Examining the Effect of Attachment Styles on Sternberg's Love Components and on Loyalty, Voice, Neglect, and Exit in Adult Romantic Relationships

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Examining the Effect of Attachment Styles on Sternberg’s Love Components and on Loyalty, Voice, Neglect, and Exit in Adult Romantic Relationships

by

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Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of Independent Study Thesis Research

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Abstract

Attachment is an emotional bond that is first developed in infancy. The interactions that infants have with primary caregivers typically establish the type of attachment style that they will have throughout their lives. The three main attachment styles developed in infancy are the secure attachment style, the anxious/ambivalent attachment style, and the avoidant attachment style. These styles are not only present in infancy, but they are extremely evident in childhood, adolescence, and adulthood. While the psychology domain focuses on attachment at these three levels, it seems to put an emphasis on attachment in romantic relationships. Romantic relationships are interpersonal and comprise of romantic love. Romantic love, according to Sternberg consists of intimacy, passion, and commitment. While the secure attachment style features more positive relationship characteristics, the two insecure attachment styles (anxious/ambivalent and avoidant) feature more negative ones. Therefore, for my first study, I am hypothesizing that securely attached individuals will have higher levels of intimacy, commitment, and passion compared to avoidant individuals, and anxious/ambivalent individuals will have higher levels of passion and intimacy but lower levels of commitment compared to avoidant individuals. In regards to my second study, I am predicting that securely attached individuals will score higher in categories of loyalty and voice, while insecurely attached individuals will score higher in categories of neglect and exit. All four hypotheses were not supported.
Introduction

Relationships are inevitable and are a part of our daily lives. We form relationships with peers, family members, friends, and even business associates. We may form these relationships because we have a desire to be accepted, need a support system, or share similarities with others. We may also form these relationships because they are beneficial to our well-being. Relationships, especially strong ones, are advantageous for physical and mental health (Umberson & Montex, 2010). Additionally, they are also associated with higher levels of happiness (Monteolivia, Garcia-Martinez & Calvo-Salguero, 2016). While there are many relationships that we develop throughout our lives, the psychology realm seems to focus extensively on romantic relationships.

Romantic relationships are interpersonal relationships comprised of continuing social interactions that are acknowledged mutually by both individuals (Collins, 2003). Relationships are sometimes depicted as roller coasters because partners experience emotional highs and then heartbreaking lows (Campbell, Boldry, Simpson, & Kashy, 2005). For several relationships, this pattern occurs more infrequently and often in stressful conditions. For others, however, this pattern transpires regularly during social interactions. The range of emotional relationships begins in infancy with parent-child attachments, and over time, moves to sibling and peer attachments. Eventually, it expands to romantic relationships. While romantic relationships most often occur in adulthood, it can emerge as early as adolescence (Kansky & Allen, 2018). Mature romantic relationships, however, are often the last ones to develop (Clark, 2017). Those in romantic relationships tend to go to their partners for support, comfort, and security. Although support is a positive behavior, relationships have negative behaviors as well, such as coercion and rejection (Zimmer-
Gembeck & Ducat, 2010). While every relationship is different, they all share a common theme: attachment.

**Introducing Attachment**

Attachment is usually defined as a deep affectional or emotional bond that develops between two individuals (Rice, 1990). In almost all instances, it can also be depicted as a tie that is enduring with an individual who supplies security (Fleming, 2008). Despite attachment often being studied as early as infancy, it actually commences before the infant is even born (Sullivan, Perry, Sloan, Kleinhaus, & Burtchen, 2011). While in the uterus, the fetus, specifically during the third trimester of the mother’s pregnancy, discovers and familiarizes itself with the mother’s odors and voice when the olfactory and auditory systems become operative. The olfactory receptors are engulfed in the mother’s amniotic fluid, which serves as a pathway, along with the mother’s bones, for the voice of the mother to be transported to the ears of the fetus (Moon & Fifer, as cited in Sullivan et al., 2011). When the infant is born, it is attracted to the smell and voice of the mother, and the familiar olfactory and auditory stimuli are imperative to the infant, who is transitioning to the unfamiliar sensory experiences, such as textures, sounds, and sights, that exist in the world (Sullivan et al., 2011). While the infant’s first attachment is usually to the mother, the number of attachments expand as the infant goes through his or her first weeks of life.

**Attachment Figures**

Infants regularly form multiple attachments, and thus have a range of attachment figures (Bowlby, 1969/1982). While grandparents, older siblings, and even aunts and uncles can serve as attachment figures, the role of the mother as the infant’s principal attachment figure remains clear. The infant does have secondary attachment figures, however this
indicates a hierarchy, which results in attachment figures being evaluated on an unequal basis (Ainsworth, 1979). Infants may derive security and enjoyment from multiple attachment figures, but are highly likely to exhibit a strong proclivity of a particular attachment figure in certain situations. When the infant is in his mother’s presence, he appears open to mastering and exploring the environment while establishing contact with his other relatives (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

**Attachment Theory**

Bowlby’s 1980 attachment theory is grounded in biological and evolutionary principles (Simpson, 1990). The attachment system, characterized by bonding, closeness, feelings of protection and security, and love (Meier & Allen, 2009), evolved to provide an explanation of the affectional bonds that are present in infancy that act to maintain the child’s proximity to his or her primary attachment figures (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Proximity is a colossal element for forming attachments (Clark, 2017). It is essential to providing the security that infants need. By being close to those attachment figures that could shield them from predation and danger, infants have a higher chance of survival, and thus, pass these attachment propensities to their offspring (Bowlby 1969/1982). This is one of the major biological functions for the behavior of attachment. Due to this function, infants are deemed predisposed to search for their caregivers during times of separation.

It was noticed that when an infant is separated from his or her mother, he or she experiences three stages: protest, despair, and detachment (Bowlby, 1969). Protest involves active searching and crying and has a higher chance of occurring if the infant is left alone or with an unfamiliar individual compared to the infant being left with the primary attachment figure (Ainsworth, 1979). While despair typically involves sadness and passivity, detachment
involves the avoidance and disregard of the attachment figure (the mother) when she decides to return (Ainsworth, 1978). To avoid separation and promote proximity between them and their caregivers, infants participate in certain attachment related behaviors, such as vocalizing or smiling to get the caregivers’ attention (Bowlby, 1969/1982).

Infants also utilize other common attachment behaviors, such as following the mother, clinging to her, burying their faces in her lap, and kissing her (Ainsworth, 1970). These signaling behaviors alert the attachment figure (most likely the mother) to the child’s needs and are usually sufficient in guiding the attachment figure to her child (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Other attachment behaviors, even those that are aversive such as crying, are also utilized for that same purpose (Bowlby, 1969/1982). As the infant develops, her attachment behaviors tend to expand to locomotion, which allows her to crawl or walk towards the mother all by herself (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Other attachment behaviors, such as directed grasping and reaching, also emerge around this time (Ainsworth, 1989). These specific behaviors serve as a function of survival to keep an infant under the mother’s protective care (Ainsworth et al., 1978).

While initially always close in proximity to the mother, this dynamic change as the infant develops (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). The infant eventually ventures off to explore her or his environment and interacts with same aged peers. When this occurs, the infant gradually begins to spend more time away from his or her mother. As explorations draw the child even further away, the mother often simultaneously becomes more permissive and does not retrieve her child as frequently or as promptly. However, when the infant or child saunters too far away from his or her mother, the secure base, (Bowlby, 1969), this separation threat swiftly reunites them together (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). This process can be depicted as the
invisible bungee cord, which “snaps the mother towards her child” when faced with the feeling of anxiety or fear (Bowlby, 1969, p. 127-128). This keeps the infant and the mother within close proximity to each other.

**Internal Working Models**

Bowlby’s attachment theory is not only geared towards physical proximity; it also serves as a model for personality and social development (Collins & Read, 1990). An attachment relationship tends to have an effect on the child’s personality, and the quality of the attachment relationship is established via the mother’s responsiveness and emotional availability to her child’s needs. Through this process, children develop a mental model or schema (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Also called a cognitive map or internal working model, the mental model is defined as expectations that are developed via experience with people, objects, and situations (Ainsworth et al., 1978). It is used to guide, anticipate, and interpret interactions between a social dyad (Bowlby, 1969/1982).

Internal working models can be either positive or negative in how they depict the primary caregiver. Children whose mothers often remain close will typically develop internal working models of attachment figures that are dependable (Ainsworth et al., 1978). On the contrary, children whose mothers regularly wander off or leave the child alone will develop internal working models of mothers who are not reliable or predictable. In addition to forming mental models about the mother, children also develop mental models about themselves (Collins & Read, 1990). Infants will most likely develop a cognitive map of themselves as self-reliant or valued if their parents acknowledge their needs for protection and comfort while respecting their needs for exploring the environment independently (Bowlby & Ainsworth, 1992). However, infants will most likely develop a cognitive map of
themselves as incompetent or unworthy if the attachment figure often rebuffs their bids for exploration or comfort.

While these internal working models serve other pivotal roles, such as impacting infants’ processing of different experiences and permitting them to predict, design for, and actually adapting to their social world (Johnson et al., 2010), they have deeper layers. These mental models play a role in attachment patterns, which can persist across multiple generations (Bretherton, 1992). Those who eventually develop into stable and self-reliant individuals often had parents who promoted autonomy and were supportive. Parents such as these informed their children that these mental models were open for revision and questioning. Attachment patterns, therefore, are clearly evident in infancy, certainly by the end of the first six months. These aspects of the internal working model were what Ainsworth aimed to capture in her development of the Strange Situation (Johnson et al., 2010).

The Strange Situation and Attachment Styles in Infancy

Considered as a gold standard for assessing attachment in infancy (Behrens, Parker, & Haltigan, 2011), the Strange Situation Procedure was designed to monitor the degree to which infants utilized their mothers as secure foundations or bases when they investigated and explored an environment that was ambiguous or anxiety provoking (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). In other words, it was designed to classify the emotional security between and infant and the parent (Rosmalen, van der Horst, & van der Veer, 2015). The Strange Situation, meant to be a moderately demanding experience for the child, consists of a stranger interacting with him or her and two short separations from the principal attachment figure: the mother (Weinfield, Sroufe, Egeland, & Carlson, 2008). The procedure is composed of a
total of eight episodes (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). In the first few episodes, the child is presented with an ambiguous (but home-like) environment, a room in which the child can play in, and a stranger, usually a woman (Rosmalen et al., 2015). In episode four, the parent walks out of the room and leaves the child alone with the particular stranger. Shortly after, the parent returns while the stranger walks out of the room. As time elapses, the parent leaves the room for a second time, thus leaving the child completely alone. In the final episodes, debriefing occurs with the parent, the stranger, and the researcher sitting and playing with the child.

Specific elements were critically examined to assess the attachment behaviors that infants displayed (Rosmalen et. al, 2015). The child’s reaction to the mother leaving and returning to the room, the child’s reaction to the stranger, and how the child would utilize the caregiver as a reliable and secure base for exploration were observed. Children were put into three groups to distinguish their attachment behavior during the procedure (Ainsworth et al., 1978). In group A, children did not pay attention to their caregivers when they were reunited, but did not mind being in the room alone with the stranger (Ainsworth & Beck, 1970). Children in group C had contradicting attachment behaviors. During reunion, children eagerly approached their caregivers and then strongly resisted them. Children who were a part of this group were angry, distressed, or passive when separated from their mothers. Finally, children in group B acknowledged the significance of their caregiver as their secure foundation or base. They also did not demonstrate much distress when separated from their caregivers, but had increased interest in the caregiver when she came back.

This experiment led to the identification of the three basic attachment styles: secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Group A
exemplified the insecure avoidant attachment style, group C illustrated the insecure anxious/ambivalent attachment style, and Group B displayed characteristics that represent the secure attachment style. The two terms “insecure” and “secure” do not depict the infant’s apparent behaviors within his or her attachment relationship with the attachment figure (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Instead, the two terms depict an infant’s clear perception of the caregiver’s availability if the need or desire for protection or comfort should emerge. In addition, it also describes the organization or structure of an infant’s reactions to his or her caregiver or primary attachment figure in view of those availability perceptions.

These three attachment styles are readily observable in infancy (Bowlby, 1969; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Infants who have a secure attachment style are confident around their mothers, have interests in exploring the environment around them and establishing contact with other members of the family. When faced with threats, secure infants direct their behaviors of attachment towards their attachment figures and take solace in reassurance that the caregivers offer (Weinfield et al., 2008). Because secure infants are assured in the responsive and sensitive availability of the attachment figures, they are assured in their interactions inside the world. Anxious-ambivalent infants search actively for their mothers, resist others’ efforts to engage them, and display protest behaviors at separation (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). These infants have uncertainty regarding the obtainability of their attachment figures, fearing that they will not be responsive when needed (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Because these caregivers are inconsistent and slow in reacting to the infant’s needs, the infant is afraid to explore, cries more often, and as a result, eventually becomes anxious (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). When these infants do explore, they are consistently worried (Weinfield et al., 2008). Therefore, they are not as self-assured as secure infants. Finally, infants who
demonstrate avoidant attachment styles are depicted as displaying detachment behaviors (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). When separated from the mother, avoidant infants tend to not be distressed, and when reunited with her, they ignore, look away from, or move past her rather than deciding to approach her. If these infants are picked up, they will not make any effort to sustain contact (Weinfield, 2008).

**Attachment in Childhood**

The distinction among the basic attachment styles and the attachment system become even more apparent in early childhood. Secure children in this age group tend to show more enthusiasm, ego-resiliency, and tenacity in problem-solving conditions, particularly in a preschool setting (Kobak & Sceery, 1988). They also demonstrate more positive affect, greater peer leadership, better reciprocal interaction, and higher peer competence compared to insecure children in preschool (Jacobson & Wille, 1986). Preschoolers who are avoidant tend to isolate themselves, while preschoolers who are anxious/ambivalent have lower social participation and social dominance than both avoidant and secure preschoolers. Additionally, anxious/ambivalent children have low self-esteem, resulting in them having a higher chance of being rebuffed by peers. In this age period, the social worlds of children are predominantly shaped and oriented around family members (Kerns, 2008). In addition to adults, siblings, especially those they are close in age, can serve as playmates, and in some instances, as friends (Ainsworth, 1989). Even though children might spend a significant portion of their time away from their homes and in places such as preschool or daycare, parents still have a good amount of control over their environments and social contacts (Kerns, 2008).

The attachment system shifts slightly during middle childhood. It becomes more sophisticated (Brumariu, Kerns, & Seibert, 2011) and is marked by various developments in
interpersonal needs and psychological processes (Borelli et al., 2015). At this stage, the
social worlds of children expand (Kerns, 2008). Children spend larger time away from their
parental figures who now have even less influence and control over the social contacts and
environments that their children experience. Middle-aged children begin to have an evident
preference for their friends and peers over their parents for playmates. While parents
continue to serve as their children’s principle attachment figures, their availability when
needed matters more than their physical presence or proximity (Bosmans & Kerns, 2015).
Availability here refers to whether a child perceives the figure of attachment as responsive,
physically accessible, or open for communication (Bowlby, 1987, as cited in Ainsworth
1990). This shift occurs because children do not need as much assistance from their parents
due to the development in their skills of self-regulation (Bosmans & Kerns, 2015).
Additionally, while middle-aged children tend to still rely on their attachment figures, they
also utilize their parents as resources to solve their [children] own problems. In terms of
attachment styles, in middle childhood, anxious/ambivalent children develop another
manifestation, such as initiating conflict and provoking their caregivers as a different method
to engage with their caregivers who are inconsistently unavailable, while communication
diminishes for avoidant children. On the contrary, secure children start to assert much more
autonomy and express themselves more.

**Attachment in Adolescence**

By the time adolescence approaches, a colossal milestone is reached, as this system of
attachment can predict functioning and behavior both beyond and within the family as well
as demonstrate stability (Allen, 2008). At this stage, adolescents have increased
independence (Kobak & Cole, 1994, as cited in Allen, 2008), acquire a sense of self (Rice,
and tend to not rely on parents as figures of attachment as much as they did in infancy and childhood and more on their friends and peers (Nickerson & Nagle, 2005), who become an indispensable component of adolescents’ search for autonomy (Mounts, 2001). Friends and peers can come in a variety of forms and can serve different purposes. Friends can be congenial individuals who spend a significant amount of time with one another and partake in activities that are of mutual interest or concern (Ainsworth, 1989). They can even be acquaintances that individuals have pleasant and occasional interactions with. Peers can serve as safe havens and support systems, and the attachment in this stage focuses on this security (Sroufe & Waters, 1977, as cited in Nickerson & Nagle, 2005) juxtaposed to proximity searching that is displayed in infancy and early childhood (Schneider & Younger, 1996). When the peer repeatedly illustrates responsiveness during distressing times, it is eventually internalized that the peer will usually be available when needed (Nickerson & Nagel, 2005). Even though parents are no longer primary attachment figures, adolescents continue to turn to their caregivers under stressful conditions and monitor their parents’ availability for attachment needs (Kobak & Cole, 1994, as cited in Allen, 2008).

In terms of attachment style, secure adolescents have lower levels of anxiety, are more ego-resilient, have a lot of social support, and are considered by peers as less hostile (Kobak & Sceery, 1998). While in conflict with parents, these individuals participate in effective, problem-solving conversations, even when in heated discussions (Kobak, Cole, Ferenz-Gillies, Fleming, & Gamble, 1993). They are also often more comfortable in the intimacy that is present in the emotional interaction in friendships that are close (Lieberman & Markiewics, 1999). Anxious/ambivalent adolescents tend to lack the ability to avoid or withdraw from arguments, thus resulting in over-engagement and greater levels of conflict.
Adolescents with this attachment style have lower levels of ego-resiliency, but more anxiety and stress (Kobak, 1988). Finally, among all attachment styles, avoidant individuals illustrate autonomy the least (Becker-Stoll & Fremmer-Bombik, 1997, as cited in Allen, 2008). They also are perceived as more hostile by peers and have low levels of ego-resiliency (Kobak & Sceery, 1988). Compared to anxious/ambivalent individuals, avoidant adolescents have even less social support. They may, in fact, even push away their peers, especially those that they could become good or close friends to (Larose & Bernier, 2001).

**Romantic Relationships in Adolescence**

In addition to forming friendships, adolescence is also a period where romantic relationships typically begin to form. This is considered a new but exciting realm for adolescents that permit them to acquire novel skills, experiment with distinct methods of interacting, and try out behaviors that are unfamiliar (Furman & Simon, 1999). They also spend a significant amount of time talking to or thinking about their partner and the relationship. Adolescent romantic relationships consist of reciprocity, companionship, and cooperation (Meier & Allen, 2009). In terms of reciprocity, each partner may provide and seek caretaking in different situations (Furman & Simon, 1999). While this is a good component, the relationship may also consist of authority (Adams, Laursen, & Wilder, 2001). While a significant amount of adolescent relationships are depicted as egalitarian (Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawahuchi, 1999), there are several instances where there is a distribution of inequality of power in the relationship (Felmlee, 1994). Romantic relationships at this stage generally have four phases. The first phase is initiation, which includes the feelings of desire and attraction, while in affiliation, the second phase, the individuals interact, particularly in settings that involve groups. In the third phase intimate,
couples form but slowly start to create distance between them and their peers and focus on their romantic relationships. Finally, in the phase for commitment, individuals share physical and emotional intimacy and serve as figures of attachment for each other (Brown, 1999, as cited in Meier & Allen, 2009).

**Attachment and Romantic Relationships in Adulthood**

Romantic relationships do not cease in adolescence; in fact, they can continue throughout adulthood. Adult romantic relationships can be viewed as attachments that provide significant benefits to each partner (Bowlby, 1979, as cited in Cassidy, 2000). Even though the theory of attachment was initially designed to provide an explanation for the attachment between infants and their mothers or caregivers, it can also be applied to romantic relationships. Interestingly, there are a few remarkable parallels between the relationship of infants and their mothers and the romantic relationship between two partners in adulthood (Fraley & Shaver). Firstly, they both involve sharing experiences (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Secondly, just as infants would feel with their mothers, adults who are in romantic relationships tend to feel more secure and safer when their significant others are responsive and accessible (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). These individuals might even utilize their romantic partners as secure foundations or bases in uncertain situations. Additionally, when feeling threatened or distressed, they may utilize their significant others as a means of comfort, protection, or safety. Therefore, the behavioral and emotional dynamics that characterize romantic relationships and infant-caregiver relationships are, in fact, regulated via the very same biological system.

The styles of attachment that infants’ display are not just found in childhood and adolescence. They are also apparent in adult romantic relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).
In fact, the attachment styles in infancy provide perspective for these future relationships. Securely attached individuals have the tendency to be in relationships that involve greater levels of trust and interdependence (Simpson, 1990). They are more comfortable relying on their partners and rarely have fear of being abandoned by them (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Some securely attached individuals believe that love does not ever fade in a relationship, while others believe that the romantic feelings may fall and rise, reaching the initial intensity (Levy & Davis, 1988). Additionally, the relationships of securely attached individuals typically last longer compared to their anxious/ambivalent and avoidant counterparts (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). In terms of conflict, securely attached individuals tend to utilize more problem-solving strategies, such as compromising and integrating, compared to insecurely attached individuals (Pistole, 1989). They also do not perceive conflicts or disagreements as threats to the relationship (Brassard, Lussier, & Shaver, 2009).

Meanwhile, anxious/ambivalent attachment individuals have the intense desire to become close to their significant others but are fearful that their partners do not truly love them (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). They tend to be clingy, highly anxious, and obsessive about their partners (Pistole, 1989). Anxious/ambivalent individuals also experience extreme sexual attraction, jealousy, and emotional extremes (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). These individuals easily fall in love with their partners, but rarely find real love (Levy & Davis, 1988). In terms of disagreements, anxious/ambivalent attached individuals tend to perceive conflicts as threats because conflicts trigger concerns regarding rejection or abandonment (Brassard et al., 2009). Therefore, they respond with profound emotions. Avoidant individuals on the other hand, have difficulty relying on and trusting their partners and are not comfortable being close to them (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). They tend to be emotionally distant, self-reliant
Attachment and Four Labels in Romantic Relationships

(Pistole, 1989), and more hostile (Kobak & Sceery, 1988). Avoidant attached individuals have doubts that romantic love truly exists, and if it really does, they typically believe that it is almost impossible to find individuals that they can genuinely fall in love with (Levy & Davis, 1988). They perceive conflict as threats, and withdraw from disagreements when they arise (Brassard et al., 2009).

Theories of Love

While attachment is a factor that plays a critical role in romantic relationships, the concept of love does also. Romantic love refers to feelings of emotional attachment and infatuation that are associated with the relationship (Diamond, 2003). In other words, the partners in a romantic relationship are not just drawn physically to one another, but are emotionally bounded as well (Sternberg, 1986). Romantic love characterizes these relationships across social and cultural boundaries even if its function varies from one place to another (Gao, 2001). There have been many notions, theories, and models that depict romantic love and its processes. The exchanged theory of love posits that love is a balance between the consistent trade of rewards and mutuality between partners (Blau, 1964, as cited in Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), while Davis’ theory of love declares that love is different from liking because it consists of the clusters physical attraction and care (Davis, 1985, as cited in Sternberg, 1986). The behavioral model of love affirms that while love is independent of sexual desire, the relationship between them is often bidirectional (Diamond, 2003). It has even been proposed that the concept of romantic love is merely the adult version of affectional bonds that exist between caregivers and their infants (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). While there are many theories of love (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), there is a
specific theory that deals with several orientations towards relationships that are intimate: Lee’s theory of lovestyles (Levy & Davis, 1988).

According to the lovestyle theory, there are six distinct lovestyles: pragma, mania, agape, storge, eros, and ludus (Davis & Latty-Mann, 1987). Eros symbolizes individuals who are searching for psychologically intimate and passionate relationships. They have a clear vision of what they want in a partner and have confidence in love (Levy & Davis, 1988). Those who have storge lovestyles have the expectations that love will develop from deep friendships, which will eventually lead to commitment and sexual intimacy. Apapic lovers are willing to make sacrifices for their partners (Davis & Latty-Mann, 1987). They project selfless love and lack jealousy (Levy & Davis, 1988). Ludus symbolizes individuals who are not seeking deep commitments, as they consider love as a game (Davis & Latty-Mann, 1987). Individuals with this love style jump from person to person, do not usually experience feelings of jealousy, have sex for pleasure but not without emotional depth, and manipulate their partners (Levy & Davis, 1988). Lovers who are pragmatic seek individuals who would make good life partners based on similar backgrounds and interests (Davis & Latty-Mann, 1987). These lovers make it a mission to find the perfect match (Levy & Davis, 1988). Finally, the mania lovestyle refers to individuals who feel insecure in their relationships (Davis & Latty-Mann, 1987). These types of lovers are characterized as jealous, possessive, and dependent (Levy and Davis, 1988). While they have similarities to lovers who are erotic, they simultaneously manipulate the relationship, causing tension and ambivalence.

Sternberg’s Triangular Theory of Love

In addition to this theory, Sternberg’s Triangular Theory of love is one of the most well-known. Considered as a noteworthy advancement (Tzeng & Gomez, 1992, as cited in
Sternberg’s triangular love theory states that there are three components to love: intimacy, passion, and commitment (Sternberg, 1986). Intimacy, located at the top of the triangle, refers to emotions or feelings of bondedness, connectedness, and closeness and is derived from the emotional investment that is present in the relationship. It can be regarded as the warm element of love, as it encompasses certain feelings, such as tenderness and comfort, in the romantic relationship (Acker & Davis, 1992). Passion, located at the left side of the triangle, refers to physical attraction, romance, and sexual consummation and is derived from the motivational involvement (Sternberg, 1986). It is not just limited to sexual arousal, as it includes the need for affiliation, self-esteem, and dominance/submission (Acker & Davis, 1992).

Lastly, commitment, located at the right side of the triangle, refers to the decision of an individual loving someone else and maintaining that love (Sternberg, 1986). It derives from the cognitive decision aspect in the relationship. Because commitment is considered a deliberate choice, it is regarded as the cold element that makes up love (Acker & Davis, 1992). The more strongly individuals experience one of these three components, the further that specific vertex is deemed to be from the triangle’s middle (Sternberg, 1986, 1987). The levels of these three constructs are anticipated to vary at different points in the romantic relationship (Acker & Davis, 1992). Passion is expected to be very high initially, but over time will decrease and eventually level off. Intimacy on the other hand, is predicted to decrease as time elapses as a result of the increase of predictability in the relationship. Finally, commitment is anticipated to increase gradually and then level off. However, if the relationship ends, it will rapidly diminish.
Linking Attachment to Sternberg’s Triangular Theory of Love

These three components of Sternberg’s triangular love theory can be linked to attachment (Levy & Davis, 1988; Madley & Rodgers, 2009). The relationship between attachment and intimacy has been closely examined, and secure attachment has been shown to be positively correlated to intimacy, while insecure attachment is negatively correlated with intimacy (Piñalge, Luteijn, & Arrindell, 2005). In terms of commitment, securely attached individuals have the tendency to be involved in romantic relationships with greater levels of commitment, while insecurely attached individuals, especially those who have an avoidant attachment style, tend to illustrate lower levels of commitment (Simpson, 1990). In Madley & Rodgers’ 2009 study, both of these love components (intimacy and commitment) have been shown to mediate the relationship between attachment security and relationship satisfaction. In other words, an attachment that is more secure predicts commitment and intimacy, which predicts higher levels of relationship satisfaction. However, the results for passion have been different. In that same study, passion had a direct effect on romantic relationship satisfaction (Madley & Rodgers, 2009).

There has been a limited amount of studies that have examined the relationship between the attachment styles and Sternberg’s three components that comprise of love. Levy and Davis’s (1988) study illustrated that secure attachment styles are positively correlated with passion, commitment, and intimacy, while avoidant attachment styles are negatively correlated with them all. They also examined the relationship between the six lovestyles and the three basic attachment styles. The lovestyles agape and eros were shown to be significantly and positively associated with secure styles of attachment, but significantly and negatively associated with the avoidant attachment style. The lovestyle mania was positively
associated with the anxious/ambivalent style, while ludus was correlated negatively with securely attached styles but positively associated with the avoidant attachment style. Storge, on the other hand, was negatively linked with the secure and anxious/ambivalent attachment styles, but positively correlated with the avoidant style. The results for the association between pragma and attachment styles were mixed. In terms of the three components of love, both eros and agape were significantly and positively correlated with intimacy, commitment, and passion, while ludus was negatively, but significantly, correlated with all three. Storge was negatively associated with passion and intimacy but positively correlated to commitment, while pragma was positively associated with all three. Since these lovestyles are all associated with the attachment styles, then the lovestyles can be indicative, to a certain degree, of the type of attachment styles that individuals possess. If this is the case, then eros and agape to be positively associated with commitment, passion, and intimacy is consistent with the results of securely attached styles being positively linked to all three. If storge represents the avoidant attachment style, then it is somewhat consistent with the finding that the lovestyle storge is negatively linked to both intimacy and passion and positively, but weakly, linked with commitment.

Secure vs. Insecure in Disagreements

Described but not explicitly stated before, secure attachment styles are typically associated with positive relationship qualities, while insecure attachment styles are associated with negative relationship qualities (Levy & Davis, 1988). This can also be extended to couples when conflict or disagreement emerge. Securely attached individuals are able to openly communicate during conflicts and negotiate flexibly (Brassard et al., 2009). Anxious individuals, on the other hand, react to disagreements by exemplifying relationship-damaging
behaviors (Rodriguez, DiBello, Overup, & Neighbors, 2015), while avoidant individuals participate in poor communication because they feel pressured to participate in conversations that are intimate (Paley, Cox, Burchinal, & Payne, 1999, as cited in Brassard et al., 2009). In terms of contentment, the secure attachment style has greater levels of relationship satisfaction compared to the insecure attachment styles (Pistole, 1989), which are associated with dissatisfaction in relationships (Feeny, 2008).

**Dissatisfaction in Romantic Relationships**

There have been few studies that have looked at dissatisfaction in romantic relationships. Sinclair and Fehr (2005) examined the relationship between self-construals, which are the ways in which individuals define and view themselves, and dissatisfaction. More specifically, they wanted to determine if individuals who had greater levels of independence would respond to the dissatisfaction in their relationships with two active responses: voice (the constructive response) and exit (the deconstructive response). They also hypothesized that individuals who had greater levels of interdependence would respond to the dissatisfaction in their relationships with two passive responses: loyalty (the constructive response) and neglect (the destructive response). It was revealed that individuals’ self-construals did impact their responses to the dissatisfaction in their relationships. Via questionnaires, results showed that self-construals that were independent were positively associated with voice and negatively associated with loyalty. Self-construals that were independent were not linked to exit. A self-construal that was interdependent was positively associated to loyalty, but not correlated with neglect.

Sinclair and Fehr (2005) were not the only ones to examine these four responses to the dissatisfaction in romantic relationships. Rusbult and Zembrod (1982) conducted two
studies that had similar components but varied in complexity. Only the first study is of focus currently. In phase one, fifty undergraduate participants were asked to respond to a prompt that wanted them think of a time in their lives when they were dissatisfied in one of their romantic relationships and depict the situation, their feelings, and their reactions to the situation, as well as what they ended up doing about the relationship. In phase two, two-hundred undergraduate students were recruited for this portion and were assigned to one of the many target responses (a total of twenty), with an equal number of individuals on each target. Individuals were instructed to become familiar with the fifty responses that were acquired in phase one and then rank the responses according to their similarity (responses to the relationship dissatisfaction) to the responses of their target. Twenty targets randomly were chosen from all fifty responses.

Participants were then asked to depict the criteria that they utilized to differentiate the responses that fell on one side of the designated continuum from the ones that were on the other side. A two-dimensional configuration that depicted the relationship among all the responses to dissatisfaction and showed the aspects that define the behavioral domains was created. In phase 3, the dimensions were labeled. Twenty attributes had been identified as possible labels for the configuration that was derived. The four items voice, neglect, loyalty, and exit were labels. An attribute under voice was that the individual discussed the dissatisfaction, while an attribute under neglect was that the individual was hostile. For loyalty, an attribute was the individual had commitment, while an attribute for exit was that the individual decided to end the relationship. Other labels, such as active or passive, constructive or destructive, and other were also included. An attribute under the constructive/destructive category was that the individual hoped that his or her relationship
would get better, and an attribute under the other category was that the individual held his or her partner accountable for the problem. Several raters determined the extent in which each response to dissatisfaction contained the attribute that was depicted under each label. In addition to this, the system PREFMAP was used to compute the correlations between the configurations and labels and the vectors for each label.

Results revealed that voice was depicted as an individual attempting to enhance the situation, while neglect was described as permitting the relationship to decline. Loyalty was regarded as waiting for the situation to improve, while exit was depicted as abusing or ending the relationship. Also, loyalty and voice were judged as constructive behaviors, while neglect and exit were deemed as destructive behaviors. On the other hand, voice and exit were judged as active responses, while neglect and loyalty were considered passive.

The Present Studies

If the secure attachment style is typified by high levels of interdependence, trust (Simpson, 1990), and satisfaction (Pistole, 1989), while the avoidant attachment style is marked by withdrawal (Brassard et al., 2009), self-reliance (Pistole, 1989), and emotional distance, then the intimacy, passion, and commitment levels must drastically differ between the two styles of attachment. With the results from Levy and Davis’s (1988) study showing that the secure attachment style is positively linked to the three components of love, while the avoidant attachment style shows the opposite, and Hazan and Shaver’s (1987) notion that the relationship of securely attached individuals lasts longer than the avoidant attachment style, then it is fair to assert that securely attached individuals have more intimacy, passion, and commitment than avoidant individuals in romantic relationships. On the other hand, while anxious/ambivalent and avoidant comprise of the insecure attachment styles, they do, in fact,
differ. Anxious/ambivalent attached individuals experience extreme sexual attraction and have the intense desire to be close to their partners (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), while avoidant individuals tend to be hostile, are not comfortable being close to their partners, and have a hard time believing that true love exists (Levy & Davis, 1988). Since this is the case, intimacy and passion levels for anxious/ambivalent individuals might be higher compared to avoidant individuals. The commitment levels, however, may be reversed. Since avoidant individuals try to stay away from their partners and withdraw when disagreements arise, this may prolong the relationship, compared to anxious/ambivalent individuals who want to be too close to their significant others to the point that it scares them away. Based upon previous research and the descriptions of the three attachment styles, for my first study, I am proposing two hypotheses: a) securely attached individuals will have higher levels of intimacy, commitment, and passion compared to avoidant individuals and b) anxious/ambivalent individuals will have higher levels of passion and intimacy but lower levels of commitment compared to those who are avoidant.

As previously mentioned, securely attached individuals use problem-solving strategies when in conflict with their romantic partner (Pistole, 1989), compared to anxious/ambivalent individuals who respond with profound emotions, and avoidant individuals who withdraw (Brassard et al., 2009). Since securely attached individuals employ positive, yet efficient methods when in disagreement with their partners, they could be labeled as using constructive behaviors. On the other hand, insecurely attached individuals tend to use poor communication when in dissention with their lovers, and that could be considered problematic in the long run. Therefore, these individuals could be depicted as utilizing deconstructive behaviors. According to the previous study, loyalty and voice are
considered constructive behaviors, while neglect and exit are considered deconstructive behaviors (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1982). For my second study, I am doing a partial replication of Rusbult and Zembrodt’s experiment. I will have participants respond to a prompt regarding their feelings of dissatisfaction in their current romantic relationships. Then, I will have two scorers keep track of phrases or words that fall under the labels previously described in Rusbult and Zembrodt’s 1982 experiment. Therefore, my two hypotheses are the following: a) securely attached individuals will have descriptions containing higher levels of loyalty and voice, and b) insecure individuals will have descriptions containing higher levels of neglect and exit.

Study 1

Method

Participants

A total of 90 participants across the world were recruited on the Amazon Mechanical Turk (mTurk) website and were paid a nominal fee of 25 cents for completing online questionnaires pertaining to attachment and components of love (see Appendix B). The surveys of 31 participants could not be utilized because respondents did not finish answering the questions. Therefore, only the questionnaires of the remaining 59 subjects were used for this study. Of these participants, 41 were male, and 18 were female. Thirty-eight individuals were between the ages of 18-30 years old, and 21 individuals were between ages 31-65 years old. In regards to the highest level of education completed, 4 subjects had a high school diploma, 47 subjects had a bachelor’s degree, and 8 subjects had either a PhD or another advanced degree.
Measures

Participants answered questions that fell under the measures of adult attachment and the three love components: intimacy, passion, and commitment. There were two questionnaires for adult attachment style. In the first one, participants read three self-descriptions and placed a check mark next to the one that best depicted their feelings in romantic relationships. In the second adult attachment style questionnaire, each item was asked on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Items in the love questionnaire were asked on a 9-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 9 (extremely). Demographics were also reported (see appendix C).

Attachment was measured using the Original Attachment Three-Category Questionnaire (Hazan & Shaver, 1987) and the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000). An example of one of the descriptions from the first questionnaire was, “I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them and having them depend on me. I do not worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me.” The second questionnaire consisted of 36 questions. An example of one of the questions was, “I often worry that my partner does not really love me.”

Components of Love were measured via Sternberg’s Triangular Love Scale (Sternberg, 1988) and consisted of 45 questions. The three love components measured were intimacy, commitment, and passion. An example of one of these questions was, “I view my commitment to my partner as a solid one.”
Procedures

Participants were recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk (mTurk) website to complete three online surveys regarding attachment and love in romantic relationships. Before starting the experiment, participants read and signed a consent form (see Appendix A). If they signed the form, they moved on to complete the survey questions. After completing the questionnaires, participants were given a debriefing form (see Appendix D) explaining the purpose of the experiment and the contact information of the experimenter if they had any questions.

Statistical and Power Analyses

The data from this study was analyzed using an analysis of variance. A priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1. Sample size was subsequently set at $N = 251$. This yielded a power of .95 to detect a moderate effect size ($f = .25$) at an alpha level of .05 for a two-way ANOVA with six conditions. However, my study only had a sample size of 59, so it did not achieve sufficient statistical power.

Study 1 Results

For the first experiment, there were two hypotheses: a) securely attached individuals will have higher levels of intimacy, commitment, and passion compared to avoidant individuals, and b) anxious/ambivalent individuals will have higher levels of passion and intimacy, but lower levels of commitment compared to those who are avoidant. A 2 x 3 between-subjects ANOVA was conducted to examine the interaction of gender (male or female) and attachment style on intimacy, ($M = 107.46$, $SD = 21.05$), passion ($M = 105.41$, $SD = 16.81$), and commitment ($M = 108.69$, $SD = 19.44$). There was no significant interaction of gender and attachment style on intimacy, $F (2, 58) = 2.74$, $p=.07$, passion, $F (2, 59) = 2.97$, $p=.06$, or commitment, $F (5, 59) = 2.47$, $p=.09$. Overall, there were no significant
difference between all conditions, thus no interaction effects were found. In other words, securely attached individuals appear to have the same levels of intimacy, passion, and commitment compared to avoidant attached individuals, and anxious/ambivalent individuals had the same levels of intimacy, passion, and commitment as avoidant individuals. Neither hypothesis was supported by the data.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of gender (male or female) on the anxiety (\(M = 81.68, SD = 30.29\)) and avoidance (\(M = 92.73, SD = 12.97\)) conditions. There was no significant effect of gender on anxiety, \(F(1, 58) = .02, p=.88\). There was also no significant effect of gender on avoidance, \(F(1, 58) = .32, p=.57\). A one-way ANOVA was also conducted to examine the effect of gender on intimacy (\(M = 107.46, SD = 21.05\)), passion (\(M = 105.41, SD = 16.81\)), and commitment (\(M = 108.69, SD = 19.44\)). There was no significant effect of gender on intimacy, \(F(1, 58) = .97, p=.33\), and there was no significant effect of gender on passion, \(F(1, 58) = 0.01, p=.94\). There was also no significant effect of gender on commitment, \(F(1, 58) = .29, p=.59\). This suggests that gender does not impact these particular elements of romantic relationships.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of age (18-30 years and 31-65 years) on anxiety and avoidance scores. There was a significant effect of age on anxiety, \(F(1, 59) = 8.10, p=.006\) (see Table 1 for descriptive statistics). This suggests that as we get older, our levels of anxiety with regard to our romantic relationships decreases.

Table 1.

*Descriptive Statistics for Anxiety Scores based on Age (in years)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 to 30</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>89.55</td>
<td>27.54</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was also a significant effect of age on avoidance, $F(1, 59) = 5.12, p=0.03$ (see Table 2 for descriptive statistics). This suggests that as we get older, our levels of avoidance with regard to our romantic relationships decrease.

Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 to 30</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>95.47</td>
<td>11.14</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 to 65</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>87.76</td>
<td>14.77</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>92.73</td>
<td>12.97</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of age on intimacy ($M = 107.46, SD = 21.05$), passion ($M = 105.41, SD = 16.81$), and commitment ($M = 108.69, SD = 19.44$). There was no significant effect for age on intimacy, $F(1, 59) = .02, p=.89$, passion, $F(1, 59) = .01, p=.91$, or commitment, $F(1, 59) = .01, p=.93$. This suggests that age, as defined in this study, does not affect these components of love, as Sternberg (1986) defines them.

**Discussion**

The hypothesis of securely attached individuals having higher levels of intimacy, commitment, and passion levels was not supported. The intimacy, passion, and commitment levels between securely attached individuals and avoidant attached individuals were the same. Additionally, the hypothesis of anxious/ambivalent individuals having higher levels of
intimacy and passion but lower levels of commitment compared to avoidant individuals was not supported. The intimacy, commitment, and passion levels between the anxious/ambivalent individuals and the avoidant individuals were the same. Since securely attached individuals differ drastically from avoidant attached individuals, I would have expected to get a significant difference between both groups.

In addition to the hypotheses, additional analyses were conducted to see if gender or age had any impact on both the anxiety and avoidant scores in addition to intimacy, commitment, and passion levels. Gender did not play a role in any of these components. The impact of age did have slightly different results. While age did not impact intimacy, commitment, and passion levels, age did impact anxiety and avoidance scores. This indicates that age and gender might not be a factor when it comes to love. However, age may be related to the amount of anxiety or avoidance one has. Younger individuals may have higher levels of both compared to the middle-aged population.

**Study 2**

**Method**

**Participants**

A total of 74 participants across the world were recruited on the Amazon Mechanical Turk (mTurk) website and were paid a nominal fee of 25 cents for responding to a prompt asking them to reflect on their current romantic relationship. There were 46 participants whose responses could not be utilized because they failed to answer the prompt. Therefore, only the responses of the remaining 28 subjects were used for this study. Of these participants, 17 were male, and 11 were female. Fifteen individuals were between the ages 18-30 years old, while only 13 individuals were between the ages of 31-65 years old. In
regard to the highest level of education completed, 3 subjects had a high school diploma, 24 had a bachelor’s degree, and only 1 had a PhD or another advanced degree.

**Materials and Measures**

Participants responded to the following prompt (see Appendix F): *Please think of a time when you became dissatisfied with your partner. In as much detail as possible, describe the situation and your feelings, and especially your response to the situation. What did you do about your unhappiness?* After responding to the prompt, participants answered a brief attachment style questionnaire (see Appendix G), in which they read three self-descriptions and placed a check mark next to the one that best depicted their feelings in their current romantic relationship. Demographics were also reported (see Appendix C).

Two scorers came together to look for words or phrases that fell under the four labels (exit, neglect, loyalty, and voice) that depict the degree of dissatisfaction in the participants’ romantic relationships. Under each category, there was a set of attributes. The category exit referred to a partner consistently ending or abusing the relationship. An example of one of the labels was, “the person ended the relationship.” The category neglect referred to taking inaction by watching the relationship diminish. An example of one of the labels was, “the person was hostile.” Loyalty referred to passively waiting for the situation to ameliorate, and an example of one of the labels was, “the person was committed.” Finally, voice depicted an individual in the relationship actively attempting to improve the situation. An example of one of the labels was, “both/one person worked to solve the problem.” The scorers also looked for words that fell under additional categories, such as constructive and deconstructive behaviors, active and passive behaviors, and the “other” category. These labels and attributes were taken from Rusbult and Zembrodt’s (1982) study. However, certain attributes were
either modified or added under labels for the purpose of this study (see Appendix H).

Constructiveness and activity exemplified a secure attachment style, and destructiveness and passivity indicated insecure attachment styles. Both voice and loyalty were considered constructive behaviors, while neglect and exit were counted as deconstructive behaviors; additionally, neglect and loyalty were considered passive behaviors, while voice and exit were counted as active behaviors. Each time both scorers agreed, a point was distributed. Each time the scorers did not agree, no points were distributed. Scorers then looked at the attachment questionnaire to determine if the attachment style that participants identified with the most matched the attachment style depicted in their responses to the prompt.

**Procedures**

Before the experiment started, participants read and signed the consent forms (see Appendix E). If they signed the consent form, they moved on to respond to the open-ended question. After responding to the prompt, participants completed a brief attachment questionnaire. When the experiment ended, participants were given a debriefing form (see Appendix I) explaining the purpose of the experiment and contact information of the principal investigator if they had any further questions.

**Statistical and Power Analyses**

The data from this study was analyzed using an analysis of variance. A priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1. Sample size was subsequently set at $N = 84$ (42 participants per attachment group). This yielded a power of .95 to detect a moderate effect size ($f = .25$) at an alpha level of .05 for the between-subjects measure of a one-way ANOVA. However, my study only had a sample size of 28, so it did not achieve sufficient statistical power.
Study 2 Results

For the second study, I hypothesized the following: a) securely attached individuals will have descriptions containing higher levels of loyalty and voice, and b) insecure individuals will have descriptions containing higher levels of neglect and exit. To test this, four one-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine the effect of attachment style (secure or insecure) on loyalty (M = 2.43, SD = 1.10), voice (M = 2.75, SD = 1.82), neglect (M = .39, SD = .63), and exit (M = .11, SD = .42). There were no significant effects for loyalty, F (1, 27) = 3.04, p=.93, voice, F (1, 27) = 3.03, p=.93, neglect, F (1, 27) = 2.00, p=.17, or exit, F (1, 27) = 1.41, p=.25, with regard to attachment style. Therefore, neither hypothesis was supported. This indicates that attachment style does not play a role in any of these categories.

Five one-way ANOVAs were also conducted to examine the effect of attachment style on the constructive (M = .86, SD = .93) and deconstructive (M = .54, SD = .84) conditions, the active (M = .64, SD = .49) and passive conditions, and the other condition (M = .82, SD = .39). There were no significant effects of attachment style on both the constructive, F (1,28) = 1.87, p=.18 and deconstructive, F (1,28) = .07, p=.80, conditions. There was also no significant effect of attachment style on the active condition, F (1,28) = 1.86, p=.19. However, there was a significant effect of attachment style on the passive condition, F (1, 28) = 5.28, p=.03 (see Table 3 for descriptive statistics).

Table 3.

Descriptive Statistics for Passive Scores based on Attachment Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insecure</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was no significant effect of attachment style on the other condition, $F (1,28) = .02$, $p=.89$.

**Discussion**

The hypothesis of securely attached individuals scoring higher in the loyalty and voice categories and the insecurely attached individuals scoring higher in the neglect and exit categories were not supported. This indicates that attachment style does not have any impact on these four components. There was also no significant difference between the two attachment styles in terms of constructive or deconstructive behavior, active behavior, or blaming one’s partner for the problem (the other “condition”). However, because securely attached individuals’ romantic relationships generally lasts longer than those who are avoidant attached, and the securely attached employ effective problem-solving techniques when in disagreement unlike the avoidant attached, we would expect different results. While all participants discussed dissatisfaction in the relationship, most individuals did not answer all parts of the question. As a result, scorers could not give any points to particular categories if there was no information in the responses about it.

**General Discussion**

For the first study, the purpose was to see if securely attached individuals would have higher levels of intimacy, commitment, and passion compared to avoidant individuals and if anxious/ambivalent individuals would have higher levels of passion and intimacy but lower levels of commitment compared to avoidant individuals. The results showed that securely attached individuals had the same level of intimacy, passion, and commitment levels as avoidant attached individuals. There was also no significant difference between the intimacy,
attachment and four labels in romantic relationships

passion, and commitment levels between individuals who were anxious/ambivalent and avoidant. Therefore, neither hypotheses were supported. For the second study, the purpose was to see if securely attached individuals would have descriptions containing higher levels of loyalty and voice and if insecurely attached individuals would have descriptions containing higher levels of neglect and exit. The results showed that there were no significant effects of attachment style on all four categories. Therefore, neither hypotheses were supported for this study either.

While both studies can contribute to the research that has already been done on romantic relationships, there were some limitations. Firstly, even though a large number of participants completed the surveys for the studies via Amazon Mechanical Turk, a significant amount of their data could not be utilized. For the first study, there were over 80 questions that subjects had to answer, however, several individuals answered them in under two minutes. For the second study, over fifty percent of the participants failed to answer the prompt. These individuals either wrote about experiences that had nothing to do with romantic relationships, or they copied and pasted prompts or responses from other questionnaires. Additionally, even out of all 28 subjects that we used for the second study, only a small percentage responded to the prompt in its entirety. While they may have discussed dissatisfaction in their relationships, they did not talk about what actions they took as a result of their unhappiness.

Aside from the participants in mTurk, there were other limitations, especially in terms of representation. For the first study, there were 22 secure individuals, 15 avoidant individuals, and only 4 anxious/ambivalent individuals. For the second study, there was not an equal representation of the insecure attachment style. For the insecure attachment style,
participants chose between two descriptions: one that categorized them as having an anxious/ambivalent attachment style or an avoidant one. Out of the 16 participants that fell under the insecure attachment style, only 2 classified themselves as anxious/ambivalent. Because there was a lack of representation of anxious/ambivalent individuals for both studies, it is unknown whether having more individuals with this attachment style could have influenced the results. Furthermore, for both studies, four options for gender were provided for individuals to choose from: male, female, transgender, or non-binary. However, participants only classified themselves as either male or female. Therefore, there was no information to see if the other two categories had any effect on the present constructs and relationships. Lastly, for the first study, participants not only read three self-descriptions and chose which one matched their feelings in the relationships to determine their attachment style, but they also answered a series of questions that measured their anxiety and avoidance levels. However, to help determine their attachment style for the second study, participants only chose from the three self-descriptions. Considering that there were no additional questionnaires used to measure attachment in this study, there was no other way to determine if the attachment style that subjects chose truly reflected how they were in relationships. Also, insecurities represent a smaller part of the population, as no more than 20% of the population are avoidant and even less than 19% are ambivalents (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). As such, they are harder to find, even with the mTurk platform. It is also likely that some of the avoidants were actually securely attached. Some secure may like to think of themselves in terms that typically define the avoidant style, but not for reasons of attachment. They may see themselves as the “lone wolf” types, which has an ego defensive quality to it. So even those
avoidant participants may be more likely to be securely attached than insecurely attached. Only a purely objective measure would be definitive, but unworkable in this type of study. Despite these limitations, these two studies suggest directions for future research. Because the secure attachment style has been shown to be positively associated with passion, commitment, and intimacy, and the avoidant attachment style has been shown to be negatively correlated with all three (Levy & Davis, 1998), it would be expected that securely attached individuals have higher levels of the three components of love compared to avoidant attached individuals. Additionally, because anxious/ambivalent individuals often have a higher degree of sexual attraction (or desire) and want to be so close to their partners to the extent that they may scare them away compared to avoidant individuals who are not comfortable being close, in any way (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), it would be expected that anxious/ambivalent individuals would have higher levels of intimacy and passion but lower levels of commitment compared to avoidant individuals. My study produced different results. Because there is little research that examines the relationship between attachment styles and Sternberg’s love components, more studies on this topic should be conducted to further examine this relationship. Additionally, because the secure attachment is related to positive relationships qualities, and the insecure attachment is related with the negative ones (Levy & Davis, 1998), it would be expected that securely attached individuals would score higher in the loyalty and voice categories, and the avoidant attached individuals would score higher in neglect and exit. With so many romantic relationship studies using questionnaires (Feeny & Noller, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987, Simpson, 1990), my second study could help open the door for more romantic relationship studies using prompts. Lastly, even though both of my studies only include males and females, it is very imperative not to dichotomize gender.
Future studies could focus on transgender or non-binary individuals and their attachment styles.
References


Attachment and Four Labels in Romantic Relationships


Appendix A

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY
THE COLLEGE OF WOOSTER

Attachment Styles and Love
Principal Investigator: Jay Coleman, Psychology Department

Purpose
You are being asked to participate in a research study. We are investigating the influence of attachment styles on intimacy, commitment, and passion in romantic relationships.

Procedures
If you decide to volunteer, you will be asked to answer several questions about your style of attachment and your levels of intimacy, commitment, and passion in your relationship. Each survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Risks
Individuals who participate in this study may experience hyperawareness of their attachment and intimacy, passion, and commitment levels in their current romantic relationship.

Benefits
There are no direct benefits to you for your participation. An indirect benefit is that we learn more about how attachment styles influence certain love components in relationships.

Compensation
Individuals will receive $0.25 via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) for completing this survey.

Confidentiality
Any information you give will be anonymous. Unique name/number codes will be stored on a password-protected Microsoft Word file. This file will be destroyed once all data is collected. Thus, all data will become anonymous at the conclusion of the study.

Cost
There is no cost to you beyond the time and effort required to complete the procedure described above.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw
You may refuse to participate in the study. If you decide to participate, you may change your mind about being in the study and withdraw at any point during the experiment.

Questions
If you have any questions, please ask me. If you have additional questions later, you can contact me by email at jcoleman19@wooster.edu. You may also contact my advisor, Dr.
Michael Casey, at mcasey@wooster.edu.

By clicking the agree button, you will indicate that you have decided to volunteer as a research subject, that you have read and understood the agreement above, that you are currently in a romantic relationship, and that you are at least 18 years of age. You will be provided a copy of this form upon request.

- Agree
- Disagree
Attachment Styles Questions

Read each of the three self-descriptions below, and then choose the one that best describes how you feel in romantic relationships or is nearest to the way you feel.

- I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone gets too close, and often, others want me to be more intimate than I am comfortable being.

- I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them and having them depend on me. I don't worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me.

- I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me or won't want to stay with me. I want to get very close to my partner, and this sometimes scares people away.
Q1 I am afraid that I will lose my partner's love.

Q2 I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.

Q3 I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.

Q4 I worry that my romantic partner doesn't care about me as much as I care about him/her.

Q5 I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.
### Q6 I worry a lot about my relationship.

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<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree (3)</th>
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### Q7 When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.

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### Q8 When I show my feelings for my romantic partner, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.

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<th>Disagree (2)</th>
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### Q9 I rarely worry about my partner leaving me.

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### Q10 My romantic partner makes me doubt myself.

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Q11 I do not often worry about being abandoned.

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Q12 I find that my partner doesn't want to get as close as I would like.

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<th>Q12</th>
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Q13 Sometimes my romantic partner changes their feelings about me for no apparent reason.

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Q14 My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.

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Q15 I'm afraid that once my romantic partner gets to know me, he or she won't won't like who I really am.

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Q16 It makes me mad when I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner.

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Q17 I worry that I won't measure up to other people.

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Q18 My partner only seems to notice me when I'm angry.

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Q19 I prefer not to show my partner how I feel deep down.

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Q20 I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.

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Q21 I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my romantic partner.

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Q22 I am very comfortable being close to my romantic partner.

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Q23 I don't feel comfortable opening up to my romantic partner.

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Q24 I prefer not to be too close to my romantic partner.

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Q25 I get uncomfortable when my romantic partner wants to be very close.

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Q26 I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.

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<td>Q27 It's not difficult for me to get close to my partner.</td>
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<td>Q28 I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.</td>
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<td>Strongly agree (7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q29 It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need.</td>
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<td>Q30 I tell my partner just about everything.</td>
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<td>Q31 I talk things over with my partner.</td>
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<td>Q32 I am nervous when my partner gets too close to me.</td>
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<thead>
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<th>Q36 My partner really understands me and my needs.</th>
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<td>Q37 I am actively supportive of my partner's well-being.</td>
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<td>Q38 I have a warm relationship with my partner.</td>
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<td>Q39 I am able to count on my partner in times of need.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q40 My partner is able to count on me in times of need.</td>
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<td>Q41 I am willing to share myself and my possessions with my partner.</td>
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<td>Q42 I receive considerable emotional support from my partner.</td>
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<td>Q43 I communicate well with my partner.</td>
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<td>Q44 I value my partner greatly in my life.</td>
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<td>Q45 I feel close to my partner.</td>
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<td>Q46 I have a comfortable relationship with my partner.</td>
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<td>Q47 I feel that I really understand my partner.</td>
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<td>Q48 I feel that my partner really understands me.</td>
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<td>Q49 I feel that I can really trust my partner.</td>
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<td>Q50 I share deeply personal information about myself with my partner.</td>
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Q51 Just seeing my partner excites me.  
Not at all (1)  2 (2)  3 (3)  4 (4)  Moderately (5)  6 (6)  7 (7)  8 (8)  Extremely (9)  

Q52 I find myself thinking about my partner frequently during the day.  
Not at all (1)  2 (2)  3 (3)  4 (4)  Moderately (5)  6 (6)  7 (7)  8 (8)  Extremely (9)  

Q53 My relationship with my partner is very romantic.  
Not at all (1)  2 (2)  3 (3)  4 (4)  Moderately (5)  6 (6)  7 (7)  8 (8)  Extremely (9)  

Q54 I find my partner to be very personally attractive.  
Not at all (1)  2 (2)  3 (3)  4 (4)  Moderately (5)  6 (6)  7 (7)  8 (8)  Extremely (9)  

Q55 I idealize my partner.  
Not at all (1)  2 (2)  3 (3)  4 (4)  Moderately (5)  6 (6)  7 (7)  8 (8)  Extremely (9)  

Q56 I cannot imagine another person making me as happy as my partner does.  
Not at all (1)  2 (2)  3 (3)  4 (4)  Moderately (5)  6 (6)  7 (7)  8 (8)  Extremely (9)  

Q57 I would rather be with my partner than anyone else.  
Not at all (1)  2 (2)  3 (3)  4 (4)  Moderately (5)  6 (6)  7 (7)  8 (8)  Extremely (9)  

Q58 There is nothing more important to me than my relationship with my partner.
Q59 I especially like physical contact with my partner.

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Q60 There is something almost "magical" about my relationship with my partner.

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Q61 I adore my partner.

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Q62 I cannot imagine my life without my partner.

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<th>Not at all (1)</th>
<th>2 (2)</th>
<th>3 (3)</th>
<th>4 (4)</th>
<th>Moderately (5)</th>
<th>6 (6)</th>
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Q63 My relationship with my partner is passionate.

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<th>Not at all (1)</th>
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Q64 When I see romantic movies and read romantic books, I think of my partner.

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<th>Not at all (1)</th>
<th>2 (2)</th>
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<th>4 (4)</th>
<th>Moderately (5)</th>
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Q65 I fantasize about my partner.

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<th>Not at all (1)</th>
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<th>4 (4)</th>
<th>Moderately (5)</th>
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</table>
Q66 I know that I care about my partner.  
| Not at all (1) | 2 (2) | 3 (3) | 4 (4) | Moderately (5) | 6 (6) | 7 (7) | 8 (8) | Extremely (9) |

Q67 I am committed to maintaining my relationship with my partner.  
| Not at all (1) | 2 (2) | 3 (3) | 4 (4) | Moderately (5) | 6 (6) | 7 (7) | 8 (8) | Extremely (9) |

Q68 Because of my commitment to my partner, I would not let other people come between us.  
| Not at all (1) | 2 (2) | 3 (3) | 4 (4) | Moderately (5) | 6 (6) | 7 (7) | 8 (8) | Extremely (9) |

Q69 I have confidence in the stability of my relationship with my partner.  
| Not at all (1) | 2 (2) | 3 (3) | 4 (4) | Moderately (5) | 6 (6) | 7 (7) | 8 (8) | Extremely (9) |

Q70 I could not let anything get in the way of my commitment to my partner.  
| Not at all (1) | 2 (2) | 3 (3) | 4 (4) | Moderately (5) | 6 (6) | 7 (7) | 8 (8) | Extremely (9) |

Q71 I expect my love for my partner to last for the rest of my life.  
| Not at all (1) | 2 (2) | 3 (3) | 4 (4) | Moderately (5) | 6 (6) | 7 (7) | 8 (8) | Extremely (9) |

Q72 I will always feel a strong responsibility for my partner.  
<p>| Not at all (1) | 2 (2) | 3 (3) | 4 (4) | Moderately (5) | 6 (6) | 7 (7) | 8 (8) | Extremely (9) |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<th>2 (2)</th>
<th>3 (3)</th>
<th>4 (4)</th>
<th>Moderately (5)</th>
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<th>Extremely (9)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Q73</td>
<td>I view my commitment to my partner as a solid one.</td>
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<td>Q74</td>
<td>I cannot imagine ending my relationship with my partner.</td>
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<td>Q75</td>
<td>I am certain of my love for my partner.</td>
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<td>Q76</td>
<td>I view my relationship with my partner as permanent.</td>
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<td>Q77</td>
<td>I view my relationship with my partner as a good decision.</td>
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<td>Q78</td>
<td>I feel a sense of responsibility toward my partner.</td>
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<td>Q79</td>
<td>I plan to continue my relationship with my partner.</td>
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Q80 Even when my partner is hard to deal with, I remain committed to our relationship.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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Appendix C

Demographics

Q82 What is your gender?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Transgender (3)
- Non-binary (4)

Q83 Which category responds to your age?

- 18-30 years (1)
- 31-45 years (2)
- 46-50 years (3)
- 51-64 years (4)
- 64+ years (5)

Q84 What is your highest level of education?

- High School Diploma (1)
- Bachelor’s degree (2)
- PHD or other advanced degrees (3)
- Other (4)
Appendix D

Debriefing Form: Attachment and Love in Romantic Relationships

Thank you for participating in our research study. The purpose of this research is to determine how different attachment styles can influence levels of commitment, passion, and intimacy in romantic relationships. The two hypotheses tested were a) securely attached individuals will have higher levels of intimacy, commitment, and passion compared to avoidant individuals and b) anxious/ambivalent individuals will have higher levels of passion and intimacy but lower levels of commitment compared to avoidant individuals.

The main researcher conducting this study is Jay Coleman at the College of Wooster. If you have questions, you may contact Jay Coleman at jcoleman19@wooster.edu or Dr. Casey at mcasey@wooster.edu.
Appendix E

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY
THE COLLEGE OF WOOSTER

Dissatisfaction in Romantic Relationships
Principal Investigator: Jay Coleman, Psychology Department

Purpose
You are being asked to participate in a research study. We are investigating how individuals with different attachment styles respond to dissatisfaction in their current romantic relationship. We are also investigating how individuals perceive their own relationship styles.

Procedures
If you decide to volunteer, you will be requested to respond to an open-ended prompt concerning your relationship with your romantic partner and a brief questionnaire about your relationship style.

Risks
Participation in this study may involve recalling a time when you were dissatisfied with your partner.

Benefits
There are no direct benefits to you for your participation. An indirect benefit may be that you will enjoy participating in a psychological study on relationships.

Compensation
Individuals will receive $0.25 via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) for participation in this study.

Confidentiality
Any information you give will be anonymous. Unique number codes will be stored on a password-protected Microsoft Word file. All data will remain anonymous throughout the study.

Cost
There is no cost to you beyond the time and effort required to complete the procedure described above.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw
You may refuse to participate in the study. If you decide to participate, you may change your mind about being in the study and withdraw at any point during the experiment without penalty.

Questions
If you have any questions, please ask me. If you have additional questions later, you can
contact me by email at jcoleman19@wooster.edu. You may also contact my advisor, Dr. Michael Casey, at mcasey@wooster.edu., (330- 263-2460).

Consent
You must be at least 18 years of age to participate in this study. Proceeding to the next screen indicates that you have decided to volunteer as a research subject and that you have read and understood the information provided above.

- Agree
- Disagree
Appendix F

Dissatisfaction in Romantic Relationships Survey

Q11 Please think of a time when you became dissatisfied with your partner. In at least 100 words and in as much detail as possible, describe the situation and your feelings, and especially your response to the situation. What did you do about your unhappiness? Please answer all parts of the question.
Appendix G

Attachment Style Survey

Q6 Read each of the three self-descriptions below and choose the single alternative that best describes how you feel in romantic relationships or is nearest to the way you feel.

☐ I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone gets too close, and often, others want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being. (1)

☐ I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them and having them depend on me. I don't worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me. (2)

☐ I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love or won't want to stay with me. I want to get very close to my partner, and this sometimes scares people away. (3)
Appendix H

Scoring Sheet for Dissatisfaction in Relationships

Subject#: ________________
Sex: __________
Age: __________
Highest Education: __________

Exit
• Person Ended relationship
• Person threatened to end relationship
• People separated, broke up, or decided to be friends

Voice
• Person discussed dissatisfaction
• People compromised
• Person tried to change relationship
• Person worked to solve problem
• Person actively tried to improve conditions
• Problem was satisfactorily resolved

Loyalty
• Person was committed
• Person accepted problems
• Person was loyal

Neglect
• Person passively waited for conditions to worsen
• Person (or behavior) was hostile
• Person said/did cruel things

Constructive
• Person hoped and believed relationship would improve
• Person’s actions were constructive
• Person was optimistic about the future

Destructive
• Person hoped and/or believed the relationship would worsen
• Person’s actions were destructive
• Person was pessimistic about the future

Active/Passive
• Person was active
• Person was passive
Other

- Person blamed partner for problem
- Non-responsive
Debriefing Form: Attachment and Love in Romantic Relationships

Thank you for participating in our research study. The purpose of this experiment is to determine how individuals with different attachment styles respond to dissatisfaction in their current romantic relationship. The two hypotheses tested were a) securely attached individuals will have descriptions depicting loyalty and voice and b) insecure individuals will have descriptions depicting neglect and exit. The main researcher conducting this study is Jay Coleman at the College of Wooster. Please feel free to ask any questions now. If you have questions later, you may contact Jay Coleman at jcoleman19@wooster.edu or Dr. Michael Casey at mcasey@wooster.edu.

Clicking the next button indicates that you have been debriefed.