewinsohn, P. M., & Rosenbaum, M. (1987). Recall of parental behavior by acute depressives, remitted depressives, and non-depressives. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52, 611-619.

McCann, C. D. (1990). Social factors in depression: The role of interpersonal expectancies. In C. D. McCann & N. S. Endler (Eds.), Depression: New directions in theory, research, and practice (pp. 157-185). Toronto, ON: Wall & Emerson.

McCranie, E. W., & Bass, J. D. (1984). Childhood family antecedents in Dependency and Self-criticism: Implications for depression. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 93, 3-8.

Mongrain, M. (1998). Parental representations and support-seeking behaviors related to Dependency and Self-criticism. Journal of Personality, 6, 151-173.

Mongrain, M., Vetteuse, L. C., Shuster, B., & Kendal, N. (1998). Perceptual biases, affect, and behavior in the relationships of dependents and self-critics. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75, 230-241.

Mongrain, M., & Zuroff, D. C. (1989). Cognitive vulnerability to depressed affect in dependent and self-critical college women. Journal of Personality Disorders, 3, 240-251.

Mongrain, M., & Zuroff, D. C. (1994). Ambivalence over emotional expression and negative life events: Mediators for depression in dependent and self-critical individuals. Personality and Individual Differences, 16, 447-458.

Mongrain, M., & Zuroff, D. C. (1995). Motivational and affective correlates of Dependency and Self-criticism. Personality and Individual Differences, 18, 347-354.

Morling, B., & Epstein, S. (1997). Compromises produced by the dialectic between self-verification and self-enhancement. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73, 1268-1283.

Nietzel, M. T., & Harris, M. J. (1990). Relationship of dependency and achievement/autonomy to depression. Clinical Psychology Review, 10, 279-297.

Ohman, K., & Armelius, K. (1990). Schizophrenic and borderline patients: introjection, relation to mother and symptoms. Acta Psychiatry Scandinavia, 81, 488-496.

Riley, W. T., & McCranie, E. W. (1990). The Depressive Experiences Questionnaire: Validity and psychological correlates in a clinical sample. Journal of Personality Assessment, 54, 523-533.

Robins, C. J., & Block, P. (1988). Personal vulnerability, life events, and depressive symptoms: A test of a specific interactional model. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54, 847-852.

Rosenfarb, I. S., Becker, J., Khan, A., & Mintz, J. (1994). Dependency, Self-criticism, and perceptions of socialization experiences. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 103, 669-675.

Rude, S. S., & Burnham, B. L. (1995). Connectedness and neediness: Factors of the DEQ and SAS dependency scales. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 19, 323-340.

Rudy, J. P., McLemore, C. W., & Gorsuch, R. L. (1985). Interpersonal behavior and therapeutic progress: Therapists and clients rate themselves and each other. Psychiatry: Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes, 48, 264-281.

Safran, J. D. (1990). Towards a refinement of cognitive therapy in light of interpersonal theory: 1. Theory. Clinical Psychology Review, 10, 87-105.

Segal, Z. V. (1988). Appraisal of the self-schema construct in cognitive models of depression. Psychological Bulletin, 103, 147-162.

Sullivan, H. S. (1953). The interpersonal theory of psychiatry. New York: Norton.

Swann, W. B., Jr. (1983). Self-verification: Bringing social reality into harmony with the self. In J. Suls & A. G. Greenwald (Eds.), Social psychological perspectives on the self (Vol. 2, pp. 33-66). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Swann, W. B., Jr., Hixon, J. G., & De La Ronde, C. (1992). Embracing the bitter "truth": Negative self-concepts and marital commitment. Psychological Science, 3, 118-121.

Swann, W. B., Jr., Stein-Seroussi, A., & Giesler, R. B. (1992). Why people self-verify. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 62, 392-401.

Swann, W. B., Jr., Wenzlaff, R. M., Krull, D. S., & Pelham, B. W. (1992). Allure of negative feedback: Self-verification strivings among depressed persons. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 101, 293-306.

Swann, W. B., Jr., Wenzlaff, R. M., & Tafarodi, R. W. (1992). Depression and the search for negative evaluations: More evidence for the role of self-verification strivings. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 101, 314-317.

Swift, W. J., Bushnell, N. J., Hanson, P., & Logemann, T. (1986). Self-concept in adolescent anorexics. Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry, 25, 826-835.

Vaughn, C. E., & Leff, J. (1976). The influence of family and social factors on the course of psychiatric illness. British Journal of Psychiatry, 129, 125-137.

Wachtel, P. L. (1977). Psychoanalysis and behavior therapy. New York: Basic Books.

Weissman, M. M. (1987). Advances in psychiatric epidemiology: Rates and risks for depression. American Journal of Public Health, 77, 445-451.

Weissman, A. N., & Beck, A. T. (1978). Development and validation of the Dysfunctional Attitude Scale: A preliminary investigation. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, Toronto, Canada.



West, S. G., Aiken, L. S., & Krull, J. L. (1996). Experimental personality designs: Analyzing categorical by continuous variable interactions. Journal of Personality, 64, 1-48.

Whiffen, V. E., & Sasseville, T. M. (1991). Dependency, Self-criticism, and recollections of parenting: Sex differences and the role of depressive affect. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 10, 121-133.

Wonderlich, S., Klein, M. H., & Council, J. R. (1996). Relationship of social perceptions and self-concept in bulimia nervosa. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64, 1231-1237.

Zuroff, D. C., & de Lorimier, S. (1989). Ideal and actual romantic partners of women varying in Dependency and Self-criticism. Journal of Personality, 57, 825-846.

Zuroff, D. C., & Duncan, N. (in press). Self-criticism and conflict resolution in romantic couples. Canadian Journal of Behavioural Sciences.

Zuroff, D. C., Igreja, I., & Mongrain, M. (1990). Dysfunctional attitudes, Dependency, and Self-criticism as predictors of depressive mood states: a 12-month longitudinal study. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 14, 315-326.

Zuroff, D. C., & Fitzpatrick, D. K. (1995). Depressive personality styles: Implications for adult attachment. Personality and Individual Differences, 18, 253-265.

Zuroff, D. C., & Mongrain, M. (1987). Dependency and Self-criticism: vulnerability factors for depressive affective states. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 96, 14-22.

Zuroff, D. C., Moskowitz, D. S., & Cote, S. (1999). Dependency, self-criticism, interpersonal behaviour, and affect: Evolutionary perspectives. British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 38, 1-20.

Zuroff, D. C., Moskowitz, D. S., Wielgus, M. S., Powers, T. A., & Franko, D. L. (1983). Construct validation of the Dependency and Self-criticism scales of the Depressive Experiences Questionnaire. Journal of Research in Personality, 17, 226-241.

**Appendix A: Consent Form**

## CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY YORK UNIVERSITY

Title of Study: Introjected parental perceptions and choice of romantic partners in dependents and self-critics

Principal Investigator: Oren Amitay, B.Sc., Department of Psychology, York University  
Supervisor: Myriam Mongrain, Ph.D., Department of Psychology, York University

### PURPOSE

You are being asked to participate in a research project. The study investigates perceptions of and reactions to interactions with parents and romantic partners, as well as choice of and satisfaction with these partners.

### PROCEDURES

If you decide to volunteer, you will participate in two sessions which will last about one hour each; during these sessions you will be asked to fill out some questionnaires.

### RISKS

The questionnaires might invoke some strong emotions. However, any discomfort should be short-lived. If you need additional help, the principal investigator can be consulted.

### BENEFITS/COMPENSATION

You may gain a better understanding of your interactions with your parents and significant others. You will also earn 2% credit toward your grade in Introduction to Psychology.

### CONFIDENTIALITY

All information provided to us will be kept under strict confidentiality. Your name will not appear with any of the responses you provide to us on the questionnaires, which will be viewed by only research assistants.

### RIGHT TO REFUSE

If you agree to participate, but then change your mind, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. You are under no obligation to fill out questions that you find uncomfortable or embarrassing to answer.

### QUESTIONS

If you have any questions, you may call Oren Amitay at 778-9767.

YOUR SIGNATURE BELOW WILL INDICATE THAT YOU HAVE DECIDED TO VOLUNTEER AS A RESEARCH PARTICIPANT AND THAT YOU HAVE READ AND UNDERSTOOD THE INFORMATION PROVIDED ABOVE.

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Sex: \_\_\_\_\_

Cultural/Ethnic background: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of investigator

**Appendix B: The Beck Depression Inventory-II**

## BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY-II

**Instructions:** This questionnaire consists of 21 groups of statements. Please read each group of statements carefully, and then pick out the **one statement** in each group that best describes the way you have been feeling during the **past two weeks, including today**. Circle the number beside the statement you have picked. If several statements in the group seem to apply equally well, circle the highest number for that group. Be sure that you do not choose more than one statement for any group, including Item 16 or Item 18.

**1. Sadness**

- 0 I do not feel sad.
- 1 I feel sad much of the time.
- 2 I am sad all the time.
- 3 I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it.

**2. Pessimism**

- 0 I am not discouraged about my future.
- 1 I feel more discouraged about my future than I used to be.
- 2 I do not expect things to work out for me.
- 3 I feel my future is hopeless and will only get worse.

**3. Past Failure**

- 0 I do not feel like a failure.
- 1 I have failed more than I should have.
- 2 As I look back, I see a lot of failures.
- 3 I feel I am a total failure as a person.

**4. Loss of Pleasure**

- 0 I get as much pleasure as I ever did from the things I enjoy.
- 1 I don't enjoy things as much as I used to.
- 2 I get very little pleasure from the things I used to enjoy.
- 3 I can't get any pleasure from the things I used to enjoy.

**5. Guilty Feelings**

- 0 I don't feel particularly guilty.
- 1 I feel guilty over many things I have done or should have done.
- 2 I feel quite guilty most of the time.
- 3 I feel guilty all of the time.

**6. Punishment Feelings**

- 0 I don't feel I am being punished.
- 1 I feel I may be punished.
- 2 I expect to be punished.
- 3 I feel I am being punished.

**7. Self-Dislike**

- 0 I feel the same about myself as ever.
- 1 I have lost confidence in myself.
- 2 I am disappointed in myself.
- 3 I dislike myself.

**8. Self-Criticalness**

- 0 I don't criticize or blame myself more than usual.
- 1 I am more critical of myself than I used to be.
- 2 I criticize myself for all of my faults.
- 3 I blame myself for everything bad that happens.

**9. Suicidal Thoughts or Wishes**

- 0 I don't have any thoughts of killing myself.
- 1 I have thoughts of killing myself, but I would not carry them out.
- 2 I would like to kill myself.
- 3 I would kill myself if I had the chance.

**10. Crying**

- 0 I don't cry anymore than I used to.
- 1 I cry more than I used to.
- 2 I cry over every little thing.
- 3 I feel like crying, but I can't.

**11. Agitation**

- 0 I am no more restless or wound up than usual.
- 1 I feel more restless or wound up than usual.
- 2 I am so restless or agitated that it's hard to stay still.
- 3 I am so restless or agitated that I have to keep moving or doing something.

**12. Loss of Interest**

- 0 I have not lost interest in other people or activities.
- 1 I am less interested in other people or things than before.
- 2 I have lost most of my interest in other people or things.
- 3 It's hard to get interested in anything.

**13. Indecisiveness**

- 0 I make decisions about as well as ever.
- 1 I find it more difficult to make decisions than usual.
- 2 I have much greater difficulty in making decisions than I used to.
- 3 I have trouble making any decisions.

**14. Worthlessness**

- 0 I do not feel I am worthless.
- 1 I don't consider myself as worthwhile and useful as I used to.
- 2 I feel more worthless as compared to other people.
- 3 I feel utterly worthless.

**15. Loss of Energy**

- 0 I have as much energy as ever.
- 1 I have less energy than I used to have.
- 2 I don't have enough energy to do very much.
- 3 I don't have enough energy to do anything.

**16. Changes in Sleeping Pattern**

- 0 I have not experienced any change in my sleeping pattern.
- 1a I sleep somewhat more than usual.
- 1b I sleep somewhat less than usual.
- 2a I sleep a lot more than usual.
- 2b I sleep a lot less than usual.
- 3a I sleep most of the day.
- 3b I wake up 1-2 hours early and can't get back to sleep.

**17. Irritability**

- 0 I am no more irritable than usual.
- 1 I am more irritable than usual.
- 2 I am much more irritable than usual.
- 3 I am irritable all the time.

**18. Changes in Appetite**

- 0 I have not experienced any change in my appetite.
- 1a My appetite is somewhat less than usual.
- 1b My appetite is somewhat greater than usual.
- 2a My appetite is much less than before.
- 2b My appetite is much greater than usual.
- 3a I have no appetite at all.
- 3b I crave food all the time.



**19. Concentration Difficulty**

- 0 I can concentrate as well as ever.
- 1 I can't concentrate as well as usual.
- 2 It's hard to keep my mind on anything for very long.
- 3 I find I can't concentrate on anything.

**20. Tiredness or Fatigue**

- 0 I am no more tired or fatigued than usual.
- 1 I get more tired or fatigued more easily than usual.
- 2 I am too tired or fatigued to do a lot of the things I used to do.
- 3 I am too tired or fatigued to do most of the things I used to do.

**21. Loss of Interest in Sex**

- 0 I have not noticed any recent change in my interest in sex.
- 1 I am less interested in sex than I used to be.
- 2 I am much less interested in sex now.
- 3 I have lost interest in sex completely.

**Appendix C: The Depressive Experiences Questionnaire**

**DEQ**

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal characteristics and traits. Read each item and decide whether you agree or disagree and to what extent. If you strongly agree, circle 7; if you strongly disagree, circle 1; The midpoint, if you are neutral or undecided, is 4.

1=Strongly Disagree	5=Mildly Agree
2=Disagree	6=Agree
3=Mildly Disagree	7=Strongly Agree
4=Don't know or neutral	

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I set my personal goals and standards as high as possible.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. Without support from others who are close to me, I would be helpless.                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. I tend to be satisfied with my current plans and goals, rather than striving for higher goals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. Sometimes I feel very big, and other times I feel very small.                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. When I am closely involved with someone, I never feel jealous.                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. I urgently need things that only other people can provide.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. I often find that I don't live up to my own standards or ideals.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. I feel I am always making full use of my potential abilities.                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. The lack of permanence in human relationships doesn't bother me.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. If I fail to live up to expectations, I feel unworthy.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. Many times I feel helpless.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. I seldom worry about being criticized for things I have said or done.                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. There is a considerable difference between how I am now and how I would like to be.           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. I enjoy sharp competition with others.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

(c) Copyright: Sidney J. Blatt, Ph.D., Joseph P. D'Afflitti, Ph.D., Donald M. Quinlan, Ph.D., 1979.

1=Strongly Disagree

2=Disagree

3=Mildly Disagree

4=Don't know or neutral

5=Mildly Agree

6=Agree

7=Strongly Agree

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. I feel I have many responsibilities that I must meet.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. There are times when I feel "empty" inside.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. I tend not to be satisfied with what I have.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. I don't care whether or not I live up to what other people expect of me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19. I become frightened when I feel alone.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20. I would feel like I'd be losing an important part of myself if I lost a very close friend.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. People will accept me no matter how many mistakes I have made.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22. I have difficulty breaking off a relationship that is making me unhappy.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23. I often think about the danger of losing someone who is close to me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24. Other people have high expectations of me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25. When I am with others, I tend to devalue or "undersell" myself.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26. I am not very concerned with how other people respond to me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27. No matter how close a relationship between two people is, there is always a large amount of uncertainty and conflict. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28. I am very sensitive to others for signs of rejection.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29. It's important for my family that I succeed.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. Often, I feel I have disappointed others.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. If someone makes me angry, I let him (her) know how I feel.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. I constantly try, and very often go out of my way, to please or help people I am close to.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. I have many inner resources (abilities, strengths).   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

1=Strongly Disagree

2=Disagree

3=Mildly Disagree

4=Don't know or neutral

5=Mildly Agree

6=Agree

7=Strongly Agree

34. I find it very difficult to say "No" to the requests of friends. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. I never really feel secure in a close relationship. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36. The way I feel about myself frequently varies: there are times when I feel extremely good about myself and other times when I see only the bad in me and feel like a total failure. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37. Often, I feel threatened by change. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38. Even if the person who is closest to me were to leave, I could still "go it alone." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
39. One must continually work to gain love from another person: that is, love has to be earned. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
40. I am very sensitive to the effects my words or actions have on the feelings of other people. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
41. I often blame myself for things I have done or said to someone. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
42. I am a very independent person. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
43. I often feel guilty. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
44. I think of myself as a very complex person, one who has "many sides." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
45. I worry a lot at <sup>it</sup> offend , or hurting someone who is close to me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
46. Anger frightens me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
47. It is not "who you are," but "what you have accomplished" that counts. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
48. I feel good about myself whether I succeed or fail. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
49. I can easily put my own feelings and problems aside, and devote my complete attention to the feelings and problems of someone else. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
50. If someone I cared about became angry with me, I would feel threatened that he (she) might leave me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
51. I feel comfortable when I am given important responsibilities. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1=Strongly Disagree

2=Disagree

3=Mildly Disagree

4=Don't know or neutral

5=Mildly Agree

6=Agree

7=Strongly Agree

52. After a fight with a friend, I must make amends as soon as possible. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
53. I have a difficult time accepting weaknesses in myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
54. It is more important that I enjoy my work than it is for me to have my work approved. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
55. After an argument, I feel very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
56. In my relationships with others, I am very concerned about what they can give to me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
57. I rarely think about my family. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
58. Very frequently, my feelings toward someone close to me vary: there are times when I feel completely angry and other times when I feel all-loving towards that person. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
59. What I do and say has a very strong impact on those around me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
60. I sometimes feel that I am "special." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
61. I grew up in an extremely close family. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
62. I am very satisfied with myself and my accomplishments. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
63. I want many things from someone I am close to. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
64. I tend to be very critical of myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
65. Being alone doesn't bother me at all. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
66. I very frequently compare myself to standards or goals. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Appendix D: The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior—Parent's Form (Father)**

Please indicate how well each statement typically characterizes **YOUR FATHER** while you were growing up. There are no right or wrong answers, so please try to answer as honestly as possible. Please use this scale and circle the most accurate answer/number:

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

1. He let me speak freely, and warmly tried to understand me even if we disagreed.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

2. He walled himself off from me and didn't react much.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

3. He put me down, blamed me, punished me.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

4. Without giving it a second thought, he uncaringly ignored, neglected, abandoned me.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

5. He learned from me, relied upon me, accepted what I offered.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	



6. He happily, gently, very lovingly approached me, and warmly invited me to be as close as I wanted to be.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

7. With much sulking and fuming, he scurried to do what I wanted.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

8. He clearly and comfortably expressed his own thoughts and feelings to me.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

9. To keep things in good order, he took charge of everything and made me follow his rules.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

10. He thought, did, became whatever I wanted.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

11. He knew his own mind and "did his own thing" separately from me.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

12. Without worrying about the effects on me, he wildly, hatefully, destructively attacked me.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

13. With much kindness, he taught, protected, and took care of me.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

14. Without much worry, he left me free to do and be whatever I wanted.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

15. He relaxed, freely played, and enjoyed being with me as often as possible.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

16. With much fear and hate, he tried to hide or get away from me.

NEVER	ALWAYS									
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY									
<hr/>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

**Appendix E: The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior—Intrapsychic Scale**

Please indicate how well each statement typically characterizes how you act toward **YOURSELF**. There are no right or wrong answers, so please try to answer as honestly and accurately as possible. Please use this scale and circle the most accurate number/answer:

NEVER NOT AT ALL	ALWAYS PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

1. I let myself do whatever I feel like and don't worry about tomorrow.

NEVER NOT AT ALL	ALWAYS PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

2. Without thought about what might happen, I recklessly attack and angrily reject myself.

NEVER NOT AT ALL	ALWAYS PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

3. I very tenderly and lovingly appreciate and value myself.

NEVER NOT AT ALL	ALWAYS PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

4. I take good care of myself and work hard on making the most of myself.

NEVER NOT AT ALL	ALWAYS PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

5. I accuse and blame myself for being wrong or inferior.

NEVER NOT AT ALL	ALWAYS PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100	

6. With awareness of weaknesses as well as strengths, I like and accept myself "as is."

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

7. I carelessly let go of myself, and often get lost in an unrealistic dream world.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

8. To become perfect, I force myself to do things correctly.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

### **Appendix F: The Structural Analysis of Social**

**Appendix F: The Structural Analysis of Social  
Behavior—Romantic Partner's Form (Female)**

Please indicate how well each statement typically characterizes **THE SIGNIFICANT PARTNER** you just identified and your experiences during the relationship. There are no right or wrong answers, so please try to answer as honestly as possible. Please use this scale and circle the most accurate answer/number:

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90   100	

1. She let(s) me speak freely, and warmly tries/tried to understand me even if we disagree(d).

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90   100	

2. She walls/walled herself off from me and doesn't/didn't react much.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90   100	

3. She put(s) me down, blames/blamed me, punishes/punished me.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90   100	

4. Without giving it a second thought, she uncaringly ignores/ignored, neglects/neglected, abandons/abandoned me.

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90   100	

5. She learns/learned from me, relies/relied upon me, accepts/accepted what I offer(ed).

NEVER	ALWAYS
NOT AT ALL	PERFECTLY
<hr/> 0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90   100	

**Appendix G: The Structural Analysis of Social Behavior—**

**Ideal Mate's Form (Female)**



Please indicate how well each statement describes **YOUR IDEAL GIRLFRIEND**. Some of the statements might seem odd, but they must be included to keep the questionnaires consistent. So please answer them as accurately as you can, even if they don't seem applicable. There are no right or wrong answers, so please try to answer as honestly as possible. Please use this scale and circle the most accurate answer/number.

NEVER  
NOT AT ALL

ALWAYS  
PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

1. She would let me speak freely, and warmly try to understand me even if we disagreed.

NEVER  
NOT AT ALL

ALWAYS  
PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

2. She would wall herself off from me and wouldn't react much.

NEVER  
NOT AT ALL

ALWAYS  
PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

3. She would put me down, blame me, punish me.

NEVER  
NOT AT ALL

ALWAYS  
PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

4. Without giving it a second thought, she would uncaringly ignore, neglect, abandon me.

NEVER  
NOT AT ALL

ALWAYS  
PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

5. She would learn from me, rely upon me, accept what I offered.

NEVER  
NOT AT ALL

ALWAYS  
PERFECTLY

---

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

**Appendix H: The Self-referent Affective Adjective Scale—Parent's Form (Father)**

Please indicate how you felt when **YOUR FATHER** interacted with you as you indicated in the preceding questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers, so please try to answer as honestly as possible. Answer each item as accurately as you can by placing a number beside each one as follows:

1 = Rarely or none of the time

2 = A little of the time

3 = Some of the time

4 = Good part of the time

5 = Most or all of the time

abandoned	_____	accepted	_____
alone	_____	cared for	_____
blameworthy	_____	competent	_____
critical of self	_____	content	_____
dissatisfied with self	_____	connected	_____
guilty	_____	important	_____
helpless	_____	loved	_____
insecure	_____	nurtured	_____
incompetent	_____	praiseworthy	_____
inferior	_____	proud	_____
insignificant	_____	respected	_____
like a failure	_____	secure	_____
lonely	_____	self-accepting	_____
neglected	_____	successful	_____
rejected	_____	supported	_____
unloved	_____	surrounded	_____
unwanted	_____	wanted	_____
worthless	_____	worthy	_____

**Appendix I: The Self-referent Affective Adjective Scale—Romantic Partner's Form**

Please indicate how you feel/felt when **THE SIGNIFICANT PARTNER** you identified interacts/ed with you as you indicated in the preceding questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers, so please try to answer as honestly as possible. Answer each item as accurately as you can by placing a number beside each one as follows:

1 = Rarely or none of the time

2 = A little of the time

3 = Some of the time

4 = Good part of the time

5 = Most or all of the time

abandoned	_____	accepted	_____
alone	_____	cared for	_____
blameworthy	_____	competent	_____
critical of self	_____	content	_____
dissatisfied with self	_____	connected	_____
guilty	_____	important	_____
helpless	_____	loved	_____
insecure	_____	nurtured	_____
incompetent	_____	praiseworthy	_____
inferior	_____	proud	_____
insignificant	_____	respected	_____
like a failure	_____	secure	_____
lonely	_____	self-accepting	_____
neglected	_____	successful	_____
rejected	_____	supported	_____
unloved	_____	surrounded	_____
unwanted	_____	wanted	_____
worthless	_____	worthy	_____

**Appendix J: The Self-referent Affective Adjective**

**Scale—Ideal Mate's Form (Female)**

Please indicate how you would like to feel if **YOUR IDEAL GIRLFRIEND** interacted with you the way you indicated in the preceding questionnaire. Some of the choices might appear odd, but they must be included to keep the questionnaires consistent. So please answer them as accurately as you would the other items. There are no right or wrong answers, so please try to answer as honestly as possible. Answer each item as accurately as you can by placing a number beside each one as follows:

- 1 = Rarely or none of the time
- 2 = A little of the time
- 3 = Some of the time
- 4 = Good part of the time
- 5 = Most or all of the time

abandoned	_____	accepted	_____
alone	_____	cared for	_____
blameworthy	_____	competent	_____
critical of self	_____	content	_____
dissatisfied with self	_____	connected	_____
guilty	_____	important	_____
helpless	_____	loved	_____
insecure	_____	nurtured	_____
incompetent	_____	praiseworthy	_____
inferior	_____	proud	_____
insignificant	_____	respected	_____
like a failure	_____	secure	_____
lonely	_____	self-accepting	_____
neglected	_____	successful	_____
rejected	_____	supported	_____
unloved	_____	surrounded	_____
unwanted	_____	wanted	_____
worthless	_____	worthy	_____