

Jealousy in Close Relationships: Personal, Relational, and Situational Variables

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SUMMARY

Purpose: In this study, the effects of personal, situational, and relational variables (such as age, gender, gender role orientation, duration of relationship, relational satisfaction, and physical attractiveness of the partner) on jealousy are investigated.

Methods: A sample of 454 individuals currently involved in dating or marital relationships (48% married, 52% unmarried) completed the Romantic Jealousy Questionnaire, Bem Sex Role Inventory, and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Stepwise regression analyses and 2 (gender) x 2 (gender role orientation) x 2 (relational type) ANOVA's were submitted for analyzing the data.

Results: Analysis indicated that unmarried people reported higher levels of jealousy than married people ($F_{1-446} = 5.029$). Married women reported less jealousy than unmarried women and married women reported more jealousy than married men. Age, relational satisfaction level, expectation level about the duration of the relationship, and physical attractiveness of the partner were unique predictors of the reported level of jealousy ($R^2 = 0.12$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.11$; $P < 0.05$). Women reported that they have more physical, emotional, and cognitive responses to jealousy compared to men. Women reported that they use more constructive ($F_{1-446} = 6.27$) and less destructive strategies than men ($F_{1-446} = 6.27$). Unmarried people reported that they use more destructive strategies than married people ($F_{1-446} = 3.84$). Age, self-esteem, and the duration of the relationship were unique predictors of coping strategies.

Conclusion: The present study revealed that jealousy was a multidimensional variable. In particular, relational type, self-esteem, age, relational satisfaction, and sex are highly correlated with jealousy.

Key Words: Jealousy, close relationships, self-esteem, gender role orientation

INTRODUCTION

Jealousy is regarded as one of the most intense, prevalent, and wearisome feelings in intimate relationships (Aune and Comstock, 1991). Jealousy is among the problems that are emphasized in marriage research and therapies (Buunk, 1981; Guerrero and Eloy, 1992). Philosophy, literature, sociology, anthropology, especially social and clinical psychological literature, provide rich examples related to jealousy.

Following the first theoretical analysis of jealousy by Kurt Lewin (1948), it is observed that jealousy was not emphasized much until the 1980's (Pines and Aronson, 1983). In recent years, studies began to examine the relationship between jealousy and self-esteem, attachment, and similar variables, both in Turkey and in other countries (Karakurt, 2001; Öner, 2001; Sharpsteen and Kirkpatrick, 1997).

Jealousy is associated with various different words, meanings, and images (Demirtaş, 2004a). According to Pines (1998, p. 2), jealousy is a complicated reaction in response to a perceived threat, which would end or destroy a relationship that is considered important. According to Buunk and Bringle (1987, s.124), jealousy is an unpleasant emotional reaction based on the relationship between an individual's current or previous partner and a third person. According to DeSteno and Salovey (1996, p. 921), jealousy is a deviant state of mood that is elevated when a relationship that is considered important is actually destroyed or is at risk, and is characterized by feelings of anger, un-

happiness, and fear.

As it can be understood from all the above definitions, jealousy is not a simple concept, but a combination of emotions and reactions. Therefore, it is more reasonable to evaluate jealousy as a multidimensional and multifactorial experience (Mathes, 1992; Pines, 1992; White, 1981a). It is seen that many studies conducted in the last few years have taken this approach. For this reason, it is worthwhile to examine the relationship between jealousy and related variables in the light of the related literature.

The relationship between jealousy and gender has received the attention of much research, but the obtained results are controversial. In their research, Pines and Aronson (1983) asked for the level of jealousy of the participants on a 7-point scale, and their findings indicated that there were no significant differences between men and women in terms of the level of jealousy. Pines and Friedman (1998) also could not find a difference between men and women in terms of level of jealousy. It is obvious that, more research is needed in order to make a generalization about this issue.

Many studies have shown that women follow more constructive strategies when coping with jealousy in comparison to men (Brehm, 1992; Carson and Cupach, 2000; Mathes, 1992). According to Bryson (1991), individuals determine their ways of coping with jealousy according to 2 basic motives; preserving the relationship and preserving self-esteem. Bryson (1991) tested this hypothesis, which he based on the socialization process, and in contrast to expectations, found that women, like men, try to preserve their self-esteem.

Rusbult (1987) also suggested that in situations that would create problems in the relationship, such as jealousy, women, with their tendency to preserve the relationship, engage in more constructive coping methods (for example; rational discussion, efforts to improve the relationship), whereas men would choose more destructive methods with their tendencies to preserve their self-esteem (for example; shouting, violence, or terminating the relationship), however this assumption was not supported with the research findings.

Many studies found significant differences in reactions towards jealousy in terms of gender (Buunk et al., 1996; Erber and Erber, 2001; Shettel-Neuber, Bryson, and Young, 1978). These stud-

ies showed that women's physical reactions are more prone to emotionality, whereas men's physical reactions are more prone to hostility.

Canary and Hause (1993), in the results of a meta-analysis that covered 1200 research studies, found that gender, and thus, "gender role orientation", is more predictive than biological sex. The concept of gender role orientation has been proposed as a reaction to the approach that considers the differences between men and women to biological differences. Until the 1970's, femininity and masculinity were considered as 2 opposite sides of a continuum.

According to Bem (1974), who opposes this concept, gender role orientation of the individual is determined by the degree of the characteristics they possess in these 2 dimensions. Individuals who have more femininity and less masculinity have a feminine orientation, whereas individuals in possession of fewer feminine characteristics and more masculine characteristics have a masculine orientation. If an individual has high feminine and masculine characteristics at the same time, he/she is considered androgynous; when an individual has a few characteristics from both groups, they are defined as undifferentiated. On the other hand, feminine and masculine individuals are defined as gender-typed, androgynous and undifferentiated individuals are defined as non-gender-typed.

Gender-typed individuals are motivated in line with the sexual role expectations that are internalized during sexual role socialization. Non-gender-typed individuals are flexible enough to behave appropriately in the condition they are in without worrying about congruity (Bem, 1983).

There are very few studies that examine the relationship between sexual role orientation and jealousy. Bringle et al. (1979) found a positive relationship between femininity and jealousy. Hansen (1982, 1991) found that gender-typed individuals show more jealousy symptoms than non-gender-typed individuals.

Jealousy has been considered the result of low self-esteem and feelings of insufficiency (White, 1991). However, while some research findings support this theory (Buunk, 1982), other studies failed to find a significant relationship between the two (Bringle and Buunk, 1985; Hansen, 1982).

The relationship between jealousy and age is

Table 1. Results of Stepwise Regression Analysis of Expressed Level of Jealousy.

Predicted variables	Predictive variables	Beta	t	p
Expressed Level of Jealousy	Age	-0.19	-4.10	.000
	Future expectancy	0.29	5.30	.000
	Relationship satisfaction	0.20	3.43	.001
	Physical attractiveness of the partner	0.16	3.06	.002

$R^2=0.12$; Adjusted $R^2=0.11$; $P < 0.05$

a negative one according to some research studies (Bringle et al., 1979) and is positive according to others (Bringle and Williams, 1979). Pines and Friedman (1998) proposed that there was no significant relationship between jealousy and age.

In addition, relational variables such as the type of the relationship, relationship satisfaction, and situational variables, such as physical attractiveness of the partner and culture, may affect jealousy.

Buunk (1981) found a negative relationship between jealousy and the duration of the relationship, whereas Aune and Comstock (1997) found this relationship to be positive. Many studies pointed out that the level of jealousy decreases when the satisfaction in a relationship increases (Andersen and Eloy, 1995; Guerrero and Eloy, 1992). However, there are results that show the opposite (Buunk, 1981; Hansen, 1982).

The type of the relationship (married vs. unmarried) is believed to have a close relationship to jealousy. Guerrero et al. (1993) found that unmarried individuals display more intense emotional and cognitive reactions to jealousy in comparison to married individuals. The same research suggested that unmarried individuals use more destructive coping mechanisms than married individuals. Buunk (1981) showed that unmarried women showed more jealousy symptoms than married women.

As described above, it is observed that when previous research studies are considered, there are very few studies that evaluate jealousy with a multidimensional approach (Pines and Aronson, 1983; Pines and Friedman, 1998). In most of the previous studies, jealousy was evaluated in the light of basic variables such as gender (DeSteno and Salovey, 1996), self-esteem (White, 1981b), and

relational satisfaction (Andersen and Eloy, 1995). There is no expansive research that evaluates individual, relational, and situational variables concurrently. The main aim of the present study was to examine the relationship between the dimensions of jealousy and various individual, relational, and situational variables. Within the framework of this general aim, the following questions were asked:

1. Does the level of expressed jealousy change according to gender, gender role orientation (being gender-typed or non-gender-typed), and the type of relationship (married vs. unmarried)?

2. Are age, self-esteem, duration of the relationship, expectation level towards the future, satisfaction level, level of feeling secure in the relationship, degree to which the partner is found attractive, and level of commitment to monogamy predictive of expressed jealousy level?

3. Does the level of emotional and cognitive reactions to jealousy differ according to gender, gender role orientation, and the type of relationship?

4. Are age, self-esteem, duration of the relationship, expectation level towards the future, satisfaction level, level of feeling secure in the relationship, degree to which the partner is found attractive, degree to which one finds others attractive, and level of commitment to monogamy predictive of the level of emotional and cognitive reactions to jealousy?

5. Does the frequency of using destructive or constructive coping strategies differ according to sex, gender role orientation, and the type of relationship?

6. Are age, self-esteem, duration of the relationship, expectation level towards the future, satisfaction level, level of feeling secure in the relationship, degree to which the partner is found

Table II. Results of Stepwise Regression Analysis of Reactions to Jealousy Subscale Scores.

Predicted variables	Predictive variables	Beta	t	p
Physical reactions	Self-esteem	-0.22	-4.84	.000
	Duration of the relationship	-0.16	-3.41	.000
	Attractiveness of others	-0.16	-3.29	.000
	Relationship satisfaction	-0.12	-2.47	.001
$R^2 = 0.10$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.09$, $P < 0.05$				
Emotional reactions	Self-esteem	-0.27	-5.96	.000
	Age	-0.20	-4.51	.001
	Attractiveness of others	-0.11	-2.39	.002
$R^2 = 0.12$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.11$, $P < 0.05$				
Cognitive reactions	Self-esteem	-0.25	-5.42	.000
	Attractiveness of others	-0.16	-3.48	.000
	Age	-0.15	-3.17	.001
$R^2 = 0.10$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.9$, $P < 0.05$				

attractive, degree to which one finds others attractive, and level of commitment to monogamy predictive of the frequency of using destructive or constructive coping mechanisms?

METHODS

Sample

The study population included 454 individuals; of these, 236 were students in various departments of Hacettepe and Başkent Universities, both in Ankara, Turkey, and 218 were married individuals reached by snowball sampling. In all, 48% were married, 52% were not married, 48% were men, and 52% were women. Age range was between 17 and 53 years and mean age was 28.16 years ($SD = 8.65$). The mean age of the married individuals was 34.33 years ($SD = 7.35$) and those not married was 21.98 years ($SD = 0.33$). The duration of the relationship for the married individuals was 117.38 months ($SD = 9.5$) and for unmarried, 27.06 months ($SD = 3.25$).

Data Collection Instruments

Data were collected with a demographic interview form, Romantic Jealousy Questionnaire,

Bem Sex Role Inventory, and Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale.

Demographic Interview Form

The demographics form included questions about the characteristics of the intimate relationship, such as type, duration, and relational satisfaction, in addition to demographic characteristics such as age and gender. Relationship characteristics were measured with a 7-point scale in this form and higher scores correspond to higher measured relational characteristics.

Romantic Jealousy Questionnaire

The Romantic Jealousy Questionnaire (RJQ), developed by Pines and Aronson (1983), is a 7-point Likert type scale: 1: never true for me; 7: always true for me. The scale consists of the following 5 subscales: level of jealousy, reactions to jealousy (physical, emotional, cognitive); jealousy coping ways; the effects of jealousy and causes of jealousy. The Turkish adaptation of RJQ was made by Demirtaş (2004b). In order to evaluate the construct validity of the scale, a factor analysis was carried out and its factor structure was found to be consistent with the original form. In addition,

Table III. Results of Stepwise Regression Analysis Applied to Coping with Jealousy Subscale Scores.

Predicted variables	Predictive variables	Beta	t	p
Constructive methods	Self-esteem	-0.20	-4.33	.000
	Duration of the relationship	-0.14	-3.14	.007
	Monogamy commitment	0.12	2.70	.028
$R^2 = 0.07$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.07$, $P < 0.05$				
Destructive methods	Self-esteem	-0.24	-5.32	.000
	Duration of the relationship	0.21	-4.55	.000
$R^2 = 0.10$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.10$, $P < 0.05$				

the correlation coefficients between this scale and the Attitude Towards Love Scale (Büyüksahin and Hovardaoğlu, 2004) were found to change from 0.13 to 0.47. Cronbach's alpha value of RJQ is 0.92 and split half reliability is 0.72.

Bem Sex Role Inventory

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), developed by Bem (1974), was used in order to determine the gender role orientation of the subjects. BSRI is a 7-point Likert type self-evaluation instrument (Koyuncu, 1983). The scale, which has a total of 60 items, includes 3 subscales: femininity, masculinity and social desirability.

As in many other studies (Dökmen, 1996), the social desirability subscale, which is totally neutral in terms of gender, was excluded from this study and only femininity and masculinity subscales were used.

The reliability and validity of the Turkish version of the form, which was made by Kavuncu in 1987, was established both by Kavuncu (1987) and Dökmen (1992, 1999). In the reliability and validity study by Dökmen (1991), Sex Role Scale developed by Kandiyoti (1982) was used as a criteria, and significant relationships were found between the femininity and masculinity subscales of this scale and BSRI for femininity ($r = 0.51$) and for masculinity ($r = 0.63$). The split half reliability of the scale is 0.77 for femininity and 0.71 for masculinity (Dökmen, 1991).

The inventory requires participants to rate themselves on a 7-point scale and answers to the items on the subscales are added up. After this step, the

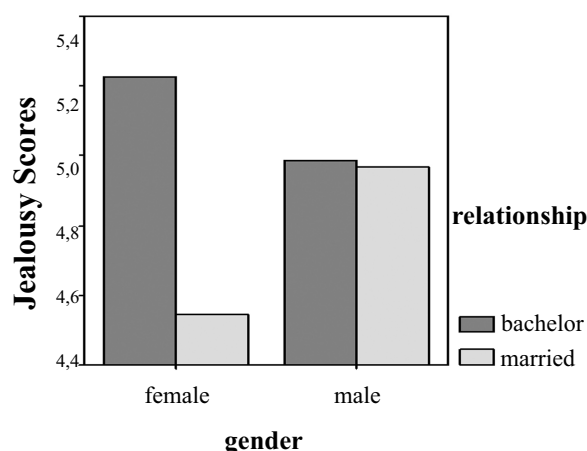
mean of the femininity and masculinity scores are computed. Subjects whose femininity scores are above the population mean and masculinity scores below the population mean are rated as feminine and subjects whose masculinity scores are above the population mean and femininity scores are below the population mean are rated as masculine; subjects whose femininity and masculinity scores are both above the mean are rated as androgynous; subjects whose femininity and masculinity scores are below the mean are classified as undifferentiated individuals. On the other hand, masculine and feminine individuals are classified as gender-typed; androgynous and undifferentiated individuals are defined as non-gender-typed.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

The scale, which was developed by Rosenberg (1965) and includes 63 items, has 12 subscales. The scale is a 4-point Likert type composed of 10 items (1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree) and 5 of the questions are reverse coded.

The test retest reliability of the Turkish adaptation of the scale conducted by Çuhadaroğlu (1986) is 0.89, and its reliability is 0.71. The reliability and validity study of the scale was conducted by Tuğrul (1994), and the correlation between the scale and psychiatric interview results was 0.71. In the reliability and validity study conducted with adolescents, Dereboy et al. (1994) showed that the internal reliability of this scale is high. Sümer and Güngör (1999) found the Cronbach's alpha value of the scale to be 0.85.

FIGURE 1. Bar Graph of Gender and Relationship Type Interaction Effect According to the Variance Analysis Conducted on the Expressed Level of Jealousy Scores.



Procedure

University students filled out the data collection forms in their classrooms. Participants who were recruited by snowball sampling were contacted by 5 Başkent University Faculty of Communication students who were trained in the data collection procedure of the study.

Statistical Analyses

Two separate variance analyses, in line with a 2 (sex) x 2 (gender role orientation) x 2 (type of the relationship) design, were applied to the data in order to determine the differences between level of jealousy, reactions to jealousy, and coping ways, with jealousy expressed by the participants in terms of gender, gender role orientation, and type of the relationship. In order to find variables predictive of the differences between the level of jealousy, reactions to jealousy, and coping ways with jealousy expressed by the participants, stepwise regression analyses were conducted. Analyses were carried out by using performed with SPSS 10.0, and $P = 0.05$ was considered significant for all analyses.

FINDINGS

Findings of the analyses are given below under the subheadings.

Findings regarding the expressed level of jealousy

Variance analysis, in line with a 2 (sex) x 2 (gender role orientation) x 2 (type of the relationship) design, was applied to the data in order to

determine the differences between the expressed level of jealousy, in terms of sex, gender role orientation, and type of the relationship.

The analysis showed that only the type of relationship main effect was significant ($F_{1-446} = 5.029$). The difference between the level of jealousy expressed by married individuals ($X = 4.71$) and unmarried individuals ($X = 5.13$) was significant. According to the results of the analysis, interaction effect between gender and type of the relationship was also significant ($F_{1-446} = 4.206$). The source of this interaction effect was explored by using the Tukey-Kramer test.

According to the findings, the difference between the level of mean jealousy score of married women ($X = 4.54$) and unmarried women ($X = 5.23$) was significant ($q_{2-446} = 4.93$). In addition, married women ($X = 4.97$) found themselves more jealous than married men ($X = 4.54$) ($q_{2-446} = 3.07$). A bar graph of the findings is presented in Figure 1.

In terms of level of jealousy, only gender and gender role orientation main effects and the interaction effect between gender and the type of the relationship were significant.

Stepwise regression analyses were carried out on the basis of age, self-esteem, duration of the relationship, expectation level towards future, satisfaction level, level of feeling secure in the relationship, degree to which the partner is found to be attractive, degree to which one finds others attractive, and level of commitment to monogamy in order to find the predictive variables of expressed level of jealousy. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 1.

The first variables that were entered into the regression equation were age, level of expectation of the future, satisfaction level, and degree to which the partner is found attractive, in the same order. The role of these 4 variables in the total variance was 12% and this value was significant ($F_{4-450} = 15.30$). Adjusted R^2 value was 0.11.

Findings regarding to the level of emotional and cognitive reactions during jealousy

The results of the variance analysis showed that the main effects of gender ($F_{1-446} = 8.514$) and the type of the relationship ($F_{1-446} = 4.71$) were significant in terms of physical reactions to jealousy. The women's mean ($X = 2.76$) was significantly higher

than the men's ($X = 2.45$), and the mean of unmarried individuals ($X = 2.75$) was significantly higher than unmarried individuals. The relationships between gender role orientation main effect and all interaction effects were not significant.

Only gender ($F_{1-446} = 12.794$) and the type of the relationship ($F_{1-446} = 10.453$) main effects were found to be significant on the scored level of emotional reactions to jealousy, according to the results of variance analysis. This finding demonstrated that women ($X = 2.9$) showed more emotional reactions to jealousy than men ($X = 2.5$), and unmarried individuals showed more emotional reactions to jealousy than ($X = 3.7$) married individuals ($X = 2.8$).

Only the gender main effect was found to be significant in terms of cognitive reactions ($F_{1-446} = 14.91$). The mean of women ($X = 3.20$) was significantly higher than men ($X = 2.80$).

The findings of the regression analysis conducted in order to determine the variables that predict the physical, emotional, and cognitive reactions during the jealousy, are provided in Table 2.

The best predictors of physical, emotional, and cognitive reactions to jealousy were self-esteem, duration of the relationship, the degree to which one finds others attractive, and satisfaction level. The role of these 4 variables in the total variance was 10% and this value was significant ($F_{4-450} = 12.70$). Adjusted R^2 value was 0.09.

The best predictors of the level of emotional reactions to jealousy were self-esteem, age, and the degree to which one finds others attractive. The role of these three variables in the total variance was 12% and this value was significant ($F_{3-451} = 19.99$). Adjusted R^2 value was 0.11.

The best predictors of the level of cognitive reactions to jealousy were self-esteem, age, and the degree to which one finds others attractive. The role of these 3 variables in the total variance was 10% and this value was significant ($F_{3-451} = 15.74$). Adjusted R^2 value was 0.09.

Findings regarding ways of coping with jealousy

A variance analysis was computed in order to determine the differences attributed to gender, gender role orientation and relationship type in using constructive coping strategies for jealousy.

The analysis showed that gender main effect was significant ($F_{1-446} = 18.98$). The difference between women's mean ($X = 3.10$) and men's mean ($X = 2.68$) was significant. Variance analysis showed that the type of relationship main effect is significant on the scores of using constructive methods ($F_{1-446} = 3.84$). The mean of married individuals ($X = 3.02$) was higher than unmarried individuals ($X = 2.84$).

The variance analysis showed that gender main effect was significant on the scores of using destructive strategies ($F_{1-446} = 6.27$). The difference between women's scores ($X = 1.92$) and men's scores ($X = 2.02$) was significant. Variance analysis showed that the type of relationship main effect is significant on the scores of using destructive methods ($F_{1-446} = 10.28$). The mean score of using destructive methods of unmarried individuals ($X = 2.16$) was higher than married individuals ($X = 1.87$).

A stepwise regression analysis was performed in order to determine predictors of ways of coping with jealousy using constructive coping strategies (Table 3).

As presented in Table 3, the best predictors of ways of coping with jealousy with constructive strategies were self-esteem, duration of the relationship, and level of commitment to monogamy. The role of these 3 variables in the total variance was 7% and this value was significant ($F_{3-451} = 11.85$). Adjusted R^2 value was 0.07.

The best predictors of using destructive coping strategies were self-esteem, and the duration of the relationship. The role of these 2 variables was 10% and this value was significant ($F_{2-452} = 25.92$). Adjusted R^2 value was 0.10.

DISCUSSION

In this study, gender did not have an effect on expressed level of jealousy. This finding is consistent with those of Pines and Aronson (1983) and Pines and Freidman (1998).

Similarly, it was found that gender-typed or non-gender-typed individuals did not differ on the expressed level of jealousy. This finding is not consistent with the findings of Hansen (1982, 1991) and Bringle et al. (1979). Gender role orientation main effect and gender/gender role orientation interaction effect were not significant in terms of expressed level of jealousy. This finding is important as there

are no previous studies that directly explored the relationships between the presented variables and the level of expressed jealousy using the same method.

Unmarried individuals were more jealous than married individuals. There are no previous studies exploring the type of relationship and expressed level of jealousy. This conclusion becomes more significant when considered together with the relationships between the type of relationship and level of jealousy, which will be presented below. In addition, the level of jealousy expressed by unmarried women was higher than married women. Buunk (1981) also found the same results and explained this finding to be the result of marriage increasing the feeling of safety in married women. On the other hand, married women expressed higher levels of jealousy than married men. Buunk (1981) also stated that he expected higher levels of jealousy in women than men in the marriage relationship. According to him, men are polygamists and can easily be attracted to other women when there is a problem in the relationship.

There was a negative relationship between the level of jealousy and age. This finding is consistent with previous research findings (Bringle et al., 1979; Bringle and Williams, 1979; Mathes et al., 1982). In addition, Sullivan (1953) also contends that jealousy decreases with age and maturation. The reason for this, as Mathes (1992) also stated, might be increased relationship experience with age.

Another important finding was the positive relationship between relationship satisfaction and expressed level of jealousy. As mentioned in the introduction, there are controversial findings on the issue in the literature. According to the social interaction theory, the positive relationship between 2 variables can be explained as individuals with higher levels of satisfaction have more to lose when the relationship ends; as they gain more from the relationship, they feel more jealous.

In addition, as the physical attractiveness of the partner increases, the level of jealousy increases. The reason for this might be the increase in the severity of the appraisal of the relationship being under threat, due to the rewarding nature of physical attractiveness of the partner. According to the transactional approach, jealousy emerges as a result of the danger of loss or a decrease of the rewards gained from the relationship.

In cases of jealousy, it was found that women showed more physical, emotional, and cognitive reactions than men. This finding is compatible with the findings of Pines and Aronson (1983). Furthermore, as stated earlier, many other studies stated similar conclusions (Clanton and Smith, 1977; Shetel-Neuber et al., 1978). It was found that unmarried individuals had more emotional reactions to jealousy in comparison to married individuals. This finding is consistent with the findings of Guerrero et al. (1993). This can be explained by the possibility that marriage increases self-confidence, with respect to both the partner and the relationship.

In cases of jealousy, the level of reaction to jealousy increases as the self-esteem decreases. This finding can be related to individuals with low self-esteem being more prone to getting hurt by such experiences.

In addition, according to the findings, the severity of physical, emotional, and cognitive reactions to jealousy decrease as the duration of the relationship increases. This finding, which is compatible with other research findings, is an expected finding, if it is believed that as the duration of the relationship increases the level of trust in the partner and relationship increases. According to Buunk (1981), as the duration of the relationship increases, the belief that the partner will stay in the relationship despite problems or a third person strengthens. Furthermore, as Perlman and Duck (1987) also stated, effects of age and decrease of perceived attractiveness of the partner steps in as the duration of the relationship increases.

Findings of the study revealed that women tend to use more constructive ways of coping with jealousy than men, whereas men tend to use more destructive ways of coping. In many studies, it was concluded that when jealous, women follow more constructive strategies (rational discussion, efforts to make the relationship better) than men, and men tend to use more destructive methods, such as shouting or physical violence. Of note, Bryson (1991) and Rusbult (1987) presented an important explanation of this finding and stated that the reason for this difference is that men are more success oriented, whereas women are more relationship oriented.

Compatible with previous findings (Guerrero et al., 1993), we found that the type of the relationship affected the adapted jealousy coping strategies. Married individuals tended to use more constructive

strategies of coping with jealousy than unmarried individuals, whereas unmarried individuals tended to use more destructive strategies of coping than married individuals. According to the transactional approach, an individual who is in a relationship that requires investment has expectancies about future results; therefore, if the relationship ends or becomes damaged, the possibility of facing a loss becomes apparent. It is obvious that in marriage there are more future expectations and investments in comparison to other types of relationships (especially economic and time investment) (Bringle, 1991).

There was a positive relationship between self-esteem and frequency of using destructive strategies, and a negative relationship between constructive strategies. The relationship between these variables was not included in previous research studies. However, especially in the light of explanations of important researchers such as Mead (1977), Sullivan (1953), White (1981a), Bryson (1991), and Rusbult (1987), it seems reasonable to expect destructive coping strategies from low self-esteem individuals.

As the duration of the relationship increases, the frequency of using destructive coping strategies decreased and using constructive mechanisms increased. As Perlman and Duck (1987) also stated, the confidence in self, partner, and relationship increases in long-term relationships, as well as the belief that the partner will stay in the relationship despite experienced problems or third persons strengthens.

On the other hand, culture is one of the most important predictors of jealousy, as it is to many personal characteristic and behavior. Many important theorists stated that jealousy is universal and exists in all cultures, but there are cultural differences in the level, type, and other dimensions (Hupka, 1981;

Mead, 1977). Sociologists working on jealousy stated that culture is one of the main determinants of jealousy and in cultures in which marriage and having a partner is important, and sexuality is restricted and monogamous, the level of jealousy is higher (Davis 1998, Hupka 1981). Although the findings of this research contributed to the understanding of jealousy in Turkish culture, additional comprehensive research that can be generalized to the Turkish culture and cultural comparisons will fill an important gap.

In the light of all this, especially when considering that ineffective responses to jealousy can precipitate the termination of a relationship, it is believed that the findings of this study can provide guidance, especially for clinical studies, because prior to solving a problem, its etiological factors are very important to discern. Findings of this and similar studies regarding jealousy, in particular, with regard to its pathological dimension, provide significant contributions to psychiatry and clinical psychology.

Pathological jealousy is not accentuated in this study, but it is believed that the findings can contribute to the definition of "normal". Pathological jealousy can be defined as the shifting of the related emotions, thoughts, and behaviors from the normal end of the spectrum to an exaggerated end, and includes behaviors such as violence or reactions towards an imagined threat. On the other hand, many researchers stated that the main factors that discriminate between normal and abnormal jealousy are the cultural and societal values of the individual (Pines 1998).

Finally, some relational variables, such as relational satisfaction and attractiveness of the others, were assessed using a single question. Considering the limits of this study, development of new assessment tools that measure the stated variables for adaptation into Turkish are recommended.

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