THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEXUAL OBJECTIFICATION AND SELF-OBJECTIFICATION, ADULT ROMANTIC ATTACHMENT, AND RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION

By

EMILIA D. SHINNE, M.A.

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the

University of Detroit Mercy,

Detroit, Michigan

In partial fulfillment of the requirement

For the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2016

PROGRAM: PSYCHOLOGY (Clinical)

Approved by:

Libby Balter Blume, Ph.D., CFLE_____
Committee Chairperson

Kristen Abraham, Ph.D._____
Committee Member

Linda Slowik, Ph.D._____
Committee Member

Carol Cronin Weisfeld, Ph.D._____
Committee Member

UNIVERSITY OF DETROIT MERCY
COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS AND EDUCATION
GRADUATE PROGRAM

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEXUAL OBJECTIFICATION AND SELF-OBJECTIFICATION, ADULT ROMANTIC ATTACHMENT, AND RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION

PRESENTED BY EMILIA SHINNE

ACCEPTED BY

Libby Balter Blume, Ph.D., CFLE_____
Major Professor

Victor Barry Dauphin, Ph.D._____
Program Director

Lynn McLean_____
College of Liberal Arts and Education

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family. To my mother, Gloria Amescua, I am eternally grateful that you have always been someone in my life I can count on to support me and to be in my corner. I know that my decision to pursue a doctorate degree so far from home has been a sacrifice for you as well. I also know you could not be more proud of me. To my father, James Shinne, our long phone calls and visits home made this journey so much more enjoyable. I have missed some important moments and so many little moments in pursuit of a dream bigger than myself. Mom, Dad, Elvira, Jennifer, Joe, Abigail, Ismael, Sebastian, Charlotte, Nathan, Edward, Quinten, Bella, Ezekiel, and Ignacio, this is for all of us.
I love you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The American Psychological Association (2007, 2010), recognizing that gender-based sexualized objectification and oppression of women has harmful implications, provides recommendations for research, clinical practice, training and education, public policy, and public awareness. Psychologists are urged to understand the ways in which gender socialization and gender-related discrimination and stressors affect girls and women in order to inform their own approaches to clinical work and efforts to change institutional and systemic bias. Szymanski and Carr (2010) noted that because objectification has been shown to cause and exacerbate psychosocial distress, it not only is a feminist issue but also a psychological one. In sum, mental health professionals need to work towards the deconstruction of oppressive systems that perpetuate objectification, to empower clients to advocate for themselves, and to help and advocate for improvement of women's lives (Szymanski & Carr, 2010).

At macro- and micro-societal levels, there needs to be an undoing of the marginalization and discrimination of women. In two meta-analyses examining 328 and 54 studies respectively, Schmitt, Branscombe, Postmes, and Garcia (2014) found that perceived discrimination was negatively associated with psychological well-being. In research by Calogero and Jost (2011), benevolent and complementary sexism were associated with greater self-objectification, self-surveillance, and body shame in women. Additionally, benevolent sexism was also related to increased physical appearance management behaviors in women. Previous research also has indicated an association between sexism and relationship satisfaction (Hammond & Overall, 2013b; Sibley & Becker, 2012).

   The ways in which objectification influences dynamics in romantic partnerships warrants attention in clinical work. The present study seeks to explore the relationship among objectification and self-objectification and adult attachment styles in the context of relationship satisfaction. Although attachment and relationships have been thoroughly investigated, individually and in combination with one another, sexual objectification has been studied to a lesser degree, especially with regard to romantic relationships. Furthermore, past research has highlighted the importance of assessing for social desirability in participant self-report responding, particularly when investigating gender differences and ethical behavior and body dissatisfaction (Dalton & Ortegren, 2011; McFarland & Petrie, 2012). Due to this research and the sensitivity of certain questions related to objectification, self-objectification, and sexism, the present study controlled for biased responding in the analyses.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Objectification Theory

Feminist scholars have postulated that the female body and cultural standards of beauty are social constructions (Bordo, 1993). However, it was not until Frederickson and Roberts' (1997) groundbreaking conceptualization and formalization of objectification theory that research on the sexual objectification of women and the negative consequences women experience as a result of objectification flourished. Frederickson and Roberts (1997) noted that sexual objectification occurs "whenever a woman's body, body parts, or sexual functions are separated out from her person, reduced to the status of mere instruments, or regarded as if they were capable of representing her" (p. 175). Moreover, they described sexual objectification as occurring when "treated *as bodies*- and in particular, as bodies that exist for the pleasure of others." (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997, p. 175). Through an objectifying gaze, or the visual inspection of [typically] the female body, men are able to subtly sexually evaluate women. Sexual objectification is not only prevalent in interpersonal interactions but also through visual media portrayals of women's bodies as well. Objectification theory holds that women come to internalize or adopt men's perspective of women's physical self, referred to as self-objectification.

Objectification theory addresses the social and cultural meaning and construction of women's bodies, rather than merely addressing biological matters (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Theorists have sought to explain why sexual objectification may occur. For instance, from an evolutionary perspective, women's physical appearance indicates reproductive value and capacity, and is important in mate selection (Buss, 1989). However, Frederickson and

Roberts (1997) do not aim to explain why women's bodies are sexually evaluated and possibly objectified but accept that this occurs and seek to understand the damaging psychological and experiential costs of sexual objectification. Although women of different backgrounds (e.g., race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, age, physical characteristics, and personality traits) may have experiences that vary, having a reproductively developed female body may result in a shared susceptibility of experiencing sexual objectification which can, in turn, produce harmful consequences.

In our culture, girls and women are socialized to view themselves as sexual objects to be gazed at and sexually evaluated. The process by which this may occur is as follows: Females are complacent with external pressure to promote physical appearance, likely experience positive responses associated with physical attractiveness, and then willingly incorporate their efforts to enhance physical appearance as an authentic part of themselves. Similarly, women often come to develop a positive sense of self, based on perceived physical beauty. Therefore, self-objectification may serve as a strategy to assist in determining how others will treat a woman, which can lead to beneficial outcomes.

Objectification theory also can help women understand their experiences of distress in relationships. While objectification can occur anywhere, sexual objectification experiences (SOEs) is a term used to describe situations in which individuals are reduced to their body parts (Moradi & Huang, 2008). These experiences can occur through interpersonal situations, cat calling, appearance pressure, evaluation and comment, and numerous other ways. Szymanski, Moffit, and Carr (2010) provided criteria for SOEs, or environments that encourage sexual objectification. In SOEs, there are traditional gender roles, male contact is likely and the environment may even be male-dominant, men possess more power in the

environment, greater attention is given to women's physical appearance, and the male gaze is considered to be acceptable and appropriate. They note that supplementary factors, such as alcohol, encouragement of flirting, smiling, touching, and other sexual behaviors, and female competition can also increase sexual objectification in SOEs. For instance, Hooters restaurants are a fairly obvious type of environment that promotes SOEs for waitresses (Syzmanksi et al., 2010). Szymanski et al. (2010) called for future research to assist in explaining why some women choose positions in SOEs and illuminate interpersonal and intrapersonal factors that influence their experiences.

Moradi and Huang (2008) provided an in-depth review of previous research on objectification and self-objectification. To operationalize and measure self-objectification, experimental research typically highlights state self-objectification by manipulating and heightening participants' exposure to objectification and comparing it to a non-objectified control condition. Another approach is for participants to self-report levels of self-objectification, or interrelated constructs such as body surveillance. The degree of self-reported habitual body surveillance or monitoring is referred to as trait self-objectification.

Consequences of Objectification and Self-objectification

Frederickson and Roberts (1997) described a number of negative consequences that may result from sexual objectification. They explained that sexual objectification can be detrimental to mental health, writing that sexual objectification also leads to depression, sexual dysfunction, and eating disorders in women. Objectification theory posits that self-objectification can lead to shame, anxiety, feeling helpless about changing one's appearance, less enjoyment from peak motivation states, and sexual victimization. Repeated exposure to these negative experiences places women at an increased risk for depression. Objectification

theory holds that shame and anxiety are experienced with sexual activity, and that body monitoring, lessened attention to internal bodily cues of sexual arousal, and experiences of sexual violence are contributors to women's sexual dissatisfaction and dysfunction. With objectification theory, eating disorders may be viewed as a strategy to reach cultural ideals of physical attractiveness or as a way to avoid and resist objectification by not permitting a mature female body to develop. Eating disorders may also be viewed as an effort to gain control and reduce body-related shame and anxiety.

Additionally, objectification leads to the experience of shame (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). In American culture, images of attractive, flawless, idealized female bodies are highly prevalent, particularly with regard to media. Women compare and evaluate themselves relative to the cultural ideals of beauty; when they do not reach this difficult (if not, arguably, impossible) to obtain standard, they can feel shame. Shame may result not only from a woman's negative evaluation of oneself but also from potential social evaluation. If shame is considered an adaptive signal to correct moral and societal standards, body-related shame suggests that certain bodies are unacceptable and inappropriate; this perpetuates the stigma associated with being overweight.

Furthermore, sexual objectification may also lead to anxiety in women; anxiety is typically viewed as a response to a danger. Frederickson and Roberts (1997) noted that sexual objectification may lead to appearance anxiety and safety anxiety. With appearance anxiety, one is concerned about exposure. Women's clothing relates to appearance-related anxiety since women's fashion (e.g., necklines, skirt length) require some degree of body monitoring and adjustment. Safety anxiety is a realistic concern for women, especially with regard to sexual predators who may justify women's appearance as having "asked for it" or

provoking assailants (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997, p. 182). Because sexual objectification can be linked to sexual violence and victimization, women's anxiety raises their awareness of the potential for physical harm and personal safety.

Additionally, women's peak motivational states, or being engaged in a mental or physical activity, may be hindered by sexual objectification (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Women's motivation states are disrupted when others give attention to their bodies. This raises one's self-awareness and self-consciousness. Also, women's self-objectification is another way that self-consciousness is raised, interfering with motivational states. For instance, body monitoring limits physical activity. Women will aim to draw less attention to their body, by restricting movement, and their attention and concentration is not solely on the activity, but divided between the activity and awareness of how their body may be viewed.

Moreover, as a result of sexual objectification, women may have less awareness of internal bodily states (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Women may be less aware of physiological sensations. One reason for this may be, in an effort to have a thin body, women may diet and restrict their eating; these eating practices require women to ignore bodily cues signaling hunger. These women may form habits of suppressing hunger and be less attunes to internal bodily states. Another explanation may be that, because women devote more attention to external appearance, there are fewer resources to give to internal bodily cues and experiences.

Notably, women experience objectification to varying degrees (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). The degree to which women internalize other's perspective of their bodies, or self-objectify, varies. Hence, based on the degree that they self-objectify, risk of negative consequences (e.g., shame, anxiety, decreased peak motivational states, attention to physical

states, depression, sexual dysfunction, eating disorders) also varies. In addition, demographic and individual differences (e.g., race/ethnicity, class, age, sexual orientation, physical characteristics, history) lead to variation in the degree women are objectified. Some women (i.e., dominant culture) may be more susceptible to objectification, whereas other subgroups may have developed protective factors towards objectification. For example, women of marginalized racial groups may have a sense of self that is less influenced by mainstream media and others' views of themselves; nonetheless, these women are not necessarily immune to pressures to meet idealistic standards of physical attractiveness. Moreover, degree of objectification is influenced by context. Certain contexts call for more objectification than other spaces (e.g., SOEs; unstructured, public settings with males present) although women may combat and resist objectification by making changes to their physical appearance, such as wearing loose, unfitted clothing, not grooming body hair, not wearing makeup, and similar conscious actions to reduce objectification.

Frederickson and Roberts (1997) argued that, because women's bodies change over the lifespan, so too does risk for objectification, with objectification occurring most upon entering adolescence and puberty, and decreasing in mid-adulthood. Nonetheless, the impact of aging depends on whether women continue to internalize cultural ideals of the female body and the extent in which women find themselves in contexts in which they are objectified. The greater internalization and involvement in objectifying environments, the more negative outcomes aging women experience. However, reduced self-objectification and avoidance of objectifying contexts can be protective against negative consequences at any age. As a result, body monitoring will decrease due to less concern about other's evaluations of one's body, there will be less shame and anxiety, more peak motivational states, more

sensitivity to internal bodily states experienced, and lowered risk for negative mental health consequences (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997).

Calogero (2004) examined anticipated gazes, finding that female participants who anticipated a male gaze experienced more body shame and body-related anxiety than female participants who anticipated a female gaze. Given that women encounter daily social contexts with the potential for gazing, recognizing the impact of not only actual gazing but also the effect of nonbody-focused situations and imagined situations without an observer present is important. In contrast, the study found that women anticipating a female gaze had the lowest body shame and social physique anxiety, suggesting the female gaze may have a protective function and reduce negative consequences that result from self-objectification; this may be due to potential social support and because self-objectification results from internalization of the male gaze, but not necessarily the female gaze.

Objectification and Gender Differences

Overall, research has shown that women are objectified by both men and other women to a greater degree than men are objectified. However, research investigating the impact of objectification and self-objectification on men has shown that gender does not have a moderating effect on self-objectification (Chroma, Visser, Pozzebon, Bogaert, Busseri, & Sadava, 2010). While there are mixed findings about whether viewing objectified images of males affect male body image (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004; Johnson, McCreary, & Mills, 2007), men may be more resilient that women when viewing same-sex objectified images.

Men who viewed objectified images of women endorsed feeling more anxiety and hostility than men who viewed objectified images of other men or neutral images. Nonetheless, these findings replicate that of research on pornography exposure, in that,

explicit sexual material increases men's antagonistic attitudes toward women (Johnson, McCreary, & Mills, 2007).

Johnson, McCreary, and Mills (2007) found that men exposed to images depicting objectification of women experienced heightened anxiety and hostility, similar to findings of research literature on pornography. This suggests that viewing objectified images of women elicits combativeness towards women. Interestingly, men who viewed objectified images of women and men did not report decreased well-being or body image, suggesting that men are more resilient to objectified images of the same gender or that exposure has not been as pervasive enough to warrant expected consequences such as with female objectification.

The present study aims to expand the research of objectification and self-objectification in men, given that women have been the predominant sex studied in previous studies.

Objectification and Sexual Orientation

Because gender socialization teaches all girls and women that their bodies are to be looked at and dictates that women are to be relational, both heterosexual and lesbian women are susceptible to the consequences of objectification. More research has emerged, providing evidence for objectification in lesbian women (Kozee & Tylka, 2006).

In contrast, research by Markey and Markey (2014) found that heterosexual and lesbian women's body image differed, in that lesbian women had larger body ideals. Lesbian women may prefer larger bodies as a result of functionality and athleticism having more importance as contributors to beauty; or, the lesbian subculture may reject extremely thin and unhealthy ideals of beauty promoted by mainstream heterosexual culture.

Additionally, literature has grown to suggest evidence of objectification and self-objectification in heterosexual and homosexual men (Daniel, Bridges, & Martens, 2013; Kozak, Frankenhauser, & Roberts, 2009). Due to these discrepancies in findings, the present study investigated both sexes and multiple sexual orientations.

Attachment Theory

Objectification and attachment theories place emphasis on the self-other relationships (Bowlby, 1969; Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Both theories, at their core, are about one's relatedness to self and other (i.e., internal working models of self and other, self-objectification and objectification) and warrant investigation regarding relatedness. Although adult attachment and objectification/self-objectification theory, arguably, have theoretical similarities, the two have not often been investigated together.

Origins of Attachment Theory

Through his work, Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980) made significant contributions to what is known about attachment, separation, and loss in childhood. Bowlby sought to understand the ways in which infants emotionally attach to their primary caregivers, or attachment figures, and the distress that results upon being separated. According to Bowlby, the attachment system is adaptive. When an infant is young, he or she relies on the primary caregiver for protection from harm. Therefore, attachment helps ensure that infants remain close to caregivers for survival. The attachment figure is typically selected based on familiarity and quality of the figure's response; an infant will attach to the person who tends to respond to the infant's distress signals and who responds in the best ways.

When parted from a significant caregiver, infants react in predictable stages. First is the protest phase, in which the child's behavior may involve crying, searching for the absent

caregiver and resisting others' attempts to soothe the child. The following phase, despair, is characteristic of the child presenting as sad, morose, and passive. In the final stage, emotional detachment, the child expresses indifference towards the primary caregiver upon return. Bowlby noted that children who were separated from attachment figures during the protest phase were highly anxious due to the separation and required more physical contact and reassurance. Children separated after the despair phase, however, avoided contact with the attachment figure, as though they coped by emotional detachment. Bowlby believed both reactions of anxiety and detachment were adaptive reactions. The purpose of signals of distress is to increase proximity and call the attachment figure closer to the child. However, upon separation, when the caregiver is not likely to return, signals of distress, from an evolutionary perspective, can pose the threat of attracting predators and physically exhaust the child. Therefore, the passivity associated with despair ensures that the child is calm and silent; while the detachment phase allows the child to resume his or her regular activity, including the possibility of adopting a new attachment figure.

Bowlby (1973) theorized that children develop internal working models, or mental models or representations, of self and other. Through the attachment system, an infant has repeated interactions with the caregiver; therefore, the caregiver's responsiveness to the infant's distress signals serves as feedback to the infant. Based on their interactions, the infant may or may not feel confident that the attachment figure will be available when needed. An infant who feels confident that their caregiver will appropriately respond to the infant will experience less concern than an infant who is less confident that the attachment figure will be available. Importantly, when an infant is confident of an attachment figure's

availability and responsiveness, it has a positive effect on the working models of self and other**.** Bowlby (1973) wrote that working models of self and other are determined by:

> Confidence that an attachment figure is, apart from being accessible, likely to be responsive can be seen to turn at least two variables: (a) whether or not the attachment figure is judged to be the sort of person who in general responds to calls for support and protection; (b) whether or not the self is judged to be the sort of person towards whom anyone, and the attachment figure in particular, is likely to respond in a helpful way. (Bowlby, 1973, p. 238)

Bowlby also wrote that, while independent, these models likely are "complementary and mutually confirming" (Bowlby, 1973, p. 238). An attachment figure who responds to the infant's needs for comfort and security, while recognizing the infant's need for independence and exploration, will lead to the child constructing an internal working model of the self as valued. In contrast, a caregiver that inappropriately responds to the infant's need for protection, comfort, and exploration, will lead to the child developing an internal working model of the self as worthless and ineffectual. Bowlby believed that the infant's expectation of the caregiver's availability is in fact an accurate perception based on the infant's experience.

Caregivers' behavior can be consistently responsive, consistently unresponsive, or inconsistent in their responsiveness to the infant. Eventually, the child learns to predict the caregiver's behavior, based on the internal working models, which influence the infant's own behavior. Bowlby wrote that the infant's confidence in the caregiver's availability and responsive, while developed in childhood, persists throughout one's adulthood and life.

Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall (1978) assessed infant-caregiver attachment quality. Through a procedure called the Strange Situation, infants were repeatedly separated from caregivers in an unfamiliar environment and their behaviors were observed. An infant's behavior was believed to be reflective of the caregiver's previous responsiveness, prior to the

laboratory experiment. From this experiment, Ainsworth et al. identified three patterns of attachment: secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant. The securely attached infant exhibited distress upon mother leaving the room, was comforted when mother returned, and actively explored the room and toys while mother was present. Infants with anxious/ambivalent attachment presented as visibly anxious and angry and did not explore due to preoccupation with the caregiver. Infants with avoidant attachment did not present as distressed when their caregiver left the room, avoided contact, and paid attention to toys but with less enthusiasm than children who were securely attached. During home visits, researchers observed the caregivers of securely attached infants to be available and responsive. Home visits demonstrated infants with anxious/ambivalent attachment had caregivers who were inconsistent in their responsiveness; at various times, caregivers were unavailable, unresponsive, or intrusive. During home observations, caregivers of infants with avoidant attachment consistently rejected or deflected signals of distress, especially the child's attempts to be comforted through close bodily contact.

The primary caregiver's responsiveness to the infant, particularly in the first year of life, is a contributor to the attachment. Most commonly, an infant develops a normative secure attachment with the primary caregiver. However, infants whose mothers are rejecting of physical contact, appear more avoidant. Similarly, infants whose mothers respond slowly or inconsistently, or intrude upon the infant when unneeded, cry more, explore less, and demonstrate more anger and anxiety. Infants categorized as anxious/ambivalent demonstrate behaviors consistent with the protest stage, whereas infants classified as avoidant present with behaviors from the emotional detachment phase.

Later, researchers created a fourth attachment pattern: disorganized/disoriented, characteristic of a combination of avoidant and ambivalent behaviors and without a means for managing anxiety (Main & Solomon, 1990). This style is believed to result in infants whose caregiver may be depressed or abusive. Additionally, other theorists have developed a four-group model of attachment (i.e., secure, preoccupied, dismissing, fearful), which also incorporates models of self and other (Bartholomew, & Horowitz, 1991).

Prototype and revisionist perspectives differ in their views about whether early attachment style is sustained over time or can be altered based on new experiences (Fraley, 2002). Nonetheless, attachment continues to be influential across one's lifespan (Bowlby, 1979). Bowlby (1969) too believed that while attachment style tends to be stable, it could be changed. One way in particular is through experiencing a corrective relationship. According to Hazan and Shaver (1987), given that the attachment system aims to seek security and that secure attachment is the most stable type, any shift would typically be from an insecure attachment style towards the direction of secure.

Attachment in Middle Childhood and Adolescence

While attachment theories initially focused largely on infants and toddlers, research has expanded to investigate attachment in middle childhood and adolescence. Overall, insecure attachment styles are typically associated with greater negative outcomes, while more positive functioning is tied to secure attachment (Parrigon, Kerns, Abtahi, & Koehn, 2015). In a study by Liu (2006), parental attachment, interpersonal peer interaction, and depressive symptoms were investigated in middle childhood (i.e., 8th grade). Results demonstrated that paternal and maternal attachment was related to adolescents' peer support, social expectations of peer interaction, and depressive symptoms. Adolescents with a secure

parental attachment reported more support from peer relationships, fewer negative peer interactions and less depression. Findings stress the importance and influence of both maternal and paternal attachment on adolescent functioning.

Additionally, in a study of late adolescence by Kobak and Sceery (1988), older adolescents with a secure attachment style were shown to have more ego-resilience and social support, and were less anxious, hostile, and distressed. This group viewed parents as loving, supportive, and available during periods of distress, while not idealizing parents. Participants from the dismissing attachment group had less ego-resilience and social support, and were more hostile and distant in relationships. This group viewed parents as rejecting and unloving. The dismissing group had difficulty recalling attachment experiences, possibly as a way of coping and reducing distress associated with perceived rejection. Participants in the preoccupied attachment group were less ego-resilient and had higher levels of anxiousness and distress. They viewed their parents as loving, but role-reversing, and tended to idealize parents. They often recalled distressing material in a confused or incomprehensible way, possibly to defend against unpleasant material and affect. The preoccupied group was characterized by a continuous pursuit to gain parental support. These findings provide useful information about representations of self and others and affect regulation in the parent-adolescent relationships.

Norsko, Tieu, Lawford, and Pratt (2011) found that positive parent-child relationships were associated with a secure attachment style in adolescence and adulthood. Researchers suggest that adolescents learn ways of relating from parents, which adolescents apply to other relationships later in life, including romantic relationships.

Adulthood Romantic Attachment

Hazan and Shaver (1987) built on theories of early attachment, arguing that attachment can be adapted and applied to adulthood romantic love. The authors hypothesized that one's childhood attachment history remains continuous and is reflected in adulthood romantic relationships and attachments. In their research, the authors found that the same three childhood attachment styles are evidenced in adulthood attachment. Additionally, the three attachment styles influenced one's experience with romantic love.

Results indicated that participants who were securely attached had romantic attachments that were trusting, friendly, supportive, and positive (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Securely attached individuals also had relationships that tended to last longer. Avoidant attachments consisted of mistrust, jealousy, and fear of closeness. Moreover, anxious/ambivalent attachment styles involved a preoccupation with the relationship, desire to merge or unite with the other, and elevated physical attraction and jealousy. Both insecure attachment types were associated with fluctuations between positive and negative emotions.

Researchers also predicted and found that working models of self and relationships with others would differ by attachment style (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Secure participants viewed themselves as likeable and good-intentioned. With regard to attachment histories, securely attached participants described warmer, more positive relationships with their parents and better partner relationships between the two parents. Securely attached individuals viewed the self favorably, others as trustworthy, and love as persistent. In contrast, individuals with an avoidant attachment style would minimize the need for a romantic partner to be content and viewed love as less stable. Individuals with an anxious/avoidant style were plagued with self-doubt and experienced love easily but had

more difficulty experiencing true love. Furthermore, securely attached individuals recalled their mothers as caring and responsive, avoidant participants recalled rejecting mothers, and anxious/ambivalent participants recalled both positive and negative aspects and recalled unfair fathers. With regard to romantic love, securely attached participants noted that romantic feelings sometimes subside temporarily, but then regain intensity and do not weaken. Participants with avoidant attachment described disbelief in idealistic romantic love of that depicted in films and difficulty falling in love. Individuals with anxious/ambivalent attachment style described falling in love often and easily, though not true love. Insecurely attached participants were also more prone to feelings of loneliness, whether they attempt to mask it or not, than securely attached individuals.

Overall, researchers found that romantic love is experienced differently by each attachment style (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Findings also indicate that working models of self and relationship are related to attachment type; meaning, people with different attachment styles vary in their beliefs about romantic love, themselves with regard to love, and the love of a partner. Finally, greater trait loneliness in insecure participants, particularly anxious/ambivalent, was found; while individuals with avoidant styles reported distance in relationships, they reported less loneliness.

Hazan and Shaver (1994) observed some differences between infant and adult attachment. Notably, infant-caregiver attachments are complementary; the attachment figure provides care and security for the infant, while the infant seeks this from the caregiver. However, the infant does not provide care and security, nor does the caregiver seek them. Adult attachment does not occur with caregivers, but most commonly with sexual partners and peers. Adult attachments tend to be reciprocal; both partners provide and receive care.

Also, infants typically require physical proximity and contact with caregivers to be soothed and feel secure. However, adults can be comforted by the awareness that their attachment figure can be contacted; thus adults have additional means to achieving a sense of security.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) introduced a 4-group model of adult attachment styles, based on positive and negative internal models of self and other. Their model holds that an individual's image of the self is dichotomized as either positive or negative (i.e., self is worthy of love and support, self is not worthy, respectively). Similarly, a person's representation of other is dichotomized as positive or negative (i.e., others are trustworthy and available, one cannot rely on others and others are rejecting, respectively). From this, four combinations or patterns of attachment manifest: Secure, Preoccupied, Fearful-avoidant, and Dismissive-avoidant.

A secure attachment style, according to this model, indicates "a sense of worthiness (lovability) plus an expectation that other people are generally accepting and responsive" (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 227). Preoccupied reflects "a sense of unworthiness/unlovability combined with a positive evaluation of others" (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 227). A person with a preoccupied style would seek self-acceptance through gaining others' acceptance and approval. Also, the preoccupied style corresponds with Hazan and Shaver's anxious/ambivalent style (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Fearful-avoidant is indicative of "a sense of unworthiness (unlovability) combined with an expectation that others will be negatively disposed (untrustworthy and rejecting)" (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 227). Individuals with this style tend to avoid closeness with others, to protect themselves from rejection. Fearful-avoidant is also the style that corresponds to an avoidant style (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan &

Shaver, 1987). Last, dismissive-avoidant reflects "a sense of love-worthiness combined with a negative disposition toward other people" (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 227). People with this type maintain independence and avoid closeness with others in an effort to avoid disappointment and vulnerability. In sum, secure is based on a positive view of self and other, preoccupied is a negative view of self and positive view of other, fearful-avoidant is a negative view of self and a negative view of other, and, finally, and dismissive-avoidant is a positive view of self and negative view of other. Styles are also informative of low or high dependency and avoidance of intimacy. Dismissive and fearful types involve high avoidance, but differ in dependency. Preoccupied and fearful both involve high dependency, but differ in avoidance.

Like early attachment, which assists infants in survival by maintaining proximity to caregivers, adult attachment too is adaptive (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). According to evolutionary psychology, adult attachment facilitates pair bonding, which assists in ensuring that offspring survive.

Both early and adult attachment theories have highlighted the importance and influence of attachment on relationships, whether it is between parent-child or romantic partners. Parental attachment style is informative of the type of relationships a child will have through childhood, adolescence, and adulthood. Each style of attachment is associated with characteristics of relating; usually, secure attachment is associated with more positive relationships. Therefore, when considering attachment and relationships, it is essential to consider relationship satisfaction.

Relationship Satisfaction

Relationship satisfaction has been referred to and used interchangeably with numerous other terms (e.g., marital satisfaction, marital happiness, adjustment, relationship quality) (Fincham & Rogge, 2010). A wealth of previous research has investigated various aspects of relationships in an effort to understand what comprises a satisfying partnership. Graham (2010) provided a meta-analysis of 81 studies from 40 years of research on love. Specifically, Graham explored what these studies were measuring when quantifying love. Love has been measured in many ways. One of the most common conceptualizations of love in romantic relationships involves the distinction between passionate and companionate love (Berscheid & Hatfield, 1978).

Graham (2010) sought to find commonalities among measures of love and investigate love and relationship satisfaction and length. Interestingly, results showed that measures of love involved three higher-order factors: love, romantic obsession, and pragmatic friendship. As expected, love and relationship satisfaction were positively correlated, providing further evidence that love is an essential component of relationship satisfaction and relationship success. Love was also positively related, though to a lesser degree, to relationship length. This finding contradicts previous evidence suggesting love decreases over time. With regard to relationship duration, there is a common belief that passionate love declines with time and companionate love increases, or that both types of love decline with increased length of time. Rather, evidence suggests that it is romantic obsession, not merely romantic passion or romantic love, which fades, while companionate love increases with time. This was supported by the finding that romantic obsession was negatively correlated with relationship

length; obsession was also negatively correlated with relationship satisfaction. Last, practical friendship was found to be positively associated with length and satisfaction.

Hendrick, Hendrick, and Adler (1988) sought to extend the research on love styles and relationship satisfaction, under the premise that love is highly important to satisfaction. Eros is considered "intense, passionate love," ludus is "game-playing, uncommitted love," storge is "friendship-based love," pragma is "practical 'shopping list' love," mania is "obsessive, dependent love," and agape is "altruistic, gift love" (Hendrick, Hendrick, & Adler, 1988, p. 980). Researchers found that love styles, commitment, investment, and disclosure were associated with relationship satisfaction. As predicted, specific love styles (i.e., eros and agape) were positively correlated with relationship satisfaction, while others (i.e, ludus and instrumentality) were negatively correlated with satisfaction. In women, investment was associated with satisfaction. Commitment was associated with satisfaction in both men and women. With regard to dyadic effects, women's level of eros, agape, commitment, and investment were positively associated to their partner's relationship satisfaction. Women's level of ludus was negatively related to partner's satisfaction. In men, self-esteem was associated with partner's satisfaction. When comparing couples who remained together and couples who ended their relationships were compared, the groups differed on several variables: eros, ludus, self-disclosures, self-esteem, commitment, investment, and relationship satisfaction; evidence supports that these various elements are important to relationship functioning.

Another key component of relationships is relationship maintenance behaviors. Ogolsky and Bowers (2012) sought to understand the factors that comprise healthy, well-functioning relationships. Relationship maintenance involves behaviors that enhance

relationship quality. These behaviors can be routine, occurring without direct intention of promoting relationship dynamics, or strategic, performed with the intention of relationship maintenance (Dainton & Stafford, 1993). While relationship maintenance has been investigated and measured in various ways, Ogolsky and Bowers (2012) examined five factors of relationship maintenance: positivity, openness, assurances, social networks, and sharing tasks in a meta-analysis of 35 studies. Positivity is "the degree to which one's partner has been cheerful and positive"; openness consists of "self-disclosure and conversation within a relationship"; assurances involve "behaviors that focus on commitment, love, and faithfulness"; social network refers to "the use of friends and affiliations to maintain a relationship"; and sharing tasks consists of "the equality of tasks that a couple might face" (p. 345). These relationship behaviors were compared with several relationship characteristics, including relationship satisfaction, commitment, control mutuality, love and liking, and duration.

Ogolsky and Bowers (2012) found that satisfaction was strongly correlated with positively and assurances, and moderately correlated with openness, social networks, and sharing tasks. Hence, this evidence suggests that the more satisfied one is, the more likely they are to engage in relationship maintenance behaviors. Commitment, control mutuality, and love and liking were associated with all five relationship maintenance behaviors as well. Relationship duration was negatively associated with positivity, openness, and assurances, and unrelated to social networks and sharing tasks. With regard to sex differences, women typically reported more relationship maintenance behaviors than men, though the effect size of this finding was small and previous findings have been mixed. In sum, relationship maintenance (i.e., positivity, openness, assurances, social networks, and sharing tasks) can

promote relationship success through pro-relationship functions related to satisfaction, commitment, control mutuality, love and liking, and duration.

Relationship Risk Factors

Relationship satisfaction has also been investigated in terms of what is detrimental to a relationship. Woodin (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 64 studies examining conflict between couples. Five categories of conflict behaviors emerged: hostility, distress, withdrawal, problem solving, and intimacy. With regard to gender, women were more likely to demonstrate hostility, distress, and intimacy during conflict, while men tended to demonstrate withdrawal and problem solving. Overall, hostility was related to lower relationship satisfaction (medium effect), while distress and withdrawal were related but to a lesser extent (small effect), and intimacy and problem solving were associated with relationship satisfaction (medium effect). Examining the contributions of conflict behaviors on relationship satisfaction is important. Not only does it highlight the damaging effects of certain behaviors and which partner is more likely to engage in that behavior, but it also underscores the need for intimacy-promoting and problem-solving behaviors during conflict, to enhance relationship quality.

Rauer, Karney, Garvan, and Hou (2008) examined risk factors in romantic relationships. Risk factors may include individual characteristics (e.g., education, mental health, substance abuse) relationship characteristics (e.g., domestic violence), external circumstances (e.g., financial strain, difficult life events, social support), and overall cumulative risk contribution. Rauer et al. found that cumulative risk factor score was related to significantly diminished relationship satisfaction. The number of risk factors moderated the negative correlation between individual risk factors and relationship satisfaction; the

negative association was strengthened by presence of more risks. This suggests that risk factors should be looked at together, rather than independently, in an effort to promote relationship satisfaction.

Stanley, Markman, and Whitton (2002) examined relationship dynamics and features of relationship quality (i.e., communication, conflict, commitment) in married, engaged, and cohabiting heterosexual couples. They found that negative interaction among couples was negatively associated with relationship quality and positively correlated with divorce potential, or thoughts about divorce. Relationships in which at least one partner dealt with relationship conflict by withdrawing was associated with poor relationship quality. Men tended to be more likely to withdraw. Withdrawing during conflict is sometimes normalized in relationships or is stereotyped as an appropriate gender-specific behavior of males; nonetheless, it is apparent that it has harmful effects on relationship quality. Furthermore, results showed that the topic that most couples argued about was money; however, couples who had previously been married tended to argue most about children. Couples who were married for the longest durations typically endorsed "none" in response to being asked what typically starts arguments. Notably, those who reported that money was the main reason arguments began, tended to have more negative interaction (i.e., most negative communication and conflict); Additionally, *how* couples argue was associated with divorce potential, more so than what they argued about; though both are important contributors to negative interaction. Partners higher in commitment tended to think less about potential alternative partners, less likely to feel trapped in the relationship, and were highest in relationship satisfaction.

Fincham and Rogge (2010) introduced and argued for a two-dimensional conceptualization of relationship quality, involving positive and negative evaluations of the relationship. Relationship satisfaction is sometimes thought of as a continuum ranging from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction. However, relationships often involve both positive and negative sentiments towards one's partner. This perspective allows for the complexity of two separate, but related, paths to be examined. It also allows for timing to be considered. For example, decreased positive attitudes preceding increased negative attitudes may be uniquely difference for occurrence at the same time, or if negative sentiments increased prior to positive sentiments decreasing.

Sexism. Sibley and Becker (2012) sought to gain a greater understanding about the relationships of individuals who do and do not endorse sexist attitudes. They investigated individuals who endorsed ambivalent sexist attitudes, or both benevolent and hostile sexism, and those with univalent sexist attitudes, or only one form of sexism but not the other. Benevolent sexism, as opposed to overt hostile sexism, is a subtle, paternalistic view of women that employs warmth and approval on women who adhere to traditional gender roles and behaviors (Oswald, Franzoi, & Frost, 2012). Researchers categorized participants as either "strongly ambivalent sexists (high in BS, high in HS), moderate ambivalent sexists (medium in BS, medium in HS), mild ambivalent sexists (low to medium in BS, low to medium in HS), nonsexists (low in BS, low in HS), univalent benevolent sexists (high in BS, low in HS), and univalent hostile sexists (high in HS, low in BS)" (Sibley & Becker, 2012, p. 598). They found that people tended to hold similar levels of benevolent and hostile sexism. Additionally, ambivalent sexism was most common, whereas univalent sexism was less prevalent. Approximately 28% of participants were classified as being in the mild range of

ambivalent sexism, 44% were in the moderate range, and 8-9% of the population held strong ambivalent sexist attitudes. In comparison, approximately 2-5% of participants endorsed univalent sexism. With regard to gender differences, 80% of men endorsed mild, moderate, or high types of ambivalent sexism. Less than 10% of men were classified as non-sexists, univalent benevolent sexists, or hostile sexists. In contrast, 70% of women comprised mild or moderate ambivalent sexists, 18% of nonsexists, and less than 6% were high ambivalent sexists, univalent benevolent sexists, or hostile sexists. Men were more likely than women to be univalent hostile sexists; women were more likely to endorse univalent benevolent sexism.

Next, Sibley and Becker (2012) examined sexism and relationship satisfaction. Both men and women who endorsed lower levels of sexist attitudes were more likely to be in relationships. Univalent hostile sexists were lowest in relationship satisfaction, compared to the other five classifications of sexists. Among men, univalent benevolent sexist were highest in relationship satisfaction, compared to the other types of sexists; possibly due to interpersonal benefits from female partners feeling valued.

Hammond and Overall (2013b) investigated benevolent sexism and relationship problems and satisfaction. They found that women who endorsed benevolent sexism experienced decreased relationship satisfaction when there was increased relationship problems and hurtful partner behavior. This finding was magnified among women in long-term relationships. Researchers suggest that relationship difficulties do not meet expectations set by benevolent sexism (e.g., a women will not always be "adored" or "revered and cherished") (Hammond & Overall, 2013b, p. 221). Hence, women high in benevolent sexism experience greater disappointment and dissatisfaction when confronted with relationship

difficulties. This finding is more pronounced among women in long-term relationships, likely because they have invested more due to the length of time in the relationship. Moreover, women who endorse more benevolent sexist beliefs may fluctuate more in their evaluations of their relationship and may have more difficulty remaining satisfied in their relationships. In contrast, men's benevolent sexism was not associated with decreased relationship satisfaction when there was an increase in relationship difficulties. Rather, men who endorsed greater benevolent sexist beliefs were higher in relationship satisfaction; possibly because benevolent sexism romanticizes or idealizes the relationship and partner, and promotes male achievement and success.

Hammond and Overall (2013a) conducted a study of hostile sexism and relationship satisfaction. Findings indicated that, in general, participants typically overestimated the amount of daily negative behavior their partners engage in. Furthermore, the higher men were in hostile sexism, the stronger this trend tended to be. Greater degree of negative perceptions was associated with feeling manipulated by one's partner, increased negative behavior toward one's partner, and decreased relationship satisfaction. This study suggests that hostile sexism and negative perceptions of women are applicable to intimate relationships and result in negative reactive feelings and behavior and relationship dissatisfaction.

Casad, Salazar, and Macina (2014) investigated marriage myths (i.e., a romanticized, highly optimistic view of one's romantic relationship) and benevolent sexism as predictors of relationship satisfaction, relationship confidence, and psychological well-being. Results indicated that endorsement of marriage myths predicted positive relationship outcomes, while benevolent sexism predicted negative relationship outcomes. High endorsement of

marriage myths, regardless of benevolent sexism, resulted in positive relationship and psychological outcomes. Low endorsement of marriage myths and high endorsement of benevolent sexism, compared to low benevolent sexism, resulted in low relationship and psychological outcomes. Specifically, higher endorsement of marriage myths was associated with greater relationship satisfaction, higher relationship confidence, and higher educational expectations. This suggests that myths may be protective in a relationship. In contrast, incongruent ratings (i.e., low endorsement of marriage myths and high endorsement of benevolent sexism) were associated with lower relationship satisfaction, lower relationship confidence, lower education expectations, and increased depression. Thus, benevolent sexism may be a risk factor to relationships; possibly due to unrealistic expectations of women's partners (e.g., putting women on a "pedestal") (Casad, Salazar, & Macina, 2014, p. 8). In application, a clear understanding of marriage myths and having realistic expectations of one's partner may increase marital satisfaction.

Relationship Satisfaction and Gender Differences

Jackson, Miller, Oka, and Henry (2014) conducted a meta-analysis of 226 samples from 173 reports investigating gender differences in marital satisfaction. Overall, women reported being slightly less satisfied that husbands; however, though statistically significant, the effect size was small. Marital therapy functioned as a moderator; wives in marital therapy were less likely than husbands to be satisfied in their marriages. When the clinical sample was separated, results showed that there were no gender differences in marital satisfaction for the community-based samples. Similarly, no gender differences in marital satisfaction were found among partners in the same marriage dyad. This indicated that husbands and wives who report different scores do so to the same extent.

Relationship Satisfaction and Sexual Orientation

There is an empirical concern about the extent to which heterosexual and homosexual and lesbian couples differ from each other with regard to relationships. In work by Kurdek (2004), relationship health of married heterosexual and cohabitating gay and lesbian couples were compared. Relationship health was assessed on five domains: psychological adjustment, personality traits, relationship styles, conflict resolution, and social support. One key finding was that gay and lesbian couples were not at heighted risk for distress, compared to heterosexual couples. Gay and lesbian couples did not demonstrate more psychological maladjustment, higher levels of personality traits, poor working models, or ineffective conflict resolution skills that would put their relationships at risk. About half, or 50%, of comparisons between heterosexual and gay and lesbians showed that couples did not differ. On about 78% of comparisons, gay and lesbian couples functioned better than heterosexual couples. Gay and lesbian couples did, however, tend to have poorer social support than heterosexual couples. They also tend to have higher rates of relationship dissolution; possibly due to anti-same-sex marriage legislation. It may be that unmarried same-sex couples are able to end relationships more easily than if formally married. The five domains of relationship health (i.e., psychological adjustment, personality traits, relationship styles, conflict resolution, and social support) predicted relationship quality equally for heterosexual and gay and lesbian couple. These findings do not suggest that there are not differences between couples of differing sexual orientations. Rather, results indicate that processes that regulate relationships are similar for both heterosexual and gay and lesbian couples and can be generalized.

Kurdek and Schmitt (1986) investigated relationship quality in monogamous heterosexual married, cohabiting heterosexual, homosexual, and lesbian couples. Relationship quality was comprised of three dimensions: love for partner, liking of partner, and relationship satisfaction. Love of partner was associated with barriers to leaving the relationship and high dyadic attachment. Liking of partner was associated to few alternatives to the relationship, high dyadic attachment, and high shared decision-making. Relationship satisfaction was associated with many attractions, few alternatives, few beliefs about disagreement being destructive to a relationship, high dyadic attachment, and high shared decision-making. While the four types of partners did not differ in liking of partner, cohabiting heterosexual partners were lowest for partner and relationship satisfaction, compared to the other three types of partners; Heterosexual married, homosexual, and lesbian partners did not differ in their scores. Nine predictors of relationship quality were assessed: investment in the relationship, relationship beliefs, sex role self-concept, dyadic attachment, personal autonomy, interpersonal orientation, shared decision making, social support, and psychological adjustment. Married couples reported the most barriers to leaving the relationship, while cohabiting partners reported the least barriers. Cohabiting partners also reported the lowest dyadic attachment.

Relationship Satisfaction and Adult Attachment

Research generally supports the notion that securely attached individuals have better, or more satisfying, romantic relationships. Numerous studied have documented the finding that insecure attachment styles are associated with behaviors that are detrimental to relationships and poorer relationship satisfaction than secure attachment (Banse, 2004; Feeney, 2002; McCarthy, 1999; Meyers & Landsberger, 2002; Mohr, Selterman, &

Fassinger, 2013; Mondor, McDuff, Lussier, & Wright, 2011; Shi, 2003; Timm & Keiley, 2011).

Li and Chan (2012) provide a meta-analytic review investigating anxious and avoidant attachment and relationship quality. The meta-analysis of 73 studies investigated cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of relationship quality in individuals with insecure attachment styles. Positive cognitive indicators involved general relationship satisfaction, or "overall subjective evaluation of the romantic relationship," and connectedness, or "how much the romantic partners are bonded or involved with each other (Li & Chan, 2012, p. 407-408). Negative cognitive indicators were "detrimental thoughts or evaluations about the relationship" (Li & Chan, 2012, p. 408). Positive emotional indicators and negative emotional indicators reflected people's emotional experience in their relationship. Positive behavioral indicators included general support and constructive interaction, or behavior that assists in resolving conflict (e.g., communication, cooperation, compromise); while negative behavioral indicators involved general conflict and destructive interaction, or behaviors that escalate conflict or leaves the problem unresolved (e.g., criticism, coercion, withdrawal).

Individuals with an anxious style of attachment engage in hyperactivation strategies, usually intensifying their experience of positive and negative, cognitions, emotions, and behaviors (Li & Chan, 2012). Individuals with an avoidant style, in contrast, engage in deactivation strategies, decreasing positive and negative cognitions, emotions, and behaviors. Therefore, while those with anxious styles have more frequent or more intense negative experiences, they also have a greater degree of positive experiences, relative to individuals

with avoidant styles. Along those lines, individuals with avoidant styles experience fewer positive and negative experiences, due to their indifference.

As expected, researchers found that the two insecure attachment types were negatively associated with positive indicators of relationship quality; stated differently, insecure types were positively associated with negative indicators of relationship quality (Li & Chan, 2012). Avoidance was negatively associated with positive indicators of relationship quality, while anxiety was positively associated with negative indicators. This meta-analysis provided further evidence that insecure attachment styles are damaging to relationship satisfaction.

Treboux, Crowell, and Waters (2004) found that married individuals with secure styles had the greatest relationship satisfaction, were the most self-confident, were lowest in relationship conflict, and that distressing events did not decrease positive feelings. Insecure groups were highest in relationship conflict and avoidance of closeness. Interestingly, despite high levels of conflict, they were not necessarily distressed, possibly because the conflict felt natural or typical, or not meaningful.

Work by Lowyck, Luyten, Demyttenaere, and Corveleyn (2008) found that, even when controlling for level of depression, negative life events, self-criticism, and dependency, secure attachment was positively associated with relationship satisfaction, while insecure attachment styles were negatively associated with relationship satisfaction.

Kane, Jaremka, Guichard, Ford, Collins, and Feeney (2007) found that one partner's attachment style influences the other partner's experience of the relationship. As expected, they found that individuals with secure styles reported higher relationship satisfaction. Additionally, when individuals viewed their partners as more caring and supportive, the

individuals were higher in relationship satisfaction. Notably, researchers found that a participant's attachment style was related to their partner's relationship satisfaction and perceptions of the partner's caregiving abilities. A person with a more secure attachment style had a partner with greater relationship satisfaction. Partners who were avoidant were associated with being less caring and supportive. With regard to gender, men with female partners who were high in anxiety tended to be less satisfied in their relationships. This was partially mediated by perceptions that the partner was a poor caregiver. To continue, women, with male partners higher in avoidance, tended to be less satisfied. This was completely mediated by perceptions that the partner was a poor caregiver. Altogether, anxiety appears to be a strong predictor of relationship satisfaction for men, while avoidance is a reliable predictor of satisfaction for females.

Collins and Feeney (2000) have found that relationships consisting of caring and supportive interactions were the most satisfying. Support-seeking and caregiving play important parts within relationships and, with more stress, partners who exhibit more direct support-seeking behaviors allow partners to be provide greater helpful caregiving. When "support seekers" perceived partners as caring and supportive, they felt better and mood improved (Collins & Feeney, 2000, p. 1067). Perceived lack of care and support resulted in the support seeker feeling misunderstood and rejected. Importantly, results revealed that attachment avoidant was related to ineffective support-seeking, while attachment anxiety was associated with ineffective caregiving. Those with avoidant styles are less likely to seek support from partners during distress, and when they did, tended to use indirect strategies. Those with anxious styles were poor caregivers; providing less support, more negative or unhelpful behaviors, or lacking in responsiveness.

Simpson (1990) investigated relationship quality and emotionality, finding that individuals who were securely attached had relationships that reflect interdependence, trust, commitment, and satisfaction; while the opposite was true for those with an insecure attachment style. Notably, those high in an avoidant style reported slightly less interdependence and commitment that those with high anxious type, and those high in anxious type had slightly less trust. This finding may be due to the tendency of individuals with avoidant attachments to avoid too much intimacy and commitment in a relationship, while individuals with an anxious attachment style tend to be preoccupied with their partner's dependability. Additionally, individuals with a secure attachment style experience positive emotions more frequently and negative emotions less often; again, those with an insecure attachment type exhibit the opposite experience. A specific finding of males with avoidant attachment showed that, after a relationship ends, they are less inclined to experience extreme and lengthy emotional distress. Dyadic effects warrant consideration. For instance, a partner of a person with an anxious attachment style may report low interdependence and commitment for multiple reasons, such as their anxious style leads to decreased interdependence/commitment in their partner, their partner's low interdependence/commitment has lead the participant to become more anxious, or the participant has a tendency of becoming involved with partners who do not form closely committed relationships with them. Similarly, individuals with avoidant styles may evoke anxiety and mistrust in partners, or their partners who perhaps have an anxious style, less readily displaying trust, do not elicit closeness in partners.

Collins and Read (1990) found that dating couples tended to be paired according to attachment style; partners were similar in their views of becoming close and relying on

others. This does not mean that all anxious types merely were paired with other anxious types. Rather, they seemed to choose partners who confirmed their beliefs about relationships, by selecting partners who were not comfortable with closeness and intimacy. Similarly, those who are typically secure, may appear more anxious and concerned with abandonment if paired with partners who are not comfortable with closeness. Additionally, descriptions of the opposite-sex parent predicted partner attachment style, which is important because opposite-sex parents likely model expectations of heterosexual relationships and partners. With regard to relationship quality, partner's attachment style was a strong predictor. In women, higher anxiety was associated with more negative experiences and diminished relationship satisfaction for male partners. In men, being comfortable with intimacy resulted in more positive experiences and relationship satisfaction in female partners. These gender differences may be due to differences in socialization. Women with anxious styles may be less trusting and more jealous in relationships, and seen as insecure, dependent, or restricting, negatively impacting partners' satisfaction. Men, however, are typically stereotypes as more distant; therefore comfort with closeness could be highly valued in a relationship and possibly result in increased partner satisfaction.

Schachner and Shaver (2004) investigated motives for having sex in insecurely attached individuals. They found that those with anxious styles tend to have sex due to insecurity and to promote intimacy, while individuals who have sex due to nonromantic, autonomy-related motives (e.g., self-inflation, peer status).

Birnbaum and colleagues (2006) sought to understand the relationships between attachment, relationship quality, and sexual experience. Based on their research, they found that attachment anxiety amplified positive and negative sexual experiences in relationships.

Those with anxious styles, on the other hand, demonstrated greater ambivalence about sexual activity; despite reporting "strong aversive feelings and doubts about being loved," they also reported "desires for emotional involvement, warmth, and attention" from partners (Birnbaum et al., 2006, p. 940). It appears that sexuality is a means of gaining proximity and emotional and physical closeness, in an effort to fulfill unmet attachment needs. Women with anxious styles, more so than men with anxious styles, were more likely to use sexual activity as a "barometer" of relationship quality; partner effects were also found, with partners of women with anxious styles experiencing relational distress from negative sexual experiences, or relational satisfaction from positive sexual experiences and any sexual activity (Birnbaum et al., 2006, p. 940). Couples with one partner who had an anxious style were more susceptible to daily fluctuations in sexual interactions that influenced relationship quality. In contrast, couples with a partner who had higher avoidance were less impacted by daily sexual experiences. This means that both the negative effect of sexual experiences and the potential positive relational effect of sex were inhibited. Those with an avoidance style tended to avoid sexual interactions, possibly due to discomfort with intimacy, both sexual and relational. Their detached style has the benefit of sex not leading to relationship distress or dissatisfaction, but reduces intimacy that might be associated with close relationships. Overall, sex appears to be especially important in relational satisfaction for individuals with or partners of those with an insecure style.

Birnbaum (2007) looked at attachment, relationship satisfaction, and sexual functioning in a sample of partnered women. Results indicated that attachment anxiety and avoidance were both associated with aversive sexual affect and cognitions, though anxiety was more damaging of sexual functioning. Interestingly, anxiety, but not avoidance, was associated

with relationship and sexual dissatisfaction, and sexual satisfaction mediated anxiety and relationship satisfaction. Sex and relational concerns appear intertwined, with anxious styles amplifying the positive and negative contributions of sex on relationship satisfaction. Negative sexual experiences may be interpreted as a signal of rejection, increasing attachment insecurity and relationship conflict, while positive sexual experiences may provide needed security and assurance. Higher anxiety was associated with decreased view of one's partner as caring and responsive, tendency to experience negative feelings, and indifference, detachment, and preoccupation with the relationship. Negative affect and cognitions appear to impair both sexual and relational functioning. Greater avoidance was associated with decreased sexual intimacy, arousal, and excitement, view of partner as caring, and belief that sex enhances closeness. The finding that avoidance was not associated with relationship and sexual satisfaction may suggest that an avoidant style is related to lack of concern with relational issues and a preference for sexual interactions that lack affection.

Butzer and Campbell (2008) investigated adult attachment, relationship satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction in married couples. Findings indicated that participants with an anxious attachment style and those with partners with anxious styles had greater levels of marital satisfaction if they also were high in sexual satisfaction. This finding was not true of those with low anxiety or those with partners with low anxiety. This provides support that individuals with anxious styles are more sensitive to signals of support or rejection and use sex to acquire closeness. Hence, the closeness experienced from sexual experiences may transfer to overall relationship quality. On the other hand, relationship satisfaction and sexual satisfaction were not closely linked in those with avoidant styles. Those high in avoidance reported less marital satisfaction, despite levels of sexual satisfaction. Researchers found that

greater levels of anxiety and avoidance were related to decreased sexual satisfaction in individuals. Individuals with higher levels of avoidance also reported less sexual satisfaction. Additionally, participants with a partner who had an avoidant attachment style reported lower sexual satisfaction. Those with an anxious attachment style may have unsatisfactory sexual experiences, due to their concerns with abandonment and rejection. This also suggests that the difficulty with closeness that is characteristic of individuals with an avoidant attachment style includes sexual intimacy. Overall, this research highlights the importance of attachment and relationship and sexual satisfaction in romantic couples.

According to Little, McNulty, and Russell (2010), frequent and quality/satisfying sexual experiences between married couples functioned as a safeguard against negative effects of attachment insecurity. Overall, attachment anxiety and avoidance were negatively associated with martial satisfaction. Interestingly, however, in couples that had more satisfying sex, attachment anxiety was not associated with daily marital satisfaction on the days they had satisfying sex. Furthermore, in couples that had sex more frequently, attachment avoidance was not related to marital satisfaction. Sex may be interpreted as availability and increase relationship satisfaction. The authors argue that this evidence warrants further integration of the attachment and sexual systems. From an evolutionary perspective, attachment and sex may work together to promote genetic survival of future generations, through emotional and physical intimacy.

Attachment Style and Relationship Duration

Previous research (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Feeney & Noller, 1990) has found that relationship duration may vary by attachment style. That is, securely attached participants tended to last longest, while anxious participants had the shortest relationships. Hadden,

Smith, and Webster (2014) investigated the role of relationship duration among adult attachment styles and relationship quality. Researchers found that insecure attachment styles and relationship satisfaction/commitment were negatively associated. Similarly, secure attachment style and relationship satisfaction was positively associated. They also found evidence that insecure attachment style and relationship quality is moderated by relationship duration. That is, insecurely attachment style and relationship satisfaction and commitment were more negatively associated in samples with longer relationship durations. Hadden et al. suggest that qualities of insecurely attached individuals may contribute to diminished relationship quality over time. For instance, negative features of insecure attachment may build with time; or, similarly, negative features may be overlooked in the initial stages, or honeymoon stage, of a relationship. Moreover, while an increase in problems is common as most relationships progress, insecurely attached individuals may have heightened sensitivity. Furthermore, anxiety regarding closeness and attachment may be typical at the beginning and hence not problematic; however, insecurely attached individuals may find that this becomes problematic as a relationship continues and the concerns with intimacy persist. Another explanation is that insecurely attached individuals may be less likely to see the positive aspects of their relationship, including positive memory recall, which could also interfere with closeness and reduce relationship quality. Last, maladaptive relationship cognitions or schemas, in which people have irrational or illogical beliefs about relationships, could reduce intimacy and relationship quality.

Relationship Satisfaction and Objectification

The importance of physical attractiveness and romantic relationships has been a widely studied area for decades (Walster, Aronson, Abrahams, & Rottman, 1966; Eastwick,

Neff, Finkel, Luchies, Hunt, 2014). Research has indicated that partner physical attractiveness is a better predictor of husbands' relationship satisfaction than wives' relationship satisfaction (Meltzer, McNulty, Jackson, & Karney, 2014). However, this finding has been disputed with the argument that findings of sex differences were nonsignificant or mixed (Eastwick, Neff, Finkel, Luchies, Hunt, 2014). The present study seeks to shift the focus from the predominantly studied area of physical appearance in relationships, to objectification and self-objectification within relationships.

Szymanski, Moffit, and Carr (2010) suggested that objectification theory be used in understanding women's relational well-being. They also noted that internalized sexual objectification has been researched to a greater degree than external forms of sexual objectification. Therefore, the authors encouraged future studies to focus on ignored variables, specifically attachment style. Based on work from Greenwood, Pietromonaco, and Long (2008), insecure attachment types may be more likely to be preoccupied with physical attractiveness, especially if it secures attachment and relationship establishment. Similarly, women with an insecure attachment type endorsed wanting to look like same-sex media characters; this suggests insecurely attached women may be more accepting of societal standards of beauty that promote self-objectification.

Frederickson et al. note "romantic relationships are a double-edged sword for young women. Securing a relationship unleashed self-objectification and, presumably, its cognitive costs, whereas being in a relationship appears to be somewhat protective" (Frederickson et al., 2011, p. 690). While research involving both objectification theory and relationship satisfaction is highly limited, the potential negative and protective consequences, respectively, of objectification in the context of a romantic relationship will be discussed.

The current study seeks to clarify the effect of partner-objectification and self-objectification on relationship satisfaction.

Zubriggen, Ramsey, and Jaworski (2011) examined participant self-objectification and objectification of the participants' romantic partner, or romantic-partner objectification. Surprisingly, and in contrast with other research, there was no gender difference in self-objectification; both men and women self-objectified to a similar extent. However, as expected, men engaged in more partner-objectification than women. Self- and partner-objectification were positively correlated; meaning, higher rates of partner-objectification were related to higher rates of self-objectification. Notably, researchers found that self- and partner-objectification was associated with lower relationship satisfaction. Self- and partner-objectification were also associated with lower sexual satisfaction in men. Thus, this study provides strong evidence that objectification has negative consequences within romantic relationships.

Meltzer and McNulty (2014) conducted a study examining body valuation among couples and relationship satisfaction. Body valuation is the extent to which a partner values the other partner's physical body; inversely, nonphysical valuation refers to valuing other aspects besides one's partner's physical appearance. Researchers found that a male's body valuing of his female partner was positively related to the female's relationship satisfaction, only if the male also valued his female partner's nonphysical qualities. However, body valuation was negatively related to women's relationship satisfaction if the male partner did not value the woman's nonphysical characteristics or if the male partner was less committed in the relationship. Similarly, a woman's body valuation of her male partner was negatively related with the male's relationship satisfaction if the female partner did not value his

nonphysical qualities.

According to Hoyt (2013), in a study of heterosexual women, objectification by one's partner lead to women objectifying themselves. Furthermore, self-objectification was associated with less agency, less freedom, and less control, which, in turn, was associated with experiencing increased sexual pressure and coercion.

In a study by Downs, James, and Cowan (2006), researchers compared body objectification, self-esteem, and relationship satisfaction among college women and female exotic dancers. Results indicate that the group of college women endorsed higher relationship satisfaction, whereas the exotic dancers rated higher body self-objectification. The sample of exotic dancers engaged in more body surveillance, and prioritized physical appearance over physical competence; college students, in contrast, prioritized competence over appearance. The authors note that for exotic dancers, physical attractiveness and sexuality serves a s "currency" or "exchange commodity" explaining why they may be more preoccupied with appearance and beauty (Down et al., 2006, p. 750). Interestingly, college students were higher in relationship satisfaction, however, when sexual orientation of exotic dancers was considered, heterosexual exotic dancers' relationship satisfaction was more positive and similar to the college student sample; this indicates that both the college group and heterosexual exotic dancers had greater relationship satisfaction than bisexual dancers (bisexual dancers constituted 60% of the dancer sample, while the college sample was completely heterosexual). Researchers suggest the difference may be because some dancers develop negative attitudes toward male clients and men in general, leading them to have same-sex relationships, or because bisexual dancers are more prone to lead nontraditional lifestyles. In the college sample, objectification, ranking of attractiveness/competence

importance, and surveillance and body shame were positively related; however, objectification was not related with self-esteem or relationship satisfaction in the college group. Among exotic dancers, surveillance, shame, and body control were not associated with rankings of attractiveness/competence. However, self-esteem was negatively related to surveillance, shame, and positively with body control.

Watson et al. (2012) note that the ways in which interpersonal relationships are impacted by sexual objectification has yet to be thoroughly investigated. Some women, due to experiences of sexual objectification, described trying to find partners who valued more than their sexuality; however, other women reported that poorer boundaries with men and lowered dating standards resulted from multiple partners treating them as sexual objects. They found that African American women described feelings of hypervigilance and mistrust of partners in romantic relationships. This may be a way of asserting one's control and power, in order to protect themselves and children and resist additional oppression.

Numerous studies have shown that valuing the physical appearance of the body over the competence and functioning of the body causes both men and women to objectify others (Strelan & Hargreaves, 2005, Beebe, Holmbeck, Schober, Lane & Rosa, 1996). Sanchez, Good, Kwang, and Saltzman (2008) found consistent results within the context of romantic relationships, suggesting that, for both men and women, concerns with ones own body likely extends to concern with the romantic partners' external appearance. In addition, women may engage in sex to maintain and repair partner approval and to preserve the relationship, leading to sexual dissatisfaction and inhibition (Sanchez, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, & Crocker, 2011).

Franzoi, Vasquez, Sparapani, Frost, Martin, and Aebly (2012) write that women tend to be self-critical when evaluating their physical appearance, likely due to importance of physical attractiveness in romantic pursuits and pervasive cultural inspection. Men's self-evaluation, on the other hand, tended to be self-hopeful, related to a desire for future self-improvement. Interestingly, men are typically subjected physical scrutiny to a lesser extent, and more focus is placed on physical self-efficacy. Men were also more likely than women to believe personal physical perfection was attainable. It can then be speculated that men, typically less subjected to objectification, may hold believes that their partner's physical appearance can reach perfection, contributing to partner-objectification and self-objectification in that partner.

In a study by Oswald, Franzoi, and Frost (2012), fathers' benevolent sexism was positively related to their daughters' positive body esteem, but no finding of mother's beliefs were influential. Fathers may encourage daughters to engage in appearance-maintenance, such as involvement with cosmetics and clothing. It is possible that women who experience benevolent sexism will likely feel positively about their physical appearance and women commonly appreciate it. Benevolent sexism may convey to women that there is value and praise in their bodies and that others will treat them favorably because of their physical selves. Nonetheless, while superficially being seemingly treated well, women are cast in a subservient role, with underlying and long-term negative consequences. Because it is possible that not only fathers, but significant others can be influential in this way, the findings of this study may hold true in romantic relationships; that is, individuals may objectify or apply sexist attitudes towards their partners, especially but not limited to women, in the same way that a father's benevolent sexism was influential on his daughter's body

esteem. According to the authors, only women who abide by traditional gender roles garner acceptance through benevolent sexism; this approval can be withdrawn when a women attempts to behave otherwise. Therefore, it raises questions about the relationship satisfaction of women in relationships who do not adhere to traditional gender roles.

Sanchez and Broccoli (2008) examined whether romantic relationship priming would induce self-objectify in women. Specifically, a sample of single and coupled (women in committed relationships) women was primed with relationship-related or neutral stimuli during a decision-making task. When both single and coupled women were primed with relationship material, women in relationships self-objectified less than the single women. This may suggest that relationship priming induced relationship seeking strategies related to one's physical appearance among the single women; coupled women, in contrast, may have been reminded by of their relationships success by relationship priming, and not felt pressured to engage in appearance-related relationship maintenance behaviors. This study is important because it demonstrates that anticipation of the male gaze or objectification occurs automatically when relationship priming occurs; showing an automatic link between romantic relationships and self-objectification may exist. Also, it demonstrates that even without explicit body-focused stimuli, self-objectification can be elicited.

Objectification has been discussed in terms of sexual dysfunction, but to a lesser degree romantic relationships and relationship satisfaction as a whole. Steer and Tiggemann (2008) found self-objectification, self-surveillance, body shame, and appearance anxiety were all significantly correlated with self-consciousness during sexual activity. Analyses indicate that self-objectification leads to self-surveillance, which leads to increased body shame and appearance anxiety, which leads to self-consciousness during sex, which leads to

diminished quality of sexual functioning. Most importantly, they found that women in an exclusive relationship experienced substantially less self-consciousness during sexual activity than women who were not in an exclusive relationship (i.e., not dating or casually dating one or multiple people). This suggests that women may habituate and be less concerned with their appearance during sex. Also, sexual activity that takes place within the context of a committed relationship may produce less self-consciousness because the relationship serves as a nonjudgemental or less judgmental environment.

In research by Gervais, Vescio, and Allen (2011), women who were subjected to an objectifying gaze reported more interaction motivation; meaning, the objectifying women were more motivated to interact with their objectifying counterpart. One explanation for this is that the objectifying gaze may be affirming and may be a positive subjective experience for women, particularly when in a romantic situation. Women, who experience pervasive body image concerns, may feel attractive when viewed from an objectifying gaze. Women with high appearance-contingent self-worth are especially susceptible to objectification as a means for validation of their physical appearance from a romantic interest. Another explanation may be that an objectifying gaze me be interpreted by women that the objectifying male was attracted to them, leading women to demonstrate reciprocal interest by increasing in interaction and interaction motivation. Moreover, women may feel more motivated to interact to discount gender stereotypes and demonstrate to objectifying partners that they are not merely sex objects; it is an adaptive effort to oppose the negative effects of sexual objectification. Self-objectification has been researched in the context of stranger harassment (Fairchild & Rudman, 2008), showing negative consequences of being

objectified by a nonromantic partner. Yet limited research has extended beyond public domains of objectification, to the more private context of romantic relationships.

Most research has focused on studies with women and indicates that women experience self-objectification, body shame, and body surveillance to a greater extent than men (Moradi & Huang, 2008). However, researching self-objectification in heterosexual, homosexual, and bisexual men, as well as lesbian and bisexual women, is a promising area of research. The present study sought to expand the research on objectification and lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals' experiences.

Biased responding. Given the sensitivity of certain questions related to objectification, self-objectification, and sexism, a measure of biased responding will be included in the present study. It is important to assess for accuracy and, especially, socially desirable responding and underreporting of objectification, self-objectification, and sexist perspectives, in particular. Previous research investigating body dissatisfaction in men found that participants did not tend to alter their responses to portray themselves favorably; nonetheless, the authors noted the utility of controlling for biased responding with a measure of social desirability (McFarland & Petrie, 2012). For example, a study by Dalton and Ortegren (2011) found that females report more ethical behavior than males; however, after controlling for social desirability, gender differences are no longer statistically significant. This study suggests that measuring and controlling for social desirability response bias is essential in gender-based research.

Research Question

Overall, research investigating attachment in adult romantic relationships has indicated that individuals with secure attachment styles tend to have better functioning and

more satisfying relationships. While relationship satisfaction is a complex concept that has been investigated in many ways, research suggests that there are protective factors and risk factors that may affect relationships. Unfortunately, research on objectification and self-objectification in romantic partnerships is limited. However, the consequences of objectification and self-objectification have been well-documented. Extending previous research, the current study seeks to answer the following question: Does objectification of self and partner account for the variance in relationship satisfaction, after accounting for the variance in relationship satisfaction attributable to attachment?

Hypotheses

The current study will test the following predictions:

Hypothesis 1: Controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding, attachment and level of partner-objectification and level of self-objectification will be associated with relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1a: Insecure attachment styles will be positively related to low relationship satisfaction and secure attachment will be associated with high relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1b: Level of partner-objectification will be negatively related to level of relationship satisfaction. Specifically, low partner-objectification will be related to high relationship satisfaction and high partner-objectification will be related to low relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1c: Level of self-objectification will be negatively related to level of relationship satisfaction. Specifically, low self-objectification will be related to high

relationship satisfaction and high self-objectification will be associated with low relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Men (regardless of sexual orientation) will partner-objectify more than women and women (regardless of sexual orientation) will self-objectify more than men.

Hypothesis 3: Analyses will explore whether differences in all main variables (attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction) differ as a function of sexual orientation, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding.

Hypothesis 4: Additional analyses will be used to explore whether gender and/or sexual orientation moderate the relationship between attachment and relationship satisfaction, partner-objectification and relationship satisfaction, and/or self-objectification and relationship satisfaction, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding.

Hypothesis 5: Physical attractiveness and partner-objectification will be positively correlated.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

For the present study, participants were male and female adults, ages 18 years and above, who were, at the time of participation, in a current and monogamous romantic relationship. The present study sought to collect an equal amount of data from heterosexual participants and gay, lesbian, and bisexual (GLB) participants. Data from 140 participants was used. Participation in the study was completely voluntary, without incentives or compensation, and participants were informed of their right to withdraw participation at any time without penalty.

Participants ranged between ages 18 to 53, with a mean age of 27 (SD = 7.26). Fifty-nine participants (42.1%) were males, while 81 participants (57.9%) were females. Eighty-nine participants (63.6%) were heterosexual and 51 participants (36.4%) identified as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or other. Sixty-two participants (44.3%) endorsed being involved in a "committed/monogamous relationship with one partner AND NOT living with partner," 51 participants (36.4%) endorsed being in a "committed/monogamous relationship with partner AND living with partner," and 27 participants (19.3%) endorsed being married. Participants provided the gender of their current partner; 94 current partners (67.1%) were males, while 46 current partners (32.9%) were females. Most participants (98 total; 70%) had been in their current relationship for less five years, while 42 participants (30%) had been in their relationship for more than five years.

The majority of participants were Caucasian; 118 participants (84.3%) were Caucasian, compared to 22 non-Caucasian or multiracial participants (15.7%). Seventy-three

participants (52.1%) had 14 years of education or less and 67 participants (47.9%) had

obtained a Bachelor's degree or higher. Fifty-seven participants (40.7%) worked full-time, 48

participants (34.3%) worked part-time, and 35 participants (25%) were unemployed.

Seventy-one participants (50.7%) were students or students who also were employed, and 69

participants (49.3%) were nonstudents. Seventy-four participants (52.9%) had a household

income of less than $45,000 and 66 participants (47.1%) had a household income of $45,000

or more. Table 1 displays participant descriptive information.

Table 1.
Sample Demographics

	Range	Mean (SD)
Age	18-53	27 (7.26)

	Frequency	(Percentage)
Gender		
Males	59	(42.1)
Females	81	(57.9)
Race		
Caucasian	118	(84.3)
Multiracial	9	(6.4)
Asian American	5	(3.6)
African American/Black	4	(2.8)
Hispanic/Latino	3	(2.1)
Other	1	(0.7)
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	89	(63.6)
Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, or Other	51	(36.4)
Relationship Status		
Noncohabitating	62	(44.3)
Cohabitating	51	(36.4)
Married	27	(19.3)
Gender of Current Partner		
Males	94	(67.1)
Females	46	(32.9)
Relationship Duration		
Less than 5 years	98	(70.0)
Over 5 years	42	(30.0)
Education Level		
Some college or less	73	(52.1)
Bachelor's degree or higher	67	(47.9)
Employment Status		
Full-time	57	(40.7)
Part-time	48	(34.3)
Unemployed	35	(25.0)
Annual Household Income		
Less than $45,000	74	(52.9)
45,000 or more	66	(47.1)

Note. N = 140

Measures

Demographic Information

Participants provided demographic information relating to age, sex/gender, sexual orientation, race/ethnicity, level of education, relationship status, sex/gender of current partner, relationship duration, employment status, occupational status, income level, number of children, age of children, whether children reside in the home, and the participant's rating of their partner's physical attractiveness.

Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS)

The *Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS)*, created by McKinley and Hyde (1996), is a self-report measure of self-objectification. The OBCS is a 24-item questionnaire, comprised of three subscales: [Body] Surveillance, Body Shame, and Control Beliefs. Participants respond to items using a 7-point scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, or NA if the item does not apply.

A high score on the Surveillance scale indicates that the participant monitors his or her body often and thinks about his or her own body in terms of appearance, rather than how it feels. A high score on the Body Shame scale indicates that the participant views oneself as a less-than person when not meeting cultural expectations set for one's body. This scale reflects the extent of one's internalization of cultural standards of beauty. A high score on the Control Beliefs scale indicates that the participant believes that one has control over his or her own weight and appearance, if enough effort is put forth. A low score on the control scale suggests the respondent believes weight and appearance are not within one's control, but are controlled by other factors (e.g., heredity).

McKinley and Hyde found that surveillance and body shame are positively correlated; surveillance and body shame are also negatively correlated with body esteem. While control beliefs were not significantly associated with body esteem, control beliefs were related to surveillance and body shame. With regard to construct validity, the control beliefs scale predicted restricted eating and nonrestricted eating, with restricted eaters believing more strongly that they could control their body's appearance. Control beliefs were also positively correlated with dieting, exercising for weight control, use of cosmetics, and dressing to appear thinner. Surveillance was associated with public self-consciousness (convergent validity), but not private self-consciousness or social anxiety (discriminant validity). With regard to reliability, the internal consistencies of the OBCS were found to be moderate to high: the alpha coefficient for the Surveillance scale ranged from .76-.89, Body Shame ranged from .70-.84, and Control Beliefs ranged between .68-.76.

Adapted *Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS)*

For the purpose of the present study, self-objectification and partner-objectification was assessed using the Surveillance scale of the OBCS (Zubriggen et al., 2011). The Surveillance scale was administered twice: once to obtain a measure of self-objectification (i.e., participant responds about self). Then, an adapted version was administered to obtain a measure of partner-objectification (i.e., participant responds about partner). To assess partner-objectification, the Surveillance scale instructions and items were be reworded so that participants provide responses about their current partners. Two overall scores were be generated: an overall score of self-objectification and an overall score of partner-objectification. A high score was defined as being above the mid-point on a 7-point scale; similarly, a low score was defined as being below the mid-point on a 7-point scale.

Revised Adult Attachment Scale

The Revised Adult Attachment Scale is an 18-item self-report questionnaire, designed by Collins (1996), which measures attachment style. The measure asks users to provide information about their feelings towards romantic relationships and rate items using a Likert-type scale from *Not at all* (1) to *Very* (5). There are three subscales: Close, Depend, and Anxiety. The Close subscale measures one's comfort with closeness and intimacy. The Depend subscale assesses the degree to which a person believes he or she can depend on others when needed. Finally, the Anxiety subscale is based on whether a person worries about rejection or being unloved. The Close subscale was used to distinguishing between insecure and secure attachment types.

With regard to reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the Adult Attachment Scale are .69 for the Close subscale, .75 for the Depend subscale, and .72 for the Anxiety subscale (Collins & Read, 1990). Test-retest reliability demonstrates that over a 2-month timespan, correlations were .68 for the Close subscale, .71 for the Depend subscale, and .52 for the Anxiety subscale.

Marriage and Relationships Questionnaire (MARQ)

The Marriage and Relationship Questionnaire (MARQ), created by Russell and Wells (1986, 1993), is a measure of marital satisfaction that assesses subjective feelings about oneself and one's spouse. The MARQ consists of multiple subscales, with items that elicit responses based on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

One main benefit of the MARQ is that it assesses cross-cultural aspects of marital satisfaction. Specifically, evidence indicates that the Love scale assesses universal aspects of

marital satisfaction across cultures (Lucas, Parkhill, Wendorf, Imamoglu, Weisfeld, Weisfeld, & Shen, 2008).

The present study utilized the 9-item Love scale, which measures one's "emotional or romantic attachment to one's spouse" (Lucas et al., 2008, p. 114). The coefficient alpha for the Love scale in an American sample is .91.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

Glick and Fiske (2001) created the ASI, a measure of ambivalent sexist attitudes toward women. The measure consists of 22 self-report items, requiring respondents to rate items on a Likert-type scale from disagree strongly (0) to agree strongly (5). The ASI measures hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. While hostile sexism tends to be the more obvious type, benevolent sexism refers to viewing women in stereotypical and restricting roles, which is typically viewed as positive; nonetheless, it perpetuates inequality and male dominance. Hostile sexism is shown to correlate with negative attitudes toward women, while benevolent sexism correlates with positive attitudes toward women. Both types of sexism have been found to be separate, but positively correlated factors.

Furthermore, alpha coefficients of total ASI score and the average scores of the two main ASI subscales have been shown to be reliable. The coefficient alpha for the overall measure ranges from .83 to .92 across six samples. The coefficient alpha for the Hostile Sexism subscale ranges from .80 to .92 across six samples. The coefficient alpha for the Benevolent Sexism subscale ranges from .73 to .85 across six samples. The ASI has been shown to have strong convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity. Regarding discriminant validity, standardized regression coefficients were -.52 for HS and .25 for BS,

differentiating the two forms of sexism. For predictive validity, overall ASI score were

correlated with men's ambivalence towards women; alphas ranged from .76 to .91.

The more a woman accepts and internalizes sociocultural values of attractiveness, the

more that women self-objectifies and monitor her own body (Sinclair, 2006). Sexism can be

culturally transmitted to women, or combated by women. Therefore, women's ambivalent

sexism was also measured in the present study.

Balanced Inventory of Desired Responding (BIDR)

The BIDR, designed by Paulhus (1984; 1991), is used to measure the extent to which

participants are responding in socially desirable ways. The BIDR is a 40-item measure, in

which participants rate agreement on a 7-point scale from Not true (1) to Very true (7). The

instrument is made of two subscales: Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDS) and Impression

Management (IM). SDE refers to self-deceptive positivity, which occurs when participants

respond to self-report items in a manner that is honest, but biased towards the positive. IM

occurs when respondents answer items in a way that intentionally alters self-presentation.

The BIDR was used to measure response bias, or responding to questionnaire items

based on some way other than what the content is intended to measure. Socially desirable

responding (SDR) occurs when respondents answer items in a way that makes them look

favorable or good. Because unfavorable beliefs and behaviors have the potential to be

inaccurately self-reported, it is necessary to provide a measure of response bias, especially

with self-report measures, such as those included in the present study.

With regard to reliability, studies have shown internal consistency. Coefficient alpha

ranges from .68 to .80 for SDE and .75 to .85 for IM; when both scales are combined

together, alpha is .83. Test-retest reliability over a 5-week timeframe has been shown to be

.69 for SDE and .65 for IM. With regard to validity, the sum of BIDR items demonstrates concurrent validity, correlating from .71 to .80 with other measures of response bias. The SDE has been supported as having strong construct validity. The IM demonstrates good convergent validity, correlating high with other measures of lying and role-playing. Also, discriminant validity ranges from .05 to .40. The coefficient alpha for this measure is

Procedure

Participants were invited to participate in a study of romantic relationship dynamics. Participants were recruited through email listservs and online forums (reddit.com). Participants completed a web-based questionnaire (i.e., via socialsci.com). Upon accessing the online questionnaire, participants were asked to provide consent, indicating that they are voluntarily participating in the research study, before being allowed to continue. Participants did not receive any incentives or compensation for participation.

Confidentiality was maintained by the principal investigator, who is the only person with access to raw data. The Intuitional Review Board at the University of Detroit Mercy granted approval for all procedures of the study prior to data collection**.**

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

The original data analysis plan was to use the Revised Adult Attachment Scale

(RAAS; Collins, 1996) to categorize participants as having either secure or insecure

attachment styles. The RAAS scoring yields three subscale scores: closeness, dependent, and

anxiety; that is, respectively, the extent to which a person is comfortable with closeness, the

extent to which a person is comfortable depending on others, and one's experience of anxiety

or fear of being rejected and abandoned by another. The measure's author used cluster

analysis to categorize participants into secure, avoidant, or preoccupied groups and found

that "secure" individuals were "comfortable with closeness, able to depend on others, and not

worried about being unloved" (Collins, 1996, p. 881). However, both "avoidant" and

"preoccupied" individuals were uncomfortable with closeness. Avoidant individuals were

uncomfortable depending on other and were not worried about being unloved; preoccupied

individuals were also uncomfortable depending on others, but were highly concerned about

being abandoned. In addition, close and depend subscales were strongly correlated ($r = .53$),

anxiety and close subscales were moderately negatively correlated ($r = -.34$), and anxiety and

depend subscales were moderately correlated ($r = -.46$). Because the present study aimed to

categorize participants as secure or insecure, and not to differentiate insecure types (i.e.,

anxious or avoidant), the close subscale of the RAAS was considered sufficient to categorize

participants into secure or insecure attachment groups. To confirm that this procedure was

statistically sound, a factor analysis of the RAAS was performed. Results of the factor

analysis show that the close subscale accounts for more than half of the variance (31.19% of

55.13% total). Therefore, the current study utilized the RAAS Close subscale to categorize participant attachment style.

First, participants who endorsed being currently "single" were removed from the data sample (i.e., seven participants); the present study sought to acquire data from participants who, at the time of participation in the study, were involved in committed and monogamous romantic relationships. Participants who did not identify as either "male" or "female" were removed from the sample (i.e., four participants). Therefore, of the 151 participants who completed the questionnaire, responses from 140 participants were included in the data analyses. Next, sexual orientation was categorized as "heterosexual" or "nonheterosexual" with the latter group comprising participants who endorsed being "gay," "lesbian," "bisexual," or "other."

At the initial stage of data analysis, data screening was conducted. That is, data were tested for missing data, outliers, and assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity, prior to conducting further analyses. Next, hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c were tested using multiple regression. Hypothesis 2 was tested using a one-way multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA), using gender as the independent variable and partner-objectification and self-objectification as dependent variables. For hypothesis 3, a one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine if scores on the variables of interest (attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction) would differ as a function of sexual orientation (heterosexual, nonheterosexual), while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. Here, sexual orientation was the independent variable and attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction were dependent variables.

The main analysis of the present study, addressing hypothesis 4, utilized multiple regression. The three independent variables (IVs) were attachment style, partner-objectification, and self-objectification. The dependent variable was relationship satisfaction. Analyses also controlled for relationship duration, social desirability, and sexism.

Finally, to test hypothesis 5, one-tailed Pearson bivariate correlation was conducted to examine the association between partner physical attractiveness and objectification. Table 2 displays the study's design, including hypotheses, variables, and statistical procedures.

Table 2.
Study Design

Hypothesis	Variables	Statistical Procedures
1a: Insecure attachment will be positively related to low relationship satisfaction; secure attachment will be associated with high relationship satisfaction. 1b: Low partner-objectification will be related to high relationship satisfaction; high partner-objectification will be related to low relationship satisfaction. 1c: Low self-objectification will be related to high relationship satisfaction; high self-objectification will be associated with low relationship satisfaction.	<u>Predictor Variables</u> Attachment style Level of partner-objectification Level of self-objectification <u>Dependent Variable</u> Relationship satisfaction <u>Covariates</u> Relationship duration Sexism Biased responding	Multiple Regression
2: Men will partner-objectify more than women; women will self-objectify more than men.	<u>Independent Variable</u> Gender <u>Dependent Variable</u> Partner-objectification Self-objectification	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
3: Explore whether differences in all main variables (attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction) differ as a function of sexual orientation.	<u>Independent Variable</u> Sexual orientation <u>Dependent Variables</u> Attachment Partner-objectification Self-objectification Relationship satisfaction <u>Covariates</u> Relationship duration Sexism Biased responding	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
4: Explore whether gender and/or sexual orientation moderate the relationship between attachment and relationship satisfaction, partner-objectification and relationship satisfaction, and/or self-objectification and relationship satisfaction.	<u>Predictor Variables</u> Gender Sexual orientation <u>Dependent Variable</u> Attachment Partner-objectification Self-objectification Relationship satisfaction <u>Covariates</u> Relationship duration Sexism Biased responding	Multiple Regression
5: Physical attractiveness and partner-objectification will be positively correlated.	<u>Variables</u> Partner physical attractiveness Partner-objectification	Pearson Bivariate Correlation

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

One-tailed Pearson bivariate correlation analyses were performed to evaluate the degree of relationship between the following variables: age, relationship satisfaction, attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, sexism, and biased responding. The Pearson bivariate correlation conducted for attachment and relationship satisfaction was significant ($r = .262, p < .01$). Results for the Pearson bivariate correlation for level of partner-objectification and relationship satisfaction was significant ($r = -.227, p < .01$). The Pearson bivariate correlation performed for age and relationship satisfaction was significant ($r = -.27, p < .01$). Finding for partner-objectification and self-objectification was significant ($r = .22, p < .01$). The finding for partner-objectification and sexism was significant ($r = .21, p < .01$). The result for partner-objectification and biased responding was significant ($r = -.23, p < .01$). The finding for self-objectification and biased responding was significant ($r = -.23, p < .01$). The Pearson bivariate correlation performed for relationship satisfaction and biased responding was significant ($r = .17, p < .05$). Last, the finding for attachment and biased responding was significant ($r = .16, p < .05$). Table 3 presents Pearson bivariate correlation findings.

Table 3
Pearson Bivariate Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Gender[1]												
2. Sexual Orientation[2]												
3. Relationship Duration[3]												
4. Age	26.58	7.25										
5. Relationship Satisfaction	4.45	.52				-.27*						
6. Attachment	3.50	.88				.05	.26*					
7. Partner-objectification	3.25	.94				.08	-.23*	-.01				
8. Self-objectification	4.49	1.12				-.07	-.11	-.11	.22*			
9. Sexism	1.91	.49				.10	-.11	-.05	.21*	-.04		
10. Biased Responding	160.11	24.46					.07	.17**	.16**	-.23*	-.23*	-.07

Note: *p < .01, **p < .05

[1]Male = 0, Female = 1; [2]Heterosexual = 0, Nonheterosexual = 1; [3]Less than 5 years = 0, 5 years or more = 1

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare group differences between gender and relationship satisfaction. The difference between males ($M = 4.44$, $SD = .54$) and females ($M = 4.46$, $SD = .51$) was nonsignificant; $t = .23$. Another independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare group differences between sexual orientation and relationship satisfaction. The difference between heterosexual participants ($M = 4.40$, $SD = .54$) and non-heterosexual participants ($M = 4.52$, $SD = .48$) was nonsignificant; $T = 1.32$.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that, controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding, attachment and level of partner-objectification and level of self-objectification would be associated with relationship satisfaction. Hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to determine the accuracy of the independent variables (attachment style, level of partner-objectification, level of self-objectification) predicting the dependent variable, relationship satisfaction, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. The first-stage model consisted of only covariates: relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. The second model consisted of covariates and independent variables (i.e., relationship duration, sexism, biased responding, attachment style, level of partner-objectification, level of self-objectification). Regression results indicate that both models significantly predicted relationship satisfaction. Model one significantly predicted relationship satisfaction [$R^2 = .065$, R^2 adj $= .045$, $F(3,136) = 3.17$, $p < .05$] and accounted for 6.5% of the variance in relationship satisfaction. Model two significantly predicted relationship satisfaction [$R^2 = .153$, R^2 adj $= .115$, $F(6,133) = 4.01$, $p < .01$] and accounted for 15.3% of the variance in relationship satisfaction. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 4 and indicates that only three variables (relationship duration, partner-objectification, and attachment style) significantly contributed to the models.

Table 4

Hypothesis 1: Multiple Regression- Coefficients for Model Variables

	B	SE	β	R^2	R^2 adj.	ΔR^2
Step 1				.06	.04	.06
Relationship duration*	-.25	.09	-.22			
Sexism	-.06	.08	-.06			
Biased responding	.10	.05	.15			
Step 2				.15	.11	.09
Relationship duration**	-.21	.09	-.18			
Sexism	-.02	.08	-.02			
Biased responding	.04	.05	.06			
Self-objectification	-.01	.04	-.01			
Partner-objectification**	-.09	.05	-.17			
Attachment*	.15	.05	.26			

Note: [1]*p<.01, **p<.05*
[2]Step 1: *F*(3,136)=3.17, *p<.05;* Step 2: *F*(3,133)=4.60, *p<.01*

Hypothesis 2 predicted that men (regardless of sexual orientation) would partner-objectify more than women and women (regardless of sexual orientation) would self-objectify more than men. To test the second hypothesis, a one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine the effect of gender on the two dependent variables of self-objectification and partner-objectification. MANOVA results indicate that gender significantly affects the DV of self-objectification [Wilk's Lambda = .874, $F(2, 137) = 9.88$, $p < .001$], but did not significantly affect the DV of partner-objectification. Table 5 presents the data for self-objectification by gender.

Table 5

Hypothesis 2: MANOVA- Self-objectification by Gender

| | Self-objectification | |
	M (SE)	Multivariate (Wilks' Lambda) Tests
Gender		$F(2,137) = 9.88, p < .001$
Male	4.08 (.14)	
Female	4.79 (.12)	

Hypothesis 3 stated that analyses would explore whether differences in all main variables (attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction) differed as a function of sexual orientation, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. To test the third hypothesis, a one-way MANOVA was performed to determine the effect of sexual orientation on the dependent variables of attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. MANOVA results indicate that sexual orientation significantly affects biased responding [Wilk's Lambda = .87, $F(4,130) = 4.7, p < .01$] and gender [Wilk's Lambda = .89, $F(4,130) = 3.87, p < .01$].

Table 6

Hypothesis 3: MANOVA- Attachment, Partner-Objectification, Self-objectification, and Relationship Satisfaction by Sexual Orientation

	Heterosexual *M (SE)*	LGBO[1] *M (SE)*	Multivariate (Wilks' Lambda) Tests
Attachment	3.57 (.10)	3.41 (.13)	$F(3,136) = .77$
Partner-objectification	3.28 (.10)	3.25 (.13)	$F(3,136) = 2.12$
Self-objectification	4.31 (.12)	4.58 (.15)	$F(3,136) = .41$
Relationship Satisfaction	4.42 (.06)	4.48 (.07)	$F(3,136) = 1.23$

Note: [1]Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and other sexual orientations.
[2]Biased responding: Wilk's Lambda = .87, $F(4,130) = 4.7$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .13$; Gender: Wilk's Lambda = .89, $F(4,130) = 3.87$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .11$.

Hypothesis 4 stated that additional analyses would be used to explore whether gender and/or sexual orientation moderate the relationship between attachment and relationship satisfaction, partner-objectification and relationship satisfaction, and/or self-objectification and relationship satisfaction, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. For the fourth hypothesis, two separate multiple regression analyses were conducted to explore whether gender and/or sexual orientation moderate the relationship between attachment and relationship satisfaction, partner-objectification and relationship satisfaction, and/or self-objectification and relationship satisfaction, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. For gender, the first model consisted of only covariates: relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. The second model included relationship duration, sexism, biased responding, partner-objectification, self-objectification, attachment, and gender. Finally, the third model consisted of relationship duration, sexism, biased responding, partner-objectification, self-objectification, attachment, gender X partner-objectification interaction, gender X self-objectification interaction, and gender X attachment interaction. Model one accounted for 8.4% of the variance [$R^2 = .08$, R^2

adj = .06, ΔR^2 = .08, $F(3,136)$=4.14]. The second model accounted for 16.5% of the variance

[R^2 = .16, R^2 adj = .12, ΔR^2 = .08, $F(4,132)$=3.19]. Finally, model three account for 17.5% of

the variance [R^2 = .17, R^2 adj = .11, ΔR^2 = .010, $F(3,129)$=.54]. While the main effect of

attachment was significant, a summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 7 and

indicates that regression results were nonsignificant.

Table 7
Hypothesis 4 (Gender): Multiple Regression- Coefficients for Model Variables

	B	SE	β	R^2	R^2 adj.	ΔR^2
Step 1				.08	.06	.08
Relationship duration	-.24	.09	-.22			
Sexism	-.12	.09	-.11			
Biased responding	.12	.06	.17			
Step 2				.16	.12	.08
Relationship duration	-.22	.09	-.19			
Sexism	-.08	.09	-.07			
Biased responding	.07	.06	.10			
Partner-objectification	-.08	.05	-.14			
Self-objectification	-.01	.04	-.03			
Attachment*	.15	.05	.25			
Gender	.04	.09	.04			
Step 3				.17	.11	.01*
Relationship duration	-.22	.09	-.19			
Sexism	-.07	.09	-.07			
Biased responding	.07	.06	.10			
Partner-objectification	-.22	.16	-.39			
Self-objectification	-.05	.14	-.11			
Attachment	.23	.17	.39			
Gender	-.22	.56	-.21			
Gender X Partner-obj.[1]	.09	.10	.38			
Gender X Self-obj.[2]	.03	.09	.17			
Gender X Attachment	-.05	.10	-.20			

*Note: *p<.01*
[1]Gender X Partner-objectification; [2]Gender X Self-objectification
[3]Step 1: $F(3,136)$=4.14; Step 2: $F(4,132)$=3.19; Step 3: $F(3,129)$=.54

Similarly, for sexual orientation, model one consisted of covariates: relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding. Model two included relationship duration, sexism, biased responding, partner-objectification, self-objectification, attachment, and sexual orientation. Model three consisted of relationship duration, sexism, biased responding, partner-objectification, self-objectification, attachment, sexual orientation, sexual orientation X partner-objectification interaction, sexual orientation X self-objectification interaction, and sexual orientation X attachment interaction. Model one accounted for 8.4% of the variance [R^2 = .08, R^2 adj = .06, ΔR^2 = .08, $F(3,136)$=4.14]. The second model accounted for 16.5% of the variance [R^2 = .16, R^2 adj = .12, ΔR^2 = .08, $F(4,132)$=3.19]. Finally, model three accounts for 17.1% of the variance [R^2 = .17, R^2 adj = .11, ΔR^2 = .01, $F(3,129)$=.36]. While, the main effect of attachment was significant, a summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 8 and indicates that regression results were nonsignificant.

Table 8
Hypothesis 4 (Sexual Orientation): Multiple Regression- Coefficients for Model Variables

	B	SE	β	R^2	R^2 adj.	ΔR^2
Step 1				.08	.06	.08
Relationship duration	-.24	.09	-.22			
Sexism	-.12	.09	-.11			
Biased responding	.12	.06	.17			
Step 2				.16	.12	.08
Relationship duration	-.22	.09	-.19			
Sexism	-.08	.09	-.07			
Biased responding	.07	.06	.10			
Partner-objectification	-.08	.05	-.14			
Self-objectification	-.01	.04	-.03			
Attachment*	.15	.05	.25			
Sexual orientation	.04	.09	.04			
Step 3				.17	.11	.01*
Relationship duration	-.21	.09	-.19			
Sexism	-.05	.09	-.05			
Biased responding	.07	.06	.10			
Partner-objectification	-.06	.14	-.11			
Self-objectification	.02	.10	.04			
Attachment	.07	.11	.11			
Orientation[1]	.05	.09	.05			
Orientation X Attachment	.06	.07	.24			
Orientation X Self-obj.[2]	-.03	.07	-.13			
Orientation X Partner-obj.[3]	-.01	.09	-.03			

*Note: *p<.01*
[1]Sexual orientation; [2]Sexual orientation X Self-objectification; [3]Sexual orientation X Partner-objectification
[4]Step 1: $F(3,136)=4.14$; Step 2: $F(4,132)=3.19$; Step 3: $F(3,129)=.36$

To examine the degree of the relationship between partner physical attractiveness and level of partner objectification (Hypothesis 5), a one-tailed Pearson bivariate correlation was conducted. However, findings were nonsignificant ($r = -.014$).

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The present study sought to investigate whether objectification of self and partner account for the variance in relationship satisfaction, after accounting for the variance in relationship satisfaction attributable to attachment.

The initial hypothesis examined whether attachment, level of partner-objectification and level of self-objectification would be associated with relationship satisfaction. Specifically, the study predicted that insecure attachment style would be positively related to low relationship satisfaction and secure attachment would be positively associated with high relationship satisfaction. It was predicted that low partner-objectification would be associated with high relationship satisfaction and that high partner-objectification would be negatively related to low relationship satisfaction. Finally, it was predicted that low self-objectification would be associated with high relationship satisfaction and high self-objectification would be associated with low relationship satisfaction.

Hierarchical multiple regression results indicated that relationship duration, partner-objectification, and attachment style significantly predicted relationship satisfaction. As expected, results indicate that partner-objectification significantly predicted relationship satisfaction. This finding is consistent with that of Zubriggen, Ramsey, and Jaworski (2011), who found that partner-objectification was associated with lower relationship satisfaction. This finding provides further support that diminished relationship satisfaction is another harmful consequence of sexual objectification.

Furthermore, results indicate that attachment and relationship satisfaction are positively associated. Previous research indicated that securely attached individuals have

better, more satisfying, romantic relationships; while individuals with insecure attachment styles have poorer relationship satisfaction (Hadden, Smith, & Webster, 2014; Li & Chan, 2012; Lowyck, Luyten, Demyttenaere, & Corveleyn, 2008; Treboux, Crowell, & Waters, 2004). This study's finding is consistent with previous research which shows secure attachment results in more favorable relationship quality than insecure attachment styles.

Relationship duration was one of several variables controlled for in the analysis. As predicted, relationship duration was shown to have a significant and negative association with relationship satisfaction. Hadden, Smith, and Webster (2014) also found evidence that relationship duration moderated insecure attachment style and relationship quality. They found that insecure attachment style and relationship satisfaction/commitment were more negatively associated in samples with longer relationship duration. The authors suggested that qualities of individuals with insecure attachment styles likely contribute to the reduction of relationship satisfaction over time. That is, negative characteristics associated with insecure attachment styles may increase and built over time, or they may become more visible over time. For example, anxiety about closeness may be common at the onset of a relationship, but could eventually become problematic as issues with intimacy persist over time in a relationship. In addition to unfavorable qualities, individuals with insecure attachment styles may have heightened sensitivity to conflict.

Interestingly, self-objectification was not found to be associated with relationship satisfaction, which was originally expected. This finding is inconsistent with that of Zubriggen, Ramsey, and Jaworski (2011), whose research found that self-objectification was associated with lower relationship satisfaction. However, Sanchez and Broccoli (2008) found that when single women and women in romantic relationships were primed with relationship

material, women in relationships self-objectified less than the single women. Researchers suggest that relationship priming evoked relationship seeking behaviors (e.g., appearance maintenance) in single women, but priming may have reminded coupled women of their relationship success. All of the participants in the current study were involved in committed, monogamous relationships at the time they participated. It may be that the participants in the present study were less likely to engage in appearance-related relationship-seeking behaviors because they were in committed relationships. Additionally, Frederickson et al. noted "Securing a relationship unleashed self-objectification […] whereas being in a relationship appears to be somewhat protective" (Frederickson et al., 2011, p. 690). It may be that committed relationships serve a protective function against self-objectification and its negative consequences.

The second hypothesis of the study investigated whether men would engage in partner-objectification more than women and women would self-objectify more than men. MANOVA analysis found that gender had a significant effect on self-objectification, but not partner-objectification. Data indicate that women engaged in self-objectification more than men. This finding is consistent with previous research, which found higher rates of self-objectification in women than men (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Moreover, according to Franzoi, Vasquez, Sparapani, Frost, Martin, and Aebly (2012), women tend to be self-critical when evaluating their physical appearance, while men's self-evaluation tends to be self-hopeful, or related to a desire for future self-improvement. Researchers have suggested that men are typically less subjected to physical scrutiny and more emphasis is placed on physical self-efficacy. This may explain why women engage in more self-objectification; they experience more external pressure to engage in appearance maintenance, they may take a

self-critical perspective of their appearance, and importance is placed on appearance rather than the body's functionality.

However, work by Zubriggen, Ramsey, and Jaworski (2011) found no gender differences in self-objectification. The present study's finding also differs from the finding that women in an exclusive relationship experienced less self-consciousness during sexual activity than women who were not in an exclusive relationship *(Steer & Tiggemann, 2008)*. Steer and Tiggemann (2008) have suggested that women in relationships may habituate and become less concerned with their appearance during sex. They also suggest that a committed relationship may reduce self-consciousness because the relationship serves as a nonjudgemental or less judgmental environment.

It was predicted that men would engage in partner-objectification more than women. The finding that gender did not significantly affect partner-objectification is surprising. Previous research found that men engaged in more partner-objectification than women **(**Zubriggen, Ramsey, & Jaworski, 2011). However, Gervais, Vescio, and Allen (2011)*,* found that women who were subjected to an objectifying gaze reported more interaction motivation; objectified women were more motivated to interact with the person objectifying them. One explanation the authors provide is that the objectifying gaze may provide validation of one's physical appearance and may be a positive subjective experience for some women, particularly when in a romantic situation, and especially for women with high appearance-contingent self-worth. Another possible explanation is that women may interpret the objectifying gaze as indicating male attraction to them, and the women interacted to demonstrate reciprocal interest. It may be that there was no gender difference in partner-objectification in the present study because both men and women may use an objectifying

gaze as a signal of one's desire and interest in their partner, and increasing interaction between partners. Overall, previous research has found that men engage in more objectification; however, within the context of a committed relationship, objectification may serve a functional role among partners, explaining why both men and women would use an objectifying gaze as a relationship enhancement strategy.

The third hypothesis sought to explore whether differences in attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction differ as a function of sexual orientation. MANOVA results indicate that sexual orientation significantly affected biased responding and gender; but were nonsignificant for attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction. Biased responding served as a covariate controlled for in the MANOVA analysis. Previous research noted the importance of measuring and controlling for biased responding with a measure of social desirability, especially when assessing group differences and gender-based research (Dalton & Ortegren, 2011; McFarland & Petrie, 2012). Given the sensitivity of questions related to sexual orientation, objectification, self-objectification, sexism, and so on, it was necessary to assess socially desirable reporting and underreporting. It appears that the sensitive material investigated in this study warranted rationale for measuring biased responding.

The present study did not make directional predictions regarding the main variables of interest (i.e., attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction) and sexual orientation, due to lack of or mixed findings from previous research. Previous studies on objectification and sexual orientation were mixed in their findings investigating objectification among sexual minorities (Daniel, Bridges, & Martens, 2013; Kozak, Frankenhauser, & Roberts, 2009; Kozee & Tylka, 2006; Markey & Markey 2014).

While there is evidence of objectification among lesbian women, they may arguably have different body ideals than heterosexual women and/or reject mainstream beauty ideals. Furthermore, while traditionally insufficiently studied, there is emerging evidence of objectification among heterosexual and homosexual men.

The current study indicates that attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction did not differ based on participants' sexual orientation. This is important because it suggests that the relational processes involved in forming attachments, susceptibility to self- and partner-objectification, and relationship satisfaction in a romantic partnership may be similar among heterosexual and LGB individuals. Kurdek (2004) sought to investigate the extent to which heterosexual and homosexual and lesbian couples differ from each other in their romantic relationships. One key finding in his study was that gay and lesbian couples were not at heighted risk for distress and did not demonstrate more psychological maladjustment, higher levels of personality traits, poor working models, or ineffective conflict resolution skills that would put their relationships at risk compared to heterosexual couples. Gay and lesbian couples did, however, tend to have poorer social support and higher rates of relationship dissolution. Overall, Kurdek suggested that these findings do not mean that there are not differences between couples of differing sexual orientations, but rather that the processes which regulate relationships are similar for both and can be generalized. The present study provides further support for the generalization of specific relational processes among heterosexual and LGB couples.

The fourth hypothesis explored whether gender and/or sexual orientation moderate the relationship between attachment and relationship satisfaction, partner-objectification and

relationship satisfaction, and/or self-objectification and relationship satisfaction. Multiple regression analyses of whether gender and sexual orientation moderate the relationship between attachment and relationship satisfaction, partner-objectification and relationship satisfaction, and/or self-objectification and relationship satisfaction, while controlling for relationship duration, sexism, and biased responding, were nonsignificant. The main effect of attachment was found to be significant. Insecure attachment styles are associated with poorer relationship satisfaction than secure attachment (Li & Chan, 2012; Lowyck, Luyten, Demyttenaere, & Corveleyn, 2008; Treboux, Crowell, & Waters, 2004). Also, insecure attachment types may be more likely to be preoccupied with physical attractiveness, especially if it secures attachment and relationship establishment (Greenwood, Pietromonaco, & Long, 2008).

Finally, the fifth hypothesis predicted that one's perceived physical attractiveness of their romantic partner and partner-objectification would be positively correlated. However, data did not support this prediction.

The current study's finding supports the notion that physical attractiveness and sexual objectification are two separate constructs. Physical attractiveness has a beneficial role in mate selection (Buss, 1989). The benefits of physical attractiveness are numerous, and also include increased relationship satisfaction (Eastwick, Neff, Finkel, Luchies, & Hunt, 2014; Meltzer, McNulty, Jackson, & Karney, 2014; Walster, Aronson, Abrahams, & Rottman, 1966). Simultaneously, there are many negative outcomes associated with sexual objectification and self-objectification (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Yet, could admiring someone's physical attractiveness and viewing him or her as a sexual object be similar or overlapping behaviors? The present study's finding that physical attractiveness and sexual

objectification were not found to be significantly associated suggests otherwise. This result is

noteworthy because it suggests that individuals of varying levels of physical attractiveness,

not merely individuals high in physical attractiveness, are subject to being sexually

objectified by the gaze of another. This finding suggests that it is not necessarily because of

a person's physical appearance that he or she is objectified. While physical attractiveness

pertains to a person's physical appearance, sexual objectification may have less to do with

the person being objectified, and is more reflective of the person who is engaged in

objectifying. Individuals may vary in their tendencies to objectify more or less, likely based

on their attitudes toward societal standards of beauty and their involvement in SOEs. Though

it is possible to appreciate a person's physical beauty while appreciating their nonphysical

characteristics, objectification occurs when only considering a person's body or sexual value.

Clinical Implications

Clinical implications for this study are plentiful. However, it is important to be

mindful that the results obtained in this study should be confirmed by additional research

studies. This study provides further evidence highlighting elements that contribute to a

satisfying relationship, including the role of objectification, attachment style, and relationship

duration. Additionally, it is important to understand that people's experiences may differ

depending on their gender, sexual orientation, race, and other individual characteristics.

Specifically, this study sought to understand the experience of sexual minorities and explore

gender differences. Women are more likely to self-objectify; hence, it is important for

clinicians to be mindful of how this finding might contribute to their female clients' clinical

presentation and symptoms. This study indicates that there were no differences in attachment,

objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction for participants based on

sexual orientation; this does not deny that there are differences between heterosexual and LGB individuals, but suggests that there may be similar processes that govern all relationships regardless of sexual orientation. This study also focuses on addressing the sensitivity of issues such as sexual orientation, objectification and intimate relationships.

This study has several implications for clinicians. The American Psychological Association (2007, 2010) provides recommendations for research, clinical practice, training and education, and public awareness regarding the systemic oppressions girls and women face. While the APA provides guidelines for mental health professionals working with girls and women, it is worth noting that these recommendations are equally applicable and beneficial when working with clients with various social identities (American Psychological Association, 2007). The effect of objectification and self-objectification on couples and relationship satisfaction is a promising area of research, especially with a diverse sample and sample representative of LGBT individuals. The consequences of objectification are an important area of focus to be incorporated, or better integrated, into training and education programs for mental health professionals. This will also assist clinicians in their conceptualization, understanding of symptoms, and interventions with clients.

In general, clinicians can assist clients by communicating "the subtle ways in which beliefs and behaviors related to gender may affect the life experiences and well-being of girls and women at various points of the lifespan" (American Psychological Association, 2007, p. 960). There are various ways clinicians can increase patient awareness about the consequences of objectification and how objectification may be related to a patient's presenting concerns and therapeutic goals. First, clinicians can provide psychoeducation about a number of issues, including gender-role socialization, the influence of

intersectionality on one's experiences, and the consequences and symptoms associated with objectification and self-objectification. Moreover, there are numerous clinical situations in which psychoeducation and clinical interventions related to combating objectification would be helpful. For instance, psychoeducation about the influence of media exposure on cultural values could be useful when working with patients with body image disturbance and eating disorders (American Psychological Association, 2007). Media literacy programs, athletic programs, involvement in extracurricular activities, and comprehensive sexual education can be implemented at the high school level to combat objectification (American Psychological Association, 2010). In addition, providing psychoeducation about gender discrimination and objectification could be helpful when working with female clients working through being physically and/or sexually assaulted, including women who experience partner abuse. This is not to overlook physical and sexual assault men experience; education about gender stereotypes could be helpful in reducing shame. Furthermore, psychoeducation and interventions aimed at increasing awareness of objectification could be beneficial in working with children and families dealing with childhood sexual abuse. Another intervention could be to encourage clients to read nonsexist, educational literature and to consume alternative media, which may empower clients to resist objectification and sexualization (American Psychological Association, 2007/2010). Mental health professionals could also decide whether to use measures of objectification or self-objectification to aid in diagnosis, assessment, and treatment. Importantly, clinicians can foster a safe therapeutic environment in which clients feel comfortable addressing their concerns and discussing objectification. Through understanding systemic gender discrimination, clients will be more empowered and able to identify and overcome internal and external challenges.

It is the professional responsibility of mental health professionals not to reinforce the objectification of girls and women (American Psychological Association, 2007). Through increasing mental health providers' awareness and skill set in addressing issues surrounding objectification, not only do clients benefit, but mental health providers, students, supervisees, research participants and assistants, consultants, and health professionals can benefit from increased knowledge and competency. An increased awareness would also potentially reduce mental health providers' personal biases and eliminate overdiagnosis of certain disorders (e.g., women are more likely to be overdiagnosed with histrionic and borderline personality disorders) (American Psychological Association, 2007).

Attachment and objectification both involve one's relatedness with self and other. Therefore, it is understandable that attachment and objectification would have a role in intimate relationships. It is important to consider the ways in which insecure attachment and being objectified by a partner influences one' perception of their experiences and whether they feel supported by and close to their partners and support system.

The damaging consequences of objectification and insecure attachment that contribute to symptoms are well-documented in previous research (Calogero, 2004; Frederickson & Roberts, 1997; Li & Chan, 2012; Lowyck, Luyten, Demyttenaere, & Corveleyn, 2008; Treboux, Crowell, & Waters, 2004). However, research examining the concepts together and in the context of romantic relationships and with sexual minorities is scarce. This study reiterates the importance of focusing on relationships rather than merely interactions between strangers, especially with regard to objectification.

Additionally, Calogero (2004) found that women anticipating a female gaze had the lowest body shame and body-related anxiety, compared to anticipating a male gaze. A female

experiencing a female gaze may have a different subjective experience than a female experiencing a male gaze This suggests that the female gaze may have a protective function and reduce negative consequences of self-objectification. Therefore, it is possibly that all objectifying gazes are not equal. If a female gaze can be protective and different from a male gaze, could a romantic partner's gaze also prove different and less harmful than that of a stranger? Additional attention could be given not only to the occurrence of objectification but also to who is doing the objectifying. The present study provides further insight into the objectifying gaze of a romantic partner, a type of gaze that has traditionally been less often investigated.

Moreover, the findings of the present study provide important implications for coupled romantic partners. Relationship satisfaction is often considered to be a combination of adaptive behaviors and specific love qualities, in addition to low level of risk factors. The present study sought to investigate whether level of self- and partner- objectification and insecure attachment, similar to the cumulative effect of other relationship risk factors, resulted in decreased relationship satisfaction. The study predicted and found that individuals high in partner-objectification and self-objectification, and with insecure attachment styles, were lower in relationship satisfaction than those who were low in partner-objectification and self-objectification, and more securely attached. This suggests that individuals who have internalized idealized societal standards of beauty to a greater degree, have less satisfying relationships. This is particularly meaningful for clinicians who work with couples and families. It may be useful to consider the impact of values and the impact of objectification within relationships especially when conducting couples, conjoint, and marital therapy. The finding that partner-objectification and self-objectification were not correlated has important

implications for couples as well. This finding indicates that one can appreciate their partner's physical appearance and physical attractiveness, while still valuing non-physical characteristics and without reducing their partner to merely their sexual value. Relationships in which partner-objectification occurs at a high frequency and nonphysical traits are not appreciated may be more problematic and result in decreased relationship well-being. Providing psychoeducation about objectification and assisting couples in processing their experiences related to objectification in their relationship may be worthwhile interventions when addressing relationship difficulties in treatment.

Limitations

A major strength of the current study is that it included information from both heterosexual individuals, and those identifying as "gay," "lesbian," "bisexual," or "other." However, the study was limited because of the small sample size of LGB participants. There were 89 heterosexual participants (63.6%) and 51 participants (36.4%) who were gay, lesbian, bisexual, or other. Additionally, only males and females were investigated in this study since there were not a sufficient number of transgender participants. Future research aiming to investigate objectification would benefit from recruiting more sexual minorities for participation. This would allow comparisons to be made between different sexual orientations and sexual identities, rather than categorizing all gay, lesbian, bisexual, and other individuals in one group, as was the case with the present study.

Another limitation of the present study is due to limited participant diversity. The present study's participant pool was predominantly comprised of Caucasian participants (84.3% Caucasian), who were highly educated (67.9% of participants had obtained a Bachelor's degree or higher), and affluent (47.1% of participants had a household income of

$45,000 or more). It is unclear to what extent these factors explain the present study's findings, especially the null finding that there were no gender differences in partner-objectification (Hypothesis 2). Therefore, future research should aim to recruit a more diverse participant sample, to ensure generalizability of findings.

Additionally, a limitation of this study is a shortcoming of the online questionnaire software. Based on optional feedback from participants, some participants described that Likert-type responses changed from question to question, rather than remaining the same. This could potentially have been confusing for participants. While it would be appropriate for item response options to vary, it is unclear whether this was appropriate for that questionnaire or if it was a result of software error. In the future, research could utilize more reliable online sites and software, or could include paper questionnaires, which would eliminate any software issues. By including paper questionnaires in addition to the online questionnaire, future research would also ensure that it is not excluding participants who do not have access to web-based questionnaires.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this study suggest several directions for future research aimed at understanding the relationship between attachment, self- and partner-sexual objectification, and relationship satisfaction in both heterosexual and same-sex couples. In particular, future research should aim to collect data from both romantic partners. The present study collected data from participants who, at the time of participation in the study, were involved in committed and monogamous romantic relationships. Participants provided responses about their current partner. However, collecting data from both partners in a relationship would provide more accurate data and allow for additional analyses.

Szymanski et al. (2010) called for future research which seeks to explain why some individuals, women in particular, choose involvement in sexually objectifying experiences or environments, and to explain interpersonal and intrapersonal factors that influence women's experiences. While this was beyond the scope of the present study, it is a worthy aspiration and would provide a wealth of information about objectification and self-objectification.

Finally, the null findings of the present study were surprising and worthy of future investigation. Specifically, the lack of gender differences in partner-objectification (hypothesis 2) and the nonsignificant correlation between physical attractiveness and partner-objectification (hypothesis 5), were unexpected. The lack of gender differences in partner-objectification may be due to the study's participants, who were predominantly Caucasian, more educated, and financially well off than would be expected of the general public. With regard to the fifth hypothesis, it may be that other constructs, such as character traits (e.g., high narcissism, low empathy) serve as better predictors of engagement in partner-objectification, rather than partner's level of physical attractiveness. Future research that investigates the extent to which personality (trait) and environmental (state) factors contribute to level of partner-objectification and perceived physical attractiveness would be of much utility. Similarly, participant demographic factors (e.g., race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, education level) may provide a wealth of information about partner-objectification and perceived physical attractiveness.

APPENDIX A

Demographic Information

Please read and respond to each of the following questions:

Age (in years): ___

Sex: (Please select one)
___Female
___Male
___Trans-woman
___Trans-man
___Other (Please specify): _____

Sexual Orientation: (Please select one)
___Heterosexual
___Gay
___Lesbian
___Bisexual
___Other (Please specify): _____

Race/Ethnicity: (Please select all that apply)
___Caucasian/White, Non-Hispanic
___African American/Black
___Latino/Hispanic (not of European descent)
___Asian American
___Arab American/Persian/Turkish
___Native American/American Indian
___Other (Please specify): _____

Highest level of education:
___Some High School, Less than High School Diploma
___High School Diploma/GED equivalent
___Some college or university
___Associates degree or certificate/Technical degree
___Bachelor's degree/Completed college or university undergraduate program
___Some post-graduate studies
___Completed Master's degree
___Completed Doctorate degree or higher

Relationship Status: (Please select one of the following response options which best describes your current relationship status)
___Single, Not currently in monogamous relationship
___In committed/monogamous relationship with one partner AND NOT living with partner
___In committed/monogamous relationship with partner AND living with partner
___Married
___Other (Please describe): _____

Please indicate the sex/gender of your current partner: (Please select one)
___Female
___Male
___Trans-woman
___Trans-man
___Other (Please specify): _____

Please indicate the duration of your current relationship: (Please select one)
___6 months or less
___6 to 11 months
___1 to 2 years
___Less than 5 years
___5 to 10 years
___10 to 15 years
___More than 15 years

Employment Status (Please select all that apply of the following response options to indicate your current status in terms of paid employment)
___ Employed Full Time
___ Employed Part-Time
___ Unemployed

Occupation Status (Please select all that apply of the following response options to indicate your current occupational status):
___ Student
___ Unskilled Labor
___ Skilled Trade (e.g., Carpenter, Plumber, Electrician, Machinist)
___ Industry/Factory worker
___ Transportation (e.g., Truck Driver)
___ Professional (e.g., Lawyer, Dentist, Physician, Psychologist, Nurse, Professor, Teacher)
___ Paraprofessional (e.g., legal secretary, receptionist)
___ Hospitality Industry (e.g., hospitality services, restaurant, hotel)
___ Other (Please specify): _____

Household income: (Please check one of the following response options to indicate your annual household income level)
___Less than $10,000
___$10,000-$25,000
___$25,000-$45,000
___$45,000-$65,000
___ $65,000-$100,000
___More than $100,000

Do you have children?   ____ Yes   ____ No

Number of children: _____
Age(s) of children (Please list age of every child): _____
How many children live with you?
_____ 0
_____ 1
_____ 2
_____ 3
_____ 4
_____ 5
_____ 6
_____ 7
_____ 8
_____ 9
_____ 10 or more

Please use the scale below to answer the following question:
Do you find your partner physically attractive?

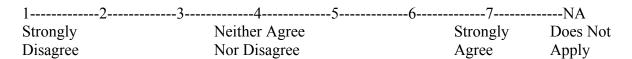| 0	1	2	3	4	5
Not at all attractive			Somewhat attractive		Extremely attractive

APPENDIX B

Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS) (Mckinely & Hyde, 1996)

INSTRUCTIONS:

Circle the number that corresponds to how much you agree with each of the statements on the following pages.

Circle NA only if the statement does not apply to you. Do not circle NA if you don't agree with a statement.

> For example, if the statement says "When I am happy, I feel like singing" and you don't feel like singing when you are happy, then you would circle one of the disagree choices. You would only circle NA if you were <u>never</u> happy.

1-------------2-------------3-------------4-------------5-------------6-------------7-------------NA
Strongly   Neither Agree   Strongly   Does Not
Disagree   Nor Disagree   Agree   Apply

1. I rarely think about how I look.
2. I think it is more important that my clothes are comfortable than whether they look good on me.
3. I think more about how my body feels than how my body looks.
4. I rarely compare how I look with how other people look.
5. During the day, I think about how I look many times.
6. I often worry about whether the clothes I am wearing make me look good.
7. I rarely worry about how I look to other people.
8. I am more concerned with what my body can do than how it looks.

APPENDIX C

Adapted *Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS)*

INSTRUCTIONS:

Circle the number that corresponds to how much you agree with each of the statements on the following pages.

Circle NA only if the statement does not apply to you. Do not circle NA if you don't agree with a statement.

1-------------2-------------3-------------4-------------5-------------6-------------7-------------NA
Strongly   Neither Agree   Strongly   Does Not
Disagree   Nor Disagree   Agree   Apply

1. I rarely think about how my partner looks.
2. I think it is more important that my partner's clothes are comfortable than whether they look good on my partner.
3. I think more about how my partner's body feels than how my partner's body looks.
4. I rarely compare how my partner looks with how other people look.
5. During the day, I think about how my partner looks many times.
6. I often worry about whether clothes my partner is wearing make my partner look good.
7. I rarely worry about how my partner looks to other people.
8. I am more concerned with what my partner's body can do than how it looks.

APPENDIX D

Revised Adult Attachment Scale (Collins, 1996)

Please read each of the following statements and rate the extent to which it describes your feelings about romantic relationships. Please think about all your relationships (past and present) and respond in terms of how you generally feel in these relationships. If you have never been involved in a romantic relationship, answer in terms of how you think you would feel.

Please use the scale below and select a number between 1 and 5 for each statement.

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
```
Not at all   Very
characteristic   characteristic
of me   of me

1) I find it relatively easy to get close to people.
2) I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others.
3) I often worry that romantic partners don't really love me.
4) I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like.
5) I am comfortable depending on others.
6) I don't worry about people getting too close to me.
7) I find that people are never there when you need them.
8) I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others.
9) I often worry that romantic partners won't want to stay with me.
10) When I show my feelings for others, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.
11) I often wonder whether romantic partners really care about me.
12) I am comfortable developing close relationships with others.
13) I am uncomfortable when anyone gets too emotionally close to me.
14) I know that people will be there when I need them.
15) I want to get close to people, but I worry about being hurt.
16) I find it difficult to trust others completely.
17) Romantic partners often want me to be emotionally closer than I feel comfortable being.
18) I am not sure that I can always depend on people to be there when I need them.

APPENDIX E

Marriage and Relationships Questionnaire (MARQ) (Russell & Wells, 1986; 1993)

Instructions: The following are some simple questions about relationships. Please answer them all, even if you feel that some of them are rather personal. Your answers will be treated in the strictest confidence. Most of the questions have several possible answers. Each answer has a circle underneath it. Simply select the answer you choose. There are no right or wrong answers; just choose the one that is closest to your feelings. Don't spend too long on each question it is your first impression that matters.

1. Do you enjoy your partner's company?

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
Very   Quite   In some   Not   Not at
much   a lot   ways   much   all

2. Are you happy?

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
Extremely   Quite   In some   Not   Not at
             a lot   ways   really   all

3. Do you find your partner attractive?

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
Not   Not   Average   Fairly   Very
at all   really

4. Do you enjoy doing things together?

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
Not   Not much   To some   Quite   Very
at all   extent   a lot   much

5. Do you enjoy cuddling your partner?

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
Not   Not much   A bit   Quite   Very
at all   a bit   much

6. Do you respect your partner?

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
Very   Quite   In some   Not   Not
much   a lot   ways   really   at all

7. Are you proud of your partner?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
```
Not	Not	In some	Quite	Very
at all	really	ways	a lot	much

8. Does your relationship have a romantic side?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
```
Not	Not	In some	Quite	Very
at all	much	ways	a lot	much

9. How much do you love your partner?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5
```
Very	A lot	Average	Not very	Not
much			much	at all

APPENDIX F

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 2001)

Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below:

0	1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	Disagree somewhat	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Somewhat	Agree Strongly

1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.
2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for "equality".
3. In a disaster, woman ought to be rescued before men.
4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.
5. Women are too easily offended.
6. People are not truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.
7. Feminists are seeking for women to have more power than men.
8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men posses.
9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.
10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.
11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.
12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.
13. Men are incomplete without women.
14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.
15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.
16. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.
17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.
18. Many women get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.
19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.
20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well-being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.
21. Feminists are making unreasonable demands of men.
22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

APPENDIX G

Balanced Inventory of Desired Responding (BIDR) (Paulhus, 1984; 1991)

Using the scale below as a guide, select a number corresponding with each statement to indicate how much you agree with it.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
NOT TRUE   SOMEWHAT   VERY TRUE
                             TRUE

1. My first impressions of people usually turn out to be right.
2. It would be hard for me to break any of my bad habits.
3. I don't care to know what other people really think of me.
4. I have not always been honest with myself.
5. I always know why I like things.
6. When my emotions are aroused, it biases my thinking.
7. Once I've made up my mind, other people can seldom change my opinion.
8. I am not a safe driver when I exceed the speed limit.
9. I am fully in control of my own fate.
10. It's hard for me to shut off a disturbing thought.
11. I never regret my decisions.
12. I sometimes lose out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.
13. The reason I vote is because my vote can make a difference.
14. My parents were not always fair when they punished me.
15. I am a completely rational person.
16. I rarely appreciate criticism.
17. I am very confident of my judgments.
18. I have sometimes doubted my ability as a lover.
19. It's all right with me if some people happen to dislike me.
20. I don't always know the reasons why I do the things I do.
21. I sometimes tell lies if I have to.
22. I never cover up my mistakes.
23. There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.
24. I never swear.
25. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
26. I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.
27. I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.
28. When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.
29. I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her.
30. I always declare everything at customs.
31. When I was young I sometimes stole things.
32. I have never dropped litter on the street.
33. I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit.
34. I never read sexy books or magazines or use other forms of pornographic media.
35. I have done things that I don't tell other people about.
36. I never take things that don't belong to me.
37. I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick.

38. I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it.
39. I have some pretty awful habits.
40. I don't gossip about other people's business.

References

Agliata, D., & Tantleff-Dunn, S. (2004). The impact of media exposure on males' body image. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 23,* 7–22.

Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978) *Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

American Psychological Association (2007). Guidelines for psychological practice with girls and women. *American Psychologist, 62,* 949-979.

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Report of the APA Task Force on the Sexualization of Girls.* Retrieved from http://www.apa.org/pi/women/programs/girls/report-full.pdf

Banse, R. (2004). Adult attachment and marital satisfaction: Evidence for dyadic configuration effects. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 21*(2)*,* 273-282. doi: 10.1177/0265407504041388

Bartholomew, K., & Horowitz, L. M. (1991). Attachment styles among young adults: A test of a four-category model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61*(2)*,* 226-244.

Beebe, D. W., Holmbeck, G. N., Schober, A., Lane, M., & Rosa, K. (1996). Is body focus restricted to self-evaluation? Body focus in the evaluation of self and others. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 20*, 415–422.

Berscheid, E., & Hatfield [Walster], E. (1978). *Interpersonal attraction* (2nd ed.). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Birnbaum, G. E. (2007). Attachment orientations, sexual functioning, and relationship satisfaction in a community sample of women. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 24*, 21–35. doi: 10.1177/0265407507072576

Birnbaum, G. E., Reis, H. T., Mikulincer, M., Gillath, O., & Orpaz, A. (2006). When sex is more than just sex: Attachment orientations, sexual experience, and relationship quality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 91*(5)*,* 929–943.

doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.91.5.929

Bordo, S. (1993). *Unbearable weight: Feminism, western culture, and the body.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Bowlby, J. (1969). *Attachment and loss. Vol. 1: Attachment* (2nd printing). New York, NY: Basic.

Bowlby, J. (1973). *Attachment and loss. Vol. II: Separation.* New York, NY: Basic.

Bowlby, J. (1980). *Attachment and loss. Vol. III: Loss.* New York, NY: Basic.

Buss, D. M. (1989). Sex differences in human mate preferences: Evolutionary hypotheses tested in 37 cultures. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 12,* 1-49.

Butzer, B., & Campbell, L. (2008). Adult attachment, sexual satisfaction, and relationship satisfaction: A study of married couples. *Personal Relationships, 15*(1), 141–154. doi: 10.1111/j.1475-6811.2007.00189.x

Calogero, R. M. (2004). A test of objectification theory: The effect of the male gaze on appearance concerns in college women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 28,* 16-21.

Calogero, R. M., Herbozo, S., & Thompson, J. K. (2009). Complimentary weightism: The potential costs of appearance-related commentary for women's self-objectification. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 33,* 120-132. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.2008.01479.x

Calogero, R. M., & Jost, J. T. (2011). Self-subjugation among women: Exposure to sexist ideology, self-objectification, and the protective function of the need to avoid closure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 1-18. doi: 10.1037/a0021864

Campos, J. J., Barrett, K., Lamb, M. E., Goldsmith, H. H., & Stenberg, C. (1983). Socioemotional development. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology. Vol. 2: Infancy and developmental psychobiology* (pp. 783-915). New York, NY: Wiley.

Casad, B. J., Salazar, M. M., & Macina, V. (2014). The real versus the ideal: Predicting relationship satisfaction and well-being from endorsements of marriage myths and benevolent sexism. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 1,* 1-11. doi: 10.1177/0361684314528304

Chapkis, W. (1986). *Beauty secrets: Women and the politics of appearance*. Boston, MA: South End Press.

Chrisler, J. C. (2011). Feminist psychology and the "body problem": Sexuality, physical appearance, and women's physical and mental health. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 35*(4)*, 648-654.* doi: 10.1177/0361684311426688

Chroma, B. L., Visser, B. A., Pozzebon, J. A., Bogaert, A. E., Busseri, M. A., & Sadava, S. W. (2010). Self-objectification, self-esteem, and gender: Testing a moderated mediation model. *Sex Roles, 63,* 645-656. doi: 10.1007/s11199-010-9829-8

Collins, N. L. (1996). Working models of attachment: Implications for explanation, emotion, and behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*, 810-832.

Collins, N. L., & Feeney, B. C. (2000). A safe haven: An attachment theory perspective on support seeking and caregiving in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*(6)*, 1053-1073.* doi: 10.1O37//OO22-3514.78.6.1053

Collins, N. L., & Read, S. J. (1990). Adult attachment, working models, and relationship quality in dating couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 644-663.

Dainton, M., & Stafford, L. (1993). Routine maintenance behaviors: A comparison of relationship type, partner similarity and sex differences. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 10*, 255–271.

Dalton, D., & Ortegren, M. (2011). Gender differences in ethics research: The importance of controlling for the social desirability response bias. *Journal of Business Ethics, 103,* 73-93. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-0843-8

Daniel, S., Bridges, S. K., & Martens, M. P. (2013). The development and validation of the Male Assessment of Self-Objectification (MASO). *Psychology of Men & Masculinity,* 1-12. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1037/a0031518

Downs, D. M., James, S., & Cowan, G. (2006). Body objectification, self-esteem, and relationship satisfaction: A comparison of exotic dancers and college women. *Sex Roles, 54,* 745-752. doi: 10.1007/s11199-006-9042-y

Eastwick, P. W., Neff, L. A., Finkel, E. J., Luchies, L. B., & Hunt, L. L. (2014). Is a meta-analysis a foundation, or just another brick? Comment on Meltzer, McNulty, Jackson, and Karney (2014). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 106*(3)*,* 429-434. doi: 10.1037/a0034767

Fairchild, K., & Rudman, L. A. (2008). Everyday stranger harassment and women's objectification. *Social Justice Research, 21,* 338-357. doi: 10.1007/s11211-008-0073-0

Feeney, J. A. (2002). Attachment, marital interaction, and relationship satisfaction: A diary study. *Personal Relationships, 9,* 39-55.

Feeney, J. A., & Noller, P. (1990). Attachment style as a predictor of adult romantic relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 58*(2)*,* 281-291.

Fincham, F. D., & Rogge, R. (2010). Understanding relationship quality: Theoretical challenges and new tools for assessment. *Journal of Family Theory & Review, 2,* 227-242. doi: 10.1111/j.1756-2589.2010.00059.x

Fraley, R. C. (2002). Attachment stability from infancy to adulthood: Meta-analysis and dynamic modeling of developmental mechanisms. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 6*(2)*,* 123-151.

Fraley, R. C., & Shaver, P. R. (2000). Adult romantic attachment: Theoretical developments, emerging controversies, and unanswered questions. *Review of General Psychology, 4*(2)*,* 132-154. doi: 10.1O37//1089-2680.4.2.132

Franzoi, S. L., Vasquez, K., Sparapani, E., Frost, K., Martin, J., & Aebly, M. (2012). Exploring body comparison tendencies: Women are self-critical whereas men are self-hopeful. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 36*(1)*,* 99-109. doi: 10.1177/0361684311427028

Frederickson, B. L., Hendler, L. M., Nilsen, S., O'Barr, J. F., & Roberts, T. (2011). Bringing back the body: A retrospective on the development of objectification theory. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 35*(4)*,* 689-696. doi: 10.1177/0361684311426690

Frederickson, B. L., & Roberts, T. (1997). Objectification theory: Toward understanding women's lived experiences and mental health risks. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 21,* 173-206.

Frederickson, B. L., Roberts, T., Noll, S. M., Quinn, D. M., & Twenge, J. M. (1998). That swimsuit becomes you: sex differences in self-objectification, restrained eating, and math performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*(1)*,* 269-284.

Fredrickson, B. L., & Noll, S. M. (1998). A mediation model linking self-objectification, body shame, and disordered eating. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 22*, 623–636.

Freedman, R. (1986). *Beauty bound*. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath.

Gervais, S. J., Vescio, T. K., & Allen, J. (2011). When what you see is what you get: The consequences of the objectifying gaze for women and men. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 35*(1)*,* 5-17. doi: 10.1177/0361684310386121

Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality. *American Psychologist, 56,* 109-118.

Graham, J. M. (2010). Measuring love in romantic relationships: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 28*(6)*,* 748-771. doi: 10.1177/0265407510389126

Greenwood, D. N., Pietromonaco, P. R., & Long, C. R. (2008). Young women's attachment style and interpersonal engagement with female TV stars. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 25,* 387-407. doi: 10.1177/0265407507087964

Hadden, B. W., Smith, C. V., & Webster, G. D. (2014). Relationship duration moderates associations between attachment and relationship quality: Meta-analytic support for the temporal adult romantic attachment model. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 18*(1)*,* 42-58.

Haines, M. E., Erchull, M. J., Liss, M., Turner, D. L., Nelson, J. A., Ramsey L. R., & Hurt, M. M. (2008). Predictors and effects of self-objectification in lesbians. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 32,* 181-187. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.2008.00422.x

Hammond, M. D., & Overall, N. C. (2013a). Men's hostile sexism and biased perceptions of intimate partners: Fostering dissatisfaction and negative behavior in close relationships. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 39*(12)*,* 1585-1599. doi: 10.1177/0146167213499026

Hammond, M. D., & Overall, N. C. (2013b). When relationships do not live up to benevolent ideals: Women's benevolent sexism and sensitivity to relationship problems. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 43,* 212-223. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.1939

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. (1987). Romantic love conceptualized as an attachment process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52(3),* 511-524. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.52.3.511

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. R. (1994). Attachment as an organizational framework for research on close relationships. *Psychological Inquiry, 5*(1)*,* 1-22.

Hendrick, S. S. (1988). A generic measure of relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, (50),* 93–98.

Hendrick, S. S., Dicke, A., & Hendrick, C. (1998). The relationship assessment scale. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 15*(1)*,* 137-142. doi: 10.1177/0265407598151009

Hendrick, S. S., Hendrick, C., & Adler, N. L. (1988). Romantic relationships: Love, satisfaction, and staying together. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6)*,* 980-988.

Hoyt, T. (2013). The object of desire: How being objectified creates sexual pressure for heterosexual women in relationships. *Undergraduate Review, 9,* 62-67.

Jackson, J. B., Miller, R. B., Oka, M., & Henry, R. G. (2014). Gender differences in marital satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 76,* 105-129. doi: 10.1111/jomf.12077

Johnson, P. J., McCreary, D. R., & Mills, J. S. (2007). Effects of exposure to objectified male and female media images on men's psychological well-being. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 8*(2)*,* 95-102. doi: 10.1037/1524-9220.8.2.95

Jory, B., Anderson, D., & Greer, C. (1997). Intimate justice: Confronting issues of accountability, respect, and freedom in treatment for abuse and violence. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 23*(4)*,* 399-419.

Kane, H. S., Jaremka, L. M., Guichard, A. C., Ford, M. B., Collins, N. L., & Feeney, B. C. (2007). Feeling supported and feeling satisfied: How one's partner's attachment style predicts the other partner's relationship experiences. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 24*(4)*,* 535-555. doi: 10.1177/0265407507079245

Kobak, R. R., & Sceery, A. (1988). Working models, affect regulation, and representations of self and others. *Child Development, 59,* 135-146.

Kozak, M., Frankenhauser, H., & Roberts, T. (2009). Objects of desire: Objectification as a function of male sexual orientation. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 10*(3)*,* 225-230. doi: 10.1037/a0016257

Kozee, H. B., & Tylka, T. L. (2006). A test of objectification theory with lesbian women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 30,* 348-357. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.2006.00310.x

Kurdek, L. A. (2004). Are gay and lesbian cohabiting couples *really* different from heterosexual married couples? *Journal of Marriage and Family, 66,* 880-900.

Kurdek, L. A., & Schmitt, P. (1986). Relationship quality of partners in heterosexual married, heterosexual cohabitating, and gay and lesbian relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(4)*,* 711-720.

Li, T., & Chan, D. K. (2012). How anxious and avoidant attachment affect romantic relationship quality differently. A meta-analysis review. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 42,* 406-419. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.1842

Little, K. C., McNulty, J. K., & Russell, V. M. (2010). Sex buffers intimates against the

negative implications of attachment insecurity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 36*(4)*,* 484-498. doi: 10.1177/0146167209352494

Liu, Y. (2006). Paternal/maternal attachment, peer support, social expectations of peer interaction, and depressive symptoms. *Adolescence, 41*(164)*,* 705-721.

Loughnan, S., Pina, A., Vasquez, E. A., & Puvia, E. (2013). Sexual objectification increases rape victim blame and decreases perceived suffering. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 37*(4)*,* 455-461. doi: 10.1177/0361684313485718

Lowyck, B., Luyten, P., Demyttenaere, K., & Corveleyn, J. (2008). The role of romantic attachment and self-criticism and dependency for the relationship satisfaction of community adults. *Journal of Family Therapy, 30,* 78-95.

Lucas, T., Parkhill, M. R., Wendorf, C. A., Imamoglu, E. O., Weisfeld, C. C., Weisfeld, G. E., & Shen, J. (2008). Cultural and evolutionary components of marital satisfaction: A multidimensional assessment of measurement invariance. *Journal of Cross-cultural Psychology, 39*(1)*,* 109-123. doi: 10.1177/0022022107311969

Markey, C. N., & Markey, P. M. (2014). Gender, sexual orientation, and romantic partner influence on body image: An examination of heterosexual and lesbian women and their partners. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 3*(2)*,* 162-177. doi: 10.1177/0265407513489472

McCarthy, G. (1999). Attachment style and adult love relationships and friendships: A study of a group of women at risk of experiencing relationship difficulties. *British Journal of Medical Psychology, 72,* 305-321.

McFarland, M. B., & Petrie, T. A. (2012). Male body satisfaction: Factorial and construct validity of the body parts satisfaction scale for men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 59*(2)*,* 329-337. doi: 10.1037/a0026777

McKinley, N. M., & Hyde, J. S. (1996). The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale: Development and validation. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 20,* 181-215.

Mercurio, A. E., & Landry, L. J. (2008). Self-objectification and well-being: The impact of

self-objectification on women's overall sense of self-worth and life satisfaction. *Sex Roles, 58,* 458-466. doi: 10.1007/s11199-007-9357-3

Meltzer, A. L., & McNulty, J. K. (2014). "Tell me I'm sexy . . . and otherwise valuable": Body valuation and relationship satisfaction. *Personal Relationships, 21,* 68-87. doi: 10.1111/pere.12018

Meltzer, A. L., McNulty, J. K., Jackson, G. L., & Karney, B. R. (2014). Sex differences in the implications of partner physical attractiveness for the trajectory of marital satisfaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 106*(3)*,* 418-428. doi: 10.1037/a0034424

Meyers, S. A., & Landsberger, S. A. (2002). Direct and indirect pathways between adult attachment style and marital satisfaction. *Personal Relationships, 9,* 159-172.

Mohr, J. J., Selterman, D., & Fassinger, R. E. (2013). Romantic attachment and relationship functioning in same-sex couples. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 60*(1)*,* 72-82. doi: 10.1037/a0030994

Mondor, J., McDuff, P., Lussier, Y., & Wright, J. (2011). Couples in therapy: Actor-partner analyses of the relationships between adult romantic attachment and martial satisfaction. *The American Journal of Family Therapy, 39,* 112-123. doi: 10.1080/01926187.2010.530163

Moradi, B., Dirks, D., & Matteson, A. V. (2005). Roles of sexual objectification experiences and internalization of standards of beauty in eating disorder symptomatology: A test and extension of objectification theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(3)*,* 420-428. doi: 10.1037/0022-0167.52.3.420

Moradi, B., & Huang, Y. (2008). Objectification theory and psychology of women: A decade of advances and future directions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 32,* 377-398.

Muehlenkamp, J. J., & Saris-Baglama, R. N. (2002). Self-objectification and its psychological outcomes for college women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 26,* 371-379. doi: 10.1111/1471-6402.t01-1-00076

Murnen, S. K., & Smolak, L. (2009). Are feminist women protected from body image

problems? A meta-analytic review of relevant research. *Sex Roles, 60,* 186-197. doi: 10.1007/s11199-008-9523-2

Noll, S. M., & Frederickson, B. L. (1998). Linking self-objectification, body shame, and disordered eating. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 22,* 623-636.

Norsko, A., Tieu, T., Lawford, H., & Pratt, M. W. (2011). How do I love thee? Let me count the ways: Parenting during adolescence, attachment styles, and romantic narratives in emerging adulthood. *Developmental Psychology, 47*(3)*,* 645-657. doi: 10.1037/a0021814

Ogolsky, B. G., & Bowers, J. R. (2012). A meta-analytic review of relationship maintenance and its correlates. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 30*(3)*,* 343-367. doi: 10.1177/0265407512463338

Oswald, D. L., Franzoi, S. L., & Frost, K. A. (2012). Experiencing sexism and young women's body esteem. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 31*(10)*,* 1112-1137.

Overstreet, N. M., & Quinn, D. M. (2012). Contingencies of self-worth and appearance concerns: Do domains of self-worth matter? *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 36*(3)*,* 314-325. doi: 10.1177/0361684311435221

Paulhus, D. L. (1984). Two-component models of socially desirable responding. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*(3)*,* 598-609.

Paulhus, D. L. (1991) Measurement and control of response bias. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes (*pp. 17-59). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Rauer, A. J., Karney, B. R., Garvan, C. W., & Hou, W. (2008). Relationship risks in context: A cumulative risk approach to understanding relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 70,* 1122-1135.

Russell, R. J. H., & Wells, P. A. (1986). *Marriage questionnaire*. Unpublished booklet.

Russell, R. J. H., & Wells, P. A. (1993). *Marriage and relationship questionnaire: MARQ handbook*. Kent, UK: Hodder and Stoughton.

Sanchez, D. T., & Broccoli, T. L. (2008). The romance of self-objectification: Does priming romantic relationships induce states of self-objectification among women? *Sex Roles, 59,* 545-554. doi: 10.1007/s11199-008-9451-1

Sanchez, D. T., Good, J. J., Kwang, T., & Saltzman, E. (2008). When finding a mate feels urgent: Why relationship contingency predicts men's and women's body shame. *Social Psychology, 39*(2)*,* 90-102. doi: 10.1027/1864-9335.39.2.90

Sanchez, D. T., Moss-Racusin, C. A., Phelan, J. E., & Crocker, J. (2011). Relationship contingency and sexual motivation in women: Implications for sexual satisfaction. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 40,* 99-110. doi: 10.1007/s10508-009-9593-4

Schachner, D. A., & Shaver, P. R. (2004). Attachment dimensions and sexual motives. *Personal Relationships, 11,* 179-195.

Schmitt, M. T., Branscombe, N. R., Postmes, T., & Garcia, A. (2014). The consequences of perceived discrimination for psychological well-being: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin.* doi: 10.1037/a0035754

Shi, L. (2003). The association between adult attachment styles and conflict resolution in romantic relationships. *The American Journal of Family Therapy, 31,* 143-157. doi: 10.1080/01926180390167142

Sibley, C. G., & Becker, J. C. (2012). On the nature of sexist ambivalence: Profiling ambivalent and univalent sexists. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 42,* 589-601. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.1870

Simpson, J. A. (1990). Influence of attachment styles on romantic relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*(5), 971–980. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.59.5.971

Sinclair, S. L. (2006). Object lessons: A theoretical and empirical study of objectified body consciousness in women. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 28*(1)*,* 48-68.

Stanley, S. M., Markman, H. J., & Whitton, S. W. (2002). Communication, conflict, and

commitment: Insights on the foundations of relationship success from a national survey. *Family Process, 41*(4)*,* 659-675.

Steer, A., & Tiggemann, M. (2008). The role of self-objectification in women's sexual functioning. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 27*(3)*,* 205-225.

Strelan, P., & Hargreaves, D. (2005). Women who objectify other women: The vicious circle of objectification? *Sex Roles, 52*, 707–712. doi: 10.1007/s11199-005-3737-3

Szymanski D. M., & Carr, E. R. (2010). Underscoring the need for social justice initiatives concerning the sexual objectification of women. *The Counseling Psychologist, 39*(1)*,* 164-170. doi: 10.1177/0011000010384512

Szymanski, D. M., Carr, E. R., & Moffitt, L. B. (2010). Sexual objectification of women: Clinical implications and training considerations. *The Counseling Psychologist, 39*(1)*,* 107-126. doi: 10.1177/0011000010378450

Szymanski, D. M., Moffitt, L. B., & Carr, E. R. (2010). Sexual objectification of women: Advances to theory and research. *The Counseling Psychologist, 39*(1)*,* 6-38. doi: 10.1177/0011000010378402

Tiggemann, M., & Williams, E. (2012). The role of self-objectification in disordered eating, depressed mood, and sexual functioning among women: A comprehensive test of objectification theory. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 36*(1)*,* 66-75. doi: 10.1177/0361684311420250

Timm, T. M., & Keiley, M. K. (2011). The effects of differentiation of self, adult attachment, and sexual communication on sexual and marital satisfaction: A path analysis. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy, 37,* 206-223. doi: 10.1080/0092623X.2011.564513

Treboux, D., Crowell, J. A., & Waters, E. (2004). When "new" meets "old": Configurations of adult attachment representations and their implications for marital functioning. *Developmental Psychology, 40*(2)*,* 295-314. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.40.2.295

Vaughn, M. J., & Baier, M. E. M. (1999). Reliability and validity of the Relationship Assessment Scale. *The American Journal of Family Therapy, 27*(2)*,* 137-147.

Walster, E., Aronson, V., Abrahams, D., & Rottman, L. (1966). Importance of physical attractiveness in dating behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 4,* 508–516. doi: 10.1037/h0021188

Watson, L. B., Robinson, D., Dispenza, F., & Nazari, N. (2012). African American women's sexual objectification experiences: A qualitative study. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 36*(4)*,* 458-475. doi: 10.1177/0361684312454724

Woodin, E. M. (2011). A two-dimensional approach to relationship conflict: Meta-analytic findings. *Journal of Family Psychology, 25*(3)*,* 325-335. doi: 10.1037/a0023791

Zubriggen, E. L., Ramsey, L. R., & Jaworski, B. K. (2011). Self- and partner-objectification in romantic relationships: Associations with media consumption and relationship satisfaction. *Sex Roles, 64,* 449-462. doi: 10.1007/s11199-011-9933-4

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEXUAL OBJECTIFICATION AND SELF-OBJECTIFICATION, ADULT ROMANTIC ATTACHMENT, AND RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION

By

EMILIA D. SHINNE, M.A.

May 2016

Advisor: Libby Balter Blume, Ph.D., CFLE

Major: Psychology (Clinical)

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Body of abstract:

Sexual objectification has been shown to result in numerous negative consequences (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997). Yet, research on sexual objectification in romantic relationships is limited. The present study investigated sexual objectification among a sample of 140 individuals in committed romantic relationships. The study investigated whether sexual objectification of oneself and one's romantic partner accounted for the variance in relationship satisfaction, after accounting for the variance in relationship satisfaction attributable to attachment. The initial hypothesis predicted that attachment type, level of partner-objectification, and level of self-objectification would be associated with relationship satisfaction. Results indicated that partner-objectification and attachment style, but not self-objectification, significantly predicted relationship satisfaction. The study hypothesized that men would engage in partner-objectification more than women and women would self-objectify more than men. Results indicated that gender had a significant effect on self-objectification; women engaged in self-objectification more than men. The study sought to

explore whether main variables differed due to sexual orientation. Interestingly, attachment, partner-objectification, self-objectification, and relationship satisfaction did not differ based on participants' sexual orientation. Results suggest that the relational processes involved in forming attachments, susceptibility to self- and partner-objectification, and relationship satisfaction in a romantic partnership are similar among heterosexuals and sexual minorities. Last, the study found no correlation between level of physical attractiveness and partner-objectification. This finding indicates that physical attractiveness and sexual objectification are separate constructs, and that individuals of various levels of attractiveness are susceptible to objectification. The present study highlights aspects that promote relationship satisfaction, while exploring the complex role of sexual objectification in the context of romantic relationships.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

I will earn my Doctor of Philosophy degree in Clinical Psychology from the University of Detroit Mercy in 2016. I earned my Master of Arts degree in Clinical Psychology at the University of Detroit Mercy in 2013. I completed my Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology and Media and Cultural Studies at the University of California, Riverside in 2010. Currently, I am completing my APA-accredited clinical psychology internship at the Louis Stokes Cleveland Veterans Affairs Medical Center. I have also accepted a postdoctoral fellowship position at the Jerry L. Pettis Memorial Veteran Affairs Medical Center in Loma Linda, California, in the Posttraumatic Stress Disorder/Trauma Recovery Services emphasis area.

I successfully defended this dissertation in September 2015. Prior to this, I was involved in research investigating the utility of role-playing on self-perceived comfort level in discussing sexual issues, presenting posters twice at the University of Detroit Mercy Faculty and Student Research Symposium and Poster Fair. My clinical interests continue to grow, but include serving underserved and diverse populations, trauma-focused care, recovery and resiliency, evidence-based practices, health promotion and disease prevention, and increasing access to quality treatment.

I am excited to return to California to further my training and be near family (especially my eleven young nieces and nephews whom I adore). I am extremely grateful for my family who has always been supportive of my passion to pursue a career in clinical psychology.