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ADOLESCENT GENDER MISTRUST: VARIATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE QUALITY OF ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

Recent research demonstrates perceptions of gender mistrust are implicated in lower marriage rates. Yet few quantitative studies have examined how gender mistrust may develop during adolescence and whether it influences the quality of subsequent romantic relationships. Analysis of three waves of the Toledo Adolescent Relationships Study (N = 1,106) indicates that socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, and family structure are related to adolescents' gender mistrust, but these associations are largely explained by parents' gender mistrust and parent-child relationship quality. Perceptions of gender mistrust are related to higher levels of passionate love, verbal conflict, and jealousy in adolescents' subsequent romantic relationships, especially for males. It appears that family processes influence the development of gender mistrust, which, in turn, influence conduct within romantic relationships.

Recent scholarship has focused on the damaging influence of gender mistrust—an absence of confidence about others' truthfulness and sincerity in intimate relationships—on union formation and stability. Several scholars have emphasized that gender mistrust may contribute to lower marriage rates and greater relationship instability in economically marginalized urban neighborhoods (e.g., Carlson, McLanahan, & England, 2004; Edin & Kefalas, 2005; Furstenberg, 2001; Waller & McLanahan, 2005). Others, however, suggest that this explanation for lower marriage rates among poor individuals calls for a more nuanced investigation (e.g., Burton, Cherlin, Winn, Estacion, & Holder-Taylor, 2009; Estacion & Cherlin, 2010). Although the association between gender mistrust and union formation and stability among disadvantaged populations has been demonstrated empirically (e.g., Carlson, McLanahan, & England, 2004), the extent to which gender mistrust is *unique* to low-income settings and the precursors of this attitude are unclear. Further, most research has focused on the influence of gender mistrust on transitions to marriage or cohabitation with inadequate attention to whether gender mistrust influences the quality of intimate relationships (see Carlson, 2007 for an exception). In addition, despite the importance of earlier stages of the life course for developing romantic relationship skills, research on gender mistrust has tended to focus on adult experiences, especially those who have already had children (see Anderson, 1989 for an exception). Research is needed that examines whether gender mistrust is associated with poorer quality of romantic relationships during adolescence and early adulthood and whether this association exists in general populations or is unique to low-income settings.

Using panel data from a sample of adolescents (M = 16 years) reflecting a range of socioeconomic backgrounds (the Toledo Adolescent Relationships Study, TARS), we assess adolescents' perceptions of gender mistrust. Drawing on ethnographic work describing

experiences of gender mistrust among inner city adults and social psychological research on the formation of general attitudes and interpersonal trust, we first examine factors that are related to adolescents' gender mistrust. We then evaluate whether gender mistrust is linked to the quality of youths' intimate relationships two years later. Our objective is to understand the role of gender mistrust in shaping intimate relationships as young people transition from adolescence to early adulthood.

BACKGROUND

Gender mistrust encompasses a range of attitudes and belies a single definition. As Ross, Mirowsky, and Pribesh (2001) have noted, it reflects generalized expectations about other people's behaviors in the domain of intimate relationships and has implications for how people make assumptions and conduct themselves in specific intimate relationships. Gender mistrust centers on an absence of faith in the intimate behavior of others and includes beliefs such as men "play" women to get sex; women get pregnant to trick men into relationships; and men and women cannot be trusted to remain sexually exclusive (Anderson, 1989; Edin, 2000; Rainwarter, 1970; Wilson, 1996). These cynical views about the trustworthiness of others in intimate relationships apply not only to the opposite sex, but to members of one's own gender as well. Examples include the view among men that other men generally view women as sex objects (Anderson, 1989; Furstenberg, 2001) or the belief among women that other women will try to steal an attractive partner.

Past studies on gender mistrust and the likelihood and stability of marriage have largely relied on family life fieldwork in economically disadvantaged communities. In the early 1960s, Rainwater (1970), who examined family life in an all-Black public housing project in St. Louis, Missouri, reported that the marital relationships he observed tended to involve spouses greatly

doubting whether they could depend on the other. He stated, “Many people comment that both the husband or wife can be disloyal or irresponsible; women say that men run in the streets too much and men say that women cannot be trusted to remain faithful” (p. 170). Wilson (1996), studying low-income communities in Chicago in the late 1980s, contended that Black women and men’s relationships are generally antagonistic—women and men are suspicious about their partners’ behavior and intentions (pp. 98 - 99). More recently, based on field studies of low-income single mothers in several cities from the early to late 1990s, Edin and colleagues concluded that gender mistrust is a major theme underlying women’s reasons for not marrying. Many women did not believe that men could be faithful to one woman and some women indicated that they had turned down marriage proposals because of this belief (Edin & Keflas, 2005). These women stated they would rather never marry than to “let them make a fool out of me” (Edin, 2000 p. 124). Relying on focus groups and informal conversations with poor single mothers and fathers in an inner-city neighborhood of Philadelphia, Furstenberg (2001) also noted that poor Black women and men commonly share a set of negative views of the opposite sex—e.g., men are immature and unreliable; and women expect too much of men and do not respect men—leading both genders to be wary about relationships. Similar views were expressed by women in a marriage education program in a medium-sized city in the Midwest, discussing how their own gender mistrust acts as a barrier to forming and sustaining healthy relationships (Manning, Trella, Lyons, & Du Toit, 2010).

A number of quantitative studies of unmarried parents have shown that gender mistrust has negative implications on union formation. Research using a sample of unmarried parents, the Fragile Families and Child Well-being Study (FFCW), uses the following items to measure gender mistrust: “Men [women] can’t be trusted to be faithful” and “In a dating relationship, a

man [woman] is out for one thing." Greater gender mistrust was associated with lower marital expectations (Waller & McLanahan, 2005) and lower odds of actually transitioning from being single to marriage or cohabitation (Carlson et al., 2004; Osborne, 2005; Waller & McLanahan, 2005). Estacion and Cherlin (2010), using data from the Three-City Study, another survey focused on economically disadvantaged mothers, found that greater gender mistrust was associated with currently not being in a relationship, although it was not related to women's total number of lifetime marital and cohabiting relationships or their desire to be in a steady relationship. Thus, at least among economically disadvantaged adult women, as evidenced by ethnographic and survey data, gender mistrust appears to affect relationship status.

Whereas most studies have focused on adults, Anderson's (1989) study illustrated similar patterns of cynical views of intimate relationships and their influences on the lack of stable relationships among inner-city poor youths aged 15 to 23. He concluded, "Young men without job prospects cling to the support offered by their peer groups and their mothers and shy from lasting relationships with girlfriends. In this situation, girls and boys alike scramble to take what they can from each other, trusting not in each other but often in their own ability to trick the other into giving them something that will establish or perpetuate their version of the good life, the best life they feel they can put together for themselves in the inner-city social environment" (p. 76).

Taken together, these qualitative and quantitative studies illustrate the phenomenon of gender mistrust among low-income men and women and its influence on the likelihood of union formation and its stability. Yet research has rarely examined whether mistrust is linked to actual communication and negative emotional experiences, such as jealousy and conflict. Further, it is unclear to what extent gender mistrust and its links to intimate relationships can be generalized

beyond low income settings and what factors are related to the development of this attitude. The purpose of the current study is to investigate these questions, focusing on adolescents and young adults. Investigating these questions at earlier stages of the life course may provide better understanding of the role of gender mistrust in influencing individuals' experiences of intimacy during adulthood. Using unique longitudinal data with rich information about romantic relationships, our work builds on the call by Burton and colleagues (2009) for "a longitudinal investigation that explicitly examines the antecedents of trust through childhood and adolescence" (p. 1123).

Factors Influencing Adolescent Gender Mistrust

Drawing on ethnographic studies of gender mistrust and social psychological research on the formation of general attitudes and interpersonal trust, we review how socioeconomic status (SES), race/ethnicity, family background, and adolescents and young adults' own experiences might influence the belief that people are not trustworthy in their intentions when becoming involved in intimate relationships.

Socioeconomic Status. Prior research has emphasized that gender mistrust is common among economically disadvantaged groups. Rainwater (1970) argued that adults in disadvantaged communities are mistrustful of other people as a result of growing up in an environment where people exploit one another as they compete for limited resources (p. 372). Ross, Mirowsky, and Pribesh (2001) also found that lack of economic resources and opportunities lead to neighborhood disorder, crime, and feelings of threat and danger, which, in turn, increased individuals' general sense of mistrust. Under such life circumstances, men and women also distrust intimate partners. As Furstenberg (2001) noted, although gender mistrust can be found in all socioeconomic statuses, men's poor employment prospects lead men to

greater substance use and more controlling behavior in intimate relationships, thus resulting in more pervasive gender mistrust in low-income settings. Defining general trust as "a positive cognitive bias in processing information about the trustworthiness of potential interaction partners" (p. 141), Yamaguchi (2001) argued that general trust reflects the extent to which people are willing to engage in "social risk-taking" (p. 145). He argued that educated individuals are more trusting in part because higher education provides individuals with enhanced cognitive skills to deal with negative information about the other person in an interaction. Consequently, educated individuals are able to successfully bank on the results of their higher social risk-taking (Yamaguchi, 2001). As such, we examine neighborhood poverty as a measure of community disadvantage and parents' levels of education as a measure of personal social advantage, and expect that higher socioeconomic status will be negatively associated with gender mistrust.

Race/ethnicity. Edin and colleagues (Edin, 2000; Edin & Keflas, 2005) found that gender mistrust was prevalent among individuals in low-income neighborhoods regardless of race/ethnicity. In contrast, other researchers have emphasized the role of race/ethnicity in influencing people's perceptions of gender mistrust. Rainwater (1970) argued that gender mistrust reflects racial oppression that constrains Blacks in low-income communities from developing the kind of community structure that provides local control and surveillance, often found in White, low-income neighborhoods (p. 167). The lack of community structure, in turn, led to an "anomic street system" that promotes a general sense of mistrust as well as mistrust in intimate relationships among poor Blacks. This argument is echoed by Wilson (1996) who maintained that mistrust was a distinct norm of gender relations among Black men and women, which he did not observe among Whites or Mexican immigrants in comparable economically disadvantaged contexts. Further, Estacion and Cherlin (2010) found that women of two Hispanic

groups of Caribbean origin, Dominicans and Puerto Ricans, were more likely than non-Hispanic White, non-Hispanic Black, and Mexican American women to report gender mistrust. Therefore, we examine whether race/ethnicity is related to adolescents' gender mistrust, and expect that Black and Hispanic, relative to White, adolescents will report greater gender mistrust.

Family. Parents shape young people's general attitudes toward gender and interpersonal trust in several ways. Bandura's (1977) social learning theory indicates that children learn by observing parental divorce that others are not trustworthy in the realm of intimate relationships. Edin (2000) described the process of vicarious learning from friends, relatives, and neighbors' experiences regarding the lack of reliable men. A negative association between parental divorce and children's trust in intimate partners exists in some studies (e.g., Johnson & Thomas, 1996; Sprague & Kinney, 1997), although others have found no association (e.g., Franklin, Janoff-Bulman, & Roberts, 1990; Southworth & Schwarz, 1987). King (2002), using a sample of adult children, found that offspring who experienced their parents' divorce reported greater mistrust in intimate relationships, but this association was explained by lack of parental warmth. Based on Bowlby (1979) and Erikson (1963), we expect that children who enjoy a warm, close relationship with parents are more trustful of other people, including potential intimate partners. In contrast, children whose relationships with parents are less warm or unsupportive may perceive other interpersonal relationships, including romantic partners, in a similar light.

Aside from the role of family structure and parent-child relationships, parents may directly influence children's views of romantic relationships via their own attitudes towards adolescents' romantic relationships. Research has shown that mothers' attitudes had greater influences than their behaviors on children's attitudes toward gender relations (Moen, Erickson, & Dempster-McClain, 1997; Thornton, Alwin, & Cambur, 1983). Poor Black women in

Furstenberg's (2001) focus group stated that they were told by their mothers from early childhood not to depend on a man because he could eventually leave them. Thus, parents' gender mistrust may have a direct influence on their children's gender mistrust, through a range of daily interactions with the child, regarding dating and involvement with the opposite sex.

Adolescents' experiences. The life course perspective on attitude formation suggests that individuals' life experiences, skills, and knowledge have greater implications for gender attitudes than do mothers' attitudes or behaviors (Moen, Erickson, & Dempster-McClain, 1997). As adolescents mature, they begin to develop their own human and cultural capital. Adolescents who are high achieving academically may develop attitudes about intimate relationships that are more positive. Adolescents' gender mistrust may also be influenced directly by such experiences as unreliable dating partners. Edin (2000) emphasized that women's mistrust of men was derived largely from personal experiences. King (2000) found that adult children's own experiences, such as experiences of failed marriage or cohabitation and current levels of intimate relationship happiness, were related to trust. Adolescents' sexual experiences (e.g., number of sexual partnerships and casual sex) influence early adult union transitions (Meier & Allen, 2009; Raley, Crissey, & Muller, 2007). We expect that early sexual experiences and sex outside of a committed relationship may contribute to the development of gender mistrust.

Gender differences. Edin and colleagues (Edin, 2000; Edin & Keflas, 2005), whose studies focused on women, argued that gender mistrust is more about women's than men's views. In contrast, other researchers (Anderson, 1989; Furstenberg, 2001; Rainwater, 1970) argued that men also mistrust women, which influences men's attitudes toward relationships and marriage. Analyses of the FFCW and the Three-City Study suggest that women generally express higher levels of gender mistrust than men (Estacion & Cherlin, 2010; Waller &

McLanahan 2005). In contrast, King (2002) did not find gender differences in trust among intimate partners. In addition to assessing whether there are gender differences in levels of mistrust, we examine whether women's and men's views of gender mistrust are influenced by different factors.

Does Gender Mistrust Influence the Quality of Romantic Relationship Experiences?

Gender mistrust may not only influence whether people form relationships, but may also influence the *quality* of intimate relationships. Yet there are relatively few studies focusing on gender mistrust and relationship quality. Carlson (2007), using the FFCW, found that mother's gender mistrust was related to reports of lower support and understanding of one's partner. Rainwater's (1970) ethnographic work described that spouses with greater mistrust often accused each other of excessive jealousy and attempting to restrict the other's freedom. Because dating is ubiquitous during adolescence, gender mistrust may not influence whether young people become involved in a dating relationship, but may be related to conduct within the romantic context. Anderson (1989) indicated that the poor young men he studied, who generally were deeply distrustful of women, would deliberately cause verbal conflict with partners to gain control in their relationships with sexual partners. It is important to investigate gender mistrust and intimate relationship quality during adolescence, as this is a formative period that may influence later adult decisions and conduct within adult unions.

We focus on five domains of relationship quality: communication, passionate love, jealousy, conflict, and commitment. Regarding communication, we assess the level of *intimate self-disclosure* that characterizes the relationship. As Jourard (1971) noted, sharing intimate details of life with a friend or partner is a 'barometer' of the state of the relationship and is an index of closeness. We expect that gender mistrust is associated with less self-disclosure.

Romantic love typically includes *passionate love*—strong feelings of attraction and frequent thoughts about the other (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986). The role of passion in relationship quality is not straightforward, however. Passionate love involves strong physical and emotional attractions, which can be accompanied by negative emotions such as anxiety and jealousy and is not likely to be long lasting (Sprecher & Regan, 1998). Based on findings by Rainwater (1970), Anderson (1989), and Furstenberg (2001), we expect gender mistrust is related to greater *jealousy* and *verbal conflict*. Finally, we expect that gender mistrust is associated with lower relationship *commitment*. In contrast to the immediacy of emotions associated with passionate love, commitment entails a belief in the future of the relationship, perceived ability to work through potential problems, and a greater 'stake' in the relationship (Shulman & Scharf, 2000). Because previous studies have found that women's, but not men's, gender mistrust is related to the odds unmarried couples marry (Carlson, McLanahan, & England, 2004; Waller & McLanahan, 2005), we expect that the associations between gender mistrust and commitment, as well as the other relationship qualities, will be stronger for female than male respondents.

CURRENT INVESTIGATION

The current study explores the development and influence of gender mistrust during adolescence. It extends prior work by examining the relationship between gender mistrust and the quality of youths' intimate relationships. First, we assess factors associated with adolescent girls' and boys' gender mistrust. Given the emphasis of prior research indicating that gender mistrust is more prevalent among economically disadvantaged groups, and perhaps among Black women and men, we evaluate how parents' SES, parental education, partnership status, and the quality of the parent-child relationship influence adolescents' gender mistrust. We also evaluate how adolescents' own past relationship experiences influence gender mistrust. Second, we examine

whether adolescents' gender mistrust is related to both the likelihood of dating and specific qualities of romantic relationships, such as the nature and intimacy of communication, feelings of passionate love, jealousy, conflict, and levels of commitment to the relationship. Drawing on past findings indicating that women's, but not men's, reports of gender mistrust were related to the likelihood that unmarried couples marry, we expect that the associations between gender mistrust and the qualities of romantic relationships may be greater for female than male respondents.

METHOD

Data

Data were drawn from the Toledo Adolescent Relationships Study (TARS), a longitudinal study of a stratified random sample of the year 2000 enrollment records of all youths registered for the 7th, 9th, and 11th grades in Lucas County, Ohio, a largely urban metropolitan area that includes the city of Toledo. The sample came from 62 schools across seven school districts, although respondents did not have to attend school to be in the sample. The sample, devised by the National Opinion Research Center, includes oversamples of Black and Hispanic adolescents. In the first interview (W1) conducted in 2001, 1,316 adolescents participated in the study. The second (W2) and third (W3) interviews were conducted in 2002 - 03 and 2004 - 05 respectively. In W3, 84% of the original sample (n = 1,114) were interviewed. Interviews were mostly conducted in the respondent's home using preloaded laptops to maintain privacy. Primary parents were administered a paper and pencil instrument in W1 only. Our analytic sample included the respondents who participated in all three waves of data collection (n = 1,110). We excluded respondents who had missing data on gender mistrust, resulting in a final sample size of N = 1,106 respondents (572 female and 534 male youths).

The TARS provided a unique opportunity to examine our research questions for several reasons. It included a sample of adolescents with a wide range of sociodemographic characteristics that were very similar to those of the nation, adolescents' and parents' general perceptions of gender mistrust, and detailed information about adolescents' dating and sexual experiences, including relationship qualities. The longitudinal design allowed us to examine the association between characteristics measured in W1 and gender mistrust in W2, and the association between gender mistrust in W2 and quality of romantic relationships in W3.

Dependent Variables

Adolescents' gender mistrust was measured in W2 as the mean of six questions (α = .69), including: (1) "Guys will say anything to get a girl;" (2) "Most guys are always 'hitting on' girls;" (3) "You can't trust most guys;" (4) "Most girls are too boy crazy;" (5) "Girls will often use a guy to make another guy jealous;" and (6) "You can't trust most girls around other guys." The responses range from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

Current dating status in W3 was measured by an ordered variable, which included not dating, dating less than one year, and dating for one year or more. Five qualities of the current or most recent dating relationship measured in W3 were examined. These include intimate self-disclosure, passionate love, verbal conflict, jealousy, and commitment. *Intimate self-disclosure* was the average of three questions (α = .99), regarding how often respondents talked to the partner about (1) something really bad that happened; (2) home life and family; and (3) private thoughts and feelings (1 = *never* to 5 = *very often*). *Passionate love* was the average of the following four questions (α = .92): (1) "I am very attracted to X"; (2) "The sight of X turns me on"; (3) "I would rather be with X than anyone else;" and (4) "X always seems to be on my mind." Responses range from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree (Hatfield & Sprecher,

1986). *Verbal conflict* was the average of two questions asking how often respondents and their partners (1) had disagreements and arguments; and (2) yelled or shouted at each other. Responses range from 1 = never to 5 = very often. *Jealousy* was measured with one item: "When X is around other guys [girls], I get jealous. Responses range from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. *Commitment* was the average of the following six items (α = .92): (1) "How important is your relationship with X?" (1 = not at all important to 5 = very important); (2) "How would you rate your current relationship with X?" (1 = not at all close to 5 = very close); (3) " I want this relationship to stay strong no matter what rough times we may encounter" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree); (4) " I believe we can handle whatever conflicts will arise in the future" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree); (5) "I am very confident when I think of our future together" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree); and (6) "We have the skills a couple needs to make a relationship work" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Independent and Control Variables

Gender was coded 1 for female and 0 for male respondents. SES was measured with two indicators. *Percent neighborhood poverty* was created using census data for the adolescents' residential block group determined by address at the time of the first interview. The *primary parent's education*, reported by the parent in W1, was categorized as less than high school, high school, some college, and college degree, with high school education as the reference category. *Race/ethnicity* was classified as non-Hispanic White, non-Hispanic Black, Hispanic, and other race or ethnicity, with non-Hispanic White used as the reference category.

The *primary parent's relationship to the adolescent* in W1 was measured as three dummy variables, including biological mother, mother figure, and biological father or father figure. *Primary parent's marital status* was measured in W1 by four dummy variables, including two-

biological parent, single, cohabiting, and stepfamily, with two-biological parents as the reference category. *Poor parent-child relationship* was measured in W1 as the average of four statements from adolescents' reports, including (α = .69): (1) "My parents sometimes put me down in front of other people;" (2) "My parents seem to wish I were a different type of person;" (3) "My parents are clueless about a lot of things I do;" and (4) "Sometimes I want to leave home" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). *Parent's gender mistrust* was measured in W1 as the mean of the following seven statements (α = .77): (1) "Boys are only after one thing;" (2) "girls are too aggressive nowadays;" (3) "I think some children have too much freedom to be around the opposite sex;" (4) "boys and girls play emotional games with each other;" (5) "I think some parents allow their children too much freedom to date;" (6) "It's better not to get too serious about one boy/girl in high school;" and (7) "Nowadays girls are too boy crazy" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). (Note that these questions focus on parents' views of heterosexual relationships among adolescents and not their views of adults' heterosexual relationships).

Adolescents' grades in school was measured in W1 and ranged from 1 = mostly F's to 9 = mostly A's. Past relationship experiences in W1 were indexed by past sexual experiences and mistrusting current or most recent partner. *Adolescents' sexual experiences* in W1 were measured by three dummy variables, including (1) never had sex; (2) have had sex, but only within a relationship; and (3) have ever had non-relationship sex. *Experiencing mistrust in the current or recent relationship* in W1 was measured by the following statement: "There are times when X cannot be trusted" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Those who answered "agree" or "strongly agree" were assigned 1s, whereas those who answered, "strongly disagree," "disagree," or "neither" and those who have never dated were assigned 0s. *Current dating status,*

measured in W1 and W3, included the following three dummy variables: not dating, dating less than one year, and dating for one year or more. All multivariable analyses control for *current adolescents' age* in W2 or W3.

Analytic Plan

We used ordinary least squares (OLS) regression or ordered logistic regression depending on the dependent measures. First, using the total sample, we examined how demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, family background, and adolescents' experiences measured in W1 were related to adolescents' gender mistrust in W2. We present four models in the tables, although additional alternative models were estimated. The first model examined structural influences, including gender, race/ethnicity, percent of neighborhood poverty, parental education, and family structure. The second model included parent-child relationship quality and parents' gender mistrust. The third model included adolescents' academic and dating experiences. In the forth model, we used interaction terms for gender and key explanatory variables to examine gender differences in predictors of adolescent gender mistrust. We present the results that were statistically significant. Second, we examined whether adolescents' gender mistrust in W2 was related to whether respondents were currently dating, dating less than one year, or dating for one year or more in W3. Two models were examined, with the second model examining gender differences. Last, using the subsample of adolescents who dated in the previous two years (n = 986), we examined how adolescents' gender mistrust in W2 was related to relationship quality (i.e., intimate self-disclosure, passionate love, jealousy, verbal conflict, and commitment) in W3. For each relationship quality measure, two models were examined, with the second model examining gender differences in the associations of gender mistrust and relationship qualities. We included current dating status as a control. Note that we examined the

same models with the sample that was restricted to those who were currently dating at the time of the interview only, as opposed to having dated in the previous two years, with similar patterns of findings.

Eighty-six respondents (7.7%) had missing data on one or more variables. Those who have missing data were more likely to be Black or Hispanic, to report lower grades, and to live in a poor neighborhood. To deal with missing data, we performed the multiple imputation (MI) method described by Allison (2002) using SAS with five imputations.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for all variables in the multivariate analyses. The mean age for respondents was 16.4 years in W2 and 18.2 years in W3. Female respondents composed 52% of the sample. The racial/ethnic composition included 64% White, 23% Black, 11% Hispanic, and 2% 'other' race respondents. The average percent of poverty in the residing census-block was 11.9. The majority of "primary parents" were biological mothers (85%), and their levels of education were 12% less than high school diploma, 31% high school diploma, 34% some education beyond high school diploma, and 23% four-year college degree or more. Forty-eight percent of primary parents were married two-biological parents, whereas 28% were single parents, 7% cohabiting parents, and 16% remarried parents. The average score for poor parent-child relationship was 2.30 (range = 1 to 5). The average score for parents' gender mistrust was 3.61 (range = 1 to 5). The average adolescent gender mistrust score in W2 was 3.37 (range = 1 to 5). At the time of the third wave interview, 51% of the adolescents were not currently dating, 30% were dating for less than one year, and 20% were dating for one year or more. Among those who reported dating in the past two years, the average scores for the five

measures of relationship qualities were 3.8 for self-disclosure, 3.8 for passionate love, 3.0 for jealousy, 2.8 for verbal conflict, and 3.8 for commitment (range = 1 to 5).

[Table 1 about here]

As expected, adolescents' reports of gender mistrust varied by gender, SES, and race/ethnicity at the bivariate level. Table 2 shows that adolescent girls were significantly more likely than boys to report gender mistrust. Whereas 27.1% of adolescent girls agreed or strongly agreed with all six gender mistrust items, only 12.4% of boys reported so. Moreover, the mean level of gender mistrust was significantly higher for adolescent girls relative to boys (3.48 and 3.25, respectively). The mean gender mistrust score was lower for adolescents who lived in neighborhoods with lower poverty rates. For example, the percentage of girls who agreed or strongly agreed with all six items indexing gender mistrust were 18.4% for the wealthiest neighborhoods compared to 38.5% for the poorest neighborhoods. Black, Hispanic, and youths from 'other' racial backgrounds reported greater gender mistrust relative to their White counterparts. About 45% of Black adolescent girls agreed or strongly agreed on all six items indexing gender mistrust, whereas about 21% of White and 24% of Hispanic adolescent girls reported so. Although adolescent girls reported greater gender mistrust than boys regardless of neighborhood poverty or race/ethnicity, the gender gap was greatest among Blacks; adolescent girls were almost three-times as likely as boys to agree or strongly agree with all six items indexing gender mistrust.

[Table 2 about here]

Factors Associated with Adolescent Gender Mistrust

Our first set of models examined whether gender, race/ethnicity, SES, parent-child interactions, and adolescents' relationship experiences, measured in W1, influence adolescents'

reports of gender mistrust in W2. The OLS regression results indicate that gender, race/ethnicity, SES, and family structure are significantly related to respondents' reports of gender mistrust in W2 (Model 1 in Table 3). Women were more likely than men to report gender mistrust. Black respondents and respondents from other racial backgrounds were more likely to report gender mistrust than were White respondents. Respondents who lived in poorer neighborhoods at the time of the first interview reported greater gender mistrust. Respondents whose parents had a college degree or more were less likely to report gender mistrust than were respondents whose parents have lower levels of education. Finally, adolescents whose parents were single or remarried in W1 were more likely than those with two biological married parents to report greater gender mistrust.

[Table 3 about here]

To assess whether earlier parent-child interactions influence adolescents' gender mistrust, Model 2 included quality of parent-child relationship and parents' own gender mistrust. Poor parent-child relationship quality was related to adolescents' gender mistrust. Parents' greater gender mistrust was also positively related to adolescents' greater gender mistrust. By including both variables in the model, the association between neighborhood poverty and adolescents' gender mistrust and the association between remarried parents and adolescents' gender mistrust was no longer significant, and the degree of the association between single parents and adolescents' gender mistrust declined. These results indicate that the influences of economically disadvantaged neighborhoods and family structure on adolescents' gender mistrust were largely mediated by the quality of the parent-child relationship and the parents' own feelings of gender mistrust, although these factors did not explain entirely the influence of single parents on adolescents' gender mistrust.

Model 3 examined the influence of respondents' academic and romantic experiences on subsequent gender mistrust. Respondents with higher grades at the earlier interview reported lower levels of gender mistrust. Adolescents' earlier reports of non-relationship sexual experiences were related to significantly greater gender mistrust. We found that distrust in a specific earlier relationship was related to greater gender mistrust. By including these variables, the association between family structure and respondents' gender mistrust was no longer statistically significant. In supplemental analyses (results not shown), we found that respondents who lived with single parents were more likely than those who lived with two-biological parents to have lower grades, have had non-relationship sex, and report that there were times when their partners couldn't be trusted. Furthermore, when any of these variables was included in the model, the association between single parents and adolescents' gender mistrust was not significant. These findings indicate that having single parents was related to a higher level of adolescent gender mistrust in part through adolescents' academic and relationship experiences in addition to poor parent-child relationship quality and parents' gender mistrust as found in Model 2.

We tested for gender differences in the associations of all explanatory variables and present only significant results. As presented in Model 4, the interaction term between being Black and gender was significant ($b = .263$, $p < .05$), indicating that Black women were more likely than other respondents to report gender mistrust. The interaction between grades and gender was significant ($b = -.046$, $p < .05$), suggesting that the link between higher grades and lower gender mistrust was greater for male than for female respondents. Finally, the interaction between only having sex within a relationship and gender was significant ($b = -.258$, $p < .05$),

suggesting that sexual experience within a relationship was related to greater gender mistrust only for men.

Associations between gender mistrust and relationship qualities

Gender mistrust in W2 was not related to relationship status in W3—whether respondents are currently dating, dating less than one year, or dating for one year or more, and regardless of gender (results not shown). Given this finding, we examined the associations between gender mistrust in W2 and relationship qualities in W3 among respondents who report having dated in the previous two years. Those who were not currently dating were asked about the most recent relationship. The vast majority of the sample (89%) had dating experience in the last two years.

Table 4 presents the findings for the associations between gender mistrust measured in W2 and intimate self-disclosure, passionate love, jealousy, verbal conflict, and commitment in the current or recent relationship in W3. Greater gender mistrust was not related to intimate self-disclosure (Model 1); however, the interaction term between gender mistrust and gender was significant and negative (Model 2). To interpret this interaction, we calculated predicted means for intimate self-disclosure by levels of gender mistrust for women and men (Figure 1). Unexpectedly, greater gender mistrust was related to *more* intimate self-disclosure for men, whereas gender mistrust made little difference in women's levels of self-disclosure. Greater gender mistrust was related to greater passionate love (Model 1), and there were no gender differences in this association (Model 2). Greater gender mistrust was also related to greater jealousy. The gender interaction was significant and negative. Figure 2 presents predicted means for jealousy by levels of gender mistrust for male and female respondents. It shows that the association between gender mistrust and jealousy was greater for men than for women. Specifically, among those with lower gender mistrust, women were more likely than men to

report feelings of jealousy, whereas among those with higher gender mistrust, men were more likely than women to report feelings of jealousy. As expected, for both men and women, higher gender mistrust was related to more frequent verbal conflict. Finally, in contrast to our expectation, gender mistrust was not related to levels of commitment regardless of gender.

[Table 4, Figures 1 and 2 about here]

DISCUSSION

Despite the recent emphasis on the link between gender mistrust and low marriage rates, little research has examined how structural and life course factors such as SES, race/ethnicity, family, and romantic experiences in the past may shape the degree to which young people hold this attitude and to what extent it affects the qualities of subsequent romantic experiences. Except for a few influential ethnographic studies (e.g., Anderson, 1989), most work has focused on adults, despite the importance of the adolescent years for the formation of relationship skills and expectations. The present analysis is one of the first that has investigated these questions with longitudinal data from adolescents with diverse SES and racial/ethnic backgrounds.

We found that parents play a key role in shaping adolescents' gender mistrust. Consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), adolescents with single or remarried parents tend to report higher levels of gender mistrust than adolescents with two-biological parents. Parents also influence their children's perceptions of gender mistrust indirectly through the character of the parent-child relationship (Bowlby 1979; Erikson, 1963). Further, our findings align with previous research on intergenerational transmission of gender attitudes (Moen, Erickson, & Dempster-McCalin, 1997; Thornton, Alwin, & Camburn, 1983); gender mistrust was transmitted directly through parents' attitudes, which in our case is parents' gender mistrust. The associations between family structure and adolescent gender mistrust are largely mediated by

quality of parent-child relationships and parents' gender mistrust, although the association between having single parents and adolescents' gender mistrust remained significant. This is consistent with King's (2002) findings that indicated the effects of parental divorce on young adult children's trust with intimate partner are explained by poor parent-child relationship qualitty. The association between having single parents and greater gender mistrust is further mediated by each of the adolescents' earlier experiences examined in the model (i.e., grades, sexual relationships, and experiences of mistrust in a specific relationship), indicating that single parenthood may lead to adolescents' academic or romantic relationship experiences that tend to contribute to the development of a higher level of gender mistrust.

Although previous studies suggest that gender mistrust is a low-income phenomenon, little research actually investigated SES in the prevalence of gender mistrust. We found that gender mistrust is indeed greater among adolescents who lived in neighborhoods with a higher poverty rate. This difference is, however, explained by parent-child relationship quality and parents' gender mistrust. As Furstenberg (2001) noted, the "culture of gender mistrust" in a disadvantaged community appears to be transmitted to young people at home through parents' own gender mistrust and the nature of their interactions with their adolescents. It is important to note, however, that our findings suggest gender mistrust is not unique to lower SES adolescents. About 65 % of those female respondents living in the wealthiest neighborhoods agreed or strongly agreed with at least one of these gender mistrust items, whereas about 80% of those female respondents living in the least affluent neighborhoods did so (data not shown). Future investigation of social class and the link among gender mistrust, relationship qualities, and union formation is warranted.

Black female adolescents are more likely than adolescents of other gender and racial ethnic groups to report feelings of gender mistrust. At the descriptive level, about one half of Black women "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with the six items of gender mistrust examined in this study, whereas among White women, 21% "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with the six items. These differences remained even after controlling for other factors such as SES, family structure, parents' gender mistrust, and adolescents' academic and romantic experiences. These findings somewhat support Wilson's (1996) argument emphasizing that gender mistrust is prevalent among African Americans, although the present analysis showed that it exists across racial ethnic groups. Although Estacion and Cherlin (2010) maintained that Dominicans and Puerto Ricans might be most likely to have gender mistrust, our sample of Hispanics is too small to assess differences according to country of origin. Furthermore, Estacion and Cherlin's study (2010) was based on a select sample of low-income mothers who have much more life experience than our adolescent sample; therefore it is difficult to compare the findings.

Our findings suggest that gender mistrust may not be related to whether respondents are in a relationship or the duration of relationship, but may be related to relationship qualities including passionate love, jealousy, and verbal conflict. These qualities reflect what researchers characterize as "passionate love," which emphasizes sexual components of intimate relationships and negative emotions such as anxiety and despair, as opposed to "companionate love," which is a less emotionally charged experience but based more on liking, respect, and emotional intimacy (Sprecher and Regan, 1998). Additionally, we found that gender mistrust is not related to levels of commitment. These patterns of findings indicate that although gender mistrust does not influence feelings of commitment to a dating partner, it may be associated with emotions and behaviors that are related to less stability in a relationship. Our findings, along with these other

studies, indicate it is possible that general gender mistrust may constrain young people from opportunities to develop companionate love that is typically regarded as a basis of long duration relationships.

Unexpectedly, the present analysis indicates the influences of gender mistrust on relationship qualities are greater for male adolescents than for female adolescents. We found that the association between gender mistrust and jealousy is greater for male than female respondents. We also found that greater gender mistrust is related to intimate self-disclosure for male respondents only. Why are young men with greater gender mistrust more likely to engage in intimate conversation with their dates? Anderson (1989) suggests that poor Black young males, who mistrust women in general, may use intimate conversation as the tool of winning his "game"—i.e., making a woman "love" them. Although recent research on gender mistrust largely focused on women, our findings indicate that more research is warranted to further investigate men's gender mistrust and its influences on relationship qualities and marriage expectations.

This study has some limitations that future research, including our own, should address. Our measure of gender mistrust is oriented toward an adolescent respondent. Given recent findings (e.g., Burton et al., 2009), it may be important to provide a more complex view of gender mistrust among adolescents as well as adults. The measure of parents' gender mistrust used in this study focused on adolescent romance. Although we would expect that parents' gender mistrust about adult relationships and adolescent romance might be closely related to each other, further research should examine how parents' own gender mistrust within adult relationships might influence offspring's gender mistrust. Further, prior research has indicated that experiences of sexual abuse in childhood tend to be related to greater gender mistrust

(Burton et al., 2009; Davis & Petretic-Jackson, 2000); however, we were limited by data constraints and cannot assess sexual abuse in childhood. Finally, our sample was constrained to one geographic area, and further work based on national samples is warranted.

Recent attention to gender mistrust among adults has led to new questions about the sources and role of gender mistrust on adolescent relationships. Most prior work focused on select samples of low-income mothers, and we contribute by providing an analysis that permits investigation of variation in gender mistrust. In sum, we find that although neighborhood economic disadvantage is related to greater gender mistrust, it is parents who play a key role in shaping adolescents' gender mistrust, mainly through the relationship they develop with their adolescent children and what they say to them about adolescents' intentions when involved in intimate relationships. All else equal, Black women report greater general gender mistrust than other respondents, suggesting support for further exploration of racial differences in norms of men's roles in intimate relationships, marriage, and family. Although general gender mistrust is not related to whether young people form dating relationships, it is related to qualities of dating relationships that they experience. Thus, to best build healthier relationships in adulthood, efforts need to start in adolescence and focus on early relationships.

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Table 1. Means (Std) for Variables in the Analysis

	Total sample (N = 1,106)		Dated in the Past Two Years (N = 986)	
Age in W2 (13 - 20)	16.37	(1.75)	16.46	(1.75)
Age in W3 (15 - 22)	18.18	(1.76)	18.26	(1.75)
Gender (1 = *girls*)	0.52		0.52	
Race/ethnicity				
White	0.64		0.64	
Black	0.23		0.23	
Hispanic	0.11		0.11	
Other race	0.02		0.02	
% neighborhood poverty in W1	11.94	(13.51)	12.07	(13.52)
Primary parents' education in W1				
Less than high school	0.12		0.13	
High school	0.31		0.31	
Some college	0.34		0.33	
College	0.23		0.23	
Primary parents' relationship to the adolescents in W1				
Biological or adoptive mother	0.85		0.85	
Mother figure	0.06		0.06	
Biological father or father figure	0.09		0.09	
Primary parents' marital status in W1				
Married to the adolescents' parent	0.48		0.47	
Single	0.28		0.29	
Cohabiting	0.07		0.07	
Remarried	0.16		0.16	
Poor parent-child relationship in W1 (1 - 5)	2.30	(0.82)	2.30	(0.81)
Primary parents' gender mistrust in W1 (1 - 5)	3.61	(0.57)	3.60	(0.58)
Adolescents' experiences in W1				
Grades (1 - 9)	6.22	(2.06)	6.19	(2.04)
Dating status				
Not dating	0.57		0.53	
Dating less than 1 year	0.34		0.37	
Dating 1 year or more	0.09		0.11	
Sexual experience				
Never had sex	0.72		0.70	
Had sex, within a relationship only	0.10		0.11	
Had non-relationship sex	0.18		0.19	
Had a partner who couldn't be trusted in W1	0.29		0.14	
Adolescents' gender mistrust (1 - 5) in W2	3.37	(0.64)	3.38	(0.64)

Dating status in W3			
Not dating	0.51	0.45	
Dating less than 1 year	0.30	0.34	
Dating 1 year or more	0.20	0.22	
Current or recent relationship qualities in W3			
Self-disclosure (1 - 5)	n/a	3.81	(0.99)
Passionate love (1 - 5)	n/a	3.79	(0.79)
Jealousy (1 - 5)	n/a	2.29	(0.93)
Verbal conflict (1 - 5)	n/a	2.82	(1.15)
Commitment (1 - 5)	n/a	3.77	(0.90)

Table 2. Gender Mistrust by Gender, % Neighborhood Poverty, and Race/Ethnicity.

	Gender Mistrust Scale (1 - 5)			"Agree" or "Strongly Agree" on All 6 Items		
	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys
Total	3.37	3.48	3.25***	20.0%	27.1%	12.4%***
By % neighborhood poverty						
< 5%	3.23	3.31	3.16	13.9%	18.4%	9.6%
5 - 10%	3.40[c]	3.50[c]	3.25[b]	19.3%[c]	26.2%[c]	10.5%
10 - 20%	3.41[c]	3.60[c]	3.22	23.2%[c]	33.3%[c]	12.7%
20% or more	3.56[c]	3.69[c]	3.42[c]	29.6%[c]	38.5%[c]	19.2%[c]
By race/ethnicity						
White	3.28	3.37	3.18	15.7%	20.9%	9.9%
Black	3.58[c]	3.80[c]	3.36[c]	31.6%[c]	44.9%[c]	18.6%[c]
Hispanic	3.38[c]	3.45	3.32[c]	17.6%	23.7%	11.7%
Other	3.58[c]	3.68[c]	3.47[c]	32.0%[c]	46.2%[c]	16.7%

Note: Differences between girls and boys are statistically significant at *** $p < .001$. Differences from < 5% or white are statistically significant at [b] $p < .01$ and [c] $p < .001$ levels (two-tailed t-tests).

Table 3. Ordinary Least Squares Regression Analysis Predicting Gender Mistrust in W2.

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4[b]	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Girls	.233	.037** *	.234	.036** *	.257	.037** *	.548	.306
Age in W2	.013	.010	.012	.010	.001	.012	.000	.012
Race/ethnicity[a]								
Black	.172	.054**	.160	.053**	.137	.053*	-.007	.076
Hispanic	.018	.064	.017	.063	-.003	.063	.021	.090
Other race	.262	.124*	.253	.122*	.273	.122*	.293	.175
% neighborhood poverty in W1	.004	.002*	.003	.002	.003	.002	.003	.002
Primary parents' education in W1[a]								
Less than high school	.021	.064	.025	.064	.002	.064	.023	.066
Some college	-.060	.047	-.050	.046	-.043	.046	-.037	.046
College	-.125	.052*	-.116	.051*	-.089	.052	-.083	.052
Primary parents' marital status in W1 [a]								
Single	.114	.049*	.106	.051*	.059	.052	.012	.071
Cohabiting	-.013	.078	.003	.077	-.003	.078	-.052	.115
Remarried	.121	.055*	.088	.054	.054	.056	.075	.087
Primary parents' relationship to adolescents in W1 [a]								
Mother figure	.056	.082	.035	.081	.027	.080	-.071	.123
Biological father/father figure	-.013	.063	-.004	.062	.009	.062	-.079	.081
Poor parent-child relationship in W1			.085	.023** *	.067	.023**	.083	.035*
Primary parents' gender mistrust in W1			.149	.032** *	.154	.032** *	.145	.049**
Grades in W1 (1 - 9)					-.026	.010**	-.002	.014
Sexual experience in W1[a]								
Had sex, within a relationship only					.025	.067	.169	.095
Had non-relationship sex					.122	.058*	.247	.079**
Had a partner who couldn't be trusted in W1					.113	.054*	.085	.079
Dating status in W1 [a]								
Dating less than 1 year					.006	.041	.022	.060
Dating 1 year or more					.008	.068	-.086	.101
Black x girls [a]							.263	.106*
Hispanic x girls							-.054	.125
Other race x girls							.016	.245
Grades x girls							-.046	.020*
Had sex within a relationship only x girls [a]							-.258	.130*
Intercept	2.933	.176**	2.22	.216**	2.58	.238**	2.455	.289

	*	6 *	1 *	
R^2	0.104***	0.134***	0.151***	0.174***

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

[a]Omitted categories are: Whites, high school diploma, married to the other parent of the child, biological or adoptive mother, never had sex, not dating, White x girls, and never had sex x girls.

[b]Model 4 includes gender interaction terms with each of the explanatory variables.

Table 4. Ordinary Least Squares Regression Analysis Predicting the Associations Between Gender Mistrust in W2 and Current or Recent Relationship Qualities s in W3.

	Self-Disclosure				Passionate Love			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Gender mistrust in W2	.060	.052	.172	.075*	.118	.042**	.103	.060
Gender mistrust in W2 x girls			-.200	.098*			.027	.079
Girls	.272	.065***	.945	.338**	-.018	.052	-.110	.272
Age in W3	.052	.020**	.051	.020*	.058	.016***	.058	.016**
Race/ethnicity[a]								
Black	-.156	.091	-.149	.091	-.037	.073	-.039	.073
Hispanic	-.060	.107	-.064	.107	-.029	.087	-.028	.087
Other race	.012	.217	.004	.217	-.104	.175	-.104	.175
% poverty in neighborhood in W1	.001	.003	.001	.003	-.003	.002	-.003	.002
Primary parents' education in W1[a]								
Less than high school	-.223	.108*	-.227	.108*	-.097	.086	-.096	.086
Some college	-.030	.081	-.030	.079	.063	.062	.064	.062
College	-.161	.089	-.138	.092	-.060	.071	-.060	.071
Primary parents' marital status in W1[a]								
Single	-.036	.082	-.023	.098	-.006	.065	-.007	.065
Cohabiting	.077	.138	.110	.137	.003	.107	.002	.107
Remarried	.197	.094*	.172	.095	.127	.074	.128	.074
Primary parents' relationship to adolescents in W1[a]								
Mother figure	.030	.132	.042	.131	.006	.106	.005	.106
Biological father or father figure	.247	.108*	.258	.108*	-.037	.087	-.039	.087
Poor parent-child relationship in W1	-.009	.040	-.011	.040	-.033	.032	-.033	.032
Primary parents' gender mistrust in W1	.012	.054	.027	.058	.035	.045	.035	.045
Grades in W1	.032	.018	.030	.018	.008	.014	.008	.014

Sexual experience in W1[a]								
Had sex, within a relationship only	.211	.109	.204	.110	.060	.086	.062	.086
Had non-relationship sex	-.007	.096	-.017	.099	.176	.077*	.178	.078*
Had a partner who couldn't be trusted in W1	-.029	.090	-.027	.090	-.002	.073	-.002	.073
Dating status in W3[a]								
Dating, < one year	.315	.070** *	.312	.070** *	.256	.057***	.256	.057** *
Dating, one year or more	.467	.081** *	.467	.081** *	.441	.066***	.441	.066** *
Intercept	2.071	.464** *	1.73 0	.492** *	2.055	0.373** *	2.100	.395** *
R^2	0.113***		0.117***		0.106***		0.106***	
N	974				978			

* p< .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001.

Note. Omitted categories are: White, high school diploma, married to the other parent of the child, biological or adoptive mother, never had sex, and not dating.

Table 4. Cont.

	Jealousy				Verbal Conflict				Commitment			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Gender mistrust in W2	.254	.061***	.396	.089***	.118	.047*	.122	.068	.074	.045	.031	.066
Gender mistrust in W2 x girls			-.258	.117*			-.007	.089			.078	.087
Girls	-.106	.077	.763	.402	.042	.058	.064	.305	.193	.057***	-.069	.297
Age in W3	-.005	.024	-.006	.024	.044	.018*	.044	.018*	.061	.018***	.061	.018***
Race/ethnicity[a]												
Black	-.132	.107	-.117	.107	.295	.082***	.295	.082***	-.043	.080	-.047	.080
Hispanic	.215	.128	.208	.127	.208	.097*	.208	.097*	-.080	.094	-.077	.094
Other race	-.264	.258	-.265	.258	-.183	.196	-.183	.196	.001	.191	.001	.191
% neighborhood poverty in W1	-.002	.003	-.002	.003	.002	.003	.002	.003	.001	.002	.001	.002
Primary parents' education in W1[a]												
Less than high school	-.136	.131	-.138	.131	-.094	.098	-.094	.098	-.063	.093	-.063	.093
Some college	.176	.093	.169	.093	-.034	.070	-.035	.070	-.007	.068	-.005	.068
College	-.075	.106	-.076	.105	-.225	.081**	-.225	.081**	-.194	.078*	-.194	.078*
Primary parents' marital status in W1[a]												
Single	-.145	.103	-.140	.102	.117	.078	.117	.078	.029	.073	.027	.073
Cohabiting	-.205	.156	-.193	.155	.188	.119	.188	.119	.124	.116	.120	.116
Remarried	.131	.115	.125	.115	.135	.085	.135	.085	.220	.081**	.222	.081**
Primary parents' relationship to adolescents in W1[a]												
Mother figure	.124	.157	.133	.156	-.041	.119	-.041	.119	.015	.115	.012	.115
Biological father or father Figure	-.035	.128	-.017	.128	-.113	.097	-.113	.098	.043	.095	.038	.095
Poor parent-child relationship in W1	.141	.047**	.142	.047**	.079	.036*	.079	.036*	-.032	.035	-.032	.035
Primary parents' gender	.013	.067	.015	.067	.041	.051	.041	.051	.065	.048	.065	.048

mistrust in W1												
Grades in W1	.033	.021	.031	.021	-.026	.016	-.026	.016	.016	.015	.016	.015
Sexual experience in W1												
Had sex within a relationship only	-.117	.127	-.127	.127	-.065	.096	-.066	.096	.195	.095*	.198	.095*
Had non-relationship sex	.055	.117	.038	.117	.084	.086	.084	.086	.164	.087	.169	.087
Had a partner who couldn't be trusted in W1	.127	.107	.131	.107	.138	.081	.138	.081	-.089	.079	-.090	.079
Dating status in W3[a]												
Dating, less than one year	-.135	.083	-.136	.083	-.357	.063***	-.357	.063***	.386	.061***	.386	.061***
Dating, one year or more	.221	.097*	.214	.097*	.119	.073	.119	.073	.662	.072***	.664	.072***
Intercept	1.558	.549***	1.125	.582***	.870	.417***	.859	.444***	1.729	.407***	1.861	.432***
R^2	0.068***		0.073***		0.172***		0.172***		0.172***		0.173***	
N	978				978				975			

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

Note. Omitted categories are: White, high school diploma, married to the other parent of the child, biological or adoptive mother, never had sex, and not dating.

Figure 1. Self-Disclosure in W3 by Gender Mistrust in W2 for Women and Men

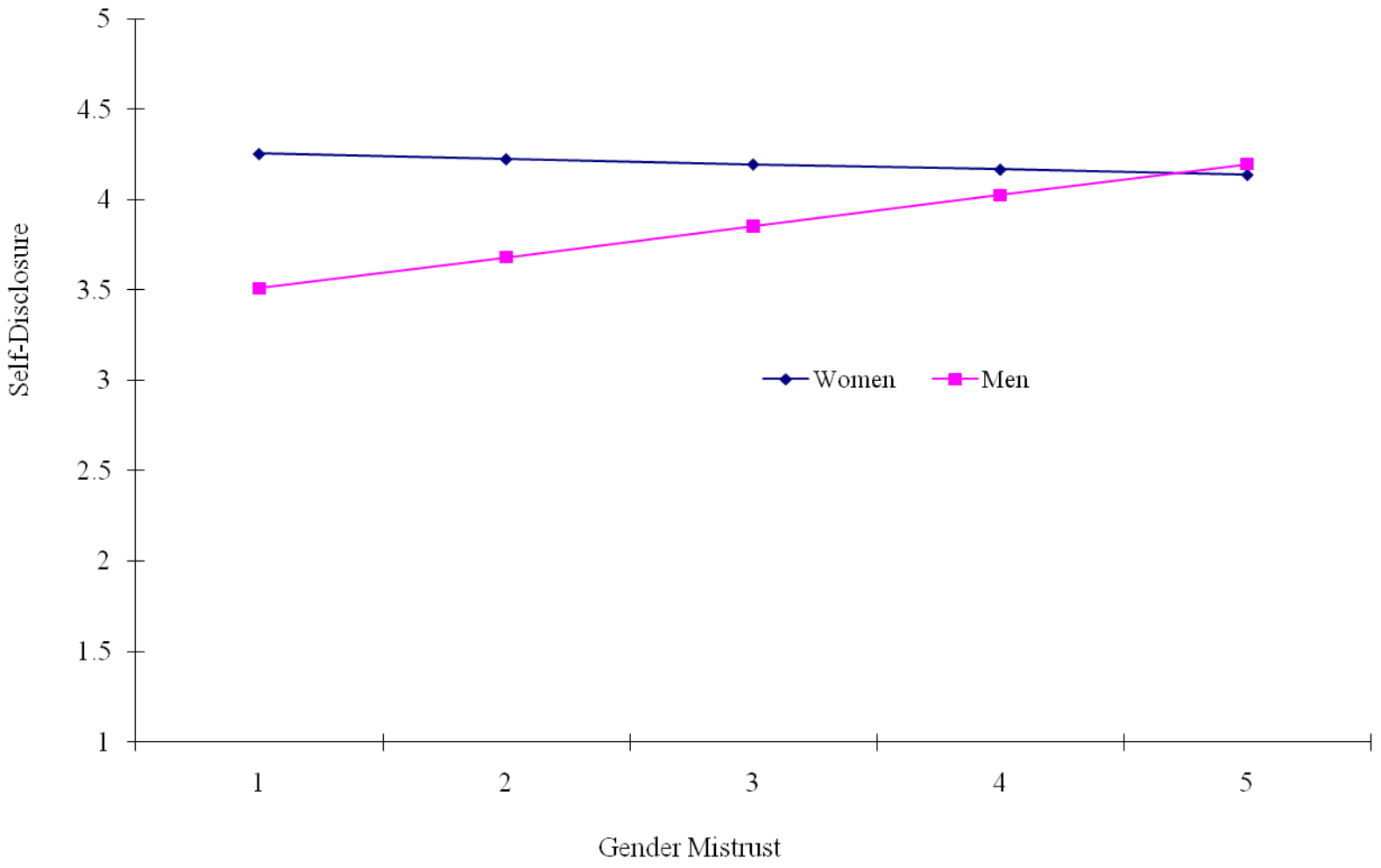

Figure 2. Jealousy in W3 by Gender Mistrust in W2 for Women and Men