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Jealousy In Same-Sex Relationships: A Study Of Sexual And Emotional Infidelity

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JEALOUSY IN SAME-SEX RELATIONSHIPS: A STUDY OF SEXUAL AND
EMOTIONAL INFIDELITY

by

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A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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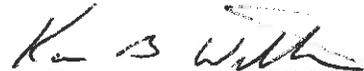
This dissertation, submitted by Courtney G. Stufflebeam in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of North Dakota, has been read by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done, and is hereby approved.



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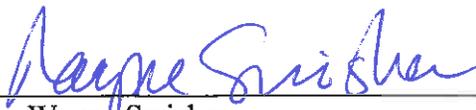


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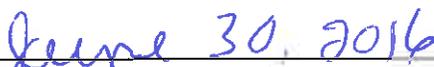


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Courtney G. Stufflebeam
July 20, 2016

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ABSTRACT

The current study employed online, self-report data in relation to jealousy, insecurity, dependency, and relationship power within same-sex relationships. Specifically, I examined the correlational, predictive and comparative aspects of distress and jealousy levels in individuals within same-sex relationships. It was hypothesized that relationship power, dependency and insecurity would predict level of jealousy and distress in the experience of sexual and emotional infidelity. Three hundred and nineteen consenting participants completed the online questionnaires regarding their views and emotions related to the above constructs. Regression analyses provided data indicating that none of the variables predicted an individual's experience of jealousy and distress. Though no predictive variables were found, correlation analysis provided data showing positive relationships between levels of distress and expression of jealousy. In addition, a positive relationship was indicated between an individual's relationships dependence, relationship power and levels of distress in relation to both sexual and emotional infidelity. Overall, no differences were found between genders in distress over sexual and emotional infidelity. In addition, relationship power, dependency and insecurity did not predict levels of distress over sexual or emotional infidelity. Implications for theory, research, and clinical practice are presented.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In this ever-changing society, it is important for psychology, specifically counseling psychology, to take notice and adapt to the change. With the current political issues of the times examining issues such as same-sex marriage and society attending more closely to same-sex relationships, it is important for the field to understand the way these relationships operate. Research is needed to fill the current gap that exists in the field and society as a whole in regard to the understanding of same-sex relationships. This research project aimed to help fill the gap in the existing literature by more thoroughly examining gay and lesbian relationships and individuals' experiences of jealousy as well as sexual and emotional infidelity.

For years, heterosexual relationship research has dominated the relationship satisfaction research literature, bringing to light the various constructs and interactions (both adaptive and maladaptive) between partners. Although this information has helped shape the field and our understanding of romantic relationships, the study of only heterosexual romantic relationships is no longer adequate to describe normative relationships in our culture.

The field of counseling psychology needs to start examining, with more intensity, the romantic relationships of individuals who identify as gay and lesbian. The field of counseling psychology prides itself on social justice issues

and being aware of multicultural differences and issues in our society. It is our social responsibility as a profession to adapt to the changes in the culture and remain informed. By extending the current research and focusing on gay and lesbian individuals in romantic relationship, we can start to better understand and help that specific population. Within the past 10 years research has started to explore the differences and similarities between opposite and same-sex couples, but there remains a gap in much of the literature examining the developed constructs in opposite sex couples and how those specific constructs manifest in same-sex couples. That was the goal of the current research.

It is evident, through looking at past literature, how opposite sex couples deal with various issues such as jealousy and sexual and emotional infidelity. There have been many studies examining the difference between sexes and what can be expected within opposite sex relationships (Egan & Angus, 2004; Weiser & Weigel, 2015; Pham, Shacelford & Sela, 2013; Starratt, McKibbin & Shackelford, 2013). Through these studies, a better understanding of relationships and the quality therein, allowed for a more comprehensive view of the relationship. Through the findings, counselors were able to glean useful information about opposite sex romantic relationships. Although this information is imperative to our understanding of romantic relationships, it could be argued that it is not enough.

There is evidence that opposite sex relationships “behave” in a certain way and significant findings have been reported based on men and women in those relationships (Carpenter, 2012; Burchell & Ward, 2011; Kuhle, 2011; Zandbergen & Brown, 2015). However, there is very little research to indicate how individuals respond when in a

same-sex relationship. In relation to jealousy and sexual and emotional infidelity, there is limited knowledge in the current literature examining same-sex relationships. The question becomes, “Do individuals who are in a same-sex relationship share the same experiences as individuals who are in an opposite sex romantic relationship?” There is some evidence to suggest that they do, and some evidence to suggest there are differences when comparing to opposite sex relationships (Ho MA & Ngee Sim, 2016; Goldberg, Smith & Perry-Jenkins, 2012; Hopkins, Sorensen & Taylor, 2013; Solomon, Rothblum & Balsam, 2015; Missildine, Feldstein, Punzalan & Parsons, 2005)

The study of same-sex romantic relationships allows the field to continue to develop and stay current with the zeitgeist of society. It is imperative that more research be done in this area, so the field of counseling psychology can remain current and can continue to advocate and strive for social justice. Further, research regarding jealousy, sexual and emotional infidelity, relationship power and emotional dependency continues to be under-examined in the existing literature.

In an attempt to fill the current gap that exists, jealousy was examined as a construct and the definitions and various theories of sexual and emotional infidelity were explored, such as Buss’ evolutionary theories (Buss et al., 1992) and contrasting theories proposed by Harris (Harris & Christenfeld, 1996). To provide more depth and understanding to the current study research in emotional dependence and relationship power (Falbo and Peplau, 1980) was also explored. The review of literature was concluded by examining same-sex relationships, which includes the work of Harris, (2002), Bassett, Percey and Dabbs (2001), Goldberg, Smith & Perry-Jenkins, 2012; Hopkins, Sorensen & Taylor, 2013.

The goal of the proposed study was to further the understanding of the effects of jealousy on romantic relationships. Specifically, the association between individual's perceived relationship power and his/her distress over his/her partner's sexual and/or emotional infidelity. Extending past research, this study examined individuals who are currently in a same-sex romantic relationship.

Literature Review

The Literature Review begins by introducing the various definitions of jealousy and the one that was used in the current research. Literature on the clinical significance of jealousy and the effects jealousy can have in relationships was explored. In addition the sex differences in jealousy and theories behind sexual and emotional infidelity were discussed. Then, literature exploring emotional dependence and relationship power and how those constructs impact various aspects of relationships was introduced. The extant research on the constructs just discussed has been done primarily with individuals within opposite sex couples. After discussing the items listed above, the limited research that has been conducted examining individuals in same-sex relationships were discussed. This helps to identify the gaps in the current literature that the proposed study addresses.

Jealousy

In American culture, jealousy is a common and potentially painful experience (White & Mullen, 1989). Jealousy is either a major focus or *the* major focus of counseling for about one third of all client couples under 50 (White, 2008). In college populations, about one half of romantic relationships break up over jealousy-related issues (White & Mullen, 1989), and this number may be even higher with the incorporation of social media in interpersonal relationships. For example, undergraduates

seeing a partner leave a Facebook comment on a member of the opposite sex's wall can ignite jealousy in an individual (Muise, Christofides, & Desmarais, 2009). It is important for clinicians in counseling settings to understand the concept of jealousy because of the deleterious effects that jealousy can have on a relationship, such as intense arguments and diminished cooperative attitude between partners (Buunk & Bringle, 1987). With a better understanding, better treatments and therapies can be found to assist in couples rectifying the situations in which jealousy plays a part.

Definition of jealousy.

The experience of jealousy warranted explanation from theorists both past and present. Havelock Ellis, a British sexologist stated, "Jealousy is that dragon which slays love under the pretense of keeping it alive" (Ellis, 1922, p. 120). In the following section I will attempt to briefly differentiate between disappointment and revenge which are common emotional states that individuals may confuse with jealousy. I will then describe different definitions of jealousy, ending with the definition I used for the study and the reasoning for using said definition. Jealousy is a unique experience, although it is similar to other constructs examined in the literature.

Past research has differentiated jealousy from disappointment and revenge. When compared to disappointment, which is described as an individual's reaction to actual loss, jealousy is described as an individual's fear of loss. Jealousy also differentiates from revenge in that revenge aims to avenge loss and jealousy aims to prevent the loss (Hupka, 1991). Upon understanding what jealousy is not, researchers attempted to increase the operational definition of jealousy.

Through the years, researchers and theorists have further defined jealousy. Jealousy has been defined as the consequence of threats to self-esteem (Fenicbel, 1955; Mead, 1931), the result of underlying guilt feelings (Jones, 1930), the projection of unacceptable opposite sex or same-sex impulses (Freud, 1922/1955; Mowat, 1966), the symbolic manifestation of a loss of the sense of uniqueness in love (Simmel, 1950, pp. 406-407), the fear of loss of a valuable relationship (Bohm, 1961; Spielman, 1971), a replaying of the oedipal situation (Klein, 1957; Klein & Riviere, 1964), the operation of the monogamy instinct (Darwin, 1888; Westermarck, 1936), and a reaction to the violation of sexual property norms (Davis, 1936). In various definitions, researchers examined how different kinds of jealousy may manifest.

Buunk (1997) introduced three distinct kinds of jealousy; reactive, anxious and possessive. Reactive jealousy is described as the degree to which an individual is upset when he/she experiences their partner being sexually or emotionally unfaithful. Reactive jealousy can be considered “rational” as it is a direct response to a relationship threat. Possessive jealousy refers to an individual’s efforts and attempts to prevent his/her partner from having contact with a third person, outside of the relationship (Buunk, 1991, 1997). Individuals who experience possessive jealousy may not be accepting of their partner having opposite sex friends. In extreme cases, individuals may violently attempt to keep their partner in the relationship (Daly, Wilson, & Weghorst, 1982). Anxious jealousy involves the individual ruminating about their partner’s potential or possible infidelity. The individual experiences feelings of anxiety, suspicion, worry and distrust (Buunk, 1997). When comparing the three kinds of jealousy possessive and anxious jealousies are not only triggered by a partner’s actual actions or behaviors, but also in

response to a potential relationship threat or potential behaviors from the partner. These specific kinds of jealousy may be experienced in the absence of objective evidence of a partner's infidelity or extra dyadic relationship (Barelds & Dijkstra, 2006).

It is argued that jealousy is multidimensional and multifaceted. Pfeiffer and Wong (1989) posit jealousy consists of cognitive, emotional and behavioral aspects. Barelds and Dijkstra (2006) suggest that while Buunk's theory of jealousy is similar to Pfeiffer and Wong, the two are not the same. Authors go on to discuss the typology of Buunk's theory of jealousy and Pfeiffer and Wong's dimensions of jealousy. Both theories suggest that jealousy can be examined in different ways, being observed and assessed. Especially interesting is the fact the jealousy may be experienced via hypothetical situations or scenarios (Barelds & Dijkstra, 2006).

Pines and Friedman (1998) described jealousy as a complex reaction when a rival (real or imaginary) threatens a romantic relationship. Further, emotional experience of jealousy is based on a deep fear of losing a loved one to another individual or competitor. Though researchers cite jealousy can impact various kinds of interpersonal relationships (DeSteno, Valdesolo, & Bartlett, 2006; Harris, 2003), the specific kind of jealousy examined in the proposed study is romantic jealousy.

Romantic Jealousy

White (1981), defines romantic jealousy, "as a complex of thoughts, feelings, and actions which follows threats to the existence or the quality of the relationship, when those threats are generated by the perception of a real or potential attraction between one's partner and a {perhaps imaginary} rival. This definition implies that the dual threats to self-esteem and to relationship are difficult to untangle (cf. Freud, 1922/1955).

Jealousy is not conceived as a simple emotion nor equated with attempts to cope with threat such as rivalry. Jealousy is a "great complex field of interpersonal relations" (Sullivan, 1953, p. 347). Using romantic jealousy in relation to this study works well, as it is examined how jealousy looks in a current romantic relationship.

Jealousy has been examined in many different contexts in the past, with all of the definitions centered around interpersonal relationships and the fear of losing something or something that is cared for. The experience of jealousy can lead to maladaptive emotions that may lead to maladaptive behaviors for an individual. The clinical significance of jealousy can be found in many areas of interpersonal relationships.

Clinical significance of jealousy.

In the following section jealousy will be discussed in many different contexts. As stated above, jealousy can be found in various areas of interpersonal relationships and interpersonal settings. Next, other factors that influence an individual's experience of jealousy such as attachment style and sociosexual orientation will be examined along with jealousy in relation to romance and various factors such as different personality factors and relationship styles that may prompt jealousy in individuals. Finally, to end the section the clinical importance of jealousy and some impacts of jealousy on romantic relationship will be discussed.

As mentioned above, an individual's attachment style can also impact the intensity of jealousy felt. In situations involving jealousy, individuals with anxious-ambivalent attachment styles were more jealous than individuals with avoidant styles of attachment. When compared to individuals with anxious-ambivalent and avoidant styles,

individuals with secure attachment styles reported the least amount of jealousy (Buunk, 1997). While attachment is a uniquely familial aspect to examine, other research has observed how jealousy may develop due to social contexts.

Another individual difference in jealousy felt may be accounted for by sociosexual orientation. Defined, sociosexual orientation is the willingness for an individual to engage in uncommitted sexual relations (Simpson & Gangstad, 1991). The authors described two kinds of sociosexual orientations, restricted and unrestricted. Authors found that individuals with unrestricted sociosexual orientations are more sexually indulgent and more likely to cheat on their romantic partner (Seal, Agostinelli, & Hannett, 1994). This in turn may lead to decreased feelings of jealousy regarding their partner's sexual behaviors.

Jealousy can be presented in different forms and is common in romantic relationships (de Silva, 1997). It impacts romantic relationships in several maladaptive ways, and presents in a clinical setting in various situations. Over the course of therapy, it may become evident that jealousy is a leading contributor in a dysfunctional marriage. When discussing marital difficulties and sexual dysfunction, it can become apparent that jealousy is a factor in the relationship, possibly adding to the problem of sexual dysfunction. Over the course of therapy it sometimes becomes apparent that other clinical issues such as alcoholism and psychotic disorders bring about jealousy in the relationship (de Silva & Marks, 1994). Individuals experiencing jealousy may reach a point where they need a clinician to intercede and offer help. Clinicians encounter issues with jealousy in sex therapy, couples therapy, and other types of therapy (Marks & de Silva,

1991; White & Mullen, 1989). As with most other issues in therapy, personality factors may impact clinical work and the experience of pathology.

Several personality and relationship factors can impact an individual's experience of jealousy. In specific situations, such as the imagined situation of a partner being unfaithful, feelings of overall jealousy are predicted by general levels of emotional jealousy. Russel and Harton (2005) described this as "trait jealousy", which is to suggest that some individuals are more prone to jealousy when compared to others. Levels of trust in a relationship impact not only the experience of jealousy, but the intensity and frequency of jealousy as well. Individual levels of trust and self-esteem have also been associated with the experience of jealousy, where lower levels of trust are related to more intense and frequent experiences of jealousy (Couch & Jones, 1997). The experience of an individual's jealousy can have major or minor implications for a relationship.

Jealousy contributes to minor disturbances in the rapport between partners, and can create major agitation in the bond of the relationship. Walker, (2006) examined John Gottman's "Four Horseman of the Apocalypse", which include, criticism, contempt, defensiveness and stonewalling (Gottman & Silver,1999) in an attempt to understand how jealousy impacted communication between couples. Stonewalling, contempt and criticism were all predictors of jealousy, with the Four Horsemen accounting for 17% of the variance in jealousy. With a better understanding of how couples communicate and experience these difficulties, it may be possible to bring down levels of both jealousy and the experience of these "Four Horsemen".

As evidenced by the information presented, there is an increasing need for therapists and clinicians to be aware of the maladaptive effects of jealousy such as intense

arguments and diminished cooperative attitude between partners (Buunk & Bringle, 1987; de Silva, 1997). When left undiagnosed and untreated, jealousy can turn into a volatile emotion that may lead to dangerous effects such as spousal killing or domestic abuse (Daly, Wilson, & Weghorst, 1982). The detrimental affect jealousy can have in a relationship, it is important to understand jealousy can be experienced in relation to many different stimuli.

Sexual and Emotional Infidelity

Infidelity is an aspect of romantic relationships that often has an impact on the feelings of jealousy in a relationship and how intensely jealousy is experienced. According to past research there are two kinds of infidelity, sexual and emotional, which will be explored in the following section. In relation to the two different kinds of infidelity, the distress and jealousy felt by these infidelities will be explored.

One of the areas in which jealousy has been explored is the differences in jealousy about sexual vs. emotional infidelity. Sexual jealousy is felt when one partner believes that his/her partner has been sexually unfaithful with another person outside of the relationship. Emotional jealousy is felt when one partner believes that his/her partner has been emotionally unfaithful (i.e., fell in love with, but not had sex with) with another person outside of the relationship. Buss and other psychologists have used forced choice options in past research which have the participants chose between only two options, “imagine your partner forming a deep emotional attachment to that person” or “imagine your partner enjoying passionate sexual intercourse with that other person” (e.g., Buss, Larson, Westen, & Semmelroth, 1992). In these forced choice studies, men report greater distress to a partner’s sexual infidelity than emotional infidelity, and women report

greater distress to a partner's emotional infidelity when compared to sexual infidelity (e.g., Buss et al., 1992; Buss et al., 1999; Buunk, Angleitner, Oubaid & Buss, 1996). Proponents of Buss' forced choice methodology state that this method taps into the jealousy mechanisms that are innately wired into men and women. Forced choice methodology is utilized by Buss with the understanding that both kinds of infidelity are upsetting to men and women, and the only way for participants to indicate which would be more upsetting is to make them choose between the two (Buss et al., 1992; Buss et al., 1999).

Within the literature of sexual and emotional infidelity two distinct theories emerged to attempt to explain why these two factors of jealousy and infidelity became evident. The evolutionary approach proposed by Buss and a counter theory led by theorist Christine Harris. Buss suggests that the sex differences are the result of instincts that are naturally found in the sexes. Buss proposes that men and women experience distress over jealousy differently because of evolutionary mechanisms found in individuals.

Evolutionary approach.

Evolutionary psychologists explain the sex differences in jealousy experiences by referring to men and women's concerns over reproduction and offspring. From a man's perspective, he has many concerns and uncertainties regarding reproduction of his offspring, and if his mate is sexually unfaithful to him, he may place all of his resources into an offspring that is not carrying his genes. The woman, on the other hand, knows for a fact the offspring is hers, so therefore her mate's sexual infidelity does not jeopardize this certainty. However, if her mate is emotionally unfaithful to her, the resources that

would have been going to her offspring will potentially be going to another (Buss et al., 1992). This hypothesis comes from Triver's (1972) parental investment model that states that the higher parental investment a species has, the more stringent the criteria for a mate. The theory suggests that women will be more critical when searching for a mate because their level of investment in their offspring is higher (Trivers, 1972).

Evolutionary psychologists suggest that these differences are inherent in the sexes, and that men and women are genetically disposed to react this way (Buss et al., 1992).

The initial studies by Buss were conducted in the United States, but replication studies suggest that this may be a phenomenon that is multicultural in nature.

Replication studies in Japan and Korea (Buss, Shackelford, Kirkpatrick, Choe, Lim, Hasegawa, Haswgawa & Bennett, 1999) and the Netherlands and Germany (Buunk, Angleitner, Oubaid, & Buss, 1996) found that, as in the United States, men are more psychologically and physiologically distraught over the thought of sexual infidelity, and women are more psychologically and physiologically distraught over the thought of emotional infidelity. Although the magnitude of the differences changed between the various cultures (i.e., smaller sex differences in Germany and the Netherlands), the basic sex differences remain (Buunk, Angleitner, Oubaid & Buss, 1996).

In support of Buss' evolutionary theory, replication studies examining other populations with regard to age have shown the same results. Much of this research has been done with college populations (Buss et al., 1992; DeSteno, Bartless, Braverman & Salovey, 2002; Buunk, Angleitner, Oubaid & Buss, 1996; White & Mullen, 1989). There have been studies that have looked at populations over 25 years old when using the forced choice method (Harris, 2002; Sheets & Wolfe, 2001), and the pattern is consistent

to that found in the younger populations. Men show more of a trend to be more distressed over sexual infidelity when compared to women.

In addition to the standard forced choice method of responding to infidelity, other research has added to Buss' results by examining other kinds of responses to imagined infidelity. Other evidence has focused on different physiological responses to imagined infidelity in men vs. women. Thoughts of sexual infidelity bring about greater physiological arousal (specifically autonomic arousal) in men compared to women. Men show more electrodermal activity when thinking about their partner committing sexual infidelity, compared to women. Women show more electrodermal activity when thinking about their partners committing emotional infidelity. These results indicate that the biological responses to different imagined infidelities differ by sex (Buss et. al., 1992).

In further support for Buss' claim, sex differences are also found in the reactions to infidelity and forgiveness with regard to infidelity. Men find it harder to forgive their partner after sexual infidelity, and are more likely to break up with their partners after learning of sexual infidelity when compared to women. Women find it harder to forgive their partner after emotional infidelity, and are more likely to break up with their partners after learning of emotional infidelity when compared to men (Shackelford, Buss & Bennett, 2002).

Criticism of the evolutionary approach.

Critics have suggested that the findings by Buss et al. (1992) are simply artifacts of measurement and not true sex differences. Given different measurement situations (i.e., Likert scales measuring attitudes and behaviors), some research has found that the sex differences become less pronounced, or disappear altogether (DeSteno, Bartless,

Braverman & Salovey, 2002). Cognitive constraint, or how much the mind is occupied with other things, may also play a part in an individual's experience of jealousy. If distress over jealousy was innate and automatic as the evolutionary theory proposes, cognitive constraint should not have an impact on the feelings of distress or type of infidelity participant's felt most distressing (DeSteno et al., 2002). Cognitive load was manipulated by researchers asking participants to memorize a string of seven numbers before questions of infidelity, and then recall the number after the question was answered (DeSteno et al., 2002). Women's responses to the forced choice measure under the cognitive load were almost identical to men's, suggesting that with the addition of cognitive processes (i.e. recalling numbers, solving problems), sex differences are less pronounced. Researchers argue that if the sex differences were innate as Buss proposes, the differences in cognitive load should not matter (Harris, 2003).

Other research suggests that social and cognitive variables play a larger role than Buss and his colleagues hypothesized (DeSteno & Salovey, 1996; Harris & Christenfeld, 1996). These authors suggest that sex differences in some studies are the result of societal norms and importance of masculine and feminine roles. The sex differences are dictated by schemas, scripts, and beliefs, and the authors suggest that the determinant of sex-typed behavior is the person's socially acquired gender-based belief system. For example, Harris and Christenfeld's (1996) "Double Shot Hypothesis" suggests that women tend to believe a man cannot be in love without the probability of him having sex, and men tend to believe a woman cannot have sex without the probability of her falling in love. Thus, when an individual commits one form of infidelity, both variables (love and sex) are incorporated, causing distress over both kinds

of infidelity, and making the sex differences less pronounced. Harris and Christenfield suggest that, rather than the differences being innate and biologically predetermined, a better explanation would be socialization and other social influences

Society and the roles of men and women found in that society may also factor into the experience of jealousy. If a culture values egalitarian attitudes, a belief in human equality especially with respect to social, political, and economic affairs

(egalitarianism [Def. 1]. (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster Online*, Retrieved February 26, 2016, from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/citation.>),

especially in romantic relationships, both kinds of infidelity are less likely to cause distress. Reasons for this might include that in a more egalitarian society women are more self-reliant and not so dependent on men for resources, thus decreasing the distress over emotional infidelity. In this society men may be more sexually active and less devoted to one woman for the passing of his genes, decreasing the distress of sexual infidelity (Buunk et. al., 1996).

Results of a meta-analysis by Harris (2003) found that depending on the type of methodology used (i.e. forced choice responses or Likert scale responses), findings from various research studies will vary. When using the forced choice method, the results were robust in the U.S. with regard to men experiencing more distress over sexual infidelity, and women reporting more distress over emotional infidelity. This finding was not supported in other countries, however, with 70% to 80% of men in Asian and European nationalities (i.e., Chinese, Austrian, Dutch and German) reporting more distress over emotional infidelity. Harris hypothesizes that culture, and what a culture emphasizes as important, play a role in an individual's distress level over infidelity type.

Therefore, if those cultures do not emphasize the role of sex, the distress over that type of infidelity will not be as high as in a country where sex is highly emphasized. However, when using continuous measures, or any other measure other than forced choice, Harris indicated that the sex differences disappear (DeSteno et al., 2002; Harris, 2002). It may be that rather than innate, automatic jealousy mechanisms in individuals, more complex cognitive appraisals could be used to explain the distress individuals feel with regard to sexual and emotional infidelity. Different methodologies (i.e., Likert scales, hypothetical scenarios) may be more efficient in testing these more complex cognitive appraisals (Harris, 2002). More than just sexual and emotional infidelity, jealousy can be found between individuals where reproduction or mating is not a factor, for example, in sibling relationships.

Preventing cuckoldry, one of the major explanations of sexual jealousy in men, may also be explained better by other approaches. Miller and Fishkin (1997) hypothesize that maintaining a close emotional bond with a mate may insure that he/she does not go outside of the relationship looking for other sexual partners. Keeping a mate happy and satisfied in a relationship may have been a better way to prevent sexual infidelity (Miller & Fishkin, 1997; White & Mullen, 1989). While research has shown that sex differences in distress over sexual and emotional infidelity are evident, it has been proposed that other individual differences, may help to explain distress levels in individuals as well.

Individual differences.

Several researchers have examined factors that may moderate differences in jealousy related to sexual and emotional infidelity. It has been shown that partners in short term relationships were more distressed over sexual infidelity than partners who

were in long term relationships, whereas partners in long term relationships were more distressed over emotional infidelity (Mathes, 2005). The author concluded that the more time and energy a person puts into a relationship, the more emotions will become invested. Another study, however, found that men who had been in a committed sexual relationship reported greater distress over sexual infidelity than men who had not (Buss et al., 1992). These findings could be attributed to the fact that when men define a “committed sexual relationship” they do not necessarily think of the length of the relationship, but the definition of the relationship. Men who reported they were in a “committed sexual relationship” were not necessarily in long-term relationships.

Whether a participant actually experienced infidelity or whether he/she relied on a hypothetical scenario is also a determinant of what kind of jealousy he/she found most distressing. When participants had experienced infidelity, men tended not to endorse sexual infidelity as more distressing when compared to emotional infidelity, and women did not tend to endorse emotional infidelity as more distressing when compared to sexual infidelity (Harris, 2002). In an older population, participants focused more on the emotional aspects of the actual infidelity, rather than the sexual (Harris, 2002).

The level of love in an individual’s relationship also predicts the kind of infidelity that is most distressing. People who are more in love are more likely to be bothered by anticipated sexual jealousy; people who are less in love are more bothered by emotional infidelity. People who report less love for their partner are more likely to think that their partner is cheating on them. This could be the result of the level of trust or satisfaction experienced in the relationship, and its effect on jealousy felt by individuals (Russell & Harton, 2005).

An individual's perception of the motives in various aspects of his/her relationship factor into the jealousy experienced as well. The more an individual is not invested in or is insecure in the relationship, the more the rival's attractiveness is seen as something threatening (White, 1981). The primary trigger of jealous emotions is the loss of a romantic partner to a rival (Mathes, Adams & Davies, 1985). Negative perceptions (of the partner) and anticipated jealousy are also greater when the rival is a good friend rather than a stranger (Russell & Harton, 2005).

Jealousy is something that is not easily separated from love or romantic relationships. Neu (1980) states, "To be jealous over someone, you must believe that they love you (or have loved you), but you need not believe that you have a right to that love...nor need you believe that the other has an obligation [to you] built up over time" (p. 44). This is to say that people experience jealousy in relation to their potential dependence on their partner, and their partner's love. With dependence come issues of power. Power is a large factor in any relationship, especially romantic ones (Burgoon & Dunbar, 2006). It dictates how the partners relate to each other and how the decisions are made in the relationship and affects both individuals in different ways.

Sex Differences and Infidelity

The majority of the research being conducted in the area of jealousy seeks to answer questions about jealousy in relation to opposite sex romantic relationships. These relationships being the focus of research, there has been much discussion regarding sex differences in jealousy and how those sex differences impact an individual's experience of jealousy. In addition to sexual difference in the overall emotion of jealousy, research has also examined how men and women experience jealousy in relation to infidelity.

Sex differences are apparent when looking at the object of jealousy. Men and women direct negative feelings toward different people when dealing with jealousy (Schutzwohl, 2008). Women in relationships who have been unfaithful, more than men, report that their jealousy would be directed toward the rival rather than their mate. In contrast, men who have been unfaithful in relationships indicate that their jealousy would be toward the partner rather than the rival. The perception of a rival's attractiveness leads to feelings of jealousy in women but not men (White, 1981). In addition to a rival's attractiveness, sex differences in self-esteem also lead to different level of distress regarding jealousy and infidelity.

Infidelity can lead to broken hearts and relationships coming to abrupt and painful ends. A review of ethnographic accounts from 160 societies found that infidelity was the most common cause of marital dissolution (Betzig, 1989). A meta-analysis of 50 studies found that 34 % of men and 24 % of women have engaged in extramarital sexual activities (Tafoya & Spitzberg, 2007). Infidelity in dating relationships is even higher (McAnulty & Brineman, 2007).

Sex differences in self esteem lead to different levels of distress in infidelity situations. Men obtain more self esteem from their sex lives, and women more from their emotional involvement in the relationship (Goldenberg et. al., 2003). Both genders' self esteem scores correlate with their distress over jealousy, and this is especially strong among women. Women who report higher levels of jealousy are five times as likely to have damaging self esteem as non jealous women (Mullen & Martin, 1994). A greater understanding of jealousy and its effects on men and women might allow for a deeper understanding of how better help those individuals in romantic relationships. Specifically

self-esteem and how it relates to jealousy for both genders. Also important to examine are the different ways that men and women respond to jealousy and infidelity.

Sex differences in how individuals respond to infidelity are also apparent. In dealing with infidelity, men report a greater likelihood of aggression toward other men in a hypothetical scenario, and men are more likely to report that they would become violent when they become aware of their partner's infidelity (Knox, Breed & Zusman, 2007). In a community sample, men were more likely to cope with their distress over infidelity by using denial and avoidance of the situation (Mullen & Martin, 1994). This finding may indicate that men primarily chose to avoid the situation, but when confronted, men chose to be physical. Women show more inclination to exhibit sadness and to seek out social support in friends and loved ones (Miller & Maner, 2008) and vocalize their distress (Mullen & Martin, 1994). Men are more likely to drink when dealing with their partner's infidelity and women are more likely to eat (Shackelford, Buss & Bennett, 2002). Men are more worried about the potential loss of the relationship, whereas women are more concerned how the infidelity would impact the quality of the relationship (Mullen & Martin, 1994). As discussed in previous sections, jealousy may have maladaptive consequences for both the romantic relationship and for individuals in the relationships. Different physiological and emotional effects of jealousy are apparent and differ between sexes. Of these various reactions to jealousy, most could be considered maladaptive and disruptive to the individual experiencing the following effects.

Physiological and emotional effects also differ between genders in relation to jealousy. Overall, women react with a more intense physiological and emotional response than do men. Women report more shakiness and increased body temperature

and have feelings of nervousness. They also have more feelings of loss, despair, vulnerability, inferiority, and emotional exhaustion than men. This finding might suggest that it is more socially acceptable for women to express their feelings of jealousy, or that there are sex differences in the way men and women experience jealousy (Pines & Friedman, 1998).

Power and Dependency

Power differs between men and women in romantic relationships. The majority of people report unequal power in their relationship. Men are perceived to have more power in relationships than women (Falbo & Peplau, 1980). Women report that they have the weaker position than their partners (Diekman, Goodfriend & Goodwin, 2004; Felmler, 1994; Peplau & Campbell, 1989). Relationships have generally been seen as a woman's domain, but men still tend to have the power within the relationship because they hold the economic and financial power, and do not depend so much on the relationship to satisfy those needs (Diekman, et al., 2004).

According to Waller and Hill (1951), the person with the least emotional involvement ought to dictate the conditions for further contact and how much emotional involvement the relationship should/will have because he/she is less dependent on the partner. As the less emotionally involved partner tends to have greater power, men are more likely than women to see themselves as less emotionally invested (Rusbult, Martz & Agnew, 1998). The partner who is the least emotionally involved may have more freedom to take risks in the relationship such as dictating to the other partner what will occur within the relationship. The partner with the least emotional involvement will be able to do that without the fear of losing the relationship because that partner does not

have as much invested in the relationship. Relationship dependence may therefore stem from the idea that the level of emotional involvement will dictate how much an individual depends on the relationship for his/her well-being or happiness.

Relationship dependence is contingent upon a partner's goals and investment in the relationship, and whether the partner can get individual goals better met outside of the relationship (Emerson, 1962). Differing from relationship dependence is emotional dependence, which determines how much power an individual has in the relationship. The less emotionally dependent a person is in the relationship, the more power he/she has to detach from the other person without getting as emotionally hurt, giving him/her more power to dictate the terms of the relationship (Sprecher & Felmlee, 1997). Relationship dependence may help explain the sex differences in sexual and emotional jealousy.

If an individual (regardless of gender) reports having more power in the relationship, distress over jealousy should be affected. Berman and Frazier (2005) used Buss et al.'s forced choice method to study sex differences in distress over hypothetical infidelity. Fifty-eight percent of men and 35% of women reported that their partner "enjoying sexual activities" with another person would be more distressing than their partners' overall "emotional attachment" with another person. Relationship power mediated these sex differences. Mean scores on relationship dependence were lower among participants who reported that sexual infidelity was more distressing than among those who said that emotional infidelity was worse. This finding suggests that, at least with hypothetical situations, dependency can have an effect on the type of infidelity that participants find more distressing.

There is evidence that jealousy is a threat to romantic relationships and can cause harmful effects to individuals who experience that emotion (de Silva, 1997). For men, jealousy has been found to lead to maladaptive behavior such as drinking and becoming physically abusive with their partners. For women, eating is a way to cope with the emotion of jealousy (Knox, Breed & Zusman, 2007).

When examining the impact that relationship power and dependency has in relationships, it become apparent that individuals who have more perceived relationship power may not experience high levels of distress over sexual infidelity when compared to individuals who have lower perceived relationship power. Relationship power and dependence mediated the sex differences relating to distress over sexual and emotional infidelity.

The extant literature provides many insights into the relationships between dependency, power, and both sexual and emotional jealousy. However, this knowledge has been gleaned from studying heterosexual populations in strictly heterosexual relationships. The next section will discuss the specific population recruited for the current research. I will discuss the findings of previous meta analyses conducted to examine past research using the LGB population, the difficulties of defining sexual orientation in the research in general, the differences between same-sex and opposite-sex couples and that has been conducted using the homosexual population using the constructs examined in this study.

LGB Population in Research

With the increasing visibility of sexually diverse individuals and same-sex couples, the 21st century has seen a renewed interest in research with this population.

Along with this renewed interest, the public has shifted its view of same-sex couples being an abnormality and full of dysfunction toward a view of the members being a sexual minority group that routinely deals with discrimination and social stigma (Peplau & Fingerhut, 2007)

In a methodological and content review of counseling journals from 1990-1999 it was found that between 31% (n = 45; Chung & Katayama, 1996) and 62% (n = 8; Buhrke, Ben-Ezra, Hurley & Ruprecht, 1992) of studies did not assess for sexual orientation. This indicates that the researchers assumed that participants were either gay/lesbian or heterosexual. Taking this a step further, it is unclear if the researchers included bisexuality in their limited assessment. It is then argued that the samples in these studies could be made up of either gay men, lesbian women, bisexual and/or heterosexual men and bisexual and/or heterosexual women, with the counter point being true as well (Phillips, Ingram, Smith & Mindes, 2003).

Over the years trends have been noticed in the literature regarding the research involving individuals who identify as homosexual. One major trend evidenced by examining the literature is that it appears heterosexual bias has been decreased, taking more into account the language, the way questions are asked and the way the questions are asked. This is possibly explained by the shifting of society and the field of psychology as a whole (Phillips, Ingram, Smith & Mindes, 2003). However, the authors indicate that while the research has been developing in a more inclusive way, more work need to be done to examine other flaws that are in the scientific methodology and subsequently in the literature. It is suggested that more theory- driven research be highlighted, more diverse research methodology be used, more diverse sampling

techniques and methods for assessing sexual orientation be implemented (Phillips, Ingram, Smith & Mindes, 2003).

It was also suggested that the amount of research done with the LGB population be increased, in an attempt to aid in the visibility and understanding of the population (Buhrke, Ben-Ezra, Hurley & Ruprecht, 1992). In the analysis done by Phillips, et al. (2003), it was reported that three times as many articles related to LGB issues were published in the 10 year period (1990 – 1999) than the previous 12 year period. The authors suggested that while that was a positive improvement, more work needed to be done. The articles on LGB issues needed to be integrated into the mainstream journals and not only in special issues put out by various counseling journals (Phillips, et al., 2003). It is understood by professionals in the counseling field that more research on career development and a more theoretical based empirical research design need to be increased.

More recently a content analysis examining LGB studies in couples and family related journals from 1996 to 2010 was conducted. Results indicated a 238.8% increase from a previous content analysis (Clark & Serovich, 1997), looking at years 1975-1995 (Hartwell, Serovich, Grafsky & Kerr, 2012). It was found that research examining counseling with LGB populations was the major kind of article being presented. The authors suggest this is a positive move forward with the scientific community looking at LGB issues as a part of mainstream society and part of a healthy sexuality. Overall, research is moving away from examining LGB issues as being maladaptive and attempting to find the cause of and the adjustment to homosexuality (Hartwell, Serovich, Grafsky & Kerr, 2012).

The increase of the research and literature being produced is a welcome change for both therapists and supervisors alike. More information can be gleaned from the literature and better training and therapy can be conducted with the LGB population. However, the authors concluded that more rigorous research is needed. Calling for more differences in methodology, research being rooted in theory and stronger research designs will help ensure that couples and family therapists will move away from heterosexual bias in practice (Hartwell, Serovich, Grafsky & Kerr, 2012).

Issues with LGB Research

Conceptualizations of sexual orientation vary often between researchers (Sell, 1997). Kinsey was one of the first researchers to depart from previous individuals only looking at sexual orientation as a dichotomy. Kinsey understood that rarely is the world binary and rarely do individuals fit neatly into categories. He was a proponent of the continuum and stated that individuals exist often in a place between the extremes (Kinsey, Pomeroy & Martin, 1948; Kinsey, Pomeroy, Martin & Gebhard, 1953).

It has been suggested that researchers should assess for sexual orientation and share with readers how they do so (Moradi, Mohr, Worthington, & Fassinger 2009). It is stressed that the assessment not be dichotomous, only looking at the categories of homosexuality and heterosexuality. It must include bisexuality as well. Even with that understanding, it is imperative that researchers understand that it might not be as simple as asking people to self-report their sexual orientation. Awareness that individuals may not fit “neatly” into one of those categories is important. Researchers are understand that things such as sexual orientation and sexual identity may not be static, there may be a certain level of fluidity in those experiences (Moradi, Mohr, Worthington, & Fassinger

2009). The conversation continues in terms of how some individuals experience things such as sexual orientation. While sexual attraction is one facet of the equation, others have suggested that things such as emotional connection, preferences and social preferences also may play a part in determining sexual orientation (Klein, Sepekoff, and Wolf, 1985)

There are, however, concerns with the scale that Kinsey developed to increase the accuracy of the sexual orientation self-report of individuals. Kinsey took into account two factors of sexual orientation, “overt sexual experience” and “psychosexual reactions” when asking individuals about their experience. However, Kinsey later collapsed these dimensions into one lump sum, which some argue took away from the very aspect he was trying to measure (Weinrich, Snyder, Pillard, Grant, Jacobson, Robinson & McWhirter, 1993; Weinberg, Williams, Prior, 1994).

There are many different aspects of an individual’s sexual orientation. Previous ways to explain and attempt to capture sexual orientation have fallen flat due to lack of understanding regarding identity development, lack of grounded theory in the research and researchers not taking the time to investigate certain properties, which may lead to oversimplification in understanding (Sell, 1997).

Current research has gained more understanding in relation to the complexity of sexual orientation and sexuality in general. For example, from one perspective sexual orientation is a specific way of embodying sexuality through predispositions toward other individuals on the basis of their gender (Worthington & Mohr, 2002). Further, it has been shown that same-sex sexual behaviors as well as cognitive and emotional attractions are wide spread through individuals who identify as heterosexual and other sexual

experiences are wide spread though individuals who identify as homosexual (Diamant, Schuster, McGuigan & Lever, 1999; Dunne, Bailey, Kirk & Martin, 2000).

Further complicating the issue is the addition of gender into the understanding of sexual orientation. As it is becoming more accepted that the binary understanding of gender is limited and identity is more fluid, the less individuals are able to confidently say that an individual belongs in the homosexual category simply because the individual is attracted to the same-sex (Fassinger & Arseneau, 2007; Moradi, Mohr, Worthington & Fassinger, 2009). It is argued that asking individuals to self-report sexual orientation (especially when using forced choice methods) is complex and may not garner the most accurate information (Moradi, et al., 2009).

Given these recommendations in extant research and the complicated nature of measurement in this population, the present study focused on the behaviors within members of a same-sex relationship, rather than focusing on the identification of the individuals taking part in the research.

Differences and Similarities in Same-Sex and Opposite-Sex Couple Populations

Kurdek (2005) found that factors that predict relationship quality tend to be similar, if not the same for same-sex and opposite-sex married couples. Empirical research indicated strong similarities between same-sex and opposite-sex couples in relation to reports of love and satisfaction. There were no significant differences in reports on standardized scores on Love and Liking scales on matched samples of same-sex and opposite-sex couples currently in a romantic/sexual relationship (Peplau & Cochran, 1980).

Kurdek (1998) found similar results in a longitudinal study examining both married opposite-sex couples and cohabitating same-sex couples. He controlled for age, education, income and years cohabitating and found no differences in satisfaction between groups. He tested the individuals again after five years and found that generally, all scores on satisfaction decreased, but there was still no difference between that of opposite-sex couples and same-sex couples.

Evidence strongly supports the understanding that members of same-sex relationship are, on average, satisfied with their relationships. It has also been shown that their level of satisfaction is at least equal to that of opposite-sex, married couples (Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983; Kurdek, 2001). This indicates that while there are outward differences in the make-up of a same-sex couple, the aspects of the relationship, such as satisfaction are reported to be similar.

Differences emerge when studying sexuality in same-sex and opposite-sex relationships. There are differences reported between same-sex and opposite sex couples when examining the issue of sexual exclusiveness with a partner versus openness. There are general differences in attitudes related to monogamy. Thirty-six percent of men in same-sex relationships indicated that it was important to be sexually monogamous. This is compared to 71% of women in same-sex relationships, 84% of women in opposite sex relationships and 75% of men in opposite sex relationships (Bailey, 1994).

There are also differences in relation to actual behavior in the relationships (Bryant & Demian, 1994). The American Couples Study indicated that women in same-sex relationships (28%), wives (21%) and husbands (26%) reported engaging in sex outside of the primary relationship, compared to 82% of men in same-sex relationships..

The final difference that was discussed was the fact that of those individuals who took part in the extradyadic sex, men in same-sex relationships reported engaging with more partners when compared to the other groups (Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983).

Predictors of relationship quality have also been examined. Huston (2000) indicated that variables related to relationship quality usually come from four places. They include characteristics each partner brings to the relationship, how each partner views the relationship, how the partners behave toward each other, and the perceived support of the relationship. It was found that the variables for relationship quality in same-sex couples do not differ from those found in opposite-sex couples and are just as strong (Kurdek, 2005). Relative to partners from married opposite sex couples, partners from same-sex couples tend to assign household labor more fairly, resolve conflict more constructively, experience similar levels of satisfaction, and perceive less support from family members but more support from friends (Kurdek, 2005)

Research indicated that between same-sex and opposite-sex couples, there is a wide range of variability in relation to frequency of engaging in sexual activities and there is also a general decline in frequency as time goes on. It has been shown there are differences between same-sex and opposite-sex sexual activity within couples. In early stages of the relationship, it has been shown that men in same-sex relationships have sex more frequently than women in same-sex relationships or men/women in opposite sex relationships (Rothblum, 2000). It has also been shown that women in same-sex couples report less sexual activity than either men in same-sex couples or opposite sex couples. There have been many speculations into why that is, ranging from the socialization of women and sexuality to the fact that women may not feel comfortable taking the

initiative when it comes to sexual encounters. There is also speculation into the general understanding of “sex” and the involvement of penile penetration, which may not capture women in same-sex relationship’ sexual experiences (Rothblum, 2000).

When it comes to commitment research has shown there are three general factors that are present which increased partner’s psychological commitment to each other and the length of their relationship. These three general factors are seen in not only opposite sex couples, but in same-sex couples as well (Kurdek, 2000; Peplau & Spalding, 2000). The factors include things such as positive attraction forces (love and satisfaction), the availability of alternatives, and barriers that might make it difficult for a partner to leave the relationship (Peplau & Spalding, 2000).

The responsibility of household chores and assigned roles in relationships tend to be determined by the sex of the partner. Research has examined how members of a same-sex relationship handle the splitting up of chores in the house and roles in the relationship. It has been found that members of a same-sex relationship do not assign household chores based on typical, “husband/wife” roles. Members of same-sex relationships are more likely than members of opposite-sex relationships to talk through and work toward splitting the work equally and fairly as well as taking into account partner’s strengths, skills and interests (Carrington, 1999; Patterson, 2000). Lastly, as couples become more settled, the partners are likely to excel and specialize in the household chores they are responsible for (Carrington, 1999).

In terms of conflict, there is some evidence that members of same-sex relationships often start out discussion regarding problems in a more positive light when compared to their opposite-sex counterparts. They were also more likely to maintain that

positive tone throughout the course of the discussion (Gottman et al, 2003). Members in same-sex relationships may also resolve conflict in a more positive manner, argue more effectively and be more likely to suggest possible compromises and solutions (Kurdek, 2004).

When examining the specific topics couples fight about, research has shown that members of same-sex couples and opposite-sex couples tend to fight and argue about the same 20 issues (Kurdek, 2004). It was also found that the differences in frequency with which they fought was more often than not, nonexistent, as well as the areas of most conflict in the relationship.

Jealousy.

Barelds and Dijkstra (2008) examined three distinct kinds of jealousy (reactive, anxious and possessive) per Buunk's jealousy scale (1997) and the overall relationship quality of both heterosexual and homosexual individuals. It was found that regardless of kind of jealousy type individuals who identify as women in same-sex relationships did not rate their relationship quality lower. This may suggest that women in same-sex relationships do not view jealousy as a positive component or negative aspect of relationships and that relationship quality is more impacted by other aspects. Being more monogamous in nature, it is hypothesized that other aspects of a same-sex relationship involving women are stressed. In relation to men in a same-sex relationship, it was found that anxious jealousy was strongly and negatively related with relationship quality. It was also found that men in same-sex relationships reported lower levels of reactive jealousy compared to men in opposite sex relationships and women in same-sex relationships. In line with past research, this is indicative of men in same-sex relationships being less

upset by a partner's sexual infidelity when compared to men in opposite sex relationships (Bailey et al., 1994; Bringle, 1995; Hawkins, 1990; Sheets & Wolfe, 2001).

Parson, Starks, Garamel and Grov (2012) examined sexual relationship quality in same-sex male couples. The Parson et al., inquired into the topic differentiating between "relationships agreements" in the same-sex male couples. Couples were classified as "monogamous", "open", "monogamish" or "discrepant". It was found that individuals in monogamous relationships were significantly more sexually jealous when compared to other categories of relationships agreements. Indicating that males in same-sex relationships may endorse more distress when confronted with sexual infidelity.

Sexual and emotional infidelity.

It has been shown there are differences between same-sex and opposite-sex sexual activity within couples. In early stages of the relationship, it has been shown that gay men have sex more frequently than lesbians or men/women in heterosexual relationships (cite). It has also been shown that lesbian couples report less sexual activity than either gay men or heterosexual couples. There have been many speculations into why that is, ranging from the socialization of women and sexuality to the fact that women may not feel comfortable taking the initiative when it comes to sexual encounters. There is also speculation into the general understanding of "sex" and the involvement of penile penetration, which may not capture women in same-sex relationships' sexual experiences (Rothblum, 2000). These differences could have an impact on how participants understand and appreciate "sexual infidelity".

Symons (1979) suggested that even though individuals in same-sex relationships differ from individuals in opposite sex relationships in terms of their sexual

objects and choices of mates, they are generally the same in regards to their other sexual preferences. He stated that all men, regardless of sexual orientation, are naturally drawn to want a variety of sexual partners and this may be a reason that men in same-sex relationships have difficulty maintaining a long term relationship. Symons went on to discuss that like men in opposite-sex relationships, men in same-sex relationships are jealous of their mate's other sexual partners.

Harris (2002), found that when using sexual orientation, a larger percentage of the opposite sex-relationship sample when compared to a same-sex sample stated that sexual infidelity would be more distressing than emotional infidelity. It was also found that when forced to choose, men in same-sex relationships reported that emotional infidelity would be more distressing than sexual infidelity. Sexual orientation was found to be almost as good as gender with regard to predicting responses. Harris found that more individuals in opposite-sex relationships than individuals in same-sex relationships found sexual infidelity more distressing. Finally, sexual orientation was almost as good as gender at predicting hypothetical responses. It was hypothesized that because this population does not need to worry about cuckoldry, emotional infidelity would be more damaging than sexual infidelity. That is, more individuals in opposite-sex relationships than individuals in same-sex relationships individuals picked sexual infidelity.

Some research suggests that individuals in same-sex relationships and individuals in opposite sex relationships differ in the importance they place on how sexually exclusive their relationship and partners are. Peplau and Cochran (1980, cited in Peplau & Cochran, 1983) asked both groups, individuals in opposite-sex relationships and individuals in same-sex relationships, to rate how much importance was placed on

various aspects of romantic relationships. Few group differences were found, however, one difference was shown. The authors found sexual exclusivity was more important to men in opposite-sex relationships and women than to men in same-sex relationships and women in same-sex relationships. In addition, individuals in same-sex relationships might report feeling less distressed over sexual infidelity than individuals in opposite-sex relationships because it does not warrant the same kind of threat or implication when compared to individuals in opposite-sex relationships (Harris, 2001).

Bassett, Percy, Dabbs (2001) used Buss' method to examine women in same-sex relationships. The authors examined the difference between self-reported "butch" and "femme" women. The findings supported previous research that women who identify as "butch" and have more masculine features when compared to "femmes" and also exhibited more masculine patterns of jealousy. The research also examined the participant's level of distress over a rival's characteristics. It was found that women who identified as "butch" were more jealous over a wealthy competitor and women who identified as "femme" were more jealous of a competitor that was physically attractive.

Dijkstra, Groofhof, Poel, Laverman, Schrier & Buunk (2001), examined the difference between men and women in same-sex relationships using Buss' forced choice method. Participants were given six dilemmas to read, each asking the participant to choose between either a sexual infidelity choice or an emotional infidelity choice. It was found that men in same-sex relationships were more distressed by emotional infidelity and women in same-sex relationships were more distressed by the thought of a partner engaging in sexual infidelity. This would suggest that individuals in same-sex relationships mirror individuals in opposite-sex relationships of the opposite sex. The

researchers suggest that the findings also support the double-shot hypothesis that states the choice between sexual and emotional infidelity is partly dependent on the sex of the individual's partner rather than the sex of the individual.

The authors make note, however, that the individuals only differed in their infidelity choice when they were in committed same-sex relationships. When individuals were not in committed relationships, there was no difference between men and women and their distress over sexual or emotional infidelity. This may suggest that individuals who are not in a committed relationship rely on memories of past relationships to make the decision about distressing infidelity choice. When this is the case, the memories may not be powerful enough to warrant a distinct difference in distress.

Bailey, Gaulin, Agyei and Glaude (1994), found women in same-sex relationships were more interested in visual sexual stimuli and less concerned with social status of potential romantic partners than were women in opposite-sex relationships. Difference was similar to men in opposite-sex relationships and women in opposite-sex relationships. This suggested that women in same-sex relationships were similar to men in opposite-sex relationships not just in their attraction to women but in their preference of characteristics of a mate.

A study conducted by Frederick (2013), examined the experience of jealousy in relation to sexual and emotional infidelity. The researcher examined differences in gender and also an individual's sexual orientation using Buss' forced choice method and testing Harris' Social Cognitive Theory in relation to jealousy.

Using the Buss' forced choice scenario, participants were given this information: "Take a moment to imagine which of the following situations would be MOST upsetting

or distressing to you.” They then choose between the following options: “You found out that your partner is having a sexual relationship with someone else (but has not fallen in love with this person)” or “You found out that your partner has fallen in love with someone else (but is not having a sexual relationship with this person).”

Gender was a strong predictor of upset over sexual versus emotional infidelity for heterosexual participants, with men being more likely to be more distressed over sexual infidelity. Generally speaking, heterosexual men stood out from all other groups in terms of being most upset with sexual infidelity (54 %), more so than heterosexual women (35 %), gay men (32 %), lesbian women (34 %), bisexual men (30 %), and bisexual women (27 %).

In contrast to the double-shot hypothesis (Carpenter, 2012), people who typically date men were not more likely to be relatively more upset by emotional infidelity, while people who typically date women were not more likely to be relatively more upset by sexual infidelity. In addition, contrast to the Harris (2003) social-cognitive perspective, the gender difference was observed among both younger and older adults. The study also showed being in a relationship was associated with relatively less upset over sexual infidelity for gay and bisexual men and there was a statistically significant but weak association for heterosexual men and women.

Power and Satisfaction

While research is lacking when examining the construct of emotional dependence, there is limited research when looking at individuals in same-sex relationships and relationship power. Fabalo & Peplau (1980), stated that due to the current culture and how individuals are socialized, it might be expected that sex

differences will be found in power strategies regardless of sexual orientation. However, because limited research has been conducted looking at same-sex relationship, he posited that it might be possible for individuals in same-sex relationships may view relationship power differently than individuals in opposite sex relationships.

Fabalo & Peplau, 1980, examined relationship power and used two dimensions (directness and bilaterally) to investigate that said construct. Directness refers to the individual speaking directly to their partner, and the bilateral dimension refers to the individual using strategies such as putting the partner in a “good mood” and “hinting”. While heterosexuality was associated with a distinct pattern of power, “homosexuality” was not associated with a distinct pattern of power. In addition, counter to past research women in same-sex relationships did not resemble men in opposite sex relationships and men in same-sex relationships did not resemble women in opposite sex relationships in power dimensions. Women in same-sex relationships and men in same-sex relationships did not differ significantly in the kind of power they used in relationships.

In a fairly unique study, Walker (1996) examined power in romantic relationships by investigating the television remote control usage between partners. Though there were only a small number of couples in same-sex relationships represented in the study, some interesting facts were found. Men in same-sex relationships were found to be more selfish with the remote and reportedly cared less about their partner’s preferences. Women in same-sex relationships were reportedly more concerned about their partner’s preferences while in control of the remote. The authors comment that this behavior may be indicative of individuals who wish to have a more egalitarian relationship. This may indicate that individuals in same-sex relationships may hold true

to their gender. The author suggests that because of the small number of couples in same-sex relationships represented, these findings cannot be generalized.

Peplau and Fingerhut (2007) suggest when researchers have tried to examine power in relationships, this generally means that researchers attempt to gain a better understanding of the overall pattern of dominance to glean understanding of whether one individual is more influential than the other. The authors suggest that men in same-sex relationships and women in same-sex relationships who enter into psychological studies looking at relationship power are often individuals who advocate for equality and have value systems that match a more liberal stance. Peplau and Cochrane (1980) found that 92% of men in same-sex relationships and 97% of women in same-sex relationships determined the “ideal” balance of power is that of both members of the relationship having equal power. A more recent study indicated that men in same-sex relationships and women in same-sex relationships reported that equality in a relationship was important in a relationship, although lesbian women scored higher on the value of equality when compared to men in same-sex relationships (Kurdek, 1995).

Although there has been research looking at the importance of power in romantic relationship in couples of same-sex individuals, there are also inconsistent findings in this area. When couples report the actual power balance in the relationship, the findings vary between studies (Peplau and Fingerhut, 2007). Peplau and Cochrane (1980), found that when same-sex couples were asked “who has more say” in the relationship, 38% of men in same-sex relationships and 59% of women in same-sex relationships reported equal power. This may indicate that while same-sex couples place importance on the idea of partner equality, the reality inside of the relationship equality may not be present. In other

research, there are differences found in what constitutes power in a relationship in same-sex couples.

Harry (1994) found that men in same-sex relationships who were older and more affluent than their partner also held more of the power in a romantic relationship. It has been reported that income is an important factor in determining power with men in same-sex relationships (Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983). When examining the same factors in women in same-sex relationships, the findings are not as consistent. Some studies find that income is an indication of power (Caldwell & Peplau, 1984) and other studies do not indicate income as an indication of power (Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983). Studies including same-sex and opposite sex couples (Falbo & Peplau 1980, Howard et al. 1986) have demonstrated that regardless of gender or sexual orientation, partners with relatively less power in a relationship tend to use “weak strategies” such as withdrawal or supplication. In contrast, partners with relatively more power tend to use “strong strategies” including bargaining or bullying. (cite)

Not all couples who strive for power equality achieve this ideal. Reports of the actual balance of power vary from study to study. For example, when Peplau & Cochran (1980) asked same-sex couples “who has more say” in your relationship, only 38% of men in same-sex relationships and 59% of women in same-sex relationships characterized their current relationship as “exactly equal.” Equal power was reported by 59% of the women in same-sex relationships studied by Reilly & Lynch (1990) and by 60% of the men in same-sex relationships studied by Harry & DeVall (1978). Social exchange theory predicts that greater power accrues to the partner who has relatively greater personal resources, such as education, money, or social standing. Studies of men

in same-sex relationships have supported this hypothesis. For example, Harry found that men in same-sex relationships who were older and wealthier than their partner was tended to have more power (Harry 1984, Harry & DeVall 1978). Blumstein & Schwartz (1983, p. 59) concluded that “in gay male couples, income is an extremely important force in determining which partner will be dominant.” For women in same-sex relationships, research results are less clear-cut, with some studies finding that income is significantly related to power (Caldwell & Peplau 1984, Reilly & Lynch 1990) and others not (Blumstein & Schwartz (Page 5). Further research on the balance of power is needed (Peplau & Fingernut, 2007)

There are obvious differences when examining the power in same-sex relationships. While past research has examined relationship power and the different factors that influence the reported power, there is limited research that has examined how relationship power impacts emotional dependency and further, how these constructs impact the degree of distress over sexual and emotional infidelity.

Rationale for the Current Study

The importance of understanding relationship dynamics among individuals in same-sex relationships cannot be overstated. By examining same-sex relationships, researchers and the public gain more reliable information. A second contribution of research on same-sex relationships has been to test the generalizability of relationship concepts and theories that were based, implicitly or explicitly, on heterosexual couples. Finally, the contribution of research on same-sex relationships has been to provide a new way to investigate how gender affects close relationships. For example, by comparing how women behave with male versus female partners, we can begin to disentangle the

effects on social interaction of an individual's own sex and the sex of their partner (Hartwell, 2012). Clinicians without sufficient training or understanding of the lives of LGB persons may be harmful to those clients (Long, 1996). Therefore, providing professionals and the general public with correct and accurate information is imperative for the correct training and subsequent work with same-sex couples.

Some studies with same-sex populations have found differences in regard to the distress levels regarding jealousy and infidelity compared to the opposite sex population, some have found no difference. The present study is attempting to contribute to that gap in the literature.

The present study aimed to use the methods employed by Berman and Frazier (2005) to study gender differences in distress over infidelity. Within the study, Berman and Frazier operationally defined "relationships power" as relationships dependency or emotional attachment, rather than relationship power factors such as decision-making or sexual power. By using perceived power in romantic relationships operationalized by both relationship power and relationship dependence, the present study adds to past research in this area. The present study offers further explanation of how much perceived power affects the feelings of jealousy in a romantic relationship in addition to examining these effects in a same-sex population. Further adding to the research, Berman and Fraizer (2005) only used the forced choice method, and Harris and others (e.g., DeSteno et al., 2002; Harris & Christenfeld, 1996) have argued that findings derived from this method may only be an artifact of measurement. Rating scales have the advantage of separately assessing how upsetting people find each type of infidelity whereas forced-choice measures have the advantage of detecting which of the two forms of infidelity was

truly more upsetting when the two were pitted against each other. Within the study, rating scales were used further adding to the research and the methodology employed in this area.

Using the hypothetical scenarios utilized by Sabini and Silver (2005) and Russell and Harton (2005), this study presented the participants with stimuli designed to mentally engage them more fully and better approximate real-life situations. Stories of sexual and emotional infidelity adapted from Sabini and Silver (2005) present the hypothetical situations in more extreme contexts. In this context, the participant has a clear understanding his/her partner engaged in sexual activity or his/her partner became emotionally close with another individual. In comparison, the scenarios of sexual and emotional infidelity adapted from Russell and Harton (2005) present the hypothetical situations in more everyday contexts. In this context, the participant has a vague idea of what is occurring, without any definitive evidence. Rather than just asking participants to think about a relationship they are currently in and then choosing the option that would most distressing (Buss' method), the hypothetical situations may allow the participants to place themselves along with their romantic partners in the situations being presented.

Based on the literature and research presented above, I predicted the following:

Hypotheses

H1: Regardless of gender, individuals who report higher levels of emotional dependence and lower perceived relationship power will report more distress over emotional infidelity when compared to sexual infidelity

H2: Individuals who identify as women in a same-sex relationship will have higher distress levels over sexual infidelity when compared to individuals who identify as men in a same-sex relationship.

H3: Individuals who identify as men in same-sex relationships will report higher levels of distress over emotional infidelity when compared to individuals who identify as women in same-sex relationships.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

Pilot Study

Before the full study was conducted, a pilot study was used to determine if the scales being used were relevant for people in same-sex relationships. As the scales that were used were not normed on the population being studied, it was important to verify there were no major psychometric differences between the norming population and the population being used in this study.

Sixty-three individuals from across the country ($M_{age} = 31.17$, $SD = 9.37$; 33 females, 30 males) participated in exchange for monetary compensation. All participants were currently in a romantic same-sex relationship and 95.2% of participants were 51 years of age or younger. Sixty-nine point eight percent of the participants were Caucasian/European American, 11.1% were African/African American, 4.8% were Hispanic and 14.3% were representative of other ethnic groups.

All scales were utilized in the pilot study to ensure solid reliability and soundness of the scales for use with the new population (See Table 1). Upon testing it was found that all reliabilities of all full scales were strong, so it was determined the scales were psychometrically sound to use in the full study. When looking at the Sexual Relationship Power Scale it is apparent the Decision Making Subscale has moderate

reliability. However, it is believed for the purpose of the present study it was adequate for the research questions posed.

Table 1. Reliabilities.

Scale	Reliabilities
Dependency Scale	.91
Insecurity Scale	.79
Sexual Relationship Power Scale	.88
Relationship Power Scale	.93
Decision Making Scale	.69
Multidimensional Jealousy Scale	.94

Full Study

Participants

Three hundred and nineteen individuals from across the country (Mage = 29.42, SD = 9.4; 190 females, 122 males, 6 transgender, 1 “other”) participated in exchange for monetary compensation. All participants were currently in a romantic same-sex relationship (13 participants were excluded from the study because the individuals were not in a current romantic relationship), and 95% of participants were 51 years of age or younger. Sixty-Nine point three percent of the participants were Caucasian/European American, 11.6% were African/African American, 9.2% were Hispanic and 9.6% were representative of other ethnic groups.

Table 2. Demographics.

	<i>n</i>	%
Sex		
Men	122	38.2
Women	190	59.6
Transgender	6	1.9
Other	1	.3
Age		
18-29	193	60.7
30 - 49	106	33.3
50 +	19	6
Ethnicity		
Caucasian/European American	225	70.5
African/African American	35	11
Native American	6	1.9
Hispanic	28	8.8
Asian/Asian American	20	6.3

Measures

Demographic and personal information. The demographic questionnaire assessed gender, age, ethnicity, current relationship status, length of current relationship, length of longest romantic relationship, length of last romantic relationship, sex of the

partner, age of the partner, participants' age at the time of their last relationship, if the participant had ever been cheated on, and if the participant had ever cheated on his/her significant other (Appendix A)

Emotional involvement. The Dependency and Insecurity scales (Attridge, Berscheid & Sprecher, 1998) are two measures that examine the concerns that are often related to relationships. Historically, reliabilities reported for the Dependency and Insecurity scales ranged from .90 - .94 and .81 - .89 respectively. The current sample yields reliabilities of .92 and .80 for the Dependency and Insecurity scales. Both scales were reported to have good construct, convergent and divergent validity (Attridge, Berscheid & Sprecher, 1998). These results were found using various correlations with other measures that are both similar and different than the dependency and insecurity scales. The dependency subscale (Appendix B) includes items such as , “X is close to my ideal person” and overall attempts to measure dependency an individual has on their partner. Responses are measured on a 7 point Likert scale that ranges from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. The insecurity subscale (Appendix C) consists of 15 items including such items as, “I worry about losing X’s affection” and attempts to measure an individual’s insecurity when thinking about his/her partner.

Relationship power. The Sexual Relationship Power Scale (SRPS; Pulerwitz, Gortmaker, DeJong, 2000) was used to measure participants’ perceived relationship power. Historically, the reliability for this measure has been reported as .81 ((Pulerwitz et al., 2000). The current sample yielded a reliability statistic of .88. Predictive validity was examined using Mantel-Haenszel chi-square test for trend and logistic regression; both found that the scale had good predictive and construct validity (Pulerwitz et al., 2000).

The scale is made up of two subscales which include the relationship control subscale and the decision making subscale. The relationship control subscale ($\alpha = .94$; Appendix D) consists of 15 items that are used to measure the individual's perception of their partner's power in the relationship. The subscale includes items such as, "Most of the time, we do what my partner wants to do". Responses are measured on a 4 point Likert scale that ranges from 1 = strongly agree to 4 = strongly disagree. The decision making subscale ($\alpha = .62$; Appendix E) consists of 8 items. The subscale items include such items as, "Who usually has more say about what you do together?" Responses are measured on a 3 point scale that consist of 1 = Your partner, 2 = Both of you equally and 3 = You.

Jealousy. The Multidimensional Jealousy Scale (MJS; Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989) consists of 26 items measuring separate aspects of jealousy including cognitive, behavioral, and emotional. Historically, the scale has a good overall reliability ($\alpha = .93$). The subscales also demonstrated good reliabilities (cognitive, $\alpha = .92$, behavioral, $\alpha = .93$ and emotional, $\alpha = .86$) within the literature. The current sample produced reliabilities of .92, .93 and .86 on the cognitive, behavioral and emotional subscales respectively. Pfeiffer and Wong (1989) demonstrated the scale had good convergent and divergent validity (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989). Cognitive jealousy is measured by items such as, "I suspect that X may be attracted to someone else", nine items that examine an individual's emotional jealousy which are measured by item such as "X shows a great deal of interest or excitement in talking to someone of the opposite (same) sex" and ten pertaining to an individual's behavioral jealousy which are measured by items such as, "I call X unexpectedly, just to see if he or she is there". Items are measured by a Likert scale ranging from 1 = never to 7 = all the time on the cognitive and behavioral jealousy items,

and 1 = very pleased to 7 = very upset on the emotional jealousy items (Appendix F) For the purposes of the study, the scale has been slightly modified slightly to better fit the population being studied. The original scale can be found in Appendix G.

Procedure

Participants were first presented with stimuli in the form of scenarios and then asked to reply to the questionnaires and survey items described above. The present study used two varied sets of scenarios in an attempt to gain information in relation to an individual's response in both "extreme" or "factual" scenarios and more "moderate" or "assumed" scenarios. In total, 4 separate scenarios were used and can be found in Appendix H.

Extreme infidelity scenarios. The extreme infidelity scenarios (adapted from Sabini & Silver, 2005) involve situations that attempt to lead an individual to think about his/her partner sexually engaging with a stranger (sexual infidelity). Within this category of scenarios, another situation was introduced in an attempt to lead an individual to think about his/her partner spending the night engaging emotionally or getting emotionally involved with another individual (emotional infidelity). The extreme scenarios are presented in Appendix .

Moderate infidelity scenarios. Moderate Infidelity Scenarios were used from Russell and Harton (2005). The moderate infidelity scenarios involve situations that allowed for an individual to think about his/her partner being physically flirtatious with a member of the opposite sex while talking in a public area (sexual infidelity). Within this category of scenarios, another situation was introduced that allowed for an individual to think about observing his/her partner appearing to speak intimately with a member of the

opposite sex (emotional infidelity). For the purpose of the study, “opposite-sex” was changed to “same-sex” within the scenarios. The moderate scenarios are presented in Appendix D.

Participants were asked to read and respond to all four scenarios, as well as read and answer all of the questionnaires. For the purposes of analyses, “distress” was assessed using the total score of all options of kind of emotional reaction (hurt, angry, jealousy upset). In relation to “sexual and emotional jealousy”, the total scores of both of the jealousy items within the hypothetical scenarios were added.

Participants were recruited using two methods. The first method used a system called, Amazon Mechanical Turk. Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) is a marketplace for online work, which allows “Requesters” (researchers), to post tasks (surveys, questionnaires, etc.) and “workers” (participants), complete the task in return for small amounts of money. Participants were recruited using practice that is standard on AMT, which was to display a small description of the task, along with a link to the survey. If the participants felt the compensation of the task was appropriate, and they fit the researcher’s criteria, they were able to proceed to take the survey. Participants of the study currently live in the United States, had a 95% positive response rate on previous AMT surveys, and identified as currently being in a same-sex relationship. Participation was voluntary and the participants were told that at any time they would have the opportunity to stop the task, however, they would not be compensated if they did so. The participants were given the chance to read about the survey, have knowledge regarding the compensation, read the informed consent, and then choose to participate. Participants were compensated \$.50 to complete the survey. The individuals were also informed in

the description of the project and the informed consent that there were two ways the participant would get kicked out of the survey and not be compensated. The first way that was indicated was if the participants reported they identified as heterosexual. When this occurred, the participant would be taken to the end of the survey and informed they would not be compensated for their time, as indicated in the informed consent. The last way the participant would be kicked out of the survey was if a specific item that was placed in the middle of the survey was answered incorrectly. A specific item was placed in the middle of the survey in an attempt to insure the quality and accountability of the participants. The item read, "Answer 'Agree' for this item." If the participants answered anything different for this item, they were taken to the end of the survey and informed they would not be compensated, also as indicated by the informed consent.

Participants were also recruited through social media and email sampling. Two individuals were chosen to help recruit for this study based on their identification of partnership and involvement in the same-sex population. The anonymous online survey was emailed to various individuals who were known to be a member of the population being surveyed. The anonymous survey was also placed on Facebook page of a university group. These surveys were not a part of the AMT system. Therefore, the individuals who took the survey as a part of these means of collection were not all compensated, however were added to a drawing for two 10 dollar gift cards. Other than the differences in compensation, the method of taking the survey was the same with each kind of methodology given the same instruction.

Both methods of recruitment used an electronic format on surveymonkey.com. The anonymous survey took approximately 11 minutes to complete; with participants

given the informed consent and were asked to agree before they began the survey. At the end of the survey the participants were thanked for their time.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary examination indicated there were no differences between male and female participants for relationship power, $t(294) = 1.2, p = .24$, dependency, $t(309) = .44, p = .66$, insecurity, $t(307) = -.54, p = .59$, or jealousy, $t(310) = -.87, p = .38$.

Table 3. Gender Differences in Relation to Dependency, Insecurity, Power and Jealousy.

Scales	Gender	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Dependency	Male	86.7	16.1	.02	.44	309	.66
	Female	85.9	16.3				
Insecurity	Male	53.3	14.6	.02	-.54	307	.59
	Female	54.4	14.4				
Power	Male	92.3	16.6	3.0	1.2	294	.24
	Female	89.8	18.7				
Jealousy	Male	59.5	16.7	.55	-.87	310	.38
	Female	61.2	18.1				

Differences were examined based on responses of individuals' cheating history, specifically if an individual had any experience with being cheated on or any experience engaging in cheating behaviors. When examining differences between individuals who have or have not cheated on a partner, there were no differences in relationship power $F(1, 316) = .22, p = .64$, dependency $F(1, 316) = .74, p = .40$, insecurity $F(1, 314) = .56, p = .46$ or jealousy $F(1, 317) = .06, p = .80$. In addition, there was also no difference between those individuals who have or have not had a partner cheat in relationship power $F(1, 316) =$

.37, $p = .55$, dependency $F(1, 316) = .12$, $p = .73$, insecurity $F(1, 314) = .05$, $p = .82$ or jealousy $F(1, 317) = 1.31$, $p = .25$

Table 4. Present and Past Cheating.

Variables	M	SD	F	DF	Sig
Have/Have not cheated on partner					
Relationship Power	75.67	16.79	.22	316	.64
Dependence	86.40	16.17	.74	316	.40
Insecurity	53.90	14.41	.56	314	.56
Jealousy	60.55	17.73	.06	317	.80
Have/have not been cheated on by partner					
Relationship Power	75.66	16.79	.37	316	.55
Dependency	86.40	16.17	.12	316	.73
Insecurity	53.89	14.41	.05	314	.82

Distress and Jealousy. Correlations were used to gain further understanding of the relationships between variables of distress and jealousy. Participants who reported higher levels of distress over both sexual and emotional infidelity, also reported higher levels of jealousy when thinking about their partner being sexually or emotionally unfaithful. As stated in the methods section, jealousy was measured using the total score of the Multidimensional Jealousy Scale and the addition of the jealousy items in the hypothetical scenarios.

Table 5. Distress and Jealousy Correlations.

	M	SD	Total	Sexual	Emotional	Sexual	Emotional
Jealousy							
Total	60.55	17.73	1				
Sexual	11.29	2.52	.25**	1			
			319				
Emotional	11.82	2.68	.17**	.66**	1		
			318	318			
Distress							
Sexual	42.47	9.43	.32**	.84	.57	1	
			319	319	318		
Emotional	48.29	8.67	.28**	.68**	.87**	.68**	1
			318	318	318	318	

To address the hypothesis stating that individuals who report higher levels of emotional dependence and lower perceived relationship power will report more distress over emotional infidelity when compared to sexual infidelity, correlations and regressions were used. Participants who reported higher levels of relationship dependence also reported higher levels of perceived relationship power ($r = .36, n = 317, p = .000$) and higher levels of distress over both sexual ($r = .15, n = 318, p = .00$) and emotional infidelity ($.18, n = 317, p = .000$). See Table 4. These results partially support the first hypothesis as there are relationships between distress and emotional dependence and relationship power. As stated in the Methods section, overall jealousy was analyzed by the total score of the Multidimensional Jealousy Scale and “distress” was assessed using the total score of all options of kind of emotional reaction (hurt, angry, jealousy upset). In relation to “sexual and emotional jealousy”, the total scores of both of the jealousy items within the hypothetical scenarios were added.

Table 6. Correlations between Distress, Jealousy, Dependency, Insecurity and Power.

	M	SD	Dependency	Insecurity	Power	Distress		Jealousy
						Sexual	Emotional	
Dependency	86.3	16.2	1					
Insecurity	53.9	14.4	-.32**	1				
Power	90.8	17.9	.36**	-.69**	1			
Distress								
Sexual	42.5	9.4	.15**	.19**	-.07	1		
Emotional	42.3	8.7	.18**	.1	.05	.68**	1	
Jealousy	60.6	17.7	-.09	.53**	-.55**	.32**	.22**	1

To compare differences in the level of distress between emotional and sexual infidelity, a difference score was created by subtracting emotional infidelity distress from sexual infidelity distress. Participants' endorsement of emotional vs. sexual infidelity was predicted utilizing their scores on the relationship power, dependency, and insecurity scales. There were no significant predictors of the differences in distress over emotional infidelity. This finding does not support Hypothesis 1, which stated individuals who report higher levels of emotional dependence and lower perceived relationship power will report more distress over emotional infidelity when compared to sexual infidelity.

Table 7. Results of Regression for Predictive Variables in Relation to Distress Felt Over Sexual and Emotional Infidelity.

Variable	M	SD	β	t	df	Sig (2 tail)
Dependency	86.47	16.78	-.3	-.94	309	.35
Insecurity	53.79	15.96	-.4	-1.1	309	.28
Power	53.8	14.44	.05	1.4	309	.18

Finally, to examine predictive factors of distress over sexual verses emotional infidelity two additional regressions were employed. Dependency was found to be a positive predictor of distress over emotional infidelity $b = .14$, $t(310) = 4.00$, $p = .00$ and sexual infidelity $b = .12$, $t(310) = 3.70$, $p = .00$. Insecurity was also found to be a positive

predictor of distress over both sexual $b = .17$, $t(310) = 3.50$, $p = .001$ and emotional infidelity $b = .15$, $t(310) = 3.30$, $p = .001$. Tests to see if the data met the assumption of collinearity indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern (Power, Tolerance = .50, VIF = 1.98; Dependency, Tolerance = .85, VIF = 1.18; Insecurity, Tolerance = .54, VIF = 1.87).

Table 8. Regression Examining Differences in Sexual and Emotional Infidelity.

Type	Variable	M	SD	β	t	df	Sig (2 tail)
Sexual	Insecurity	53.82	14.42	.17	3.50	310	.00
	Dependency	86.53	16.0	.12	3.70	310	.001
Emotional	Insecurity	53.80	14.44	.15	3.30	310	.001
	Dependency	86.50	16.0	.14	4.0	310	.00

Hypothesis Two and Three

Hypothesis two stated, individuals who identify as women in a same-sex relationship will have higher distress levels over sexual infidelity when compared to individuals who identify as men in a same-sex relationship. Results indicate there is no difference distress levels over sexual infidelity between men or women in same-sex relationships and their, $t(310) = 1.08$, $p = .281$. This finding does not support the hypothesis that women in same-sex relationships would report higher levels of distress over sexual infidelity.

Hypothesis three stated that individuals who identify as men in same-sex relationships will report higher levels of distress over emotional infidelity when compared to individuals who identify as women in same-sex relationships. Results indicate there is no difference between men and women in same-sex relationships and their distress levels over emotional infidelity, $t(309) = 1.43$, $p = .15$. This finding does not support the hypothesis that men in same-sex relationships would report higher levels

of distress over emotional infidelity. For the above analyses, Levine’s test was used and examined to ensure these analyses did not need to be run with nonparametric statistics. In both cases, Levine’s test was not significant.

Table 9. Gender Differences in Distress over Sexual and Emotional Infidelity.

Type	Gender	M	SD	F	T	Df	Sig
Sexual	Males	43.14	9.61	.00	1.08	310	.28
	Females	41.95	9.50				
Emotional	Males	49.12	7.67	2.65	1.44	309	.15
	Females	47.66	9.34				

Post-hoc Analysis

In addition to the above analyses, a factor analysis was used examining the items within the Dependency and Insecurity Scales. A principal component analysis was conducted on the 33 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). Items were included in a factor if they had a factor loading greater than .40. The results indicated that eight factors emerged with an eigenvalue over 1.00. Of these eight factors, 2 consisted of multiple items that could be meaningfully classified: Aspects of control and satisfaction with partner. Together, these two factors explained 46.03% of the variance. The loadings for each factor are provided in Table 9 .

Table 10. Factor Analysis of Dependency and Insecurity Items.

	Aspects of Control	Satisfaction with Partner
If I couldn't have my partner, I'd easily find someone to replace my partner.	.46	
I don't really need my partner.	.56	
I feel very secure in my relationship.	-.68	
My partner pays enough attention to me.	-.54	
My relationship with my partner is stable and quietly satisfying.	-.62	
There is little conflict between my partner and myself.	-.44	
My partner's presence makes any activity more enjoyable.	.70	
My partner is close to my ideal as a person.	.78	
I am very lucky to be involved in a relationship with my partner.	.78	
I find myself wanting my partner when we're not together.	.78	
My relationship with my partner has given my life more direction and purpose.	.77	
I'd be extremely depressed for a long time if my relationship with my partner were to end.	.63	
My relationship with my partner has made my life more worthwhile.	.80	
I want my partner.	.80	
I am very dependent upon my partner.	.40	
I feel very proud to know my partner.	.83	
I want my partner to confide mostly in me.	.57	
I spend a great deal of time thinking about my partner.	.77	
I want my partner to tell me "I love you."	.69	
My partner is a rather mysterious person.	-.41	.65
I often wonder how much my partner really cares for me.		.72
Sometimes, I wish I didn't care so much for my partner.	-.45	.63
I have great difficulty trying to figure out my partner.		.45
I have imagined conversations I would have with my partner.		.62
I try to plan out what I want to say before talking to my partner.		.52
I feel uneasy if my partner is making friends with someone of the same sex.	-.41	.50
I need my partner more than my partner needs me.		.72
My partner has been the cause of some of my worst depressions.		.47
I worry about losing my partner's affection.	-.45	.58

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The present study supports past research in relation to crucial constructs in romantic relationships, both in opposite-sex and same-sex relationships. The present study also allows for research growth in many other areas of this research field. Specifically, this study extends the examination of jealousy into the growing literature on same-sex relationships. Jealousy has the potential to be a component in romantic relationships and has been relevant to both research and clinical interventions for years, but this is the first known study to examine jealousy exclusively within same-sex relationships adding the variables of relationship power, insecurity and dependency.

When examining the potential differences between individuals who have ever cheated on a partner and those who have not cheated on a partner, there was shown to be no difference between the two populations when examining dependency, insecurity, power and jealousy. In addition, there was no difference between individuals who have and have not been cheated on by a partner when examining the same variables. This gives more information in relation to how past cheating behaviors may or may not influence present experiences of dependency, insecurity, power and jealousy. This adds to the present research indicating that individual differences have an influence in considering and reacting to cheating behaviors (Mattingly, Wilson, Clark, Bequette, & Weidler, 2010)

Findings in the study demonstrate there is a correlation between the distress an individual feels and the amount of jealousy that the individual experiences. In both sexual and emotional aspects of distress this was shown to be the case. This is consistent with past literature, as jealousy can be a distressing emotion to experience (Ecker, 2012; Marazziti, et. al., 2003; Pines & Aronson, 1983) and can be the cause of many relationship hardships and struggles (White, 1981; Daly, Wilson and Weghorst, 1982; Elphinston, Feeney & Noller, 2011; Yoshimura, 2004). In addition to distress, constructs such as dependence were examined and found to have a relationship with jealousy.

It was found that individuals who reported higher levels of dependency and insecurity on their relationship also reported high levels of distress over both sexual and emotional infidelity. This finding is congruent in relation to what is understood about these constructs. The more dependent an individual is in his/her relationship, the more distressed he/she will become when something threatens the dynamic of the relationship. This has been shown in past research when examining dependency in relationships and how an individual with increased dependency will feel maladaptive emotions in relation to the potential loss of that relationship (Blatt & Zuroff, 1992; Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). Although the variables being measured had the potential to be highly correlated, so much so it would impact and hinder significance of the Regression analyses used, this was shown not to be the case. Upon examination for collinearity, it was determined that two or more variables were not so highly correlated as to impact the reliability of the regression. Therefore, it can be assumed the results of the regression analysis were uninfluenced by correlations between variables. This provides stronger evidence that the results of the analysis were reliable and true predictors of level of distress.

As jealousy can be a detrimental component to a relationship, better understanding of this construct has the potential to allow for knowledge in other constructs as well. Along with jealousy, power in relationships has demonstrated an impact in both opposite sex and same-sex relationships.

When examining past research in relation to power in same-sex relationships, it is theoretically consistent that same-sex relationships are reportedly more even in power dynamics in things such as housework and arguments (Kurdek, 1993, 2007; Patterson, Sutfun & Fulcher, 2004). When examining gender differences in the present study, it was found that no differences existed between participants based on gender in relation to relationship power. This is additional support for the extant research examining same-sex relationships and power expectations and realities within the relationship.

In addition to supporting past research in the area of romantic relationships, the present study also introduced new findings that add to the literature in relation to the constructs of dependence, insecurity, and power. Although these constructs have been examined in the past in opposite-sex romantic relationships, the present study increased understanding of these constructs in same-sex relationships.

It was found that individuals who reported higher levels of relationship dependence also reported higher levels of power in their current relationships. This is contrary to past research and potentially raised questions in relation to the potential meaning of these constructs in the situation of same-sex couples. Past research has demonstrated that dependence and power in romantic relationships are two related constructs. This is especially true in cases where one individual has the power to dictate whether the relationship will continue or break up (Bradac, Wiemann, & Schaefer, 1994;

Grauerholtz, 1987). In past research power translates to several aspects of a relationship, including things such as resources and education level.

Research has indicated that individuals who have more resources are more likely to have more power in the relationship (Blood & Wolf, 1960; Blau, 1964). Aspects such as education level, income and occupational prestige are some of the factors that have been examined over the years. These aspects have lead researchers to believe that individuals who hold those resources are going to be the individuals in the relationship with more power and also determine aspects of the relationship such as decision making (Blumberg, 1991; Steil & Weltman, 1991; Izraeli, 1994).

In addition to aspects such as jealousy and power, the present study also found individuals who reported higher levels of dependency reported lower levels of insecurity. This finding could be explained using research related to dependency and accommodation in romantic relationships.

Attridge, Berscheid and Sprecher (1998) stated that dependency does not always result in relationship insecurity. The authors argue an individual can be aware of his/her dependence on the relationship, however, they are secure in the relationship. This security allows for the individual to believe his/her partner will remain and stay committed in the relationship. In addition to an individual's beliefs about the relationship and the security within the relationship, other factors may need to be taken into account.

Overall and Sibley (2006), examined individuals' responses to situations in which they felt dependent on their partners or when their partner exerted control or power over them.. The individual would either respond in a relational-promotive goal or a self-promotive goal. It was found dependency was associated with negative situational

outcomes; however, it was argued the negative situational outcomes may have come from a relational-promotive goal rather than a self-promotive goal. In other words, indicating the individual was focused on maintaining the relationship and found the relationship worth the effort to maintain (Overall & Sibley, 2006).

Lastly, the findings of this study indicate that there are approximately eight possible underlying factors that are represented when examining the constructs of dependency and insecurity as measured by the Dependency and Insecurity Scale (Attridge, Berscheid & Sprecher, 1998). Current research adds to the literature by showing the possible complexity of these aspects of a relationship and how a better understanding of these constructs may aid in research and clinical work alike. Specifically, examining aspects of control and satisfaction within the constructs of dependency and insecurity. While both control and satisfaction are already researched areas within the field of interpersonal relationships, it would be beneficial to look at these constructs within and in relation to dependency and insecurity.

Limitations

Demand characteristics, specifically the order of instruments, may pose one limitation to the current study. Every survey administered were ordered in exact ways across participants. In addition to this, within the surveys, the instruments measuring the aspects of dependency, insecurity and power were before the hypothetical scenarios. This may have caused participants to be primed for certain responses on distress on the scenarios. In addition, the current study did not assess for things such as social desirability or other such factors. Not introducing other factors into the survey may have influenced participant's responses.

The analogue nature of the current study poses one limitation, as I asked participants to think of themselves in an imaginary hypothetical situation, rather than seeing how they actually react when a partner is unfaithful. Because they are not actually witnessing their partner being unfaithful or flirtatious with another individual, it may be hard to gauge how distressed they would be in that given situation. Although the variation of different scenarios (i.e., extreme and moderate) allowed the participants to imagine different degrees of intensity in situations, it might not have been enough fully to predict their level of distress.

The self-report nature of this study also poses some possible limitations. The issues of self-report measures are often present in current psychological research. There has been a call to change methodology to gather information that goes beyond simple self-report/survey measures. Phillips (2003) states, however, that when working with the LGB population, it could be that the reason this methodology is so prevalent is because members of the population tend to feel more comfortable answering questions in a self-report style of responses. This could be seen as a limitation in this study as well. It is imperative that different methodologies be used as research continues to evolve and understandings of diversity gain more ground. Furthermore, it has been shown use of the Internet to collect data from individuals in the sexual minority has grown increasingly popular, partly because sexual minorities have been found to make greater than average use of the Internet to gain information and connect with similar others (Riggle, Rostosky, & Reedy, 2005). This is in response to the limitation of using the internet to gather data from individuals. Although it can be said that this sampling method may exclude those who do not have access to the Internet, research suggests that use of this method can

recruit diverse samples and produce results that are similar to those gained from other sampling methods (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, & John, 2004).

In the present study, the majority of the population was Caucasian. Although other studies have been done looking at other cultures (Buss et al, 1999; Buunk, Angleitner, Oubaid, & Buss, 1996), it would be beneficial to have more data investigating the factors that impact jealousy. A study conducted with African American couples and Caucasian couples found support for the evolutionary hypothesis with men reporting more distress over sexual infidelity and women reporting more distress over emotional infidelity (Abraham, Cramer, Fernandez & Mahler, 2001). Having more research with other ethnicities and other races represented would allow for a more comprehensive understanding of how the other factors found in the study impact jealousy in other cultures.

Forty-six individuals were recruited for data collection using email or social media rather than Amazon Turk. Two check points within the survey were utilized in an effort to insure truthful and intentional answering by the participants. The data gathered using participants from email or social media was not viable as participants were unable to successfully pass the check points. There may be sound explanations for this situation.

Individuals who work for Amazon Turk earn money for successfully completing a survey. They gain almost immediate rewards and compensation for their work. Recruitment using social media and emails made individuals wait to be entered into a drawing, without the guarantee that anything would be gained by taking part in the survey. This possibly led to the individual not engaging as thoroughly as Amazon Turk

workers, therefore removing them from the study when they could not pass the check points.

It has been shown that when conducting research with individuals in same-sex relationships, members of the LGB community may be more comfortable answering questions and participating in research that can guarantee their anonymity (Phillips, 2003). Though efforts were made in this study to guarantee that individuals who participated in the study would remain anonymous, it could be that individuals who were recruited using Amazon Turk were more trusting of the process and familiar with the protocol when compared to individuals who were recruited through social media and email.

Implications for Clinical Work

It is documented that jealousy in romantic relationships is one of the leading causes of conflict in romantic relationships (de Silva, 1997; White, 2008). The present study suggests that when a clinician is working with jealousy in a therapeutic setting there are other factors to consider.

Rather than only focusing on the fact that jealousy is an issue and using therapy efforts to fix that problem, it may be valuable for the therapist to look at the factors that predict the jealousy as well. For example, an individual seeking help for a jealousy problem may also not be satisfied in the aspect of power in the relationship with his/her partner. The therapist may choose to work with the couple of increasing the individual's satisfaction in the relationship before working on the jealousy issue. If a couple comes into therapy wanting assistance for jealousy and there was past infidelity in other

relationships, it might be beneficial to work on those issues before delving into the present problem of jealousy.

de Silva (1997) suggests there are multiple components of jealousy which may need to be addressed when working with an individual. Cognitive, emotional and behavioral aspects are issues to be addressed when in a therapeutic setting. A thorough assessment of jealousy is essential for the best therapeutic outcome.

Cognitions regarding jealousy are important to be aware of and the present study shows the importance of subtle differences when thinking about jealousy. Examining the scenarios, there was a difference in distress when an actual infidelity was thought about (the story) and when a hypothetical infidelity is thought about (the scenario). Fully exploring cognitions and challenging potential maladaptive thoughts and assumptions may be beneficial for clinical work and may see the most therapeutic gains.

Adding to the research of jealousy, this study attempted to look at jealousy and other relational constructs in the scope of an adult population. Previous research has explored jealousy in college aged individuals (Stufflebeam, 2010; Marazziti, Di Nasso, Lasala, Baroni, Abelli, Mengali, Mungai & Rucci, 2003). While this research is beneficial for clinicians working in University Counseling Centers on college campuses and the results may be generalized to other older populations, this study aimed to examine the constructs in relation to an older, general population. These findings are able to add to the clinical literature related to jealousy and various constructs related to that relational emotion.

The further clinical significance of this study was to add to the understanding of behaviors in same-sex relationships. These differences need to be further examined and

studied to add to the understanding of difference relationship structures. By furthering the understanding of distress and jealousy in relation to sexual and emotional infidelity in same-sex relationship, clinicians have more empirical evidence to work from when introducing interventions that may be beneficial for the couple seeking therapy.

Implications for Future Research

In the present study, it should be noted that the issue of relationship openness was not assessed. This is an important topic to address as between same-sex and opposite-sex couples, there are different attitudes about monogamy (Bailey, 1994) When looking at results of the American Couples Study, 36% of individuals who identify as gay men indicated that it was important to be sexually monogamous. This is compared to 71% of individuals who identify as lesbian women and 84% of individuals who identify as heterosexual wives and 74% of husbands (Bryant & Demian 1994, McWhirter & Mattison 1984). There are also differences in looking at behaviors of individuals and adding to that, the number of partners of which the individuals had extradyadic sex. In the same study, it was shown that 82% of individuals who identified as gay men engaged in extradyadic sex when compared with individuals who identified as lesbian women (28%), wives (21%) and husbands (26%). (Bryant & Demian 1994, McWhirter & Mattison 1984).

As attitudes related to monogamy were not assessed, it is impossible to make any assumptions regarding behaviors or feelings related to monogamy. It cannot be said in the present study whether beliefs or behaviors related to monogamy had any impact on level of distress or jealousy when thinking about sexual and/or emotional infidelity. Further

research would greatly benefit from assessing this issue and examining whether it plays a role in emotional experiences.

Attachment style and trust may also help explain some variation in the distress levels of jealousy, and were not included in the present study. Buunk (1997) indicates that individuals with more anxious ambivalent attachment styles report more overall jealousy. Trust in a romantic relationship may also account for some of the variability in levels of distress in a relationship. Although the current study did not use a measure of trust, it is possible that facets of The Multidimensional Jealousy Scale (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989) may indicate levels of trust in a romantic relationship. Responses to items like, “I look through my partner’s cell phone” may indicate certain levels of trust in an individual with more endorsement of these items relating to higher levels of distrust.

It would be beneficial for future research to examine the issues related to individuals who identify as transgender. A past content review is indicative of the need for more understanding of matters related to transgender and the struggles individuals face (Lorber1994; Nadal et al. 2012). A more thorough understanding of the potential thoughts, beliefs and behaviors of members of this population. Past research in this area has focus on the aspect of sex differences and how individuals relate to distress and jealousy in relation to their sex (Buss et. at., 1999; Buss & Haselton, 2005, Buss, 2002). Even when sex isn’t directly looked at, per the social cognitive theory approach, sex still impacts hypotheses of these studies, without taking into account transgender individuals (Harris, 2000, 2003; DeSteno & Salovey, 1996).

Over the course of the 21st Century, humanity has witnessed a rise in the use of technology. The large majority, approximately 82%, of the world’s adult population has

access to and currently uses a mobile phone and one in four adults check their phone once every 30 minutes (Wallace, 2014). With this increase of technology, social media has become an aspect of many lives with one of the largest being Facebook at nearly one billion users in 2012 (Facebook.com). With Facebook shifting the landscape of relationships, increased research in relation to romantic relationships will be necessary to keep up with the changing times and increased surveillance capabilities in couples (Bryant & Marmo, 2009).

Research into jealousy in relation to social media use has been on the rise over the past years (Muise, Christofides & Desmarais, 2009; Muscanell, Guadagno, Rice & Murphy, 2013; Elphinston & Noller, 2011). As access to individuals becomes easier, understanding how social media contributes to constructs such as jealousy and insecurity in relationships will be imperative.

Muise, Christofides and Desmarais (2009), examined how sex differences, Facebook privacy settings and availability of public information influenced the experience of negative emotions. In addition to the study of negative emotions, Stewart, Dainton and Goodboy (2014) investigated the relationship between relationship satisfaction, uncertainty and jealousy in college romantic relationships. Further research would be beneficial to comprehensively understand how these constructs impact each other in relation to social media and technology as a whole.

Conclusion

This research used hypothetical scenarios and looked into possible predictive factors relating to experiences of distress and jealousy in same-sex relationships. Though no differences were found between genders in distress levels in sexual and emotional

infidelity, further research into the construct of jealousy would continue to benefit the field of psychology. Historically, research has focused on interpersonal relationships between opposite-sex couples, only recently has research begun to examine the unique experiences of individuals in same-sex relationships. With no difference shown between genders in sexual versus emotional infidelity, the present study adds to the literature, expanding on past research looking into gender differences. In addition, possible predictive factors of jealousy continue to be important to present in literature, as jealousy has been shown to be detrimental in interpersonal relationships. Both clinically and empirically, jealousy has the potential to be an emotional component of society, regardless of the gender of partners. As long as we continue to live in a society and engage in interpersonal relationships, jealousy will be an ever-present force and issue to address.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
DEMOGRAPHICS

1.) Male Female Other

If other, please specify

2.) What is your age?

3.) What is your ethnicity?

African/African American

Hispanic

Caucasian/European American

Asian/Asian American

Native American

Other

4.) What is your sexual orientation?

Heterosexual

Homosexual

Bisexual

5.) What is your current income level?

Less than \$10,000

\$10,000 to \$39,999

\$40,000 to \$69,999

\$70,000 to \$99,999

\$100,000 to \$149,999

\$150,000 or more

Thinking about your relationship

- 6.) Are you currently in a romantic relationship? Yes No
- 7.) If yes, What is the length of your current romantic relationship? (# of months)

- 8.) If no, What was the length of your last romantic relationship? (# of months)

- 9.) What was the length of your longest romantic relationship? (# of months) _____
- 10.) How would you define your current relationship?
 Married – Dating (not exclusive) Dating (exclusive)
 Partnered Engaged Living together
 Not currently in a relationship
- 11.) What is the sex of your current partner? Man Woman
- 12.) What is your current partner's age? _____
- 13.) Has **your current** romantic partner ever cheated on you? Yes No
- 14.) If yes, how would you define the type of cheating?
 Physically (for example, he/she kissed or had sex with someone else)
 Emotionally (for example, he/she was emotionally tied to or fell in love with someone else)
 Both
 N/A
- 15.) Have you ever cheated on **your current** romantic partner? Yes No
If yes, how would you define the type of cheating?
 Physically (for example, you kissed or had sex with someone else)

_____ Emotionally (for example, you were emotionally tied to or fell in love with someone else)

_____ Both

_____ N/A

16.) Have you **ever** been cheated on in a romantic relationship?

_____ Yes

_____ No

If yes, how would you define the type of cheating?

_____ Physically (for example, he/she kissed or had sex with someone else)

_____ Emotionally (for example, he/she was emotionally tied to or fell in love with someone else)

_____ Both

_____ N/A

17.) Have you **ever** cheated on a romantic partner? _____ Yes _____ No

If yes, how would you define the type of cheating?

_____ Physically (for example, you kissed or had sex with someone else)

_____ Emotionally (for example, you were emotionally tied to or fell in love with someone else)

_____ Both

_____ N/A

APPENDIX D

RELATIONSHIP POWER SCALE

Please think of the serious committed romantic relationship that you currently have (partner = current partner), and respond to the following statements.

*1.) If I asked my partner to **use protection**, he/she would get upset.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly			Neutral			Strongly
Agree						Disagree

*2.) If I insisted my partner **use protection**, he/she would be angry.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly			Neutral			Strongly
Agree						Disagree

3.) Most of the time, we do what my partner wants to do.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly			Neutral			Strongly
Agree						Disagree

4.) My partner won't let me wear certain things.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly			Neutral			Strongly
Agree						Disagree

5.) When my partner and I are together, I'm pretty quiet.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly			Neutral			Strongly
Agree						Disagree

6.) My partner has more influence I do about important decisions that affect us.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly			Neutral			Strongly
Agree						Disagree

7.) My partner tells me who I can spend time with.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly			Neutral			Strongly
Agree						Disagree

Answer the following questions about your current romantic partner by circling the number corresponding to your level of agreement.

How would you emotionally react to the following situations?

9.) My partner comments to me on how great looking someone the **same sex** is.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

10.) My partner shows a great deal of interest or excitement in talking to someone of the **same sex**.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

11.) My partner smiles in a very friendly manner to someone of the **same sex**.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

12.) A member of the **same sex** is trying to get close to my partner all the time.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

13.) My partner is flirting with someone of the **same sex**.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

14.) Someone of the **same sex** is dating my partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

15.) My partner hugs and kisses someone of the **same sex**.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

16.) My partner works very closely with a member of the **same sex** (at school or in the office).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not Upset						Very Upset

APPENDIX H

HYPOTHETICAL SCENARIOS

Imagine yourself and your romantic partner in the following stories.

Story #1

Imagine you accidentally come across your partner's private journal. Unless you tell him/her, he/she will never know you read it. The journal says that on a recent business trip to another country your partner had met a woman/man at the conference. They had dinner and then went back to your partner's room and spent the whole night talking. Your partner said that he/she felt a deep connection to her/him and shared stuff that you don't even know about. They talked about how deeply they both felt their connection to be. They were tempted to have sex but didn't. After they spent the whole night talking, they both decided to never see each other again.

1.) How **upset** would you be at your partner in this scenario? (Circle one):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
upset								upset

2.) How **jealous** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
jealous								jealous

3.) How **hurt** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
hurt								hurt

4.) How **angry** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
angry								angry

Story #2

Imagine that your partner went to Las Vegas for a week to a convention, and imagine that your partner told you he/she had a confession to make. While he/she was at the convention he/she was hanging out with some friends and they went to a bar and your partner took someone home - your partner said that he/she had sex with that person. Your partner swore to you that it has never happened before and would never happen again.

1.) How **upset** would you be at your partner in this scenario? (Circle one):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all upset								Very upset

2.) How **jealous** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all jealous								Very jealous

3.) How **hurt** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all hurt								Very hurt

4.) How **angry** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all angry								Very angry

Imagine yourself and your romantic partner in the following stories.

Scenario #1

You are having coffee with your partner at a local coffee shop when he/she gets up to get something to eat. After waiting for what seems like forever, you look up and notice your partner is engaged in a deep conversation with a woman/man you have never seen before. They seem very interested in each other, not noticing anyone around them. They seem to be confiding in each other about something private. Suddenly, the stranger opens up an address book/planner. It looks as though she/he is writing down a phone number. They continue to talk, your partner never once glancing over at you. He/she has forgotten about the world around him/her, paying attention only to the stranger in front of him/her.

1.) How **upset** would you be at your partner in this scenario? (Circle one):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
upset								upset

2.) How **jealous** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
jealous								jealous

3.) How **hurt** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
hurt								hurt

4.) How **angry** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very
angry								angry

Scenario #2

Imagine yourself and your romantic partner in the following scenario:

You are studying a local coffee shop with your partner, when he/she gets up to get something to eat. After waiting for what seems like forever, you look up and notice your partner is talking with a woman/man you have never seen before. They seem very interested in each other, not noticing anyone around them. They are flirting and seem very sexually attracted to one another. Suddenly, the stranger leans in and puts an arm around him/her, squeezing him/her tightly. They continue to talk, your partner never once glancing over at you. He/she has forgotten about the world around him/her, paying attention only to the stranger in front of him/her.

1.) How **upset** would you be at your partner in this scenario? (Circle one):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all upset								Very upset

2.) How **jealous** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all jealous								Very jealous

3.) How **hurt** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all hurt								Very hurt

4.) How **angry** would you feel in this scenario?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all angry								Very angry

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