Attachment Anxiety, Attachment Avoidance, Generalized Anxiety, and Social Anxiety Predict Attractiveness Devaluation: How Individuals in Relationships Manage the Relationship Threat Posed by Attractive Alternatives

by

Caelin White

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Department of Psychology

University of Manitoba

Winnipeg

Abstract

Research on the devaluation of attractive alternatives has consistently shown that the strength of one's relationship commitment can influence an individual's judgements about the attractiveness of a potential mate. Specifically, depending on a person's degree of relationship commitment, he or she may devalue the physical attractiveness of that alternative as a means of minimizing the perceived threat to his or her relationship. Because the devaluation process is argued to operate as a function of perceived relationship threat, I hypothesized that in addition to the beholder's relationship commitment, the beholder's attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, social anxiety, and generalized anxiety should also predict attractiveness devaluation, since a heightened perception of threat is a shared feature among these constructs. Additional theoretical rationale for these hypotheses is derived from modern evolutionary theories of attachment, particularly as they pertain to the function of attachment security within mating contexts. Additionally, I hypothesized that these same five variables would predict both relationship quality and relationship break-up six months after initial data collection. Results generally supported all six hypotheses with some important qualifications. Relationship commitment and social anxiety each predicted attractiveness devaluation in female participants only, and attachment anxiety and avoidance predicted devaluation in male participants only. Generalized anxiety also predicted attractiveness ratings for certain targets but only when the two facets of stress and anxiety were used as separate predictors. Moreover, evidence of devaluation was also found for traits other than attractiveness (i.e., interestingness and intelligence) as well as for same-sex targets. Finally, regarding relationship outcomes, participants who scored higher on measures of anxiety also reported being less committed to their relationships on average and had

higher rates of break-up at follow-up. Clinical, social, and research implication of these findings are discussed.

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my parents, Don White and Georgina Dingwell, for their steadfast encouragement and support. Without it, this paper would not have been possible.

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What factors determine whether a person is judged as being attractive or unattractive? Although one might assume that such judgements are based solely on qualities of the person being evaluated, this assumption appears to be incorrect. Indeed, characteristics of the beholder (i.e., the person doing the judging) can also influence whether or not another person is judged as either attractive or unattractive (Ewing, Rhodes, & Pellicano, 2010; Gynther, Davis, & Shake, 1991; Magda & Goodwin, 2008; Neave, Tsang, & Heather, 2008; Penton-Voak & Perrett, 2000).

Perhaps ironically, despite the influence of the beholder's own traits on the judgements he/she makes of others, the real-world consequences of attractiveness judgements are not always or necessarily benign for the other party. They can influence the process of romantic relationship formation and maintenance (Hadjistavropoulos & Genest, 1994; Sergios & Cody, 1985), as well as the beliefs we hold about others (Ashmore, Solomon, & Longo, 1996; Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972; Goldman & Lewis, 1977). These beliefs, in turn, often lead to discrimination against the unattractive when it comes to criminal sentencing (Desrumaux, De Bosscher, & Léoni, 2009; Staley, 2008), job hiring (Gilmore, Beehr, & Love, 1986), and various scenarios involving cooperation (Shinada & Yamagishi, 2014). Compared to attractive individuals, the unattractive are also more frequently victims of bullying, both as children at school (Sweeting & West, 2001) and as adults in the workplace (Scott & Judge, 2013).

Given such evidence, bettering our knowledge of precisely which beholder characteristics influence our judgements of others' attractiveness is imperative if we are to fully understand how romantic relationships are formed and maintained, as well as for understanding when

discrimination against the unattractive is apt to occur. The purpose of the current study was to attempt to contribute such knowledge by (a) investigating whether judgements of attractiveness are influenced by the beholder's relationship commitment, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, social anxiety, and/or generalized anxiety; and by (b) assessing whether these same variables predict relationship status and/or relationship quality at a later date.

In order to provide a theoretical context for this research, a thorough review of the relevant literature is first provided. In the first section, I consider literature relating to the inherent value of attractiveness (and facial attractiveness more specifically) in both general and relationship contexts. I argue this material establishes why the face is such a meaningful and salient target for our attention – particularly during the process of choosing a new romantic partner. In the same section, I also review the commitment calibration paradigm, which posits that a person's degree of relationship commitment can cause him or her to derogate or devalue the attractiveness of others (Lydon, Meana, Sepinwall, Richards, & Mayman, 1999). Because this paradigm is based on the notion that the devaluation process is driven by the beholder's perception of *relationship threat* (i.e., the degree to which a person thinks their relationship is at risk of dissolution), I then argue that individual differences in attachment anxiety and avoidance should *also* lead to the devaluation of attractive alternatives. To support this argument, I review the literature on adult attachment patterns in the second section and explain how differences in beholder attachment anxiety and avoidance should also systematically lead both to differences in relationship protective behaviours, generally, and to the devaluation of facial attractiveness for attractive faces, specifically. In the third section, I identify the connection between anxiety, judgements of others, and attachment security. At the same time, I provide the rationale for why differences in the clinical construct of social anxiety should also lead to meaningful differences in the devaluation of attractive faces, and in the case of generalized anxiety, of targets in general.

In the fourth section, I summarize the theoretical context, objectives, and operational definitions for the current study, and finally, in the fifth section, I outline my six experimental hypotheses.

Factors Influencing Judgements of Facial Attractiveness

Humans have an innate preference for attractive faces (and why). Faces provide us with a wealth of information about others. In general, they serve as the primary mode by which emotion and attention are communicated socially (Bowlby, 1980; Ekman, 1993), a finding that is consistent across cultures (Ekman, 2003, 2005; Ekman, Friesen, & Ellsworth, 1972) highlighting a possible universal information pathway (Darwin, 1872). Studies on early human development and cognitive biases show that from a very young age we are psychologically and physiologically sensitive to detecting and processing the faces of others (Lundqvist & Öhman, 2005; Ristic, Friesen, & Kingstone, 2002). Even babies, within hours of being born, are highly sensitive to detecting others' faces and will preferentially choose to look at them as well as at stimuli that resemble the human face (Goren, Sarty, & Wu, 1975). Humans also appear innately disposed to attend to facial attractiveness. Babies as young as two days old tend to look longer at attractive faces than unattractive ones (Slater et al., 2000), and attractive faces have been found to stimulate reward centers in the brain in adults (Aharon et al., 2001; O'Doherty et al., 2003), suggesting that our innate preference for attractive faces develops very early in life and is not solely a product of socialization.

Of course, judgements of facial attractiveness are more important in some situations than others, and one situation where they are particularly important is when choosing a romantic partner (Hadjistavropoulos & Genest, 1994). Although males tend to place greater importance on physical attractiveness and show a robust tendency to attend to female faces (Rupp & Wallen, 2007), it has been consistently found that both sexes highly value physical attractiveness (Buss, 2003; Feingold, 1990), in some cases even more than intelligence, independence, sensitivity, or

sincerity (Walster, Aronson, Abrahams, & Rottman, 1966)! There is also considerable cross-cultural agreement on which faces are most attractive (e.g., Cunningham, Roberts, Barbee, Druen, & Wu, 1995; Rhodes, 2006; Thornhill & Gangestad, 1999), suggesting that, similar to the innate salience of faces themselves, our shared preferences for certain faces over others is unlikely to result from social learning alone.

In light of the evidence that attractive faces are innately rewarding to us, this begs the question of *why* this is so. A number of explanations have been forwarded, including the claim that this preference is merely a by-product of an innate cognitive bias for prototypical members of a category, which by definition tend to be average and symmetrical (Enquist & Arak, 1994; Enquist, Ghirlanda, Lundqvist, & Wachtmeister, 2002; Halberstadt & Rhodes, 2000, 2003; Halberstadt, Rhodes, & Catty, 2003; Weary & Guilford, 1993). Unfortunately, while this explanation is both logical and empirically supported, it still fails to account for *why* this cognitive bias for certain traits has come to exist in the first place.

One explanation for this effect comes from the evolutionary perspective. Similar to other explanations of adaptation, according to this perspective, innate preferences for certain facial features evolved because these preferences benefitted, on average, the reproductive fitness of those who happened to hold those preferences. Supporting this explanation, attractive facial characteristics (e.g., averageness, symmetry, and sexual dimorphism) have been correlated with a variety of health indicators, including the absence of disease (Fink, Grammer, & Thornhill, 2001; Fink & Penton-Voak, 2002; Nedelec & Beaver, 2014; Thornhill & Gangestad, 1993, 2006), reproductive potential (Thornhill & Gangestad, 1999), longevity (Henderson & Anglin, 2003), high sperm quality (Soler et al., 2003), developmental stability (i.e., fluctuating asymmetry; Livshits & Kobyliansky, 1991), and even desired personality traits (Little, Burt, & Perrett, 2006). The suggestion is that key characteristics of attractive faces (i.e., phenotypic traits) signal hidden

biological information about the genetic health of another person (i.e., the genotype; Gangestad & Thornhill, 1997; Penton-Voak & Perrett, 2000; Rhodes & Zebrowitz, 2002; Symons, 1979; Thornhill & Gangestad, 1993, 1999). Although a detailed understanding of the multiple links between facial attractiveness and aspects of genetic health is not the focus of the research proposed here, the take-away message is that attractiveness of a person likely yields information (albeit implicitly) about his or her quality and value as a potential romantic partner.

Beholder characteristics influence judgements of others' attractiveness. Although there is considerable empirical support demonstrating that specific characteristics of the face contribute to whether a face is judged as being attractive (see Rhodes, 2006, for a review), there is a relative dearth of research addressing whether characteristics of the beholder might influence such judgements. Over the past two decades, however, attention has slowly shifted to consider the beholder (Gynther et al., 1991; Little et al., 2006). A partial list of recent studies includes investigations of the beholder's gaze direction (Ewing et al., 2010), exposure to negative information (Magda & Goodwin, 2008), level of alcohol intoxication (Neave et al., 2008), phases of the menstrual cycle (Penton-Voak & Perrett, 2000), and even olfactory stimuli (Seubert, Gregory, Chamberland, Dessirier, & Lundström, 2014). All of the above were found to influence judgements of others' attractiveness. Because previous research has shown that both sex and relationship commitment have particularly important implications for attractiveness judgements, both require additional, careful consideration here.

Biological sex and judgements of others' attractiveness. Both sexes highly value physical attractiveness in a partner (Buss, 2003; Feingold, 1990), but when it comes to the *relative* importance of physical attractiveness, males and females differ significantly. For instance, males consistently rate physical attractiveness in a partner as being more important than do females (Buss, 1989, 2003). An evolutionary explanation for this sex difference is found in

Bateman's principle (Bateman, 1948; and subsequently Trivers's (1972) theory of parental investment), which suggests that because males biologically invest less in the processes of pregnancy and childrearing than do females and can increase fitness by increasing the number of mating partners, males should have evolved a capacity to quickly identify partners with high reproductive potential and rely primarily on such signals in mate selection. In this view, males would use physical characteristics like attractiveness as a guide to a greater degree than would females, who are selected to be concerned with the male's ability to provide resources over the long-term. Predictions for this sex difference have been consistently supported across cultures (Buss, 1989; Kenrick & Keefe, 1992) and research paradigms (Feingold, 1990), as well as being reflected by males' specific preferences for youthful female faces (McArthur & Berry, 1987; Symons, 1979, 1995). For this reason, the sex of the beholder was considered an important factor to consider when studying group differences in judgements of others' attractiveness.

Relationship commitment and judgements of attractiveness. According to the commitment calibration hypothesis (Lydon, Fitzsimons, & Naidoo, 2003; Lydon et al., 1999), a person's (a) relationship commitment and (b) perception of relationship threat will interact with one another to influence whether or not he (or she) will engage in behaviour that protects his (or her) relationship from that perceived threat. One particularly powerful relationship threat occurs when the beholder becomes aware of a new and potentially better mate than one's own (e.g., a mate that is both single and more physically attractive than their current partner). Specifically, in the case where an attractive alternative is detected by the beholder, depending on the level of relationship commitment held by the beholder, he or she may cognitively devalue the physical attractiveness of the attractive alternative in order to minimize the perceived threat generated by

that attractive alternative (see Miller, 1997; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993).[1] This is known as the *devaluation of attractive alternatives* phenomenon (Lydon et al., 2003).

This hypothesis begs at least one related question. In which cases will a person devalue an attractive alternative? As suggested by the word "calibration" in the commitment calibration paradigm, the hypothesis predicts that individuals will defend their relationships *only when the level of threat posed to their relationship matches their level of relationship commitment*. In cases where the perceived relationship threat is above or below a person's relationship commitment, he (or she) will not engage in relationship defensive behaviours. That is, in a case where a single or weakly committed individual is shown a photograph of an attractive alternative,[2] the individual will not defend his or her relationship since the level of threat (which is moderate) exceeds the level of commitment (which is low). Furthermore, when asked to rate the level of attractiveness of an attractive alternative, the individual will *not* devalue that alternative and will instead rate that target as being "attractive".

In a similar way, for an individual who is highly committed to his or her relationship, low-to-moderate relationship threats tend not to elicit relationship defensive behaviour because the level of relationship threat is too low to threaten the strong relationship commitment. As a consequence, when asked to rate the facial attractiveness of an attractive, opposite-sex target in a photograph, highly committed individuals, similar to that of low commitment individuals, tend to rate that target as being attractive, albeit for a different reason. The story is different, however, in cases where the level of relationship threat matches the level of relationship commitment. In these cases, the individual will devalue the attractiveness of that target (i.e., rate it as less attractive) to reduce the perceived relationship threat posed by that target. As a result of this

[1] Interestingly, the alternative does not even have to be *physically* present; even a photo of the person will do.

[2] Photographs of attractive individuals are deemed to be a moderate threat based on Johnson and Rusbult's (1989) study as well as the results of my Master's research (White, 2010).

devaluation process, when compared to both less and highly committed individuals, moderately committed individuals tend to give lower attractiveness ratings for photographs of attractive opposite-sex faces (assuming the beholder is heterosexual).[3]

To summarize Part One, we know that attractiveness is an important and salient trait commanding our attention. We also know that, while attractiveness is important to both sexes in mating contexts, it is thought to be relatively more important to males. In addition to the influence of sex, there is also evidence that both the beholder's degree of relationship commitment and the level of perceived threat to the relationship can influence beholders' attractiveness ratings for attractive opposite-sex targets. Because (a) perceived relationship threat and relationship commitment both influence judgements of others' attractiveness, and (b) attachment security is related to both perceived relationship threat (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2008) and relationship commitment (Belsky, 1999), this logically raises another question: could beholder attachment security also influence judgements of others' facial attractiveness? Answering this question is the focus of the following section.

The Role of Attachment Security in Mating Contexts

Research on adult attachment has consistently shown that individuals with different patterns of attachment security differ from one another, both cognitively and emotionally, on qualities such as how secure they feel in their relationships and how satisfied they are in those relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2008). As one might expect, these differences in attachment security are also associated with the use of different relationship defenses, such as jealousy (Holtzworth-Munroe, Stuart, & Hutchinson, 1997; Sharpsteen &

[3] To rule out the possibility that both weakly- and highly-committed individuals were *enhancing* target attractiveness relative to moderately committed individuals, Lydon and his colleagues (2003) tested both devaluation and enhancement models, and found no support for the enhancement hypothesis.

Kirkpatrick, 1997), and have been linked to both success and failure during relationship formation (McClure & Lydon, 2014).

Original research by Hazan and Shaver (1987) on attachment in adults initially identified three adult attachment types (secure, avoidant, and ambivalent) however Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991; Bartholomew, 1990) later expanded on this view by conceptualizing adult attachment as a construct that could be measured along two dimensions: anxiety (models of self) and avoidance (models of others), where a person can score low (i.e., a positive view) or high (i.e., a negative view) on either or both dimensions. Conceptualizing adult attachment in this way, adults with low anxiety and low avoidance (i.e., secure), who tend to have positive views of themselves and others, feel comfortable with both intimacy and independence. Alternatively, adults with both high anxiety and high avoidance (i.e., fearful-avoidant) tend to have mixed feelings about close relationships, simultaneously desiring and feeling uncomfortable with emotional closeness. This group tends to mistrust their partners, seek less intimacy, suppress their emotions, and view themselves as unworthy. Next, adults with high anxiety and low avoidance (i.e., anxious-preoccupied) seek high levels of intimacy, approval and responsiveness from partners, while becoming overly dependent. They tend to be less trusting, have less positive views about themselves and their partners, and may exhibit high levels of emotional expressiveness, worry and impulsiveness in their relationships. Finally, adults with low anxiety and high avoidance (i.e., dismissive-avoidant) desire a high level of independence, often appearing to avoid attachment altogether. They view themselves as self-sufficient, invulnerable to attachment feelings and not needing close relationships. Like fearful-avoidant adults, they also tend to suppress their feelings, but they deal with rejection by distancing themselves from partners of whom they often have a poor opinion (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

In sum, we have seen that attachment security in adulthood is systematically related to the perception of relationship (in)stability (i.e., the perception of relationship threat). Consequently, it is also probable that adult attachment security systematically influences relationship defensive behaviours such as the devaluation of attractive alternatives. Because it would be expected that insecure attachment styles (higher levels of anxiety and/or avoidance) are associated with a greater perception of relationship instability and threat, one would also expect that insecure attachment styles are associated with stronger or more frequent displays of relationship defenses. Theoretically, then, when having to rate the facial attractiveness of an attractive target in a photograph, one would expect that those with insecure attachment types would be more likely to devalue attractive targets in order to defend their insecure attachments.

Social Anxiety, Generalized Anxiety, and Their Effects on Judgements of Facial Attractiveness

If attachment security could theoretically influence attractiveness devaluation, might not social anxiety as well? The clinical construct of social anxiety is closely related to attachment security (Eng, Heimberg, Hart, Schneier, & Liebowitz, 2001; Erozkan, 2009), which makes sense theoretically given that social anxiety is defined as "a pervasive fear, apprehension, or worry about social situations, interactions with others, and being evaluated or scrutinized by other people…[and] involves feelings of apprehension, self-consciousness or emotional distress in anticipated or actual social-evaluative situations" (Leitenberg, 1990, p.1). According to this definition, social anxiety closely overlaps with the earlier definition of an insecure attachment: insecure individuals and socially anxious individuals both exhibit a general mistrust of others predicting that interactions with others will not yield positive outcomes (Collins, 1996; Collins & Read, 1990; Foa, Franklin, Perry, & Herbert, 1996; Leary, Kowalski, & Campbell, 1988).

In addition to the theoretical connection between attachment security and social anxiety, there are empirical links as well. For example, in a sample of Turkish university students, correlations between social anxiety and different attachment styles were all significant and moderate in magnitude, ranging from -.42 for those with secure attachments, .21 for dismissive, .30 for preoccupied, and finally to .45 for fearful styles (Erozkan, 2009). The data suggest that social anxiety is highly negatively correlated with secure attachment styles at one end of the spectrum and highly positively correlated with fearful attachment styles at the other. These findings are also consistent with research demonstrating that higher proportions of insecurely attached individuals display anxious behaviours and beliefs that are consistent with social anxiety disorder (Eng et al., 2001; Hart, Turk, Heimberg, & Liebowitz, 1999). While the correlations between social anxiety and attachment security are medium to large in size (Cohen, 1988), the two constructs are not isomorphic. For example, attachment security often varies (though not drastically) as a function of the specific relationship being considered (e.g., friend, romantic partner, parent). Alternatively, social anxiety applies more broadly, and is relatively consistent and stable across social situations in general. In light of meaningful differences such as this one, the inclusion of both constructs is theoretically justified in the current study.

Generalized anxiety. Generalized anxiety is broadly defined as an excessive, uncontrollable and often irrational worry about everyday things (e.g., money, death, health, relationships) that is disproportionate to the actual source of worry (World Health Organization, 1992). It is often accompanied by distress in the form of physiological symptoms such as "fatigue, headaches, nausea, muscle aches, sweating, restlessness, and insomnia" (World Health Organization, 1992, p.116). Similar to social anxiety, generalized anxiety is considered a chronic disorder (i.e., a stable trait) with over 40% of patients retaining their original diagnosis after 12 years. Moreover, almost 50% of those who did recover had a recurrence of the disorder (Bruce et

al., 2005). Not surprisingly, generalized anxiety and social anxiety are highly correlated. For example, it has been estimated that roughly 23% of individuals with a diagnosis of generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) also have a diagnosis of social anxiety disorder (SAD; based on DSM-III-R diagnostic criteria; Brawman-Mintzer et al., 1993), and that this particular GAD-SAD comorbid condition is highly disabling when it comes to interference with daily living (Camuri et al., 2014).

Generalized anxiety is also correlated with attachment styles and is negatively associated with relationship functioning. This makes logical sense since one could argue that those individuals who worry about things in general also tend to worry about specific things such as embarrassment in social situations and negative outcomes in relationships. There is also theoretical overlap between attachment security and generalized anxiety with respect to avoidance and emotion regulation. Similar to those with avoidant attachments (i.e., dismissive and fearful), individuals with GAD tend to compulsively avoid negative thoughts and emotions (Borkovec, Alcaine, & Behar, 2004) and have difficulty regulating their emotions (Mennin, Heimberg, Turk, & Fresco, 2006). As a group, those with GAD also tend to report considerable interpersonal problems (Borkovec, Newman, Pincus, & Lytle, 2002) and it is associated with relationship instability and poor social support (Hunt, Issakidis, & Andrews, 2002; Whisman, Sheldon, & Goering, 2000). These findings suggest that it will be useful to test whether the devaluation of others' attractiveness is specific to social anxiety or whether it extends to more general forms of anxiety as well.

The effect of anxiety on judgements of attractiveness. Given the conceptual similarities between attachment security and social anxiety, and between social anxiety and generalized anxiety, the question arises: could the beholder's level of social and/or generalized anxiety also influence the devaluation of others' facial attractiveness? There is ample evidence

that social anxiety influences judgements of others more generally, since individuals with high levels of social anxiety not only display attentional biases towards certain faces (Bradley, Mogg, White, Groom, & Bono, 1999; Heuer, Rinck, & Becker, 2007), but also find faces of both sexes to be more threatening than do less socially anxious individuals (Bradley, Mogg, Falla, & Hamilton, 1998; Mogg, Philippot, & Bradley, 2004). Furthermore, previous research has shown that both negative affective states (i.e., distress, low mood; Esses & Zanna, 1995) and worries about disease and/or contamination (Faulkner, Schaller, Park, & Duncan, 2004; Park, Faulkner, & Schaller, 2003), which are often features of generalized anxiety, are linked to negative evaluations of others.

Although the precise theoretical mechanism linking anxiety with attractiveness judgements has yet to be established, based on the literature noted above, it is possible that the devaluation of others' attractiveness could increase as a function of beholders' individual fears, worries, and apprehension around being socially evaluated and/or scrutinized. This fear of evaluation or perception of threat of others may be reflected in the form of social anxiety and/or generalized anxiety, and thus the potential effects of both forms on attractiveness judgements are worth investigating.

Context, Objectives, and Operational Definitions for the Current Study

Although multiple theoretical connections exist among the aforementioned constructs, to the best of my knowledge, no study to date has investigated whether (a) attachment anxiety and avoidance and (b) anxiety (either social or generalized) impact judgements of others' attractiveness. On the one hand, social psychologists have typically focused on social variables influencing physical attraction, and have yet to determine whether clinically related constructs such as social and generalized anxiety meaningfully influence judgements of attractiveness. On the other hand, clinical psychologists, who often *do* focus on these clinical constructs, have yet to

establish whether (and how) the constructs affect the devaluation of others, as well as the impact of the same on relationship quality and outcomes. As a consequence of the absence of literature in these areas, we are left with an incomplete understanding of how attractiveness judgements and other relationship protective behaviours are specifically affected by attachment security, social anxiety, and/or generalized anxiety.

The primary objective of the current study, then, is to assist with bridging the gaps in the existing literature by examining how beholder relationship commitment, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, social anxiety, and generalized anxiety influence (i) judgements of others' attractiveness, (ii) self-rated relationship quality and (iii) relationship status at a later date. With respect to the constructs in this study, I use the following definitions:

Relationship commitment: *the degree to which one feels emotionally and physically committed to his or her partner*.

Attachment anxiety: *the degree to which one holds a negative view of themselves (e.g., believes they are unworthy of love and will be rejected by others).*

Attachment avoidance: *the degree to which one holds a negative view of others (e.g., believes others are untrustworthy, rejecting, and unapproachable).*

Social anxiety: "*a pervasive fear, apprehension, or worry about social situations, interactions with others, and being evaluated or scrutinized by other people*" (Leitenberg, 1990, p.1).

Generalized anxiety: *an excessive, uncontrollable and often irrational worry about everyday things that is disproportionate to the actual source of worry*.

Relationship quality: the extent to which the individual (i) is committed to the relationship, (ii) is satisfied with the relationship, (iii) rates the relationship as being valuable to him or her, and (iv) rates the relationship as being valuable to their partner.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. *Relationship commitment will predict facial attractiveness ratings for opposite sex targets (but not same-sex or control targets), with ratings being lower for moderately committed participants when compared to both weakly and highly committed participants.* This hypothesis stems directly from previous work by Lydon and colleagues (2003, 1999) on the commitment calibration paradigm, in which the level of relationship threat created by a photograph of an attractive alternative was deemed to be moderate. The testing of this hypothesis also serves as an initial manipulation check prior to testing other hypotheses of interest. If relationship commitment is found in any case to be a significant predictor of attractiveness ratings, then this will serve as justification for statistically controlling for relationship commitment in Hypotheses 2 through 4.

Hypothesis 2. *Controlling for relationship commitment, participant attachment anxiety and avoidance will predict target attractiveness ratings for opposite-sex targets (but not for same-sex or control targets), with ratings being lowest for participants who are high anxiety/high avoidance, ratings being highest for participants who are low anxiety/low avoidance, and the scores of participants who are either high anxiety/low avoidance or low anxiety/high avoidance falling somewhere in between these two extremes.* This hypothesis is based on the premise that each of the three insecure attachment types should perceive/interpret attractive alternatives as relatively greater threats to their relationships compared to those with more secure attachments. However, each type should compensate for this threat in a different way. Because fearful (high anxiety, high avoidance) individuals respond to relationship threats by becoming *more* dependent on their partners, fearful participants should respond to the relationship threat by aggressively defending their relationship commitment, resulting in greater devaluation of attractive alternatives. Dismissive-avoidant (low anxiety, high avoidance)

participants, on the other hand, are likely to respond to relationship threats by reducing or avoiding commitment to their current relationships. This avoidance should theoretically result in less attractiveness devaluation of alternatives, leading to higher attractiveness ratings for attractive targets. The ratings of anxious-preoccupied (high anxiety, low avoidance) individuals are somewhat harder to predict since they have mixed feelings about relationships. Therefore, it is predicted that the ratings provided by this group will fall somewhere in the middle, as opposed to one extreme or the other. Similarly, securely attached individuals are likely to perceive attractive alternatives as moderately threatening, and will thus engage in a moderate amount of attractiveness devaluation, resulting in "average" attractiveness scores.

Hypothesis 3. *Controlling for relationship commitment, participant social anxiety will predict attractiveness ratings for both same-sex and opposite-sex targets, with socially anxious participants rating all faces as being less attractive when compared to less socially anxious participants. Moreover, social anxiety is expected to interact with target type to moderate this effect, as indicated by socially anxious participants rating the attractiveness of opposite-sex targets as even less attractive when compared to less socially anxious participants.* This hypothesis is based on a combination of two findings: (a) that socially anxious individuals tend to find faces (of both sexes) more threatening generally than do non-socially anxious individuals, and (b) those who perceive others as a threat tend to devalue the attractiveness of others to protect their current relationship commitment.

Hypothesis 4. *Controlling for relationship commitment, participant level of generalized anxiety will predict attractiveness ratings for all targets, including controls.* This hypothesis is based on the finding that individuals experiencing high levels of general distress, anxiety, and depression tend to worry more about a wide variety of situations and tend to perceive the world

more negatively. Individuals with this type of psychological profile are thus likely to rate all targets more negatively.

Hypothesis 5. *Participant (a) attachment avoidance, (b) attachment anxiety, (c) social anxiety, and (d) generalized anxiety will be negatively associated with relationship quality at six months post study.* Although one could suppose subtle differences in perceptions of relationship quality as a function of attachment style, it is generally assumed that less secure attachments (high attachment anxiety and avoidance) will be negatively associated with measures of relationship quality. Again, support exists for the assertion that anxiety, as a general construct (e.g., social anxiety and generalized anxiety), should also negatively impact the quality of one's relationship over time (Williams & Riskind, 2004).

Hypothesis 6. *Participant (a) attachment avoidance, (b) attachment anxiety, (c) social anxiety, and (d) generalized anxiety will be positively associated with relationship dissolution at six months post study.* Attachment anxiety is positively associated with preoccupation with breakup, emotional dysregulation after breakup, and unwanted pursuit behaviour toward the ex-partner (Davis, Shaver, & Vernon, 2003; Dutton & Winstead, 2006). Attachment avoidance is also associated with a greater tendency to breakup, and greater emotional distancing after breakup (Feeney & Noller, 1992). Those low on anxiety and avoidance (i.e., secure individuals) also tend to experience fewer breakups and use more effective coping strategies after breakup (e.g., Bakermans-Kranenburg & Van IJzendoorn, 1997; Davis et al., 2003). Given the similarities between social anxiety, generalized anxiety, and attachment anxiety in terms of their pejorative effects on self-regulatory capacity as well as the characteristically compulsive avoidance of uncomfortable emotional experiences, it is expected that these two clinical constructs will also be positively associated with poorer relationship outcomes (i.e., relationship dissolution). Indeed, there is some support for this assertion (see Williams & Riskind, 2004.

Methods

Participants

Introductory psychology students were recruited to participate in a study on "Individual Preferences" through the University of Manitoba online psychology research pool. Exclusion criteria were as follows. First, participants were required to self-identify as heterosexual. This criterion was met if the participant reported no history of, or future interest in, having either sexual or romantic involvement with members of the same sex. Eligible participants were also required to be in some form of a relationship, and this criterion was met if the participant reported having some degree of romantic involvement with a partner (either dating, in a committed relationship, common-law, engaged, or married) for at least one month. In the online recruitment statement, it was also requested from participants that they be able to speak, read, and write English fluently, though no item asked participants to verify this.

Of the 1162 online surveys that were started, a total of 459 (226 male; 233 female) surveys were discarded for the following reasons: they were either duplicates or incomplete (357); there was low integrity in the participant's responses (96); or the participant indicated he or she was non-heterosexual (6; refer to Figure 1 for participant flowchart). A survey was deemed to be of low integrity if it had any of the following characteristics: (a) the participant indicated they were single on an earlier attempt to complete the survey (61); (b) the participant indicated they received help from someone else in order to complete the survey (16); (c) the participant indicated he or she had not answered questions honestly (9); (d) more than 10% of responses were missing on scales and inventories that measured primary variables of interest (4); (e) the same response (e.g., all "1's") was provided for an entire inventory, resulting in low response variability (3); (f) the participant took more than 4 hours, took more than four breaks,

and reported questionable honesty in responding (3); or (g) the participant took less than 20 minutes to complete the survey (1).

The final sample, after exclusions, was comprised of 703 (262 male, 441 female) participants that ranged in age from 17 to 42 years (M = 19.5, SD = 3.21). As compensation for their time completing the initial (T1) survey, participants received partial course credit. Of the 703 participants who completed this initial survey, 510 agreed to be contacted for the six-month follow-up (T2) survey. Of the 510 participants who were contacted, 163 (44 males, 119 females) completed the follow-up survey. As compensation for their time completing this survey, follow-up participants were entered into a draw for an iPod or $150 gift certificate.

Procedure

Study data were collected through two online surveys: the large survey at Time 1 (T1) and a shorter six-month follow-up survey at Time 2 (T2). After signing up for the T1 survey and providing their consent to participate, participants were directed to one of two surveys, depending on their sex. These two surveys were identical except that the four questions relating to romantic interest were posed only with opposite sex targets (i.e., female targets for male participants and vice versa).

After reporting their sexual orientation and relationship status, participants completed a biographical questionnaire that had them report basic information about personal demographics (e.g., age, ethnicity), family socioeconomic background (e.g., parental income and education), and their current romantic relationship (e.g., commitment, satisfaction, how much they value their relationship, and how much they think their partner values the relationship). All participants were then asked to rate (i) the attractiveness of five male, five female, and five control targets (see Appendix A for samples of human targets and Appendix B for control targets). For human targets, but not controls, participants were also asked to rate how (ii) interesting, and (iii)

intelligent they judged each target to be. The purpose of having participants rate images of non-human control targets, as well as provide ratings of interestingness and intelligence of human targets, was to assess the specificity of any devaluation effects that were found. For opposite-sex targets only, there were four additional questions regarding participants' romantic interest in those targets. Specifically, these questions had participants rate (a) how physically attracted they were to the target[4], as well as their interest/willingness to (b) have a long-term relationship, (c) go on a date, and (d) have sexual intercourse with the person in the photo (this general procedure and item wording was taken and adapted from Lydon and colleagues, 2003). The order of presentation for all targets was randomized to minimize any carry-over effects.

After rating these different target types and traits, participants completed a series of questionnaires, which were administered in a quasi-randomized fashion – again to reduce the likelihood of carry-over effects. Specifically, questionnaires assessing the primary variables of interest (e.g., attachment anxiety and avoidance, social anxiety, and generalized anxiety) were administered in a random order as a part of a first block of surveys, and questionnaires assessing secondary variables of interest (e.g., mate preferences, sociosexuality, attention to alternatives) were administered afterward, in a random order, as a part of a second block of surveys. To help assess data integrity, after participants completed these two blocks of surveys, they were also given a brief questionnaire (Appendix C) asking whether they had answered questions honestly, took breaks during the study, and/or whether they received help completing the surveys. Participants were then debriefed, given course credit, and asked if they were willing to be contacted for the follow-up survey. Those who provided consent were contacted six months later via email, regular mail, or both, to complete a brief follow-up survey inquiring about their relationship status and quality.

[4] Rating (a) the attractiveness of a target and (b) one's attraction to a target are likely related but different processes.

Materials

Independent variables.

Biographical questionnaire (Appendix D). This questionnaire had participants report their age, ethnicity, whether they were born in Canada, and, if they were not, then how long they had lived in Canada. Participants also rated their degree of commitment to their current partner (whether it be a dating partner, long-term partner, fiancée, etc.), satisfaction with their relationship, how much they value their relationship, and the degree to which they believe their partner values their relationship (all four measures consisted of one item). Relationship ratings were measured on a 7-point scale, with the exception of commitment, which was rated on a 9-point scale (this was done to facilitate the later conversion of relationship commitment into a 3-level, trichotomous variable as a means of testing the commitment calibration hypothesis). Although the following data were not analyzed in the present study, out of possible interest the biographical questionnaire also collected information about relationship duration (i.e., how long the participant had been with his or her current partner) as well as contextual factors in the participant's family of origin: parents' marital status during early development; presence of a stepparent during early development; parents' highest level of education; estimated household income (both absolute and relative), and number of siblings. Finally, participants were asked to rate on a 7-point scale their own physical attractiveness and ambition relative to their peers.

Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Appendix E) The ECR is a construct-valid and internally-consistent 36-item self-report attachment measure derived from a factor analysis of earlier self-report measures of adult romantic attachment (Brennan et al., 1998). The ECR can be used to create two subscales, *attachment avoidance* (i.e., discomfort with closeness and discomfort with depending on others) and *attachment anxiety* (i.e., fear of rejection and abandonment). The anxiety subscale of the ECR generally represents one's

thoughts and beliefs about self-worth, as well as whether or not one will be accepted or rejected by others. Alternatively, scores on the avoidance subscale of the ECR tend to reflect one's thoughts and beliefs about partners, and taking risks in approaching or avoiding other people (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The two anxiety and avoidance subscale scores can be conceptualized as continuous (i.e., dimensional) variables or, alternatively, can be combined to define the four attachment styles described earlier (i.e., secure, preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant, fearful-avoidant). For this study, attachment security was conceptualized dimensionally as two continuous variables rather than as categorically distinct attachment styles. Thus, attachment security was measured along both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance spectra. In the current study, Cronbach alphas for the ECR were .92 (males: .92; females: .92) for attachment anxiety and .92 (males: .92; females: .92) for attachment avoidance.

Social Phobia Scale (SPS; Mattick & Clarke, 1998; Appendix F). The purpose of the SPS is to effectively measure fears of being evaluated or scrutinized during routine social activities. The SPS is comprised of 20 self-report items (e.g., "I feel self-conscious if I have to enter a room where others are already seated") that are scored along a 5-point scale, ranging from 0 ("not at all characteristic or true of me") to 4 ("extremely characteristic or true of me"). A total score is derived from the sum of all 20 items. Cronbach alphas of .87 to .94 across clinical, community, and student samples reflect high internal consistency of this scale (Antony, Orsillo, & Roemer, 2001). Test-retest reliability over 4 to 12 weeks is also high, ranging from .66 to .93. Factor analysis indicates the SPS contains three factors: general scrutiny concern, specific fears, and fear of being ill or losing control in front of others. Construct validity for the SPS is also well supported. Correlations between the SPS and other measures of social anxiety are fairly high (.64 to .75) while less correlated with general anxiety (.42 to .57), depression (.54), and locus of

control (.31; Antony, Orsillo, & Roemer, 2001). In the current study, the Cronbach alpha for the SPS was .93 (males: .93; females: .93).

Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS; Mattick & Clarke, 1998; Appendix G). The purpose of the SIAS is to accurately assess fears of general social interaction by describing cognitive, affective, and behavioural reactions to interactional situations (Antony et al., 2001). This SIAS was included to help render the overall assessment of latent construct of social anxiety more robust by specifically targeting participant's concerns about social interaction. Indeed, research has supported the notion that the SPS and the SIAS measure different but related factors, and that these factors load onto the single, higher-order factor of social anxiety (Antony et al., 2001). The SIAS is comprised of 19 self-report items (e.g., "I have difficulty talking to attractive persons of the opposite sex") that are scored along the same 5-point scale used for the SPS. A total score is derived from the sum of all 19 items. Cronbach alphas of .86 to .94 reflect a similar degree of internal consistency as the SAS (Mattick & Clarke, 1998). Test-retest reliability over 4 to 12 weeks is also high, ranging from .86 to .92 (see Antony, Orsillo, & Roemer, 2001). Correlations between the SIAS and other measures of social anxiety are very good (.66 to .81) while less correlated with general anxiety (.45 to .58), depression (.47), and locus of control (.30; Mattick & Clarke, 1998). Because the two reverse-scored items on the SIAS have been shown to load onto the factor of extraversion rather than social anxiety, and the psychometric properties of the SIAS are improved by removing these two items (Rodebaugh, Holaway, & Heimberg, 2008), they were not included in this questionnaire, resulting in the 17-item version of the SIAS. In the current study, the Cronbach alpha for the SIAS was .94 (males: .94; females: .94).

Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale – Short Version (DASS21; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995; Appendix H). The DASS21 is a 21-item self-report scale designed to measure

the three related negative emotional states of depression, anxiety, and tension/stress. Each of the three DASS21 subscales contains seven items. The Depression (DASS-D) subscale assesses dysphoria, hopelessness, devaluation of life, self-deprecation, lack of interest/involvement, anhedonia, and inertia. The Anxiety (DASS-A) subscale assesses autonomic arousal, skeletal muscle effects, situational anxiety, and subjective experience of anxious affect. The Stress (DASS-S) subscale is sensitive to levels of chronic non-specific arousal. It assesses difficulty relaxing, nervous arousal, and being easily upset/agitated, irritable/over-reactive and impatient. Participants are asked to use 4-point severity/frequency scales to rate the extent to which they have experienced each state *over the past week*. Scores for Depression, Anxiety and Stress are calculated by summing the scores for the relevant items. The subscales of the DASS have been shown to have high internal consistency and good discriminant validity across variety of research and clinical settings. The DASS21 was also developed using a non-clinical sample and thus is appropriate for use with a university student population (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). For this study, a composite score of the two Anxiety and Stress subscale scores was used as a measure of each participant's level of generalized anxiety.[5] Cronbach alphas in the present study were the following: Depression subscale: .85 (males .87; females: .85); Anxiety subscale: .80 (males: .78; females: .81); Stress subscale: .81 (males: .81; females: .81); Generalized anxiety composite: .88 (males: .87; females: .88)

Sociosexual Orientation Inventory (SOI; Simpson & Gangestad, 1991; Appendix I). The SOI is a construct valid measure of the participant's sociosexual orientation, or his or her willingness to engage in uncommitted sexual relations in the absence of strong affectional bonds. Specifically, it assesses the participant's willingness to (a) engage in sex earlier in their romantic relationships, (b) engage in sex with more than one partner at a time, and (c) become involved in

[5] This composite score was created by averaging the sum of the z-scores from each of the two subscales.

sexual relationships characterized by less expressed investment, less commitment, and weaker affectional ties. The SOI also assesses the number of sexual partners the participant has been with in the past as well as how many sexual partners they anticipate being with in the future. Although the SOI was not used in testing the study's primary hypotheses, it was included as a supplement to the analyses involving relationship outcomes. The Cronbach alpha for the SOI in the current study was .76 (males: .69; females: .77). Although I anticipate using this measure in future research, it was not analyzed in this study, thus it will not be discussed further.

Attention to Alternatives questionnaire (ATA; Miller, Paul, Quitugua, Husband, & Isgitt, 2010; Appendix J). The purpose of the ATA is to measure the interest and eagerness with which people remain alert to, and seek information about, other possible romantic partners. The ATA consists of 29 items scored on a scale ranging from 0 ("not at all characteristic or true of me") to 4 ("extremely characteristic or true of me"). Because the ATA has only recently been developed, little to no psychometric data are available, however preliminary analyses by Miller and colleagues (2010) suggest the construct of attention to alternatives factors out to three basic ATA facets: (1) active prowling; (2) passive awareness; and (3) and willful disinterest (these types are not orthogonal). Internal consistency among the items within each ATA type ranges from good to excellent (based on Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004), with alphas ranging from .85 to .89 for active prowling, .88 to .90 for willful disinterest, and .95 for passive awareness (Dixon, 2012; Dyck, 2012). Because different facets are strongly correlated with both relationship satisfaction and relationship commitment (Miller et al., 2010), the ATA was included as a means of providing additional information about the possible factors that influence relationship maintenance over time. Similar to the SOI, ATA measures were included as a supplement to the analyses involving relationship outcomes. The following are Cronbach alphas for the ATA in the present study: Active prowling: .94 (males: .94; females: .93); Passive awareness: .95 (males:

.95; females: .94); Willful disinterest: .93 (males: .92; females: .93). Similar to the SOI, the ATA was not analyzed in this study, thus it will not be discussed further.

Dependent variables.

Target ratings. All target ratings were recorded through Qualtrics, a web-based computer program (Qualtrics, 2012). Human targets were rated on (i) attractiveness, (ii) interestingness, and (iii) intelligence using a 7-point Likert scale (e.g., 1 = *not at all physically attractive*; 4 = *neither attractive nor unattractive*; 7 = *extremely physically attractive*). In terms of the ethnicities of the individuals used for the target photos, all were Caucasian or appeared as such (i.e., non-visible minorities). Control targets were rated on their "visual appeal", resulting in a similar 7-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all visually appealing*; 4 = *neither appealing nor unappealing*; 7 = *extremely visually appealing*). To assess romantic interest in opposite-sex targets, participants were also asked to rate on a 7-point scale their willingness (1 = *not at all willing*, 7 = *extremely willing*) to (iv) be in a long-term relationship, (v) go on a date, and (vi) have sexual intercourse with the individual in the photograph (see Appendix K) for a sample of the target rating screen).

Relationship quality at six-month follow-up (Time 2). For the brief follow-up survey, participants reported information relating to their relationship status, the nature of their relationship dissolution (if applicable), as well as the same four measures of relationship quality that were administered at Time 1: relationship commitment, satisfaction, value-self, and value-partner (see Appendix L for follow-up survey).

Mate preferences. Participant mate preferences were assessed using a questionnaire that has been adapted from Buss and Barnes's (1986) article on preferences in human mate selection. The questionnaire asks the respondent to both rank and index 14 different partner traits (e.g., kindness, exciting personality, intelligent, physically attractive, athletic, sense of humour). The

purpose of having respondents both rate and rank their preferences is to assess each trait's *absolute* importance (i.e., what the participant actually desires in an ideal partner, independent of what is realistic) as well as its *relative* importance (e.g., what characteristics the participant is willing to forgo in lieu of others) to the participant (Appendix M). Although this measure was included in the survey to assess how participant mate preferences vary as a function of anxiety and attachment, for the purpose of the current study, the data collected through this measure were not analyzed.

Target photo inventories. The target photo inventory was comprised of 15 photos: 10 of young, attractive faces (five male and five female, aged 19 to 25), and five control images. Photos of target faces (34 female; 25 male) were obtained with permission from John Lydon who conducts research on physical attractiveness. According to Dr. Lydon, the targets in these photos had been rated as highly attractive by students in his previous research, however, to further ensure the most attractive male and female faces were selected from this larger inventory, all photos were again pre-rated by 14 graduate students in a brief pilot study I conducted. The five control images consisted of photos of a designer watch, a sports car, a luxury home, and two landscapes (for control targets, the words "visual appeal" were used in place of "attractive"). Target rating instructions are provided in Appendix N.

Analysis Strategy

The initial analysis strategy was to test hypotheses using a combination of analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression. Three important deviations from this approach require mention here. First, although a curvilinear (i.e., quadratic) regression was initially hypothesized to be the optimal strategy for analyzing primary hypotheses, curvilinear relationships were not detected, and linear regressions were found to better fit the data. Thus, the linear approach was employed exclusively each time regression was used in this study. Second, although the initial

analysis strategy involved using a dummy variable for participant sex in all regression analyses, while conducting these analyses, it was discovered that unique and highly specific experimental effects were occurring within each sex, and that these full-sample regressions were effectively masking these sex-specific effects. As a way of effectively uncovering these unique sex effects, the effect of sex was instead examined using independent, sex-specific regressions rather than by interpreting the effects of a dummy variable for sex within a full-sample regression. Due to these additional sex-specific tests, the family-wise error rate (FWER) also required controlling, thus the conventional critical alpha level of .05 required for statistical significance was halved to α = .025 for each dependent variable being predicted (for post hoc tests, the FWER was set at .010). Finally, after transferring data from the Qualtrics system to SPSS, it was discovered that dummy variables for target type (i.e., male, female, control) and target trait (i.e., attractiveness, intelligence, interestingness) could not be created for use in regression because of a problem related to the way in which the data were set up to be collected and coded by Qualtrics. Specifically, participants' ratings for each target type and trait were coded as separate independent variables (e.g., male attractiveness, female attractiveness), rather than as subcategories of the same variable (e.g. attractiveness; male versus female), and so data could not be collapsed. To remedy this problem, repeated-measures ANOVAs were first used to establish whether participants' ratings varied as a function of target type and target trait, and in cases where differences in target ratings emerged, this was seen as justification for employing separate linear regressions on different target types and traits.

As a result of these changes, the overarching analysis strategy for Hypotheses 1 through 4 involved two steps: For step one, either a repeated-measures ANOVA (Hypothesis 1) or a regression on the full sample (Hypotheses 2, 3 and 4) was used to first determine whether participant sex was interacting with either (i) target type/trait and/or (ii) other predictor variables

to influence participants' target ratings. In cases where there was evidence of these interactions, in the second step, separate regressions were then conducted on each participant sex, and for each target type and trait. For Hypothesis 5, the same procedure was used but relationship quality indicators were substituted for target type.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Data integrity, characteristics, and distributions. Because data collected for this study consisted entirely of those obtained through internet-based self-report surveys, ensuring those data were of high integrity was paramount. After low integrity surveys were excluded (using the procedure described above), missing data were closely inspected and found to be minimal and deemed missing completely at random based on careful visual inspection as well as through a missing values analysis. Before testing primary hypotheses, distributions for all independent variables were scrutinized for significant abnormalities using quantile comparison plots.

Although I did not anticipate having to use participant relationship duration as a predictor, I still inspected this variable to gain a better understanding of the characteristics of the sample. Closer inspection of relationship duration revealed ten outliers (i.e., ≥ 3 SD's from the mean) for this variable (five male, five female). Some of these outliers were due to participant errors in reporting (e.g., an 18-year-old participant that reported being with his partner for over 12 years) while others were due to a programming error with the online survey, which requested some participants to report their relationship duration twice, thereby doubling the actual value. These outliers were corrected by either Winsorizing them (in the former case) or halving their values (in the latter case). Winsorizing was completed by replacing outlier values with the value at the 95th percentile within each sex distribution: 225 weeks for males and 221 weeks for females.

It was also discovered that participants' ratings of relationship commitment, satisfaction, value-self, and value-partner were all negatively skewed, reflecting that, on average, study participants rated themselves as being highly committed to and satisfied with their relationships, that they strongly valued their relationship, and they that believed their partners also strongly valued their relationship. As an example of how committed study participants were, on the 9-point relationship commitment scale, over 85% of the total sample rated their commitment as a "6" or higher. While the skewness of each of these four distributions was not extreme enough to warrant transformation for use in regression analysis, it did create a problem when it came to recoding them as trichotomous variables for use in ANOVAs for Hypothesis 1. The initial strategy for determining group membership for relationship commitment was to use score brackets of 1 to 3, 4 to 6, and 7 to 9 for determining low, moderate, and high commitment groups, respectively. However, this strategy would have resulted in wildly uneven cell sizes (i.e., 25, 122, and 555). In an attempt to remedy this problem, participants who rated their relationship commitment as a "9" were instead coded as "highly committed"; those who rated it as a "7" or "8" were coded as "moderately committed"; and those who rated it as "6" or less were coded as "weakly committed". This strategy somewhat evened the cell sizes to 147, 251, and 304, for low, moderate, and high commitment groups, respectively. Resulting cell sizes, means, and standard deviations for relationship quality indicators are provided in Table 1.

Prior to conducting regression analyses, multicollinearity was assessed via inspection of variance inflation factors (VIFs), which typically fell below the highest value of 3. The ruling out of extreme multicollinearity was further supported through inspection of tolerance levels (all values were above the conventionally accepted threshold of .10) as well as the bivariate

correlations among predictor variables, which ranged from roughly .09 to .76.[6] Bivariate correlations are presented in Table 2.

Sample characteristics. After adjusting non-normal distributions, identifying and correcting outliers (using boxplots, outliers beyond 3 *sd*'s were identified and Winsorized to the next lowest value), addressing multicollinearity, and inspecting missing data, t-tests were conducted on the final sample (N = 703) in order to identify sex differences between male participants (n = 262) and female participants (n = 441). Significant sex differences were found for participant age, $t(701) = 3.35$, $p = .001$, as well as self-reported relationship value, $t(701) = -2.12$, $p = .019$, with males being slightly older than females ($M_M = 20.06$; $SD = 4.07$; $M_F = 19.12$; $SD = 2.49$), and valuing their relationships slightly less than females ($M_M = 6.11$; $SD = 1.06$; $M_F = 6.31$; $SD = 1.09$). Restricting participant age to 26-years-old or younger failed to eliminate these sex differences, thus, participants of all ages were retained for all analyses. Sample characteristics for age, relationship quality indicators, self-rated ambition, and self-rated attractiveness are provided in Table 3. Supplementary sample descriptives are provided in Table 4.

Significant sex differences were also found on many of the study's scales and subscales (descriptive statistics for scale and subscale scores are provided in Table 5). Specifically, females scored higher than males on both the Social Phobia Scale (SPS), $t(701) = -3.94$, $p < .001$ ($M_F = 21.25$; $SD = 15.15$; $M_M = 16.94$; $SD = 13.30$) and the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS), $t(701) = -2.16$, $p = .031$ ($M_M = 18.87$; $SD = 12.79$; $M_F = 21.15$; $SD = 13.98$). Because the social anxiety composite score was the average of each participant's summed z-scores on the SPS and SIAS scales, females scored higher than males ($M_F = 42.40$; $SD = 27.48$; $M_M = 35.81$; $SD =$

[6] For hypothesis 5, which involved a smaller sample and multiple predictors, multicollinearity became a problem for some two-and three-way interactions involving sex. These cases are flagged accordingly in their respective tables.

24.06) on this composite score also, $t(701) = -3.29$, $p = .001$. Females also scored higher than males on the DASS-Stress subscale (DASS-S), $t(701) = -3.41$, $p = .001$ ($M_F = 14.67$; $SD = 9.00$; $M_M = 12.34$; $SD = 8.36$).

To briefly summarize the sample, characteristics of the participants used in this study are consistent with what might be expected of college students in committed romantic relationships. Most participants reported being highly committed and satisfied with their relationships, that they highly valued their relationships (though for males, not as much), and that they believed their partner also highly valued the relationship. Females scored slightly higher than males on measures of anxiety and stress, which is consistent with the clinical and social psychological literature discussed earlier.

Baseline target ratings for each participant sex. Next, the effect of participant sex on target ratings was explored (target rating data are provided in Table 6). Compared to their male counterparts, females rated male targets as being more attractive, $t(701) = -8.95$, $p < .001$ ($M_M = 3.46$; $SD = 1.57$; $M_F = 4.43$; $SD = 1.02$), interesting, $t(701) = -7.77$, $p < .001$ ($M_M = 3.94$; $SD = 1.00$; $M_F = 4.50$; $SD = .75$), and intelligent, $t(701) = -7.61$, $p < .001$ ($M_M = 3.50$; $SD = 1.32$; $M_F = 4.21$; $SD = .94$). For female targets, however, there was no sex difference for ratings of female attractiveness ($p = .65$) or intelligence ($p = .32$). However, a sex difference surfaced for interestingness, with male participants rating female targets as more interesting than did female participants, $t(701) = 2.56$, $p = .011$ ($M_M = 4.44$; $SD = .88$; $M_F = 4.24$; $SD = 1.01$). Interestingly, males also rated control images as more visually appealing than did females, $t(701) = 5.01$, $p < .001$ ($M_M = 5.88$; $SD = .68$; $M_F = 5.60$; $SD = .81$), highlighting the possibility of a potential sex bias in the visual appeal of these five control images.

Bivariate correlations among target ratings for each participant sex were also calculated and are presented in Tables 7 (male participants) and 8 (female participants). Beginning with

male participants, correlations among their human target ratings were positive and ranged from large to small, with the largest correlation being between male attractiveness and male interestingness (r = .79) and the smallest being between male attractiveness and female intelligence (r = .18). There were also small- and moderate-sized correlations between males' ratings of control targets and their ratings of female targets: .27 for female attractiveness, .33 for female interestingness, and .24 for female intelligence. Finally, a small but significant correlation emerged between males' ratings of control targets and male intelligence (r = .15); no correlations were found between males' ratings of control targets and either male attractiveness or male interestingness.

With two minor exceptions (noted shortly), the pattern of correlations among female participants' ratings of human targets closely mirrored that which was found for male participants. For example, correlations among females' human target ratings were also positive, ranged from large to small, and shared similar features with respect to precisely which ratings were most strongly and weakly correlated. For example, as was the case for male participants, the largest correlation among female participants' ratings of human targets emerged between male attractiveness and male interestingness (r = .72). Also similar to males' ratings, the smallest correlation for females' human target ratings was between male attractiveness and female intelligence (r = .28). However, two sex differences were found when it came to correlations between ratings of control targets and human targets. First, females' ratings of control targets were correlated with all six human target ratings (i.e., for both target sexes and all three target traits), not just with the four ratings found (above) for males. Second, whereas the correlations between males' ratings of control and opposite-sex targets ranged from .24 to .33, for females, those same correlations ranged from .10 to .14, reflecting an apparent difference in the strength

of the relationship between how each sex rates photos of opposite-sex targets and how they rate photos of non-human objects and stimuli.

Through closer inspection of the correlations displayed in Tables 7 and 8, another important pattern emerged among correlations and requires mention here. Specifically, target ratings that were made sequentially (i.e., one after the other) also tended to be more strongly correlated. For example, when providing their ratings of both male targets and female targets, participants were asked to rate the target's attractiveness first, interestingness second, and intelligence third; the order of these ratings was not counterbalanced. Because the order in which participants made their three ratings for each target was always the same, and the strength of the correlations among ratings appears to correspond to this particular order, it is probable that a carry-over effect occurred. In other words, it appears participants' ratings of each target's attractiveness were influencing their subsequent ratings of that same target's interestingness and, to a lesser degree, intelligence.

Reporting of results. Because the number of analyses resulting from all six hypotheses in this study was quite large, it is also prudent to clarify six points regarding how I have chosen to report results. First, in cases where main effects are qualified by higher-order interactions, I have made those interactions the primary focus, and main effects are either not discussed or are identified only briefly. Second, in cases where interactions were significant, tests of simple effects were conducted in accordance with Aiken and West's (1991) recommendations. Third, as noted above, interactions involving participant sex are investigated in greater detail through subsequent regressions conducted on each sex independently. Fourth, significant effects (whether they are main or interaction effects) that are not directly related to the principal hypothesis being tested (e.g., predictions of target interestingness) may be mentioned but are not probed in detail. Fifth, although a number of higher-order (e.g., 3-, 4-, and 5-way) interactions among some of the

predictor variables have been excluded from both tables and discussion, it should be noted that many of these interactions were still tested for significance. Ultimately, because these interactions failed to yield significant results or provide any additional insight into the phenomenon being investigated, for the purpose of improved clarity and simplicity of reporting results, they are not mentioned. Fifth, during regression analysis it was discovered that the various subscales (i.e., SPS, SIAS, DASS-Anxiety, DASS-Stress) that comprised each of the two composite scores (i.e., social anxiety, generalized anxiety) uniquely predicted a number of different criterion variables. I consider the results of these analyses interesting and relevant, however, because they were not included as a part of the original research proposal, I have elected to include these results in separate appendices.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. For my first hypothesis, I hypothesized that participant relationship commitment would predict participants' ratings of attractiveness for opposite sex faces, but not for same-sex faces or control targets. Based on the devaluation literature, I also hypothesized that devaluation effects would occur only for ratings of attractiveness and not for interestingness or intelligence. With respect to the direction of change in these attractiveness ratings, I predicted that moderately committed participants would rate opposite-sex faces as being less attractive when compared to their weakly and highly committed counterparts. Support for this hypothesis would be obtained when each of the following four criteria are met: (1) a significant interaction effect is found between participant sex and target type in a repeated-measures ANOVA on the full participant sample; (2) a significant main effect emerges for relationship commitment on opposite-sex attractiveness ratings within ANOVAs conducted on each participant sex independently; (3) post-hoc tests reveal that moderately committed participants rate opposite-sex targets as being significantly less attractive compared to both weakly committed and highly

committed participants; and (4) replications of these above-noted analyses for opposite-sex interestingness or intelligence, or for any same-sex target traits, yield insignificant results.

ANOVAs. To methodologically justify my decision to conduct analyses on each participant sex and target type independently, I first used a 3 (target type: male, female, control; within variable) by 2 (participant sex: male, female; between variable) by 3 (relationship commitment: low, moderate, high; between variable) repeated-measures ANOVA on the full participant sample in order to test for relevant group differences and interactions (ANOVA results are presented in Table 9). Support for the first criterion emerged through a significant two-way interaction between participant sex and target type predicting target attractiveness, $F(2, 1394) = 91.13$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .158$, revealing that male participants and female participants were rating the attractiveness of male, female, and control targets in different ways. Contrary to my expectations, however, the effect of this sex-by-target-type interaction was not restricted to attractiveness, as it also influenced participants' ratings of target interestingness and intelligence (all $p < .05$); a two-way interaction between participant sex and relationship commitment was also marginally significant for both target interestingness, $F(2, 697) = 2.99$, $p = .051$, $\eta_P^2 = .009$, and target intelligence, $F(2, 697) = 2.91$, $p = .055$, $\eta_P^2 = .008$.

I then conducted a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) on each participant sex independently to investigate the effects of relationship commitment on ratings of each of the different target types (male, female, control) and target traits (attractiveness, interestingness, and intelligence) simultaneously. Post-hoc tests using the Bonferroni procedure were also conducted to identify which of the three levels of relationship commitment (i.e., low, moderate, high), if any, differed from one another. MANOVA results for each participant sex are presented in Table 10, and descriptive statistics for each group are presented in Table 11.

Beginning with male participants, a main effect for relationship commitment was marginally significant in predicting ratings of female attractiveness, $F(2, 259) = 3.28$, $p = .039$, $\eta_P^2 = .025$. Opposite to what was predicted, highly committed males ($M = 4.88$, $SD = .086$) rated females as *less* attractive than moderately committed males ($M = 5.15$, $SD = .077$; difference score was -.271, *CI* [-.540, -.003], $p = .047$. Also contrary to expectations, relationship commitment predicted males' judgements of female interestingness, $F(2, 259) = 6.73$, $p = .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .050$, with both weakly committed males ($M = 4.31$, $SD = .112$) and highly committed males ($M = 4.27$, $SD = .086$) rating females as less interesting than moderately committed males ($M = 4.68$, $SD = .085$; difference scores for these comparisons were -.375, *CI* [-.714, -.037], $p = .024$, and -.413, *CI* [-.704, -.121], $p = .002$, respectively). Also contrary to my predictions, relationship commitment influenced males' ratings of female intelligence, $F(2, 259) = 3.92$, $p = .021$, $\eta_P^2 = .029$, with weakly committed males rating females as more intelligent compared to moderately committed males ($M_{LOW} = 4.39$, $SD = .095$; $M_{MOD} = 4.73$, $SD = .072$; difference score = -.334, *CI* [-.621, -.046], $p = .017$). Surprisingly, relationship commitment also influenced males' ratings of male intelligence, $F(2, 259) = 4.07$, $p = .018$, $\eta_P^2 = .031$, with highly committed males rating male targets as less intelligent than did moderately committed males ($M_{HIGH} = 3.78$, $SD = .10$; $M_{MOD} = 4.16$, $SD = .098$; difference score = -.376, *CI* [-.712, -.040], $p = .023$). Consistent with my predictions, relationship commitment did not influence males' ratings of male attractiveness ($p = .22$), male interestingness ($p = .11$), or the visual appeal of control targets ($p = .56$).

For female participants, contrary to expectations, the MANOVA revealed that relationship commitment was only marginally significant in predicting their ratings of male attractiveness, $F(2, 438) = 3.44$, $p = .033$, $\eta_P^2 = .016$. Although marginal, this finding reflected a trend of more highly committed females rating male targets as less attractive ($M = 4.31$, $SD =$

1.06) compared to weakly committed females (M = 4.63, SD = .97; difference score = -.326, CI [-.638, -.013], p = .038). Similar to what was found for male participants, relationship commitment also influenced females' ratings of opposite-sex interestingness, $F(2, 438) = 6.89$, p = .001, η_P^2 = .031, with highly committed females rating male targets as less interesting (M = 4.03, SD = 1.04) than both weakly committed females (M = 4.35, SD = .92; difference score = -.319, CI [-.605, -.033], p = .023) and moderately committed females (M = 4.37, SD = .77; difference score = -.339, CI [-.582, -.096], p = .003). As I predicted, females' relationship commitment did not influence females' ratings for male intelligence (p = .61), female attractiveness (p = .39), female interestingness (p = .20), female intelligence (p = .73), or control visual appeal (p = .20).

Upon closer inspection of the data, it was found that the pattern of devaluation for opposite-sex targets differed qualitatively between male and female participants (refer to Figure 2). Specifically, male participants' ratings of female targets followed a slight inverted-U shape, in a pattern opposite to that which was hypothesized based on the commitment calibration paradigm, with moderately committed males providing the *highest* ratings of female traits, rather than the lowest. Female participants' ratings of male targets followed a negative linear path as relationship commitment increased, with ratings decreasing gradually as relationship commitment increased, also deviating from the predicted U-shaped curve. To summarize, ANOVA results did not support Hypothesis 1 for either sex, as only criterion 1 was satisfied, and criteria 2 through 4 were not.

Upon discovery of these trends, it was suspected that male and female participants perhaps differed from one another, either qualitatively or quantitatively, in their level of commitment as a function of relationship status, and that these tests were capturing different segments of each sex's respective commitment calibration curve. To test for this sex difference, a

2 (sex: male; female) by 4 (relationship status: casually dating; exclusively dating; long-term relationship; married) ANOVA was used with relationship commitment as the dependent variable. Results indicated that neither sex, $F(1, 696) = 1.74$, $p = .19$, nor the relationship-status-by-sex interaction, $F(2, 696) = 2.08$, $p = .10$, was found to influence relationship commitment. As further evidence against this, when relationship commitment is plotted as a function of both relationship status and sex, and then visually compared, the pattern in both sexes is highly similar (see Figure 3). Based on these results, it was concluded that both male and female participants appeared to be experiencing similar levels of commitment, and that the unique patterns of devaluation behaviour reflected by each sex was due to differences related to factors beyond relationship commitment.

Regression. To explore these effects further as well as to increase statistical power, linear regression was then employed using relationship commitment as a continuous predictor variable. For the full-sample regression model for Hypothesis 1, participant sex (coded as males = 0; females = 1) and relationship commitment (RC; as a continuous, centered, and unstandardized variable) were first entered into block 1, with the 2-way sex-by-commitment interaction entered into block 2. Results of regressions on the full sample, which are provided in Table 12, revealed a main effect of sex for all target types and traits (all $p < .05$), with the exception of female attractiveness and female intelligence (both $p > .05$). These results were qualified by a significant relationship-commitment-by-sex interaction for both male interestingness, $\beta = -.120$, $t(700) = -1.97$, $p = .050$, and female intelligence, $\beta = -.130$, $t(700) = -2.03$, $p = .043$. In brief, these results reflect that (1) the two sexes are highly similar in how they rate (at least quantitatively) attractiveness in relatively attractive females, and (2) that both the beholder's sex and level of relationship commitment affect judgements of male interestingness and female intelligence.

To further unpack these effects, independent regressions were conducted for each participant sex, with relationship commitment being the only predictor entered into the model (linear regression results by participant sex are provided in Table 13). Using both linear and curvilinear regression models, relationship commitment was not a significant predictor of male participants' ratings for any targets (all $p > .025$), highlighting the possibility that the inverted-U pattern uncovered in previous ANOVAs may have simply been a statistical artifact arising from the division of relationship commitment into a trichotomous variable. Thus, for male participants, when using relationship commitment as a continuous variable, the null hypothesis for Hypothesis 1 was retained. Finally, with relationship commitment as a predictor, the linear model did trend toward significance for males' ratings of female intelligence, $\beta = .114$, $t(261) = 1.85$, $p = .065$, with weakly committed males rating females as less intelligent than their highly committed counterparts: $FIntel = .051 * RC + 4.61$, $R^2 = .01$.

Turning to female participants, unlike male participants, relationship commitment did predict their ratings for opposite-sex target attractiveness, with highly committed females rating male targets as less attractive compared to weakly committed females, $\beta = -.125$, $t(440) = -2.63$, $p = .009$; $MAttr = -.074 * RC + 4.44$, $R^2 = .01$. Importantly, this devaluation effect was not restricted to the trait of attractiveness, as highly committed females also rated males as less interesting compared to less committed females; $\beta = -.121$, $t(440) = -2.54$, $p = .012$; $MInter = -.065 * RC + 4.22$, $R^2 = .01$. For female participants, as was the case with male participants, curvilinear models did not improve prediction beyond linear models. In brief, Hypothesis 1 was supported for female participants, but only partially. Specifically, relationship commitment influenced females' ratings of male attractiveness; however, the devaluation trend was negatively linear instead of a U-shaped curve that was hypothesized, and devaluation was not restricted to the trait of attractiveness.

To summarize all results for Hypothesis 1, there was no support for the prediction that relationship commitment influences ratings of opposite-sex target attractiveness following a U-shaped curve. Instead, data reflected a negative linear trend whereby attractiveness ratings decreased as relationship commitment increased – an effect that was found only in female participants. Although an initial ANOVA revealed an inverted-U-shaped relationship between males' self-reported relationship commitment and their judgements of female attractiveness, subsequent regression analyses revealed no significant effects (either linear or curvilinear), suggesting that this earlier ANOVA finding was likely a statistical artifact. Alternatively, for female participants, when using both ANOVA and regression, their ratings of male attractiveness decreased linearly as self-reported relationship commitment increased. Importantly, this linear devaluation phenomenon in females was not restricted to the trait of male attractiveness, as higher scores on relationship commitment also resulted in females devaluing male interestingness. Because relationship commitment was found in some cases to predict attractiveness ratings, it was deemed necessary to control for this predictor in Hypotheses 2 through 4 in order to better isolate the predictive power of other variables of interest.

Hypothesis 2. For Hypothesis 2, I predicted that, when controlling for relationship commitment (both its main effect and relevant interactions), attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, or both, would predict attractiveness ratings for opposite-sex targets, but not for same-sex or control targets. Attractiveness ratings were specifically predicted to be lower for participants who scored higher on both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance scales compared to those who scored lower on those scales. Support for this hypothesis would be found if sex-specific regression analyses revealed that: (1) attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, or interactions involving these variables, predict ratings of opposite-sex attractiveness, and (2)

these main effects or interactions are not replicated in regressions predicting opposite-sex interestingness or intelligence, or for any same-sex target traits.

To begin testing this hypothesis, hierarchical linear regressions were first conducted on the full sample to probe for both main and interaction effects for participant sex, attachment anxiety, and attachment avoidance on participants' attractiveness ratings for each target type and trait. With respect to the regression model itself, both participant sex (coded as above) and relationship commitment (as above) were entered into block 1, attachment avoidance score (centered, standardized) and attachment anxiety score (centered, standardized) were entered into block 2, five 2-way interactions were entered into block 3 and, finally, two 3-way interactions into block 4, and the 4-way interaction into block 5.

Complete results of full-sample regressions for Hypothesis 2 are provided in Table 14. These analyses uncovered a significant 4-way interaction between attachment avoidance, attachment anxiety, relationship commitment, and participant sex for ratings of male attractiveness, $\beta = -.161$, $t(690) = -2.12$, $p = .034$, and male interestingness, $\beta = -.207$, $t(690) = -2.69$, $p = .007$, but not for male intelligence ($p = .79$). Attachment measures did not predict ratings of female attractiveness or intelligence in the full participant sample (all ps $> .05$), however the same 4-way interaction noted above did predict participants' ratings of female interestingness, $\beta = -.180$, $t(690) = -2.23$, $p = .026$.

Because interactions involving participant sex were found, sex-specific effects were probed further using independent regressions on each participant sex. (As noted above, this procedure of first testing the full sample and subsequently testing each sex independently was repeated for all following hypotheses.) With respect to the model used for these sex-specific regressions, relationship commitment was entered into block 1, the two attachment avoidance

and attachment anxiety scores were entered into block 2, the two 2-way interactions were entered into block 3, and the single 3-way interaction was entered into block 4.

Beginning with males' ratings of female targets, in support of Hypothesis 2, a significant 2-way interaction was found between attachment avoidance and relationship commitment for ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = -.170$, $t(256) = 2.24$, $p = .026$, and the 3-way commitment-avoidance-anxiety interaction was again marginally significant, $\beta = .147$, $t(255) = 2.02$, $p = .044$. Six simple effects emerged for males' ratings of female attractiveness. First, as shown in Figure 4, relationship commitment had a strong negative impact on ratings of female attractiveness for males who were highly anxious and low on avoidance, $\beta = -.407$, $t(255) = -8.50$, $p < .001$. Second, for highly avoidant, highly anxious males, higher relationship commitment predicted moderately higher ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = .195$, $t(255) = 2.26$, $p = .025$. Third, for males who were highly committed and highly anxious, lower avoidance scores predicted lower ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = .266$, $t(255) = 4.45$, $p < .001$. Fourth, as shown in Figure 5, for males who were less anxious and weakly committed, lower scores on avoidance predicted lower ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = .190$, $t(255) = 2.50$, $p = .013$. Fifth, for weakly committed males who were highly anxious, higher avoidance scores resulted in lower ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = -.242$, $t(255) = -3.52$, $p < .001$. Finally, there was a simple effect of attachment anxiety for males who were highly committed and highly anxious, with lower scores on attachment anxiety predicting lower ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = .266$, $t(255) = 4.45$, $p < .001$. No effects were found for other males (all ps $> .025$). Contrary to my prediction, these effects were not restricted to female attractiveness ratings, as the 2-way avoidance by commitment interaction that predicted attractiveness was also found to predict males' ratings of female interestingness, $\beta = .184$, $t(256) = 2.45$, $p = .015$ (this was qualified by a marginally

significant three-way interaction between avoidance, anxiety, and commitment, β = .152, $t(255) = 2.10$, $p = .037$). Consistent with my predictions, attachment measures did not predict males' ratings of female intelligence.

Contrary to expectations, regressions using male participants (presented in Table 15) uncovered a number of effects for attachment anxiety and avoidance on their ratings of male faces. First, a 2-way interaction between attachment anxiety and relationship commitment predicted males' ratings of male attractiveness, β = -.159, $t(256) = -2.28$, $p = .024$, and a 3-way commitment-avoidance-anxiety interaction also approached significance for males' ratings of male attractiveness, β = .140, $t(255) = 1.93$, $p = .055$). A detailed analysis of the 3-way interaction revealed three simple effects. First, relationship commitment had a negative impact on ratings of male attractiveness for males who were low in both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance, β = -.190, $t(255) = -3.56$, $p < .001$. Second, *lower* scores on attachment anxiety resulted in devaluation of male attractiveness for males who were both weakly committed and low on avoidance, β = .237, $t(255) = 3.41$, $p < .001$. Third, for males who were both weakly committed to their relationships and low on attachment anxiety, their ratings of male attractiveness decreased as attachment avoidance decreased, β = .274, $t(255) = 2.87$, $p < .001$ (see Figure 6). Also contrary to my predictions, this same 3-way commitment-avoidance-anxiety interaction was significant in predicting males' ratings of male interestingness, β = .211, $t(255) = 2.94$, $p = .004$. Neither of the two attachment scores predicted males' ratings of male intelligence or control targets.

For female participants, the null hypothesis was retained, as neither of the two attachment measures predicted ratings of male attractiveness (ps > .025; see female results in Table 16). Curiously however, females' avoidance scores did predict their ratings of other male traits. Specifically, a two-way avoidance-commitment interaction predicted ratings of male

interestingness, β = .186, $t(435) = 3.36$, $p = .001$, and there was also a main effect of attachment avoidance on females' ratings of male intelligence, β = -.190, $t(438) = -3.10$, $p = .002$, with avoidant females rating males as less intelligent compared to less avoidant females: *MIntel* = -.124 * AttAvd + 4.50. As predicted, attachment scores failed to predict females' ratings of female attractiveness, interestingness, and intelligence (all *p*s > .025).

To summarize the results for Hypothesis 2, the null hypothesis was rejected for male participants only, as it was discovered that the influence of relationship commitment on males' ratings of both male and female attractiveness is moderated by both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. In particular, relationship commitment, attachment avoidance, and attachment anxiety interacted in unique ways to impact males' ratings of female attractiveness. Specifically, it was males who were highly anxious, weakly committed, and low on avoidance that provided the highest attractiveness ratings of females. However, for highly anxious and less avoidant males, as relationship commitment increased, so too did the devaluation effect, with their highly committed counterparts providing the lowest ratings of female attractiveness. When it came to males rating male targets, those males who were less committed, less anxious, and less avoidant rated other males as less attractive compared to their counterparts who scored higher on these three measures. For females, attachment measures did not predict attractiveness ratings for male or females targets, but did predict ratings of control target visual appeal. Finally, for both male participants and female participants, attachment measures predicted ratings of interestingness for opposite-sex targets.

Hypothesis 3. After controlling for relationship commitment, social anxiety – as measured by the social anxiety composite score – was also hypothesized to predict participants' ratings of target attractiveness for opposite sex targets, but not for same-sex or control targets. With respect to the regression model used, both participant sex and relationship commitment

were entered into block 1 (as above), participants' social anxiety composite score (centered, standardized) was entered into block 2, the two 2-way interactions was entered into block 3, and the 3-way interaction was entered into block 4.

Regression results for the full sample are provided in Table 17. In the full sample, a main effect of social anxiety predicted ratings of male attractiveness, β = -.078, $t(700) = -2.18$, $p = .030$, with socially anxious participants rating male faces as less attractive when compared to less socially anxious participants: *MAttr* = -.111 * SocAnx + 3.44, $\Delta R^2 = .01$. This effect was qualified by a marginally significant three-way interaction between social anxiety, commitment, and participant sex, β = .115, $t(697) = 1.90$, $p = .057$. This same three-way interaction was also marginally significant in predicting male interestingness, β = .108, $t(697) = 1.74$, $p = .082$. No other effects were found for the full sample.

Sex-specific regressions were then employed, with relationship commitment being entered into block 1, social anxiety composite score entered into block 2, and the 2-way interaction entered into block 3. For male participants (results are provided in Table 18), the social anxiety composite score did not predict their ratings for any target types or traits (all *p*s > .025). Alternatively, for female participants (results are provided in Table 19), the social anxiety composite score predicted ratings of male attractiveness, β = -.137, $t(439) = -2.90$, $p = .004$, with socially anxious females rating males as less attractive compared to their less socially anxious counterparts: *MAttr* = -.144 * SocAnx + 4.46 (refer to Figure 7 for participants' ratings of opposite sex attractiveness as a function of the social anxiety composite score). Interestingly, when social anxiety and relationship commitment were both entered into the same regression block, the effect size for the social anxiety composite (β = -.137) was comparable to that of

relationship commitment (β = -.142).[7] Once again, the devaluation effect was not restricted to ratings of attractiveness, as social anxiety also negatively impacted females' judgements of male interestingness, β = -.127, $t(439) = -2.67$, $p = .008$; *MInter* = -.123 * SocAnx + 4.23, and approached significance for male intelligence, β = -.086, $t(439) = -1.80$, $p = .072$. Consistent with my expectations, the social anxiety composite score did not predict females' ratings for female or control targets.

Finally, because the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) and Social Phobia Scale (SPS) each measure different (but related) constructs, and both load on the latent variable of "social anxiety" (Mattick & Clarke, 1998), I also chose to probe the potentially unique impacts of each of these two scales on participants' target ratings. Results of these supplementary analyses are not discussed in detail here but are instead described and tabled in Appendices O1 (full sample), O2 (males), and O3 (females). In general, results of these analyses revealed that social anxiety, depending on one's degree of relationship commitment, does indeed affect attractiveness ratings, particularly for same-sex targets.

To summarize the results for Hypothesis 3, the null hypothesis was rejected for female participants only. Initial regressions for the full sample, using the social anxiety composite score as a predictor of attractiveness ratings, revealed that higher scores on this measure predicted lower scores of male attractiveness. However, this phenomenon that was subsequently determined to be occurring in females only.

Hypothesis 4. After controlling for relationship commitment, participants' generalized anxiety composite scores were also hypothesized to predict attractiveness ratings, but this time for *all* target types. For this regression model, both participant sex and relationship commitment

[7] Social anxiety also remained a significant predictor of male attractiveness after controlling for both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance, β = -.150, $t(437) = -2.73$, $p = .007$.

were entered into block 1, with participants' generalized anxiety composite score (centered) entered into block 2, the two 2-way interactions entered into block 3, and the 3-way interaction entered into block 4. Regression results for generalized anxiety composite score on target ratings in the full participant sample are presented in Table 20. Initial full-sample regression analyses revealed an interaction between generalized anxiety and relationship commitment for participants' ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = .087$, $t(698) = 2.30$, $p = .022$. Through simple effects analysis, a devaluation effect for relationship commitment emerged for participants with low generalized anxiety only, $\beta = -.108$, $t(698) = -2.76$, $p = .006$ (see Figure 8). There was also a main effect for generalized anxiety on participants' ratings of male intelligence, $\beta = -.075$, $t(700) = -2.07$, $p = .039$, with higher generalized anxiety scores predicting lower male intelligence ratings: *MIntel* = -.074 * GenAnx + 3.93. All other effects for these full-sample regressions were non-significant (all $p > .05$).

Consistent with the procedure used for previous hypotheses, sex-specific regressions were employed next, with relationship commitment being entered into block 1, generalized anxiety score entered into block 2, and the 2-way interaction being entered into block 3. Contrary to expectations, these regression analyses for both male participants (see Table 21) and female participants (see Table 22) using the generalized anxiety composite score as a predictor of target ratings yielded no significant effects for any target types or traits.

After testing the generalized anxiety composite score, it was suspected that perhaps two of the three DASS subscales that were used to compute this composite score (i.e., the Anxiety and Stress subscales) were exerting distinct and possibly *opposite* effects on participants ratings of different targets. To test this possibility, the same regression procedure that was used for the SIAS and SPS scores for Hypothesis 3 was repeated using DASS subscale scores instead.

Results of these supplementary analyses using the DASS subscales for target rating prediction are provided in Appendices P1 (full sample), P2 (males), and P3 (females).

To summarize, little support was found for the hypothesis that the generalized anxiety composite score would negatively impact ratings of attractiveness for all targets. Participants who were weakly committed to their relationships devalued female attractiveness to a greater extent when they were more stressed and anxious (i.e., as evidenced by higher scores on the generalized anxiety composite measure). Higher scores on generalized anxiety also predicted lower ratings of male intelligence in the full sample. An overview of the findings for Hypotheses 1 through 4 is provided in Table 23).

Hypothesis 5. Beyond having an impact on participants' judgements of target attractiveness, it was also hypothesized that higher scores on measures of (i) attachment anxiety, (ii) attachment avoidance, (iii) social anxiety, and (iv) generalized anxiety would predict lower scores on relationship quality measures at follow-up (i.e. Time 2; six months after initial data collection). These relationship quality indicators included (a) relationship commitment, (b) relationship satisfaction, (c) the extent to which the participant values the relationship (i.e., relationship value-self), and (d) the extent to which the participant thinks their partner values the relationship (i.e., relationship value-partner). Given the large number of predictors (8) and outcome variables (4) for this hypothesis, analyses were fairly extensive. For this reason, only highlights are provided in text for each predictor; a comprehensive presentation of the findings can be found in the corresponding data tables.

Sex differences in the follow-up sample. Prior to conducting these analyses, Time 2 (T2) sample characteristics (means and standard deviations) were calculated and t-tests were employed to identify any sex differences for participant age, the four relationship quality indicators, as well as on each of the primary scale scores. Descriptive data of relationship quality

ratings for the follow-up sample including sex differences are provided in Table 03. Similar to the Time 1 (T1) sample, a significant sex difference in participant age was found, $t(161) = 3.15$, $p = .003$, with females being younger than males ($M_F = 18.8$, $SD = 1.81$; $M_M = 21.2$, $SD = 4.99$). No sex differences were found in the follow-up sample for relationship commitment, satisfaction, value-self or value-partner.

Group differences between Time 1 and Time 2 participants. Prior to testing for group differences between Time 1 and follow-up participants, paired-sample t-tests were used to test for changes in relationship quality ratings between Time 1 and Time 2 within the sample of follow-up participants. These tests revealed that follow-up participants who were still in committed relationships were *less* committed to their relationships (marginally significant), $t(122) = 1.94$, $p = .054$ ($M_{T1} = 8.31$; $SD = 1.19$; $M_{T2} = 8.11$; $SD = 1.21$), and *less* satisfied with their relationships $t(122) = 2.72$, $p = .008$ ($M_{T1} = 6.21$; $SD = .896$; $M_{T2} = 5.96$; $SD = 1.04$) than they were at the beginning of the study six months earlier.[8]

When using linear regression on the full participant sample to test whether relationship quality ratings at Time 1 predict their corresponding ratings at Time 2, all four were highly significant (all $p < .001$; *p*-values associated with these tests can be found in block 1 of each regression table). As an interesting side note, however, when looking at male participants specifically, relationship satisfaction at Time 1 did *not* predict their satisfaction at Time 2 ($p = .10$; refer to regression block 1 for relationship satisfaction in Table 26).

Next, for each of the eight (8) primary predictors of interest, Welch's t-tests were used to probe for group differences in scores between Time 1 participants and follow-up participants

[8] Separate analyses on each sex revealed this difference was primarily due to declines in commitment and satisfaction within female participants.

who were still in a committed relationship at Time 2 (see Tables 24 and 25, and Figure 9).[9] As one might expect, follow-up participants who were still in relationships at Time 2 provided significantly higher ratings on all four of the relationship quality indicators compared to Time 1 participants (*p*s < .001; Table 22). Across the attachment and clinical scales, two group differences were found: one on the DASS-Anxiety subscale, $t(660) = 7.01$, $p = .009$; $M_{T1} = 8.41$; $SD = 7.80$; $M_{T2} = 6.79$; $SD = 6.60$; and one on the ECR's attachment avoidance scale, $t(660) = 3.68$, $p < .001$; $M_{T1} = 2.60$; $SD = 1.10$; $M_{T2} = 2.20$; $SD = 1.02$. Time 2 participants who were still in relationships at follow-up scored significantly lower on both scales compared to participants in the T1 sample (see Table 25). No group differences were found on the other primary scales and subscales.

5a. Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance as predictors of relationship quality at six-month follow-up. To test whether attachment anxiety and/or attachment avoidance predict relationship quality at follow-up, linear regression was employed as it was with previous hypotheses, with the following three exceptions. First, relationship quality ratings at Time 2 (i.e., commitment, satisfaction, value-self, and value-partner) were substituted as the dependent variables in place of target ratings. Second, to control for each relationship quality (RQ) rating at Time 1, each RQ rating at T1 was entered into block 1 of each regression (along with participant sex for full-sample regressions), with predictors of primary interest being entered into block 2, and associated interactions entered into subsequent blocks. Third, analyses were conducted only using participants who were in committed relationships at Time 2 (33 male; 89 female; 122 total). Due to small sample size in males (n = 33), simple effects analyses were not conducted for this group. Moreover, Hypothesis 5 regression results for males should be interpreted with caution.

[9] Significance at $p < .013$ (eight predictors; FWER with α_{crit} at .10).

For the first regression analysis for Hypothesis 5a, attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were used to predict relationship quality at T2 in the full sample. This was done by entering participant sex into block 1 along with the respective relationship quality rating at Time 1 for each regression; attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance scores were then entered into block 2, with four 2-way interactions entered into block 3, and the two 3-way interactions entered into block 4. Results of this full-sample regression (provided in Table 26) revealed a two-way interaction between attachment avoidance and relationship commitment (T1) for relationship commitment at follow-up, $\beta = -.251$, $t(114) = -2.44$, $p = .016$. Simple effects analysis revealed, unsurprisingly, that participants who were highly committed at Time 1 were still highly committed to their relationships at Time 2 (both $p < .001$). There was also a negative effect of attachment avoidance for both weakly and highly committed participants, although this effect was stronger in the weakly committed group, $\beta = -.320$, $t(114) = -5.21$, $p < .001$ (see Figure 10). No other effects were found for the full sample.

Independent regressions on each participant sex involved entering each corresponding relationship quality indicator into block 1, the attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance scores into block 2, and the two 2-way interactions into block 3. Regressions on both male participants (see Table 27) and female participants (see Table 28) pointed to similar conclusions: neither attachment anxiety nor avoidance predicted any relationship quality ratings at follow-up. To summarize, results partially support the experimental hypothesis in that, as might be expected, higher scores on attachment avoidance at Time 1 had a negative effect on relationship commitment scores at Time 2. Importantly, this effect was restricted to participants who were already weakly committed to their relationships.

5b. Social anxiety as a predictor of relationship quality at six-month follow-up. Social anxiety was also hypothesized to predict relationship quality at follow-up. This hypothesis was

first tested by regressing relationship quality scores on the social anxiety composite score. This was accomplished by entering participant sex and relationship quality (T1) in block 1, social anxiety composite score into block 2, the two 2-way interactions entered into block 3, and the 3-way interaction entered into block 4. Regression results for the full sample (provided in Table 29) revealed a significant social anxiety by sex interaction for relationship commitment, β = .542, $t(117) = 2.65$, $p = .009$. A two-way interaction between social anxiety and relationship value-partner also trended toward significance, β = .145, $t(114) = 1.72$, $p = .088$. No other full-sample effects were found.

To test each sex specifically, the corresponding Time 1 relationship quality rating was entered into block 1 of the model, the social anxiety composite score into block 2, and the 2-way interaction into block 3. For males (results are presented in Table 30), after controlling for relationship commitment at Time 1, higher social anxiety composite scores predicted weaker relationship commitment ratings at follow-up, β = -.359, $t(31) = -2.54$, $p = .016$; *RC* = -.952 * SocAnx + 7.01.

Regression results for females (see Table 31) indicated that the social anxiety composite score did not predict commitment at follow-up, however a marginally significant interaction emerged between social anxiety and relationship value-self (T1) in predicting value-self at follow-up, β = .238, $t(86) = 2.09$, $p = .040$. A more detailed analysis of this interaction revealed a negative effect of social anxiety on relationship value-self at follow-up for females who valued their relationships less at Time 1, β = -.381, $t(86) = -4.44$, $p < .001$. This effect was not found for females who highly valued their relationships at Time 1, β = -.025, $t(86) = -0.19$, $p = .85$ (see Figure 11). The effect of relationship value-self was also significant for both highly socially anxious females, β = .567, $t(86) = 6.18$, $p < .001$, as well as their less socially anxious counterparts, β = .306, $t(86) = 2.39$, $p = .019$.

Because the existing literature (e.g., Le & Agnew, 2003; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993) identifies relationship commitment as a strong predictor of break-up, I also elected to examine whether social anxiety interacted with any of the other three relationship quality indicators (i.e., satisfaction, value-self, and value-partner) to predict females' commitment at follow-up. I tested this by entering the four relationship quality indicators and the social anxiety composite score into block 1, the four 2-way interactions into block 2, with relationship commitment at Time 2 as the criterion variable. Results of this analysis (provided in Table 32) uncovered an interaction between social anxiety and value-self, $\beta = .504$, $t(80) = 3.63$, $p < .001$, while all other interactions were insignificant ($p > .025$). An analysis of simple effects indicated that females who valued their relationships less at Time 1 and who were highly socially anxious were significantly less committed at follow-up, $\beta = .762$, $t(80) = 5.90$, $p < .001$, compared to less socially anxious females, $\beta = .106$, $t(80) = .54$, $p = .59$ (see Figure 12).

Taken as a whole, results of these analyses provided some initial support for the hypothesis that social anxiety impacts relationship quality over time. Although it was specifically predicted that relationship satisfaction would be predicted by social anxiety, results failed to support this prediction. For males, however, social anxiety at Time 1 did negatively impact relationship commitment. For females who valued their relationships less at Time 1, social anxiety had a negative impact both on their commitment and how much they valued their relationships six months after the initial study. Supplementary analyses were also conducted by using the individual SIAS and SPS scale scores to predict relationship quality. Results of these supplementary analyses are provided in Appendices Q1 (full sample), Q2 (males), and Q3 (females).

5c. Generalized anxiety as a predictor of relationship quality at six-month follow-up. Generalized anxiety score was also used to predict relationship quality at follow-up. The

regression model used was the same as that for the social anxiety score (described above) with the exception that generalized anxiety composite score was used in place of the social anxiety composite score. When using the generalized anxiety composite score to predict relationship quality in the full sample (see Table 33 for complete results), a three-way interaction was found between generalized anxiety, relationship commitment, and participant sex in predicting relationship commitment at follow-up, $\beta = -.421$, $t(116) = -1.95$, $p = .054$. There was also a two-way interaction between generalized anxiety and relationship value-partner (T1) predicting relationship value-partner at Time 2, $\beta = .216$, $t(117) = 2.45$, $p = .016$. Simple effects analysis revealed that, of the participants who believed their partners weakly valued their relationships at Time 1, those who were high in generalized anxiety provided lower value-partner ratings at follow-up, $\beta = .492$, $t(117) = 5.41$, $p < .001$, compared to their less generally anxious counterparts, $\beta = .320$, $t(117) = 3.52$, $p < .001$ (see Figure 13). No simple effects emerged for generalized anxiety itself (both $p > .05$).

Sex-specific regressions were then conducted using the same sex-specific model described above for regressions using the social anxiety composite score. Using this model, the generalized anxiety composite score failed to predict male participants' scores on all four of the relationship quality measures (refer to Table 34). Once again, it was suspected that low statistical power due to small sample size in males resulted in a failure to capture unique interactions effects.

Alternatively, for female participants, their relationship value-partner ratings (i.e., how much they thought their partners valued their relationship) at Time 2 were predicted by a two-way interaction between their generalized anxiety scores and their relationship value-partner ratings at Time 1, $\beta = .216$, $t(86) = 2.45$, $p = .016$ (refer to Table 35 for female results). Simple effects analysis of female participants replicated what was found in the full sample (refer again

to Figure 13). Specifically, of the females who believed their male partners weakly valued their relationships at Time 1, those who were high in generalized anxiety provided lower value-partner ratings at follow-up, β = .486, $t(86) = 4.46$, $p < .001$, compared to their less generally anxious counterparts, β = .281, $t(86) = 2.58$, $p = .012$. Also for females, a simple effect of generalized anxiety for low relationship value-partner trended toward significance, β = -.213, $t(86) = -1.90$, $p = .061$ (see Figure 14).

As with social anxiety, I also examined whether generalized anxiety interacted with any of the other three relationship quality indicators (i.e., satisfaction, value-self, and value-partner) to predict females' commitment at follow-up. I tested this by entering the four relationship quality indicators and the generalized anxiety composite score into block 1, the four 2-way interactions into block 2, with relationship commitment at Time 2 as the criterion variable. Results of this analysis (provided in Table 36) uncovered the same interaction for generalized anxiety that was found for social anxiety, that is, with females' value-self ratings, β = .445, $t(80) = 3.33$, $p < .001$, while all other interactions were insignificant (all $p > .025$). An analysis of simple effects of generalized anxiety mirrored what was found for social anxiety: females who valued their relationships less at Time 1 and who scored high on generalized anxiety were significantly less committed at follow-up, β = .786, $t(80) = 4.01$, $p < .001$, compared to less stressed and anxious females, β = .079, $t(80) = .40$, $p = .69$ (see Figure 15).

The results for Hypothesis 5c generally supported my hypothesis that stress and anxiety impacts relationship quality. Although relationship satisfaction was not predicted by the generalized anxiety measure, there was evidence that stress and anxiety, as measured by the composite score, affected participants' beliefs about how much their partners valued their relationships. Moreover, generalized anxiety had a negative impact on relationship commitment for females who weakly valued their relationships at Time 1. Again, in the service of

comprehensiveness, the individual DASS subscale scores were also used to predict relationship quality. Results of these supplementary analyses are provided in Appendices R1 (full sample), R2 (males), and R3 (females).

Hypothesis 6. Finally, it was hypothesized that the same predictors used in Hypothesis 5 – that is, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, social anxiety, and generalized anxiety – would also predict relationship dissolution (i.e., "break-up") six months post-study. To test this prediction, I used hierarchical logistic regression on participant relationship status at Time 2 (coded together = 0; broken up = 1), with relationship commitment at Time 1 being entered into the first block of the regression, predictors of interest being entered into the second block, 2-way interactions being entered into the third block, and 3-way interactions being entered into the fourth block.[10]

Descriptive statistics and group differences between participants who were still in committed relationships and those who had broken up were also calculated, and are provided in Tables 37 and 38. In terms of frequency of break-up in the follow-up sample, it was found that, of the 163 total follow-up participants, 74.8% (n = 122) were still in their original relationship while the other 25.2% (n = 41) had broken up. The two sexes were virtually identical in this trend, with 75% of males (n = 33) and 74.8% of females (n = 89) maintaining their relationships, and 25% of males (n = 11) and 25.2% of females (n = 30) having ended them. Student's t-tests were also conducted between group scores on the four relationship quality scales as well as the other scale scores of principal interest. Results reflected significant group differences on all four of the relationship quality measures, with participants who were still in relationships scoring higher on commitment, satisfaction, value-self-, and value-partner at Time 1 compared to

[10] For several of these logistic regressions, the sample size was problematic given the large number of predictors in the model. In such cases, problematic results (e.g., inflated beta weights and *p*-values) are italicized or bolded in the results tables and are not discussed in the text.

participants who had broken up. Participants still in relationships also scored significantly lower on attachment avoidance compared to those who had broken up (all $p < .005$).[11]

6a. Relationship quality measures as predictors of relationship dissolution. Before testing the effects of attachment anxiety, avoidance, social anxiety, and generalized anxiety, I first used regression to test whether relationship quality indicators at Time 1 predicted break-up at Time 2 (see Table 39). For this test, participant sex (male = 0 (base); female = 1) and all four relationship indicators were simultaneously entered into block 1, with the four 2-way interactions with sex entered into block 2. Interestingly, when using this model, only relationship commitment emerged as a significant predictor of break-up at Time 2 – and only marginally so, $B = -.377$, $Wald(1) = 3.47$, $p = .063$, $OR = .69$. This is perhaps unsurprising given the strong correlations among these four predictors (rs = .57 to .78; refer to Table 02).[12] An interaction between participant sex and their judgements about how much their partner values their relationship was also significant, $B = 1.78$, $Wald(1) = 7.10$, $p = .008$.

A logistic regression was then conducted on each sex specifically, by simultaneously entering the four relationship quality ratings from Time 1 into a single block. Results for male participants (provided in Table 40) revealed only a main effect of relationship value-partner, $B = -1.32$, $Wald(1) = 5.18$, $p = .023$, $OR = .27$ (95% CI [.09, .83]). Specifically, for every point of decrease on this value-partner scale at Time 1, male participants were 73% more likely to have broken up at Time 2. The overall model with all four predictors was also significant, $\chi^2(4) = 17.35$, $p = .002$, boosting the predictive efficiency from the null model's 74.4% to 83.7% for the alternative model. Results of a separate logistic regression on males, which involved only

[11] The FWER was set at .10 for 18 t-tests. This resulted in a t-crit of .005 for each predictor.
[12] In a separate regression, in which only relationship commitment and participant sex were entered in block 1, and their interaction entered in block 2, only relationship commitment emerged as a significant predictor of break-up at follow-up, $B = -.607$, $Wald(1) = 6.58$, $p = .010$; participant sex ($p = .46$) and the two-way interaction ($p = .62$) did not predict break-up.

relationship commitment, was also significant, *B* = -*.607*, *Wald*(1) = 6.58, *p* = .010, *OR* = .55 (95% CI [.34, .87]) and boosted predictive accuracy from 75% to 81.8%.

Regression results for females (also provided in Table 40) revealed that none of the four relationship quality predictors were significant when entered together, though the overall model was significant, $\chi^2(4) = 14.11$, *p* = .007. The predictive power of the experimental model improved only slightly over that of the null, from 74.6% to 76.3%. As was the case with males, a separate logistic regression using females only with relationship commitment being used as the only predictor was also highly significant, *B* = -*.467*, *Wald*(1) = 9.37, *p* = .002 *OR* = .63 (95% CI [.47, .85]).

6b. Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance as predictors of relationship dissolution. Attachment anxiety and avoidance were also hypothesized to predict break-up. The logistic regression model used here replicated the models used for both Hypotheses 2 and 5a, with the exception that the outcome being predicted was relationship dissolution at Time 2. Full-sample regression results (provided in Table 41) identified only a 2-way interaction between attachment avoidance and relationship commitment on relationship dissolution, *B* = *.315*, *Wald*(1) = 5.14, *p* = .023. Subsequent analyses revealed a simple effect of attachment avoidance for highly committed participants, *B* = *.637*, *Wald*(1) = 6.75, *p* = .009, *OR* = 1.89 (95% CI [1.17, 3.06]), but not for weakly committed participants (*p* = .37). This indicated that of those participants who were highly committed to their relationships, those who scored above the 68th percentile on the avoidance scale at Time 1 were roughly 89% more likely to be broken up six months later compared to those who scored near the 50th percentile on the avoidance scale. There were also two simple effects for relationship commitment: one for low avoidance participants and one for high avoidance participants. For participants who scored below the median on the avoidance scale, relationship commitment was highly significant in predicting break-up, *B*

= *-1.29*, *Wald*(1) = 7.79, *p* = .005, *OR* = .28 (95% CI [.11, .68]), reflecting that for participants who were low on avoidance, for every 1-point decrease on the relationship commitment scale they were 72% more likely to have broken up. For participants who scored high on attachment avoidance, relationship commitment was also significant in predicting break-up at Time 2, although somewhat less so, *B* = *-.348*, *Wald*(1) = 5.67, *p* = .017, *OR* = .71 (95% CI [.53, .94]). For this group, a 1-point decrease in commitment equated with a 39% increase in the likelihood of break-up.

For males specifically, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and their interactions failed to predict break-up, though some of these approached significance (refer to Table 42). Although the model involving a 3-way anxiety-avoidance-commitment interaction was significant, $\chi^2(6) = 18.80$, *p* = .005, and improved the prediction over the null model from 75% to 86.4%, the combination of small sample sizes and large number of predictors makes valid interpretation difficult and/or inappropriate. For females, attachment measures alone did not predict break-up (all *p*s > .025; refer to Table 42), nor did any simple effects surface for these measures, despite some trending toward significance.

6c. Social anxiety as a predictor of relationship dissolution. The social anxiety composite score was also hypothesized to predict break-up and this was tested using the same regression models used in Hypotheses 3 and 5b, with the exception again being that the dependent variable was instead the dichotomous together/apart relationship status at Time 2. Using the social anxiety composite score for the full participant sample (see Table 43 for results), a significant 3-way interaction was found between the social anxiety composite score, relationship commitment, and participant sex, *B* = *.680*, *Wald*(1) = 4.02, *p* = .045. The overall model boosted predictive accuracy by approximately 3%, from 74.8% to 77.9%.

Looking at each sex independently, after controlling for relationship commitment, the social anxiety composite score alone did not improve prediction for males or females (see Table 44).[13] However, a more thorough analysis uncovered three simple effects when not controlling for relationship commitment, which, in each and every case, was significant only for females who scored high (i.e., above the median) on the social anxiety composite score. Specifically, for socially anxious females, there was a simple effect of relationship commitment, *B = -.520*, *Wald*(1) = 7.24, *p* = .007, *OR* = .59 (95% CI [.41, .89]), relationship satisfaction, *B = -.701*, *Wald*(1) = 6.90, *p* = .009, *OR* = .50 (95% CI [.29, .84]), and relationship value-self (marginal), *B = -.632*, *Wald*(1) = 4.70, *p* = .030, *OR* = .53 (95% CI [.30, .94]), but not for relationship value-partner (p = .18). Specifically, females who scored higher on the social anxiety composite scale were approximately 41% more likely to have broken up for every point lower they scored on the relationship commitment scale, 50% more likely for every point lower on the satisfaction scale, and 47% more likely for every point lower on the value-self scale. Interestingly, these prediction effects disappeared for females who scored below the median on the social anxiety composite measure (all $p > .025$). Participants' scores on each of the SPS and SIAS scales were also tested for their predictive potential. Results of these supplementary tests are provided in Appendices S1 (full sample) and S2 (by sex). To summarize, results generally supported my hypothesis that social anxiety would predict break-up, though not in the way I anticipated. As shown here, the predictive potential of relationship quality indicators (primarily commitment, satisfaction, and value-self) are increased in females who are above the mean on social anxiety. Due to problems with sample size, this phenomenon could not be examined in male participants.

[13] Low statistical power was likely a problem here since a significant interaction effect in the full-sample regression (which involved sex) was not followed by any significant effect in sex-specific regressions.

6d. Generalized anxiety as a predictor of relationship dissolution. Finally, the generalized anxiety composite score was hypothesized to predict relationship break-up at Time 2. The regression models used in Hypotheses 4 and 5c were again used to test this hypothesis, with the exception being that the criterion variable being predicted was relationship dissolution instead of relationship quality. Logistic regressions on the full sample (provided in Table 45), as well as on each sex independently (Table 46), all failed to uncover any significant effects for the generalized anxiety composite score (all $p > .05$). Despite these null findings, I elected to probe for simple effects in female participants, this time using the generalized anxiety composite score. Unlike what was found for the social anxiety composite score, no simple effects emerged for the generalized anxiety score, although a simple effect of relationship commitment trended toward significance for females who scored above the median on the generalized anxiety composite measure, $B = -.443$, $Wald(1) = 4.23$, $p = .040$.

The DASS subscales were also tested and all three failed to improve prediction over the null model. However, some interesting simple effects emerged for these subscales that bear relevance to the present study. Results of supplementary analyses involving DASS subscales are described and tabled in Appendices T1 (full sample) and T2 (by sex). To summarize, results did not support my hypothesis that the generalized anxiety composite score would predict relationship break-up six months after initial data collection. A general summary of support for Hypotheses 5 and 6 are provided in Table 47.

Discussion

Results of the present study demonstrate that beholders' judgements of another person's physical attractiveness hinge on more than relationship commitment. A number of other beholder characteristics were shown to impact these judgements, including: the beholder's sex, degree of attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and social anxiety. Moreover, these variables appear

to affect relationship quality and stability over time, either directly or indirectly by moderating the beholder's commitment to his or her partner. To review these findings, the following discussion section is divided into three parts. In Part One, I discuss the primary finding that the devaluation of attractive alternatives occurs as a function of the beholder's sex, relationship commitment, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and social anxiety. In Part Two, I discuss the finding that attachment avoidance and social anxiety affect relationship quality and stability. In Part Three, I discuss secondary devaluation phenomena, including the devaluation of opposite-sex interestingness and intelligence, as well as the devaluation of same-sex targets. Finally, in Part Four, I examine some of the study's strengths and limitations.

Part One: Factors Influencing the Devaluation of Opposite-Sex Attractiveness

Four somewhat overlapping factors may influence how males and females perceive the attractiveness of the other sex: the effect of beholder sex on attractiveness devaluation; the effect of relationship commitment on attractiveness devaluation; the effects of attachment anxiety and avoidance on attractiveness devaluation; and the effect of social anxiety on attractiveness devaluation.

1. The effect of beholder sex on attractiveness devaluation.

As anticipated, the sex of the beholder played an important role in the devaluation of opposite-sex attractiveness. Previous studies have found that an individual's sex significantly influences his or her tendency toward relationship commitment, with males on average being less inclined toward long-term committed relationships when compared to females (e.g., Buss & Schmitt, 1993). Given that relationship commitment has been shown to be a principal driver of attractiveness devaluation, we might expect that one need only measure relationship commitment and ignore the subject's sex to account for differences in devaluation. In the present study, however, males and females did not differ statistically in their objective ratings of relationship

commitment (both sexes were, on average, highly committed to their partners). Furthermore, the more committed the female to her current relationship, the more she devalued male targets (the lower the attractiveness rating). Committed males on the other hand did not display the same tendency. What might account for these differences?

The reasons why the current study did not also find differences by sex in terms of relationship commitment are unclear given the parameters of the online questionnaire. It is possible that the age of the respondents, the various ways that "commitment" might be interpreted, and variations in the imagined consequences of misinterpreting the degree of commitment may have each minimized sex differences that would emerge in real life situations. As to why committed females would devalue the attractiveness of target males more or non-committed females, I suggest three possibilities.

First, it is possible that the degree of commitment for each sex may be differentially robust when challenged. This difference in robustness could be attributed to a combination of several factors. For one, it is well established that males have evolved a stronger preference and tendency to compete for multiple partners (Trivers, 1972). Males also have a stronger preference for partners that are physically attractive (Buss, 1989; Buss & Schmitt, 1993). It is possible that these two evolved sex differences may combine to render males less likely, on average, to defend their relationship commitment by downgrading a target's attractiveness when they are presented with an attractive female alternative. Conversely, females, who have evolved a preference for long-term, highly committed relationships, may be more likely to devalue male attractiveness (a factor important to females mainly for short-term relationships; Li & Kenrick, 2006) to protect and preserve committed relationships. This hypothesis, while not tested directly, is consistent with more recent findings in devaluation research that reflect these sex differences in tendencies toward relationship preservation (e.g., Lydon, Menzies-Toman, Burton, & Bell, 2008).

A second possible explanation for the observed sex differences in devaluation behaviour stems from a combination of two factors: (1) differences in how each sex experiences jealousy and (2) differences in the relative physical risk to each sex as a result of engaging in infidelity. The sex-specific problem of paternal uncertainty for males (Trivers, 1972) may have produced a relatively higher degree of evolved vigilance and emotional sensitivity for potential sexual infidelity. This could account for males experiencing relatively higher levels of emotional distress and jealousy around the possibility of their partners engaging in sexual infidelity (Buss, Larsen, Westen, & Semmelroth, 1992; Frederick & Fales, 2014; Schmitt & Buss, 2001), and, as a consequence, remaining more open to alternate mating opportunities by maintaining higher perceived attractiveness of targets. Alternatively, females, on average, tend to experience relatively more distress at the possibility of their partners engaging in emotional infidelity (Frederick & Fales, 2014), which is argued to be linked to female concern for resource availability (Trivers, 1972). Because physical attractiveness is more strongly valued by females in short-term mating contexts (Li & Kenrick, 2006), females may be inclined to devalue the physical attractiveness of male alternatives to reduce risks associated with short-term sexual infidelity. This might be especially true of committed females, a signal of their already having assigned high mate values to their partners. Relative risk seems higher in this regard for females. Statistics show that engaging in sexual infidelity increases the risk of spousal abuse and/or homicide by males (Daly & Wilson, 1988), as well as infanticide in cases where the child is not genetically related to the male caregiver (Daly & Wilson, 1981, 1984). In brief, attractiveness devaluation may have provided females with relationship stability and enhanced safety for themselves and their offspring during human evolutionary development.

Finally, sex differences in attractiveness devaluation may result from sex differences in factors such as social anxiety. In the present study sample and in the population at large (Turk et

al., 1998), females scored significantly higher than males on measures of social anxiety. Anxiety disorders are generally found to be more prevalent in females (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Kessler et al., 2005), a difference that is argued to be at least partially rooted in reproductive hormones and related cycles (Pigott, 1999; Schmidt, 1997). Given that social anxiety is higher in females compared to males, and social anxiety influences devaluation, this could also account for how and why sex differences in devaluation patterns arose.

2. The effect of relationship commitment on attractiveness devaluation.

As mentioned in the previous section, relationship commitment was found to impact judgements of attractiveness, however, only for female participants. This contrasts with the original calibration study (Lydon, Meana, Sepinwall, Richards, & Mayman, 1999), which found both sexes devalue attractive alternatives as a function of relationship commitment.[14] The results of the present study also departed from those in previous calibration research with respect to the pattern by which females devalued attractive males. Specifically, females' attractiveness ratings in the present study declined in a negative linear fashion rather than in the U-shaped pattern that was predicted based on the calibration paradigm.

Despite this departure, a negative linear pattern is consistent with results of devaluation research that preceded development of the calibration paradigm, in which devaluation behaviour was shown to be linear (e.g., Johnson & Rusbult, 1989; Simpson, Gangestad, & Lerma, 1990). This pattern does not necessarily suggest that a calibration process, in some form or another, does not occur or that the calibration paradigm should be discarded. An alternative explanation is that devaluation behaviour has the potential to increase in either a linear or non-linear fashion depending on the circumstances and variables that are causing it. In the present study, the variables that were shown to influence devaluation shared one common feature: the potential to

[14] In that study specifically, females devalued male alternatives when they were moderately committed and males devalued female alternatives when they were highly committed.

influence the perception of relationship threat. This suggests that calibration to "relationship threat" may be the more influential paradigm.

Relationship defensive behaviours such as attractiveness devaluation might also increase in either a linear or non-linear fashion depending on the variables influencing the beholder's perception of relationship threat. As demonstrated in this study, relationship commitment was not the only variable to influence devaluation; attachment anxiety, aoidance, and social anxiety also emerged as predictors. Thus, it is possible for the beholder perception of threat to increase either linearly, exponentially, or in a curvilinear pattern depending on how these variables combine and interact with one another. Such interaction could also account for the present study finding that the same degree of relationship commitment often yielded two very different devaluation responses depending on other variables like attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and social anxiety.

Despite study differences in devaluation patterns, the calibration paradigm may still offer the best explanation for how and why devaluation occurs. Indeed, it seems logical that either insufficient or excessive threat would negate one's need to defend his or her relationship. If the threat is small, then devaluation would not be triggered because it is simply not required; if the threat is exceedingly large, devaluation would not be triggered because commitment is overwhelmed. Thus, to best understand the effect(s) of relationship commitment on relationship defensive behaviours and to predict when relationship threats are under- or overwhelming, the relative contributions of attachment anxiety, avoidance, social anxiety to perceived relationship threat, and other possible variables should also be considered.

Significant differences in study methodology between the present study and calibration research may also account for the departure in devaluation patterns, and four such differences are identified here. First, participants in the original calibration study (Lydon et al., 1999) were

nearly seven years older (M = 27) compared to those in the present study (M = 20) and, as mentioned earlier, this age difference may have resulted in meaningful differences in relationship commitment and potential for promiscuity between the two samples. Second, in the original calibration study, the 25 individuals who comprised the high commitment group were in marriages that averaged over five years in length, whereas in the present study, the average relationship length of individuals in the high commitment group was just over two years. These differences may have caused a meaningful difference in relationship commitment with highly committed individuals in the present study being less committed to their partners than their counterparts in the calibration study. Third, the relationship commitment variable was measured here using a different approach than Lydon and colleagues (1999), since they used both a structural commitment measure (i.e., relationship status) as well as a 9-item attitudinal commitment measure to assess relationship commitment. Their attitudinal commitment measure assessed a number of facets related to relationship commitment, including, the participant's sense of being obligated, attached, enthusiastic, burdened, and having a sense of duty. The present study used only a single self-report item measure to assess relationship commitment and thus may have been less robust measure of commitment.

Fourth, beholders' perceptions of relationship threat from target attractiveness may have been higher in the original calibration study as compared to the present study. Despite the targets for both studies being drawn from the same photo inventory, the specific targets used in the original calibration study were rated as being more attractive and there was less variability in these attractiveness ratings. Calibration participants in the high-threat condition were also informed not only that they had "matched" with the attractive alternative on a number of personality factors but also that this individual also rated them positively on a number of factors. In the present study, participants were simply told the targets in the photos were single students

at the university who would be taking part in a dating study later in the year. In the latter scenario, the possibility of engaging with the target may have been considered less of a possibility and thus the threat less salient.

3. The effects of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance on attractiveness devaluation.

Neither attachment anxiety nor attachment avoidance affected females' ratings of opposite-sex attractiveness, however, both interacted with relationship commitment to predict males' ratings of female attractiveness. A myriad of simple effects makes consistent interpretation across all cases difficult. At the same time, some themes emerged and warrant further exploration.

First, attachment anxiety played a significant role for males when it came to devaluing attractive females. All simple effects that surfaced involved males who scored high (i.e., above the median) on attachment anxiety. In broad strokes, high attachment anxiety reflects a generally negative view of the self and is strongly negatively correlated with self-esteem (r = -57; Goodall, 2015). Consistent with both calibration and attachment reasoning, it is possible that highly attachment-anxious males are susceptible to devaluing the attractiveness of attractive females because they believe pursuing highly attractive mates is not a viable option. The primary barrier to these males pursuing a relationship with an attractive alternative (all else being equal) may not be their commitment to their current partner but the perception that the attractive alternative is "out of their league" (i.e., unattainable to them). Accordingly, highly attachment-anxious males may devalue attractive females because they need to resolve the cognitive dissonance arising from being attracted to an alternative they believe they cannot attain.

A second theme that emerged within this group of highly attachment-anxious males was the tendency to devalue attractive females when relationship commitment was high and

attachment avoidance was low, or vice versa. In other words, evaluation of attractive females increased when anxious males were either (a) weakly committed and highly avoidant, or (b) highly committed and low in avoidance. The first scenario is consistent with a *fearful-avoidant* (i.e., high anxiety, high avoidance) male who has not committed fully to his partner, feels he cannot trust her, and yet is simultaneously fearful of losing his relationship with her (see Feeney, 1999). Attractiveness devaluation might stem from greater fear of losing his partner (high attachment anxiety), which overrides his avoidance of emotional closeness and weak commitment. The fearful-avoidant male devalues the attractiveness of the alternative female because he is afraid of losing his existing relationship. The second scenario is consistent with an *anxious-preoccupied* (i.e., high anxiety, low avoidance) male who is highly committed to his partner and desires emotional closeness with her, while simultaneously fearing that she does not share his desire for closeness, and that his efforts to preserve the relationship will not be reciprocated. For these males, devaluation of an attractive alternative may arise as a result of a strong-but-tentative commitment to their partners. These males may feel the need to aggressively defend their commitment because, in reality, their commitment is temporary, tenuous, and/or fragile (since they believe their partners are not truly committed to them). This possibility is supported by the finding that people are generally less willing to depend on their partners (Murray, Holmes, & Collins, 2006) or engage in acts that protect their relationships (Wieselquist, Rusbult, Foster, & Agnew, 1999) when they doubt their partners' reciprocal interest, commitment, and/or care.

A question that arises, however, is why these attachment processes did not similarly affect female participants' ratings of male targets in the present study. Considering again that there were no significant sex differences in average commitment ratings, one possibility could be that relationship commitment for females is a relatively more stable and robust construct, and

less susceptible to the influence of attachment anxiety and avoidance. In other words, these two dimensions of attachment may play a more prominent (or different) role for males in mating contexts by guiding their conditional mating tactics and strategies.

4. The effect of social anxiety on attractiveness devaluation.

Social anxiety was another factor found to predict opposite-sex attractiveness devaluation in females and its effect size was comparable to that of relationship commitment. Moreover, this devaluation effect was found for females' judgements of male targets only, which is an interesting finding when one considers the results of previous research. Faces of both sexes are perceived as threatening by socially anxious individuals (Mogg et al., 2004) and anxiety-driven attentional biases are both robust and generalize to a variety of targets and situations (Bar-Haim, Lamy, Pergamin, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & van IJzendoorn, 2007).[15]

Why might social anxiety cause females to devalue the attractiveness of attractive male faces? One possibility was suggested earlier. The perception of others as being threatening is a central feature of social anxiety. Females who score high on social anxiety may simply find males less attractive because the attractiveness of those males is threatening, for example, to the female preserving a current relationship. If so, one might also predict attractiveness ratings for *all* male targets (not just attractive ones) to decrease as a function of social anxiety. Unfortunately, because only attractive male targets were used this study, this prediction could not be tested, and it remains a question for future study.

Social anxiety also predicts that females' ratings of female attractiveness should also decrease as a function of social anxiety. A more socially anxious female should perceive an

[15] The issue of whether attentional biases are fundamentally driven by state or trait variables represents a highly contentious area in psychology, with proponents arguing for both sides. The nature of attentional biases is beyond the scope of the current study, however, interested readers can refer to Bar-Haim and colleagues (2007) or Quigley and colleagues (2012) for a review and discussion, respectively.

attractive potential mate competitor to be a greater threat. However, data from the present study did not support this prediction. It may be that socially anxious females are uniquely affected only by male faces thereby triggering attractiveness devaluation, and that this devaluation may connect to their evaluation of their current mate rather than their evaluation of the target.

If we accept the premise that females are at relatively higher risk of spousal abuse and homicide at the hands of their male partners (see Daly & Wilson, 1988), then females who find males more threatening may also be even more inclined to protect against sexual infidelity and mate abuse by devaluing the attractiveness of potential alternatives. Devaluing possible alternative mates would reduce the possibility of engaging in an outside relationship, thereby reducing the threat to their current relationship. Such an explanation, while speculative, is consistent with the finding that males did not devalue female faces as a function of social anxiety. Males may be less susceptible to the same physical risks of sexual infidelity, and therefore may be less inclined to defend against it. Alternatively, they may simply view attractive alternate females as mating opportunities. Either explanation would predict the sex differences found.

To summarize, beholder sex, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and social anxiety all appear to be important predictors of attractiveness devaluation behaviour. The sex difference can be explained when one considers that males are less inclined toward long-term relationships, rendering them less likely to defend their relationships in the face of alternative mating opportunities. Attachment constructs may also assist males with navigating the uniquely male problem of paternal uncertainty and, more specifically, making decisions about when to invest resources in one relationship over another. Social anxiety appears to increase female devaluation behaviour because social anxiety likely increases their perceptions of threat, either

from the male target or from their own partners. This reasoning also explains why males did not devalue female attractiveness as a function of social anxiety.

Part Two: Relationship Quality and Stability Are Affected by Attachment Anxiety, Avoidance, and Social Anxiety

The present study also demonstrated that specific combinations of attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and social anxiety, threaten one's relationship via diminished relationship quality, commitment, and stability over time. Consistent with previous research (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993; Wieselquist et al., 1999), relationship commitment emerged in the present study as the only significant predictor of break-up. At the same time, the other predictors appeared in many cases to moderate or interact with relationship commitment itself, which, in turn, likely impacted participants' decisions to break-up. Therefore, if one's goal is to identify individuals at risk of relationship dissolution, researchers should also consider the impact of these other variables.

1. The effects of attachment avoidance on relationship quality and break-up.

Morgan and Shaver (1999) argued that "it is impossible to understand commitment to romantic relationships unless one considers how the attachment system affects the processes of falling in love and choosing a mate" (p. 109). To understand how stable and secure a person's relationship commitment is, we must also take into account that person's pattern of attachment – the way they perceive themselves, their partners, and interpret interpersonal information. Results of the present study reinforce this view. In the present study, of those who were already weakly committed to their partners, higher levels of attachment avoidance at Time 1 predicted even weaker relationship commitment six months later.

It is perhaps unsurprising that attachment avoidance also interacted with relationship commitment to predict break-up. Participants who were both highly committed to their

relationships and who were highly avoidant (i.e., scored at the 68th percentile on the avoidance scale) at Time 1 were approximately 90% more likely to have broken up six months later when compared to those who were highly committed and who scored near the 50th percentile on the avoidance scale. Thus, having a strong commitment to one's partner suggested less protectiveness in those who scored higher on the avoidance scale than in those who scored near the median. Therefore, being "highly committed" to one's partner apparently means different things depending on whether one is high or low on avoidance. For a highly avoidant individual who is also highly committed to his (or her) partner, his *actual* level of commitment may roughly equate to that of a low avoidance individual who is only moderately or weakly committed to his partner. This conditionality seems borne out by existing studies. Avoidant individuals, by definition, are less likely to commit to their partners (Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Hazan & Zeifman, 1999) and tend to expect their relationships to fail (Birnie, McClure, Lydon, & Holmberg, 2009). Avoidant males also experience less emotional stress after relationship dissolution (Simpson, 1990). Current data are consistent with these findings.

Although insecure attachment styles are associated with perceptions of greater instability, this does not necessarily mean these relationships do not last. In fact, there is evidence to suggest that anxious-preoccupied individuals often find themselves in long-lasting but unhappy relationships (Davila & Bradbury, 2001; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994). In such cases, one would anticipate devaluation behaviors to be a prominent tool for anxious-preoccupied partners. This prediction suggests another area for future research.

Finally, although small sample sizes in the present study prevented valid interpretation of simple effects analyses for males, the data trends for Hypotheses 5 and 6 suggest that attachment constructs may play a more significant role in predicting male behaviour than it does for females. This trend also aligns consistently with the pattern that emerged for attractiveness devaluation

for Hypothesis 2. The data supported the predicted interaction between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and commitment and attractiveness devaluation in males. It also provided weaker support for the predicted break-up of males. Overall, data supported the assertion that attachment avoidance plays an important role in male decision-making around whether to actively protect or dissolve their commitment.

2. The effects of social anxiety on relationship quality and break-up.

Social anxiety also negatively impacted relationship commitment in male participants, and interacted with relationship value to reduce commitment in female participants. Specifically, females who scored above the median on the social anxiety composite scale were approximately 41% more likely to have broken up for every point lower they scored on the relationship commitment scale, 50% more likely for every point lower on the satisfaction scale, and 43% more likely for every point lower on the value-self scale. This is congruent with previous research that found higher levels of social anxiety were associated with "interpersonal styles reflecting less assertion, more conflict avoidance, more avoidance of expressing emotion, and greater interpersonal dependency" (Davila & Beck, 2002, p. 427).[16]

Although these findings suggest that individuals with particularly high levels of social anxiety may be more susceptible to break-up, such a conclusion may be overly simplistic. Socially anxious females who also highly valued their relationship became *more* committed to their relationships and valued their relationships more over time. Alternatively, socially anxious females who did not value their relationship at Time 1 valued their relationship even less at Time 2. This suggests that for females who highly value their relationships, social anxiety may actually serve as an incentive to preserve the relationship. Or perhaps social anxious individuals rely more heavily on their partners for support compared to less socially anxious individuals.

[16] Again, problems with sample size prevented similar simple effects analyses for males.

3. Secondary factors affecting relationship quality and break-up.

Relationship commitment, satisfaction, and stability appear to hinge on a variety of secondary factors that were only tangentially addressed in this study. For example, relationship satisfaction at Time 1 did not predict relationship satisfaction for males six months later, whereas it did for females. A recent study revealed that having a physically attractive partner predicted relationship satisfaction for males but not for females (Meltzer, McNulty, Jackson, & Karney, 2014). Satisfaction may arise through different factors in each sex, a consideration the present study did not fully explore. Another recent study revealed that males who were both strong and attractive are on average less likely to commit to a relationship (Lukaszewski, Larson, Gildersleeve, Roney, & Haselton, 2014). The present study did not control for or investigate these factors.

Secondary analyses also suggested the influence of other factors. Females in the present study who self-reported as (a) highly ambitious or (b) highly attractive were more committed to and satisfied with their relationships. These same females also valued their relationships more and thought their partners did so as well. Males who self-reported as being highly ambitious were more committed to and satisfied with their relationships; however, the effect of self-reported attractiveness was not significant. These findings suggest, again, that relationship commitment may be a more stable and predictable variable in females, whereas for males, it may hinge on additional factors including perception of one's competitiveness in the mating arena.

The extent to which males believed their partner valued the relationship also predicted break-up, even after controlling for relationship commitment. For every point of decrease on the value-partner scale at Time 1, male participants were 73% more likely to have broken up at Time 2. This finding also supports Hypothesis 2: highly attachment-anxious males engage in attractiveness devaluation more than less anxious males. Males who believe they are "not good

enough" for their partners (as reflected by either high attachment anxiety or the belief that their partners do not value the relationship) may be particularly prone to perceiving instability in their relationships. These males may be more prone to either defend (e.g., devalue attractive alternatives) or dissolve their relationships.

Part Three: Devaluation Occurs for Target Traits Other than Attractiveness as well as for Same-Sex Targets

1. Devaluation of target interestingness and intelligence.

Results also suggest that devaluation is not restricted to judgements of attractiveness, since judgements of target interestingness and intelligence were also affected under certain conditions. Females' ratings of male interestingness and intelligence were also negatively affected by increases in their relationship commitment. This finding may be a result of the what-is-beautiful-is-good phenomenon, that attractive individuals are assumed to possess many other positive traits (Dion et al., 1972). As described in the methods section, each time a participant rated a target, he (or she) first rated attractiveness, then interestingness, and finally intelligence in that sequence. The order in which participants provided these ratings was not counterbalanced. It is possible that the participants' initial attractiveness rating for each target affected their subsequent ratings of that same target's interestingness and intelligence. Indeed, this is precisely the pattern that emerged (refer again to Tables 7 and 8).

Research investigating the underlying mechanism driving the what-is-beautiful-is-good phenomenon also suggests that people infer attractive individuals possess these traits as part of the perceiver's goal of being close to physically attractive people (Lemay, Clark, & Greenberg, 2010). The suggestion is that beholders project positive traits upon individuals with whom they wish to be close, and that they want to be close to attractive people because of their high mate value. Holding the assumption that these individuals are socially adept, friendly, and likely to

reciprocate one's goal of being interpersonally close, while sometimes inaccurate (Simpson, Ickes, & Blackstone, 1995), is likely to encourage the beholder's ongoing attempts to develop closeness with the attractive individual (e.g., Haselton & Buss, 2000; Maner et al., 2005). Devaluation of attractiveness, then, suggests a beholder strategy under appropriate circumstances of distancing himself or herself by perceiving the target as unfriendly and less likely to reciprocate attempts to increase interpersonal closeness.

Interestingly, a recent study by Zhang, Kong, Zhong, and Kou (2014) demonstrated that a similar carry-over effect may exist in the reverse direction, that is, as a "what-is-good-is-beautiful" phenomenon. It was shown that a beholder's knowledge about an individual's character or personality affects one's judgements of that person's physical attractiveness. Beholders who were told about a person's kindness rated that person as being more physically attractive. The study suggests that the associations beholders make between attractiveness and other positive traits may operate in a bidirectional fashion.

The present study did not investigate the associations mentioned above as they were outside its primary focus. The impact of carryover effects (regardless of the direction of such effects) was not controlled through counterbalancing, nor was it managed statistically either by (a) controlling for other target traits like interestingness in order to get a pure measure of attractiveness, or (b) collapsing all three target traits into a global measure. Controlling other ratings was not used because the correlations among target traits were sufficiently high that controlling for one would have resulted in a significant loss of meaningful variability. Collapsing was not employed because the constructs were theoretically different enough that collapsing them into a single global variable would have introduced enough statistical noise to mask the impact on attractiveness judgements. Future studies should consider randomizing the order in which target ratings are provided to minimize the influence of these carryover effects. They

should also consider using statistical and methodological strategies to measure and contrast pure ratings of attractiveness, intelligence, interestingness, and other traits of interest.

2. Same-sex target devaluation.

Perceived threat to one's relationship might account for why participants devalued the attractiveness of opposite-sex targets, but why did they in some cases devalue same-sex targets? Although same-sex target devaluation was not the primary focus of the current study, some explanation for this phenomenon is warranted and intra-sexual competition may provide at least a partial answer. Self-rated ambition may act as a proxy for competitiveness, and if so, both sexes in the present sample were highly competitive. The mean rating for self-rated ambition was 5.7 out of 7 with no significant difference between males and females (perhaps typical for all entrants into university). Recent research has demonstrated that devaluing same-sex competition is a defensive tactic that emerges in adolescence, increases with age, and may represent an adaptive strategy for psychologically protecting the self as well as managing intra-sexual rivalries (Agthe, Spörrle, Frey, Walper, & Maner, 2013). Indeed, attractive same-sex rivals are often viewed as threats (Bleske-Rechek & Lighthall, 2010; Haselton & Gangestad, 2006) and are thus negatively evaluated (Agthe, Sporrle, & Forsterling, 2008), particularly in evaluative situations like the workplace (Agthe, Spörrle, & Maner, 2010). Given participants' high level of self-reported ambition, their being in the midst of the reproductive life stage, perceived intra-sexual rivalries could trigger the devaluing of competitor attributes.

Competitiveness may also play a role in choosing the competitor's traits that are devalued, although the determining factors are not clear from the present study's data. The specific traits that were devalued differed as a function of participant sex and associated attributes. Whereas males who scored high on attachment anxiety devalued male attractiveness and interestingness, females who scored high on attachment avoidance devalued female

interestingness and intelligence. One interesting aspect of this finding is that beholders appeared to devalue the traits of same-sex competitors that the beholders, themselves, seek in mates. Males value attractiveness in mates to a greater extent than do females. Females seek males with greater access to resources (Buss, 1989; Buss & Barnes, 1986; Buss & Schmitt, 1993), in accordance with the theory of evolution by natural selection. Yet both groups in the current study devalued the trait less sought by prospective mates. Clearly, more research is needed to explain this finding.

Part Four: Study Strengths and Limitations

The current study includes data relevant to the domains of both social and clinical psychological domains, as well as predictor variables theoretically linked to the perception of relationship threat. Data were collected from a large sample of participants, which allowed for several meaningful interactions to be detected. The theoretical rationale for the present study is also firmly rooted in established evolutionary reasoning and offers novel perspectives and ultimate explanations for how and why variables such as beholder sex, attachment anxiety and avoidance, and social anxiety should trigger relationship defenses under the broader umbrella of mating behaviours. The study also sheds light on the current problem of why devaluation occurs in some contexts, for some targets, and for certain target traits, but not in others (see Lydon, Fitzsimons, & Naidoo, 2003).

Although the use of a general university population as a subject pool might be seen as a limitation to generalizing results outside that population, I believe a number of mitigating factors reduce this problem. Anxiety and attachment constructs exist in the population at large and would be similarly applicable. Clinically significant levels of anxiety also exist in the general university population (e.g., Eisenberg, Gollust, Golberstein, & Hefner, 2007). Consequently, there appears to be little reason why these findings wouldn't also meaningfully apply to clinical

populations. That being said, however, establishing *how* the study's variables interact in the general population is important, and full confidence in generalizing the current results is dependant on that happening.

Six other study limitations are listed here. First, all data were collected via online self-report.[17] Integrity of data is sometimes jeopardized when data are collected online versus the lab, particularly with respect to representativeness of the sample, response rates, measurement errors, and technical difficulties (Granello & Wheaton, 2004). Importantly, there is evidence indicating that data collected via self-report questionnaires are of comparable data integrity when they are completed either online or in the laboratory (Riva, Teruzzi, & Anolli, 2003). While this may mitigate the method's weaknesses, it still fails to address integrity issues related to non-questionnaire data (e.g., target ratings). Theoretically, future studies could remedy the problem by having participants complete the target rating component in the lab. A second limitation is that target attractiveness may not have been high enough to generate a sufficient or salient relationship threat. Future investigations could include degree of target attractiveness as an additional variable. Third, as mentioned earlier, carry-over effects related to the what-is-beautiful-is-good phenomenon may have systematically influenced participants' ratings of interestingness and intelligence. Counterbalancing could potentially solve this problem. Fourth, single-item measures of relationship commitment, satisfaction, and value may not have been adequately robust to ensure a valid measurement of these constructs, which might explain why results did not map onto those of earlier commitment calibration research. Either behavioural or multiple-item self-report measures of relationship commitment, satisfaction, and value would likely address this problem. Fifth, there was likely a ceiling effect for Hypothesis 5: participants reported being highly committed to and satisfied with their relationships at Time 1 and therefore

[17] Although self-reported relationship dissolution represents a quasi-behavioural measure.

had nowhere to go but down. Thus, it is unclear whether the decline in commitment and satisfaction was a true deterioration of relationship quality or whether this was a result of a regression to the mean. More robust measures of relationship commitment and quality may assist with this problem as well. Sixth, despite several attempts to retain participants through the use of emails, postal reminders, and the possibility of winning a prize, participant attrition was high at roughly 77%. Because many participants did not complete the follow-up survey, this presented a challenge with conducting thorough analyses on the follow-up sample, particularly for male participants of which there were only 44. High attrition may have also created a selection bias. This was not investigated beyond the group comparison analyses described earlier, creating another possible limitation. Future studies should include a methodological design that will reduce the level of subject loss for follow-up measurements.

Conclusion

The present study demonstrates that beholders' judgements of others' attractiveness are not only systematically influenced by the characteristics of the person being judged, but also by those of the beholder. Beyond the sex and relationship commitment of the beholder, social anxiety and attachment style need to be added to the list of variables influencing beholders' ratings. A common belief in mainstream North American culture (or at least in the Hollywood version) is that each human is naturally "wired" to bond in a single monogamous romantic relationship based on simple common need or love. The current study points us to the complexity of reality and adds to the number of variables actually influencing both short- and long-term bonding. It also begins to provide information on some of the major interactions between those variables. Its findings can expand our current understanding of how relationships emerge and are sustained.

In the current view, during adolescence, when romantic and sexual behaviours typically emerge, humans tend to gravitate toward polyamory and/or serial monogamy by engaging in multiple romantic and sexual relationships, either simultaneously or sequentially (Bearman, Moody, & Stovel, 2004). With respect to the experience of "love", existing data support the notion that love operates merely as a "commitment device", which temporarily moderates the process of bonding and commitment for finite periods of time rather than guaranteeing long-term commitment (Gonzaga, Haselton, Smurda, Davies, & Poore, 2008). Long-term maintenance of the relationship appears to come down to other factors.

Contemporary attachment theorists (Belsky, 1999; Chisholm, 1993, 1996, 1999; Del Giudice, 2009a, 2009b, 2011; Kaplan & Gangestad, 2005) began exploring how variables such as attachment security and anxiety influence human mating strategies (of which relationship defensive behaviours are a part) by synthesizing existing psychological theories (e.g., attachment theory) with evolutionary theories. The latter include William Hamilton's (1964a, 1964b) inclusive fitness theory; Bateman's principle (Bateman, 1948); Robert Trivers's theories of reciprocal altruism (1971), parental investment (1972), and parent-offspring conflict (1974), life history theory. These theoretical models provide explanations for how and why (1) early contextual factors in the family of origin (e.g., stress; spousal harmony or discord; financial resources) affect (2) early child-rearing experiences (e.g., the level of sensitive, supportive, and responsive caregiving); which in turn affects (3) psychological and behavioural development (e.g., patterns of attachment, anxiety), which influences (4) somatic development (e.g., how quickly sexual maturation is reached). All of these factors have effects on (5) the adoption of particular reproductive strategies, which includes long-term, monogamous relationships.

Within this context, attachment constructs and other forms of anxiety are likely cognitive and behavioural components of a much broader life history strategy that includes reproductive

functions. Consequently, relationship defensive behaviours, such as the devaluation of a potential alternative mate in order to protect an existing relationship, may also serve a reproductive function and have important consequences. Understanding how these strategies are triggered and are manifest in everyday behaviour is crucial for understanding human mating relationships. It is the importance of these consequences and relationships that point to the importance and relevance of the current study.

Results of the present study hold particular relevance for clinical psychologists, counselors, and couple's therapists. In particular, a number of important risk factors for relationship dissolution are identified, specifically: (a) females with high levels of social anxiety in combination with low relationship commitment; (b) females who are both stressed and weakly value their relationship; (c) males with high social anxiety; and (d) males who feel their partners don't value their relationship. These same clients also appear more likely to engage in attractiveness devaluation.

The study also has relevance for researchers. As noted earlier, the data suggest that researchers interested in investigating relationship defensive behaviours such as attractiveness devaluation should consider including beholder attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, social anxiety, generalized anxiety, and stress in their theoretical model. The study also points future investigators in this area to the need for larger sample sizes to permit the testing of 3- and 4-way interactions. This level of analysis might be considered to be a minimum requirement based on current findings. Researchers should also consider methods for counterbalancing target ratings to minimize carry-over effects and robust measures of participants' relationship commitment, variables that the current data suggest to be of possible importance.

Finally, the study yields relevant information for the layperson and the general public. It demonstrates how our judgements about others' personal characteristics appear to be non-

consciously influenced by factors like relationship commitment, the extent to which we worry about or fear social interactions (females only), and perceptions of whether we are secure in our relationships (males only). These same factors can also weaken our commitment to our partners over time, which in turn could increase the probability of our ending a relationship. If one's goal is to boost commitment and improve the long-term health of his or her primary romantic relationship – which might well be the goals of most people – we should all consider learning adaptive strategies for managing anxiety and the triggering of non-conscious judgements. Understanding how our sense of relationship safety and trust pervasively affect behaviour can only serve the best interests of everyone.

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Table 1. *Cell Sizes, Means, and Standard Deviations of Participant Relationship Quality Ratings as a Function of Trichotomous Group Membership (Low, Moderate, High; N = 703)*

	Male participants (n = 262)			Female participants (n = 441)			Full sample (N = 703)		
	n	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
RC (9-point scale)									
Low	59	4.93	1.13	88	4.69	1.32	147	4.79	1.25
Moderate	104	7.58	.50	147	7.64	.48	251	7.61	.49
High	99	9.00	.00	205	9.00	.00	304	9.00	.00
RS (7-point scale)									
Low	79	4.54	.73	125	4.27	1.12	204	4.38	.99
Moderate	112	6.00	.00	167	6.00	.00	279	6.00	.00
High	71	7.00	.00	148	7.00	.00	219	7.00	.00
RVs (7-point scale)*									
Low	25	3.76	.52	35	3.46	.74	60	3.58	.67
Moderate	110	5.65	.48	133	5.65	.48	243	5.65	.48
High	123	7.00	.00	273	7.00	.00	396	7.00	.00
RVp (7-point scale)									
Low	25	3.64	.78	37	3.30	1.05	62	3.44	.95
Moderate	113	5.72	.45	152	5.69	.46	265	5.70	.46
High	124	7.00	.00	250	7.00	.00	374	7.00	.00

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value-self; RVp = Relationship value-partner.
Asterisk denotes a sex difference: * $p < .05$.

Table 2. *Summary of Intercorrelations Among Predictor Variables (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	AttAnx	AttAvd	SocAnx	SIAS	SPS	GenAnx	DASS-D
AttAnx	-						
AttAvd	.317***	-					
SocAnx	.483***	.259***	-				
SIAS	.434***	.230***	†.933***	-			
SPS	.470***	.255***	†.942***	.757***	-		
GenAnx	.496***	.263***	.589***	.521***	.582***	-	
DASS-D	.456***	.306***	.568***	.511***	.552***	.765***	-
DASS-A	.438***	.269***	.551***	.463***	.567***	†.899***	.672***
DASS-S	.465***	.214***	.525***	.485***	.499***	†.923***	.720***
RelCom	-.175***	-.586***	-.088*	-.067	-.098***	-.129**	-.186***
RelSat	-.279***	-.521***	-.145***	-.129**	-.142***	-.203***	-.248***
RelValS	-.158***	-.572***	-.081*	-.070	-.082*	-.107**	-.184***
RelValP	-.343***	-.445***	-.121**	-.108**	-.118**	-.157***	-.208***

	DASS-A	DASS-S	RelCom	RelSat	RelValS
DASS-S	.660***	-			
RelCom	-.136***	-.102**	-		
RelSat	-.172***	-.197***	.693***	-	
RelValS	-.115**	-.083*	.778***	.695***	-
RelValP	-.155***	-.134***	.567***	.613***	.597***

Note. For all scales, higher scores are indicative of more extreme responding in the direction of the construct being assessed.
† Indicates a correlation between mutually dependent scale scores.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$; two-tailed.

Table 3. *Means and Standard Deviations for Participant and Relationship Characteristics for Time 1 and Time 2 Participants*

Male participants	Time 1 (n = 262)		Time 2 (n = 44)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Age**	20.06	4.07	21.24	4.99
Self-rated attractiveness	5.17	.95	5.18	.95
Self-rated ambition	5.67	1.05	††5.93	.93
Duration with partner (weeks)	108.79	48.76	na	na
Relationship commitment	7.52	1.66	7.76	1.52
Relationship satisfaction	5.83	1.02	5.88	1.32
Relationship value (self)*	6.11	1.06	6.30	1.16
Relationship value (partner)	6.13	1.08	6.70	.64
Female participants	**Time 1 (n = 441)**		**Time 2 (n = 119)**	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Age**	19.12	2.49	18.82	1.81
Self-rated attractiveness	5.11	.99	5.01	1.05
Self-rated ambition	5.77	.91	5.83	.87
Duration with partner (weeks)	107.24	47.46	na	na
Relationship commitment	7.68	1.74	8.25	1.06
Relationship satisfaction	5.85	1.23	†5.99	.91
Relationship value (self)*	6.31	1.09	6.58	.70
Relationship value (partner)	6.23	1.15	6.46	.95
Full sample	**Time 1 (N = 703)**		**Time 2 (N = 163)**	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Age	19.47	3.21	19.47	3.19
Self-rated attractiveness	5.13	.98	5.06	1.03
Self-rated ambition	5.73	.97	††5.85	.88
Duration with partner (weeks)	107.82	47.94	na	na
Relationship commitment	7.62	1.71	†8.11	1.21
Relationship satisfaction	5.84	1.58	†5.96	1.03
Relationship value (self)*	6.24	1.08	6.51	.86
Relationship value (partner)	6.19	1.28	6.52	.88

Note. † Indicates variable was higher at Time 2 than it was at Time 1 ($p < .05$); †† indicates variable was higher at Time 2 than it was at Time 1 ($p = .06$).
Asterisks denote sex differences: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4. *Supplementary Sociodemographic Statistics (Frequencies) for Time 1 Participants (N = 703)*

	Males participants (n = 262)		Females participants (n = 441)		Full sample (N = 703)	
Participant characteristic	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Ethnicity						
White	195	74.4	325	73.7	520	74.0
Black	8	3.1	10	2.3	18	2.6
Asian	31	11.8	62	14.1	93	13.2
East Asian	13	5.0	10	2.3	23	3.3
First Nations	5	1.9	8	1.8	13	1.8
Other	10	3.8	25	5.8	35	5.1
Caregiver composition						
Both biological	228	87.0	375	85.0	603	85.8
Biological mother only	12	4.6	29	6.6	41	5.8
Biological father only	2	0.8	0	0.0	2	0.3
Biological mother and stepfather	9	3.4	27	6.1	36	5.1
Biological father and stepmother	1	0.4	4	0.9	5	0.7
Grandparents	4	1.5	4	0.9	8	1.1
Adopted or foster care	6	2.3	2	0.5	8	1.2
Number of siblings						
0	19	7.3	23	5.3	42	6.0
1	109	41.7	170	38.6	279	39.7
2	81	31.0	134	30.5	215	30.6
3	31	11.9	63	14.4	94	13.5
4 or more	19	8.1	48	11.2	69	10.2
Mother’s education						
Graduate degree	29	11.0	42	9.5	71	10.1
Bachelor’s degree	114	43.5	175	39.7	289	41.1
High school diploma	102	38.9	180	40.8	282	40.1
Did not complete high school	17	6.6	44	10.0	61	8.7
Father’s education						
Graduate degree	49	18.7	62	14.1	111	15.8
Bachelor’s degree	88	33.6	141	32.0	229	32.6
High school diploma	89	34.0	175	39.7	264	37.6
Did not complete high school	36	13.7	63	14.2	99	14.0

[*Continued next page*]

Participant characteristic	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Estimated family income (absolute)						
> $200,000	21	8.0	15	3.4	36	5.1
$151,000 - $200,000	12	4.6	21	4.8	33	4.7
$136,000 - $150,000	7	2.7	22	5.0	29	4.1
$121,000 - $135,000	22	8.4	26	5.9	48	6.9
$106,000 - $120,000	25	9.5	33	7.5	58	8.3
$91,000 - $105,000	23	8.8	35	7.9	58	8.3
$76,000 - $90,000	26	9.9	84	19.0	110	16.0
$61,000 - $75,000	48	18.3	59	13.4	107	14.9
$46,000 - $60,000	39	14.9	73	16.6	112	15.8
$31,000 - $45,000	25	9.5	37	8.4	62	8.8
$16,000 - $30,000	12	4.6	29	6.6	41	5.8
$0 - $15,000	2	0.8	7	1.6	9	1.3
Estimated family wealth (relative)						
Poorer than other families	44	16.8	47	10.7	91	12.9
Same as other families	198	75.6	345	78.2	543	77.2
Wealthier than other families	20	7.6	49	11.1	69	9.8

Table 5. *Means and Standard Deviations for All Scales and Subscales for Time 1 Participants (N = 703)*

	Males (n = 262)		Females (n = 441)		Full sample (n = 703)	
Attachment security (ECR)	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Attachment anxiety	3.16	1.13	3.23	1.24	3.20	1.20
Attachment avoidance	2.65	1.03	2.49	1.15	2.55	1.11
Social anxiety						
Social Phobia Scale (SPS)**	16.94	13.30	21.25	15.15	19.65	14.62
Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS)*	18.87	12.72	21.15	13.98	20.30	13.58
SocAnx composite score**	35.81	24.08	42.40	27.50	39.95	26.44
Depression, Anxiety, and Stress (DASS) subscales						
DASS-Depression	9.90	8.75	9.72	8.62	9.79	8.67
DASS-Anxiety	8.17	7.37	8.29	8.02	8.25	7.78
DASS-Stress	12.34	8.36	14.67	9.00	13.80	8.84
GenAnx composite score	20.51	14.26	22.97	15.59	22.05	15.14

Note. Asterisks denote sex differences: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 6. *Means and Standard Deviations of Target Ratings Provided by Time 1 Participants*

	Male participants (n = 262)		Female participants (n = 441)		Full sample (N = 703)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Male targets						
Attractiveness***	3.46	1.57	4.43	1.02	4.07	1.34
Interestingness***	3.50	1.32	4.21	.94	3.95	1.15
Intelligence ***	3.94	1.00	4.50	.75	4.29	.89
Attraction	na	na	3.69	1.21	na	na
Dating interest	na	na	3.34	1.53	na	na
Relationship interest	na	na	2.87	1.34	na	na
Sexual interest	na	na	2.47	1.42	na	na
Female targets						
Attractiveness	5.00	.80	4.97	1.03	4.98	.95
Interestingness**	4.44	.88	4.25	1.01	4.32	.98
Intelligence	4.61	.74	4.67	.82	4.65	.79
Attraction	4.51	1.03	na	na	na	na
Dating interest	4.09	1.43	na	na	na	na
Relationship interest	3.53	1.33	na	na	na	na
Sexual interest	4.44	1.66	na	na	na	na
Control targets						
Visual appeal***	5.89	.68	5.60	.81	5.70	.77

Note. Asterisks denote sex differences: ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 7. *Summary of Intercorrelations Among Target Ratings (Male Participants; N = 262)*

	M.Attr	M.Inter	M.Intel	F.Attr	F.Inter	F.Intel	PhysAttr	RelInter	DateInter	SexInter
M.Attr	-									
M.Inter	.785***	-								
M.Intel	.559***	.620***	-							
F.Attr	.320***	.294***	.274***	-						
F.Inter	.311***	.364***	.326***	.730***	-					
F.Intel	.178***	.228***	.401***	.461***	.602***	-				
PhysAttr	.293***	.283***	.251***	.805***	.758***	.415***	-			
RelInter	.302***	.249***	.219***	.574***	.625***	.406***	.717***	-		
DateInter	.252***	.215***	.169**	.590***	.586***	.345***	.744***	.880***	-	
SexInter	.219***	.153***	.123*	.585***	.565***	.283***	.785***	.711***	.820***	-
Control	.023	.062	.147*	.265***	.332***	.242***	.249***	.134*	.118	.137*

Note. M.Attr = male attractiveness; M.Inter = male interestingness; M.Intel = male intelligence; F.Attr = female attractiveness; F.Inter = female interestingness; F.Intel = female intelligence; PhysAttr = physical attraction; RelInter = relationship interest; DateInter = dating interest; SexInter = sexual interest; Control = control visual appeal.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; two-tailed.

Table 8. *Summary of Intercorrelations Among Target Ratings (Female Participants; N = 441)*

	F.Attr	F.Inter	F.Intel	M.Attr	M.Inter	M.Intel	PhysAttr	RelInter	DateInter	SexInter
F.Attr	-									
F.Inter	.591***	-								
F.Intel	.437***	.619***	-							
M.Attr	.521***	.380***	.283***	-						
M.Inter	.435***	.575***	.377***	.718***	-					
M.Intel	.300***	.373***	.589***	.434***	.534***	-				
PhysAttr	.409***	.374***	.209***	.777***	.711***	.375***	-			
RelInter	.321***	.343***	.208***	.579***	.592***	.324***	.743***	-		
DateInter	.312***	.317***	.211***	.564***	.594***	.320***	.722***	.906***	-	
SexInter	.266***	.255***	.143**	.518***	.461***	.210***	.669***	.792***	.756***	-
Control	.143**	.153**	.166***	.102*	.129**	.139**	.107*	.101*	.078	.037

Note. F.Attr = female attractiveness; F.Inter = female interestingness; F.Intel = female intelligence; M.Attr = male attractiveness; M.Inter = male interestingness; M.Intel = male intelligence; PhysAttr = physical attraction; RelInter = relationship interest; DateInter = dating interest; SexInter = sexual interest; Control = control visual appeal.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; two-tailed.

Table 9. *Hypothesis 1: Repeated Measures ANOVAs Examining Effects of Target Type, Participant Sex, and Relationship Commitment (Low, Moderate, High) on Target Ratings (Full Sample; N = 703)*

		F	*p*	η_P^2
Target attractiveness				
Within:	Target type[a]	609.084	.00	.47
	Target type x PS[a]	92.128	.00	.16
	Target type x RC[b]	.989	.41	.00
	Target type x PS x RC[b]	1.507	.20	.00
Between:	PS[c]	20.425	.00	.03
	RC[d]	3.707	.02	.01
	PS x RC[d]	1.638	.20	.01
Target interestingness				
Within:	Target type[c]	127.262	.00	.16
	Target type x PS[c]	116.375	.00	.14
	Target type x RC[d]	.276	.78	.00
	Target type x PS x RC[d]	2.273	.10	.01
Between:	PS[a]	20.302	.00	.03
	RC[d]	6.931	.00	.02
	PS x RC[d]	2.979	.06	.01
Target intelligence				
Within:	Target type[c]	153.957	.00	.18
	Target type x PS[c]	51.985	.00	.07
	Target type x RC[d]	2.438	.09	.01
	Target type x PS x RC[d]	1.910	.15	.01
Between:	PS[c]	34.984	.00	.05
	RC[d]	3.376	.03	.01
	PS x RC[d]	2.908	.06	.01

Note. PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment.
[a]*df* = (2, 1394); [b]*df* = (4, 1394); [c]*df* = (1, 697); [d]*df* = (2, 697).

Table 10. *Hypothesis 1: MANOVAs Examining the Effect of Relationship Commitment (Low, Moderate, High) on Target Ratings (by Participant Sex)*

	Male participants[a] (n = 262)			Female participants[b] (n = 441)		
	F	*p*	η_P^2	*F*	*p*	η_P^2
Male targets						
Male attractiveness	1.540	.22	.01	3.440	.03	.02
Male interestingness	2.202	.11	.02	6.885	.00	.03
Male intelligence	4.070	.02	.03	.504	.61	.00
Female targets						
Female attractiveness	3.280	.04	.03	.939	.39	.00
Female interestingness	6.728	.00	.05	1.602	.20	.01
Female intelligence	3.917	.02	.03	.312	.73	.00
Control targets						
Visual appeal	.588	.56	.01	1.642	.20	.01

Note. [a]*df* = (2, 259); [b]*df* = (2, 438).

Table 11. *Hypothesis 1: Means and Standard Deviations for Target Ratings as a Function of Participant Sex and Relationship Commitment (Low, Moderate, High)*

	Male participants (n = 262)		Female participants (n = 441)		Full sample (N = 703)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Male attractiveness						
Low commitment	3.27	1.51	†4.63	.97	4.09	1.39
Moderate commitment	3.67	1.53	4.49	1.00	4.15	1.31
High commitment	3.35	1.64	†4.31	1.06	3.99	1.35
Male interestingness						
Low commitment	3.24	1.28	[a]4.35	.92	3.91	1.21
Moderate commitment	3.68	1.25	[a]4.37	.77	†4.09	1.05
High commitment	3.45	1.39	[b]4.03	1.04	†3.84	1.20
Male intelligence						
Low commitment	3.83	.94	4.52	.69	4.25	.86
Moderate commitment	[a]4.16	.93	4.53	.74	4.38	.84
High commitment	[b]3.78	1.09	4.46	.78	4.23	.94
Female attractiveness						
Low commitment	4.91	.73	5.07	1.07	5.01	.95
Moderate commitment	5.15	.77	5.00	.95	5.06	.88
High commitment	4.88	.86	4.90	1.06	4.90	1.00
Female interestingness						
Low commitment	[a]4.31	.77	4.36	.91	4.34	.85
Moderate commitment	[b]4.68	.81	4.30	.98	[a]4.46	.93
High commitment	[a]4.27	.96	4.15	1.08	[b]4.19	1.04
Female intelligence						
Low commitment	[a]4.39	.72	4.72	.84	4.59	.81
Moderate commitment	[b]4.73	.75	4.68	.83	4.70	.80
High commitment	4.62	.72	4.64	.82	4.63	.78
Control visual appeal						
Low commitment	5.80	.62	5.53	.84	5.64	.77
Moderate commitment	5.90	.64	5.70	.75	5.78	.71
High commitment	5.92	.75	5.56	.85	5.68	.83

Note. [a] and [b] denote group membership where significant group differences occurred ($p < .025$); † denotes a difference with a *p*-value between .025 and .05.

Table 12. *Hypothesis 1: Regressions Examining Relationship Commitment, Participant Sex, and the Two-Way Interaction as Predictors of Target Ratings (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Male attractiveness		.12***		.00	.13***
PS	.35***		.35***		
RC	–.06		.02		
PS x RC			–.09		
Male interestingness		.09***		.01*	.09***
PS	.30***		.30***		
RC	–.05		.05		
PS x RC			–.12*		
Male intelligence		.09***		.00	.09***
PS	.30***		.30***		
RC	–.04		–.01		
PS x RC			–.04		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00	.00
PS	–.01		–.01		
RC	–.04		.01		
PS x RC			–.06		
Female interestingness		.01*		.00	.01*
PS	–.10*		–.10*		
RC	–.04		–.01		
PS x RC			–.03		
Female intelligence		.00		.01*	.00
PS	–.04		.04		
RC	–.01		.11		
PS x RC			–.13*		
Control visual appeal		.03***		.00	.03***
PS	–.18***		–.18***		
RC	.05		.07		
PS x RC			–.03		

Note. PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment.
[a]df = 701; [b]df = 700.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 13. *Hypothesis 1: Linear Regressions Examining Relationship Commitment as a Predictor of Target Ratings (by Participant Sex)*

	Male participants[a] (n = 262)		Female participants[b] (n = 441)	
	β	R^2	β	R^2
Primary target ratings				
Male attractiveness	.02	.00	–.13	.02**
Male interestingness	.04	.00	–.12	.01*
Male intelligence	–.01	.00	–.06	.00
Female attractiveness	.01	.00	–.06	.00
Female interestingness	–.01	.00	–.05	.00
Female intelligence	.01	.00	–.05	.00
Control visual appeal	.08	.00	.03	.00
All targets	.04	.00	–.10	.01†
Target interest ratings				
Attraction to target	–.12	.01	–.22	.04***
Relationship interest	–.18	.03**	–.26	.07***
Dating interest	–.19	.03**	–.28	.08***
Sexual interest	–.22	.05***	–.20	.04***

Note. [a]$df = 261$; [b]$df = 440$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 14. *Hypothesis 2: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Attachment Avoidance, Attachment Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		Block 5[e]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.12***		.00		–.01		.01†		.01*	.13***
PS	.35***		.35***		.35***		.37***		.38***		
RC	–.06		–.06		–.06		–.06		–.06		
AttAvd			–.01		–.03		–.03		.01		
AttAnx			.01		.07		.08		.13*		
AttAvd x RC					.02		.00		–.01		
AttAnx x RC					–.07†		–.20**		–.25***		
AttAvd x PS					.03		.03		.00		
AttAnx x PS					–.08		–.09		–.14*		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.04		–.04		–.04		
AttAvd x RC x PS							.02		.03		
AttAnx x RC x PS							.15*		.21**		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.04		.17**		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC x PS									–.16*		
Male interestingness		.09***		.00		.02*		.01		.01**	.11***
PS	.30***		.30***		.30***		.32***		.33***		
RC	–.05		–.06		–.10*		–.11*		–.10*		
AttAvd			–.05		–.10		–.09		–.05		
AttAnx			.07†		.13†		.16*		.21**		
AttAvd x RC					.11*		.07		.06		

	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAnx x RC					–.09*		–.23***		–.27***		
AttAvd x PS					.07		.07		.04		
AttAnx x PS					–.09		–.08		–.16**		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.05		–.05		–.04		
AttAvd x RC x PS							.04		.05		
AttAnx x RC x PS							.12†		.19**		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.09*		.25***		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC x PS									–.21**		
Male intelligence		.09***		.01*		.01		.00		.00	.10***
PS	.30***		.30***		.30***		.30***		.30***		
RC	–.04		–.11*		–.14**		–.14**		–.14**		
AttAvd			–.14**		–.13†		–.12†		–.13†		
AttAnx			.04		.06		.07		.06		
AttAvd x RC					.08†		.10		.10		
AttAnx x RC					–.08†		–.13†		–.12†		
AttAvd x PS					.01		–.01		.00		
AttAnx x PS					–.03		–.03		–.02		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.05		–.05		–.05		
AttAvd x RC x PS							–.03		–.03		
AttAnx x RC x PS							.04		.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.04		.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC x PS									.02		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.01		.01		.00	.00
PS	–.01		–.02		–.01		–.04		–.03		

	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC	–.04		–.06		–.11*		–.12**		–.12*		
AttAvd			–.05		.00		.03		.05		
AttAnx			.05		–.01		.01		.02		
AttAvd x RC					.08†		.18**		.17**		
AttAnx x RC					.01		–.06		–.07		
AttAvd x PS					–.06		–.10		–.11		
AttAnx x PS					.06		.08		.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.04		–.03		–.03		
AttAvd x RC x PS							–.12†		–.12		
AttAnx x RC x PS							.06		.08		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.08		.12		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC x PS									–.06		
Female interestingness		.01*		.00		.01*		.00		.01*	.02**
PS	–.10*		–.10*		–.09*		–.12**		–.11**		
RC	–.04		–.03		–.08		–.09†		–.08		
AttAvd			.01		.07		.09		.12		
AttAnx			.03		–.02		–.02		.02		
AttAvd x RC					.10*		.19**		.18**		
AttAnx x RC					.01		.03		–.02		
AttAvd x PS					–.08		–.11		–.14†		
AttAnx x PS					.04		.05		–.02		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.04		–.04		–.03		
AttAvd x RC x PS							–.12		–.11		
AttAnx x RC x PS							–.02		.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.06		.14†		

	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC x PS									$-.18^{**}$		
Female intelligence		.00		.01		–.01		.00		.00	.00
PS	.04		.03		.04		.01		.01		
RC	.01		–.02		–.05		–.06		–.06		
AttAvd			–.07		–.09		–.06		–.06		
AttAnx			$.07^{\dagger}$		.06		.07		.07		
AttAvd x RC					.06		.11		.11		
AttAnx x RC					–.01		.03		.03		
AttAvd x PS					.02		.00		.00		
AttAnx x PS					.01		.03		.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.06		–.06		–.06		
AttAvd x RC x PS							–.06		–.06		
AttAnx x RC x PS							–.07		–.07		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.08		.08		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC x PS									.00		
Control visual appeal		$.03^{***}$		.00		.01		.00		.00	$.03^{***}$
PS	–.18		$-.18^{***}$		$-.17^{***}$		$-.19^{***}$		$-.18^{***}$		
RC	.05		.04		–.03		–.03		–.03		
AttAvd			–.01		–.01		–.01		.00		
AttAnx			.01		–.03		–.04		–.03		
AttAvd x RC					$.12^{**}$		$.16^{*}$		$.16^{*}$		
AttAnx x RC					.03		.07		.06		
AttAvd x PS					–.01		–.02		–.02		
AttAnx x PS					.02		.03		.01		
AttAvd x AttAnx					.05		.06		.06		

	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAvd x RC x PS							–.05		–.05		
AttAnx x RC x PS							–.04		–.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.01		.01		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC x PS									–.04		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; PS = Participant sex; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety.
[a]df = 701; [b]df = 699; [c]df = 695; [d]df = 691; [e]df = 690.
[†] $p < .10$. [*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .025$. [***] $p < .001$.

Table 15. *Hypothesis 2: Regressions Examining Males' Attachment Avoidance, Attachment Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 262)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	B	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Male attractiveness		.00		.00		.02		.01†	.01
RC	.02		.03		.07		.09		
AttAvd			.02		.03		.07		
AttAnx			.05		.06		.11		
AttAvd x RC					–.06		–.07		
AttAnx x RC					–.16*		–.20**		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.06		–.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.14†		
Male interestingness		.00		.01		.02		.03**	.04*
RC	.04		.04		.05		.06		
AttAvd			–.03		–.02		.03		
AttAnx			.10		.11		.18*		
AttAvd x RC					.01		–.01		
AttAnx x RC					–.15†		–.21**		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.03		–.02		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.21**		
Male intelligence		.00		–.01		–.01		.00	–.01
RC	–.01		–.05		–.09		–.09		
AttAvd			–.09		–.09		–.09		
AttAnx			.05		.05		.05		
AttAvd x RC					.08		.08		
AttAnx x RC					–.07		–.08		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	B	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.01		.02		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.03		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.02		.02†	.01
RC	–.01		.05		–.06		–.04		
AttAvd			.12		.11		.09		
AttAnx			–.01		–.03		.02		
AttAvd x RC					.18*		.16†		
AttAnx x RC					.05		–.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx					.00		.04		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.15†		
Female interestingness		.00		.01		.03		.02†	.03
RC	.01		.05		–.05		–.05		
AttAvd			.07		.06		.14		
AttAnx			–.01		–.02		.02		
AttAvd x RC					.17*		.17*		
AttAnx x RC					–.01		.00		
AttAvd x AttAnx					.03		.01		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.15†		
Female intelligence		.01		.00		–.01		.01	.00
RC	.11		.12		.08		.09		
AttAvd			–.01		–.01		.01		
AttAnx			.05		.05		.08		
AttAvd x RC					.06		.05		
AttAnx x RC					.07		.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.01		–.01		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.09		
Control visual appeal		.01		.00		.02		.00	.00
RC	.08		.09		.01		.01		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAvd			.02		.01		.02		
AttAnx			–.02		–.03		–.03		
AttAvd x RC					.14		.13		
AttAnx x RC					.03		.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.03		–.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.01		
Target interest ratings									
Attraction to target		.01		.02†		.03*		.01	.05**
RC	–.12		–.14		–.14		–.13		
AttAvd			.18*		.18*		–.20*		
AttAnx			–.04		–.04		–.01		
AttAvd x RC					.21**		–.20**		
AttAnx x RC					.07		.04		
AttAvd x AttAnx					.02		.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.10		
Relationship interest		.03**		.01		.01		.00	.04*
RC	–.18**		–.11		–.19*		–.18†		
AttAvd			.14		.13		.14		
AttAnx			–.01		–.02		.00		
AttAvd x RC					.14		.14		
AttAnx x RC					–.01		–.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.05		
Dating interest		.04**		.01		.03		.01	.05**
RC	–.19**		–.12		–.23**		–.23**		
AttAvd			.13		.12		.14		
AttAnx			–.03		–.05		–.02		
AttAvd x RC					.19**		.18*		
AttAnx x RC					.00		–.03		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAvd x AttAnx					.03		.04		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.09		
Sexual interest		.05***		.03**		.04**		.00	.10***
RC	–.22**		–.11		–.21*		–.20*		
AttAvd			.23**		.22**		.24**		
AttAnx			–.05		–.06		–.04		
AttAvd x RC					.19**		.18*		
AttAnx x RC					.03		.01		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.07		–.07		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.07		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety.
[a]*df* = 261; [b]*df* = 259; [c]*df* = 256; [d]*df* = 255.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 16. *Hypothesis 2: Regressions Examining Females' Attachment Avoidance, Attachment Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 441)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Male attractiveness		.01**		.00		–.01		.00	.01
RC	–.06		–.16**		–.20**		–.20**		
AttAvd			–.05		–.05		–.05		
AttAnx			–.03		–.04		–.06		
AttAvd x RC					.08		.08		
AttAnx x RC					–.01		–.01		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.04		–.04		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.03		
Male interestingness		.01*		.00		.03		.00	.03**
RC	–.12*		–.16**		–.24***		–.24***		
AttAvd			–.08		–.07		–.07		
AttAnx			.04		.01		.02		
AttAvd x RC					.19**		.19***		
AttAnx x RC					–.05		–.06		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.06		–.06		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.01		
Male intelligence		.00		.02**		.02		.00	.03**
RC	–.06		–.17**		–.20**		–.20**		
AttAvd			–.19**		–.18**		–.18**		
AttAnx			.03		.02		.06		
AttAvd x RC					.10		.10		
AttAnx x RC					–.10		–.13†		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.09		–.10		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.07		
Female attractiveness		.00		.01		.01		.00	.01
RC	–.07		–.12		–.15†		–.16†		
AttAvd			–.10		–.11		–.11		
AttAnx			.07		.06		.09		
AttAvd x RC					.05		.05		
AttAnx x RC					.03		.00		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.05		–.06		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.06		
Female interestingness		.00		.00		.01		.00	.00
RC	–.05		–.07		–.11		–.10		
AttAvd			–.05		–.05		–.05		
AttAnx			.05		.04		.00		
AttAvd x RC					.07		.07		
AttAnx x RC					.00		.04		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.05		–.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.07		
Female intelligence		.00		.01		.01		.00	.01
RC	–.05		–.10		–.13		–.14†		
AttAvd			–.11		–.11		–.10		
AttAnx			.08		.07		.11		
AttAvd x RC					.07		.07		
AttAnx x RC					–.03		–.07		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.08		–.09		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							.09		
Control visual appeal		.00		.00		.01		.00	.00
RC	.03		.02		–.05		–.05		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAvd			–.03		–.04		–.04		
AttAnx			.02		.00		–.02		
AttAvd x RC					.11		.11		
AttAnx x RC					.04		.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx					.09		.09		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.03		
Target interest ratings									
Attraction to target		.05***		.01		.02†		.00	.05***
RC	–.22***		–.17**		–.23***		–.23***		
AttAvd			.06		.06		.06		
AttAnx			.05		.03		.01		
AttAvd x RC					.14**		.14**		
AttAnx x RC					–.04		–.03		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.05		–.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.03		
Relationship interest		.07***		.02*		.03**		.00	.10***
RC	–.26***		–.17**		–.26***		–.25***		
AttAvd			.15*		.15*		.15*		
AttAnx			.03		.01		–.02		
AttAvd x RC					.19**		.19***		
AttAnx x RC					–.03		.00		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.03		–.02		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.06		
Dating interest		.08***		.02*		.03**		.00	.11***
RC	–.28***		–.19**		–.29***		–.29***		
AttAvd			.14*		.14*		.14*		
AttAnx			.03		.00		–.01		
AttAvd x RC					.19***		.19***		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAnx x RC					–.02		–.01		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.05		–.05		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.01		
Sexual interest		.04***		.03***		.02*		.00	.08***
RC	–.20***		–.07		–.13†		–.13		
AttAvd			.21***		.22***		.22***		
AttAnx			.04		.02		.01		
AttAvd x RC					.15**		.15**		
AttAnx x RC					–.06		–.06		
AttAvd x AttAnx					–.07		–.07		
AttAvd x AttAnx x RC							–.02		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety.
[a]$df = 440$; [b]$df = 438$; [c]$df = 435$; [d]$df = 434$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 17. *Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Social Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Male attractiveness		.12***		.01*		.00		.01†	.13***
PS	.35***		.36***		.36***		.37***		
RC	–.06		–.06†		–.06†		–.07*		
SocAnx			–.08*		–.05		–.07		
SocAnx x PS					–.04		–.02		
SocAnx x RC					–.03		–.12*		
SocAnx x PS x RC							.11†		
Male interestingness		.09***		.00		.00		.00†	.09***
PS	.30***		.31***		.30***		.31***		
RC	–.05		–.05		–.05		–.06†		
SocAnx			–.05		.04		.01		
SocAnx x PS					–.11		–.09		
SocAnx x RC					–.02		–.10†		
SocAnx x PS x RC							.11†		
Male intelligence		.09***		.00		.00		.00	.09***
PS	.30***		.31***		.30***		.31***		
RC	–.04		–.04		–.04		–.05		
SocAnx			–.04		.02		.01		
SocAnx x PS					–.07		–.06		
SocAnx x RC					–.04		–.10		
SocAnx x PS x RC							.07		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.00		.00	.00

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
PS	–.01		–.01		–.01		.00		
RC	–.04		–.05		–.05		–.06		
SocAnx			–.02		–.05		–.06		
SocAnx x PS					.03		.04		
SocAnx x RC					.06		.00		
SocAnx x PS x RC							.07		
Female interestingness		.01*		.00		.01		.00	.01
PS	–.10*		–.09*		–.09*		–.09*		
RC	–.04		–.04		–.05		–.05		
SocAnx			–.02		.01		.00		
SocAnx x PS					–.03		–.02		
SocAnx x RC					.05		–.01		
SocAnx x PS x RC							.07		
Female intelligence		.00		.00		.01		.00	.00
PS	.04		.03		.03		.03		
RC	.01		.01		.00		.01		
SocAnx			.04		.10		.10		
SocAnx x PS					–.06		–.07		
SocAnx x RC					.06		.09		
SocAnx x PS x RC							–.03		
Control visual appeal		.03***		.00		.00		.00	.03***
PS	–.18***		–.17***		–.17***		–.17***		
RC	.05		.04		.04		.05		
SocAnx			–.05		–.10		–.09		
SocAnx x PS					.06		.05		
SocAnx x RC					.02		.06		
SocAnx x PS x RC							–.05		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; PS = Participant sex; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
[a]*df* = 701; [b]*df* = 700; [c]*df* = 698; [d]*df* = 697.
[†] $p < .10$. [*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.

Table 18. *Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Males' Social Anxiety as a Predictor of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 262)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.00		.00		.01	.00
RC	.02		.01		.00		
SocAnx			–.03		–.05		
SocAnx x RC					–.09		
Male interestingness		.00		.00		.01	.00
RC	.04		.05		.03		
SocAnx			.04		.02		
SocAnx x RC					–.07		
Male intelligence		.00		.00		.01	–.01
RC	–.01		–.01		–.02		
SocAnx			.03		.01		
SocAnx x RC					–.08		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.00	.00
RC	.01		.01		.01		
SocAnx			–.06		–.06		
SocAnx x RC					.01		
Female interestingness		.00		.00		.01	–.01
RC	–.01		–.01		–.01		
SocAnx			.01		.01		
SocAnx x RC					.00		
Female intelligence		.01		.01		.01	.02†
RC	.11		.12		.14†		
SocAnx			.09		.12		
SocAnx x RC					.12		
Control visual appeal		.00		.01		.00	.01
RC	.08		.07		.08		
SocAnx			–.11		–.09		
SocAnx x RC					.07		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.01		.00		.00	.01
RC	–.12		–.12		–.12		
SocAnx			–.06		–.05		
SocAnx x RC					.01		
Relationship interest		.03**		.00		.00	.02*
RC	–.18**		–.18**		–.19**		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SocAnx			–.04		–.04		
SocAnx x RC					–.01		
Dating interest		.03**		.00		.00	.03*
RC	–.19**		–.19**		–.19**		
SocAnx			–.06		–.06		
SocAnx x RC					–.03		
Sexual interest		.05***		.00		.00	.04**
RC	–.22***		–.23***		–.22***		
SocAnx			–.03		–.03		
SocAnx x RC					.02		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
[a]df = 261; [b]df = 260; [c]df = 259.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 19. *Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Females' Social Anxiety as a Predictor of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 441).*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.01**		.02**		.00	.03**
RC	–.13**		–.14**		–.15**		
SocAnx			–.14**		–.14**		
SocAnx x RC					.04		
Male interestingness		.01*		.02**		.00	.03**
RC	–.12*		–.14**		–.15**		
SocAnx			–.13**		–.13**		
SocAnx x RC					.05		
Male intelligence		.00		.01		.00	.01
RC	–.06		–.07		–.07		
SocAnx			–.09		–.09		
SocAnx x RC					.00		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.01	.01
RC	–.07		–.07		–.09		
SocAnx			–.01		–.02		
SocAnx x RC					.09		
Female interestingness		.00		.00		.01	.00
RC	–.05		–.05		–.06		
SocAnx			.01		.01		
SocAnx x RC					.06		
Female intelligence		.00		.00		.00	.00
RC	–.05		–.06		–.07		
SocAnx			–.03		–.03		
SocAnx x RC					.08		
Control visual appeal		.00		.00		.00	–.01
RC	.03		.03		.03		
SocAnx			–.03		–.03		
SocAnx x RC					.00		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.04***		.00		.00	.05***
RC	–.22***		–.22***		–.23***		
SocAnx			–.06		–.07		
SocAnx x RC					.06		
Relationship interest		.07***		.00		.01†	.07***
RC	–.26***		–.27***		–.29***		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SocAnx			–.01		–.02		
SocAnx x RC					.09†		
Dating interest		.08***		.00		.01*	.09***
RC	–.28***		–.29***		–.31***		
SocAnx			–.04		–.04		
SocAnx x RC					.12*		
Sexual interest		.04***		.00		.01	.04***
RC	–.20***		–.20***		–.22***		
SocAnx			.01		.00		
SocAnx x RC					.08		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
[a]df = 440; [b]df = 439; [c]df = 438.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 20. *Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Generalized Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, Controlling for Relationship Commitment (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Male attractiveness		.12***		.00		.00		.00	.12***
PS	.35***		.36***		.36***		.36***		
RC (T1)	–.06		–.06†		–.06†		–.06†		
GenAnx			–.05		–.03		–.03		
GenAnx x PS					–.02		–.02		
GenAnx x RC					.01		–.02		
GenAnx x PS x RC							.03		
Male interestingness		.09***		.00		.00		.00	.09***
PS	.30***		.30***		.30***		.30***		
RC (T1)	–.05		–.05		–.05		–.05		
GenAnx			–.01		.06		.06		
GenAnx x PS					–.08		–.08		
GenAnx x RC					.01		.01		
GenAnx x PS x RC							.00		
Male intelligence		.09***		.01*		.00		.00	.09***
PS	.30***		.31***		.31***		.31***		
RC (T1)	–.04		–.05		–.05		–.04		
GenAnx			–.08*		–.08		–.08		
GenAnx x PS					.00		.00		
GenAnx x RC					–.02		.02		
GenAnx x PS x RC							–.04		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.01†		.00	.00
PS	–.01		–.01		–.01		–.01		
RC (T1)	–.04		–.05		–.05		–.05		
GenAnx			–.01		–.01		–.01		
GenAnx x PS					–.01		–.01		
GenAnx x RC					.09*		.09		
GenAnx x PS x RC							–.01		
Female interestingness		.01*		.00		.00		.00	.00
PS	–.10*		–.10*		–.10*		–.10*		
RC (T1)	–.04		–.04		–.04		–.04		
GenAnx			–.03		.04		.04		
GenAnx x PS					–.02		–.02		
GenAnx x RC					.03		.02		
GenAnx x PS x RC							.02		
Female intelligence		.00		.00		.00		.00	.00
PS	.04		.03		.03		.03		
RC (T1)	.01		.01		.01		.01		
GenAnx			.03		.04		.04		
GenAnx x PS					.00		–.01		
GenAnx x RC					.01		.10		
GenAnx x PS x RC							–.11		
Control visual appeal		.03***		.00		.00		.00	.03***
PS	–.18***		–.18***		–.18***		–.18***		
RC (T1)	.05		.04		.04		.05		
GenAnx			–.02		–.07		–.07		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
GenAnx x PS					.06		.05		
GenAnx x RC					.01		.09		
GenAnx x PS x RC							–.10		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; PS = Participant sex; GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score.
[a]*df* = 701; [b]*df* = 700; [c]*df* = 698; [d]*df* = 697.
[†] $p < .10$. [*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.

Table 21. *Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Male Participants' Generalized Anxiety Composite Score as a Predictor of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 262)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.00		.00		.00	–.01
RC (T1)	.02		.01		.01		
GenAnx			–.02		–.02		
GenAnx x RC					–.01		
Male interestingness		.00		.00		.01	–.01
RC (T1)	.04		.05		.05		
GenAnx			.05		.05		
GenAnx x RC					.00		
Male intelligence		.00		.00		.01	–.01
RC (T1)	–.01		–.01		–.01		
GenAnx			–.06		–.06		
GenAnx x RC					.01		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.01	.00
RC (T1)	.01		.01		.01		
GenAnx			–.01		.00		
GenAnx x RC					.10		
Female interestingness		.00		.00		.01	–.01
RC (T1)	–.01		–.01		–.01		
GenAnx			.04		.04		
GenAnx x RC					.02		
Female intelligence		.01		.00		.01	.01
RC (T1)	.11		.12		.12		
GenAnx			.05		.05		
GenAnx x RC					.10		
Control visual appeal		.00		.01		.01	.01
RC (T1)	.08		.07		.07		
GenAnx			–.08		–.07		
GenAnx x RC					.09		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.01		.00		.00	.00
RC (T1)	–.12		–.12		–.12		
GenAnx			.01		.02		
GenAnx x RC					.04		
Relationship interest		.03**		.00		.00	.02†
RC (T1)	–.18**		–.18**		–.18**		

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
GenAnx			–.02		–.02		
GenAnx x RC					.00		
Dating interest		.03**		.00		.00	.03*
RC (T1)	–.19**		–.19**		–.19**		
GenAnx			.00		.00		
GenAnx x RC					–.01		
Sexual interest		.05***		.00		.00	.04**
RC (T1)	–.22***		–.22***		–.22***		
GenAnx			.05		.05		
GenAnx x RC					.01		

Note. GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment.
[a]$df = 261$; [b]$df = 260$; [c]$df = 259$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 22. *Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Female Participants' Generalized Anxiety Composite Score as a Predictor of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 441)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.01**		.01		.00	.02*
RC (T1)	–.13**		–.14**		–.14**		
GenAnx			–.08		–.08		
GenAnx x RC					.04		
Male interestingness		.01**		.00		.00	.01†
RC (T1)	–.13*		–.13**		–.13**		
GenAnx			–.07		–.07		
GenAnx x RC					.02		
Male intelligence		.00		.01†		.00	.01
RC (T1)	–.06		–.08		–.07		
GenAnx			–.10†		–.10†		
GenAnx x RC					–.04		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.01	.01
RC (T1)	–.07		–.07		–.08		
GenAnx			–.02		–.02		
GenAnx x RC					.09		
Female interestingness		.00		.00		.00	.00
RC (T1)	–.05		–.05		–.06		
GenAnx			.02		.02		
GenAnx x RC					.04		
Female intelligence		.00		.00		.00	.00
RC (T1)	–.05		–.05		–.04		
GenAnx			.02		.02		
GenAnx x RC					–.02		
Control visual appeal		.00		.00		.00	–.01
RC (T1)	.03		.03		.04		
GenAnx			.00		.00		
GenAnx x RC					–.02		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.04***		.00		.00	.04***
RC (T1)	–.22***		–.21***		–.22***		
GenAnx			.01		.01		
GenAnx x RC					.03		
Relationship interest		.07***		.00		.00	.06***

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T1)	–.26***		–.26***		–.27***		
GenAnx			.01		.01		
GenAnx x RC					.03		
Dating interest		.08***		.00		.00	.08***
RC (T1)	–.28***		–.28***		–.29***		
GenAnx			.03		.04		
GenAnx x RC					.06		
Sexual interest		.04***		.00		.00	.04***
RC (T1)	–.20***		–.20***		–.20***		
GenAnx			.07		.07		
GenAnx x RC					.03		

Note. GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment.
[a]*df* = 440; [b]*df* = 439; [c]*df* = 438.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 23. *Summary of Support for Hypotheses 1 Through 4 (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	Male targets			Female targets			Control targets
Predictor	Attractiveness	Interestingness	Intelligence	Attractiveness	Interestingness	Intelligence	Visual appeal
RC	Females	Females	Males	Males	Males	Males	
AttAnx	Males	Males		Males	Males		
AttAvd				Males	Both	Females	
SocAnx	Females	Females					
SIAS		Both		Females		Females	
SPS	Males					Females	
GenAnx			All	All			
DASS-A	Both	Females	Females				Females
DASS-S	Females			Both			Females

Note. All = All participants collectively; Both = Both sexes independently.
RC = Relationship commitment; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score; SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score; GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; DASS-Dep = Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.
This table is offered as a basic and simplified overview of this study's findings. The reader is strongly encouraged to review all corresponding data and discussions for a full explanation of results.

Table 24. *Means and Standard Deviations of Relationship Quality Ratings for (a) Time 1 Participants and (b) Time 2 Participants Who Were Still in a Committed Relationship at 6-Month Follow-Up (by Participant Sex)*

Male participants	Time 1 (n = 218)		Time 2 (n = 33)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Relationship commitment	7.50	1.65	8.06	1.37
Relationship satisfaction	5.80	1.02	6.24	.90
Relationship value (self)	6.10	1.08	6.38	.98
Relationship value (partner) *	6.10	1.08	6.64	.70
Supplementary characteristics				
Self-rated attractiveness	5.17	.95	5.30	.92
Self-rated ambition	5.62	1.06	5.94	.83
Female participants	**Time 1 (n = 352)**		**Time 2 (n = 89)**	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Relationship commitment*	7.51	1.81	8.40	1.12
Relationship satisfaction*	5.78	1.29	6.20	.90
Relationship value (self) *	6.21	1.14	6.71	.80
Relationship value (partner)*	6.13	1.23	6.56	.84
Supplementary characteristics				
Self-rated attractiveness	5.14	.97	5.00	1.03
Self-rated ambition	5.75	.93	5.81	.84
Full sample	**Time 1 (n = 540)**		**Time 2 (n = 122)**	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Relationship commitment*	7.51	1.75	8.31	1.19
Relationship satisfaction*	5.79	1.19	6.21	.90
Relationship value (self) *	6.17	1.11	6.62	.86
Relationship value (partner) *	6.12	1.17	6.58	.80
Supplementary characteristics				
Self-rated attractiveness	5.15	.96	5.15	1.01
Self-rated ambition	5.06	.99	5.70	.84

Note. * indicates significant T1 versus T2 group difference ($p < .005$).

Table 25. *Means and Standard Deviations for Scale Scores of (a) Time 1 Participants and (b) Time 2 Participants Who Were Still in a Committed Relationship at 6-Month Follow-Up*

	Time 1 (n = 540)		Time 2 (n = 122)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Scales/subscales				
Social Phobia Scale (SPS)	20.17	14.83	17.32	12.88
Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS)	20.39	13.73	20.34	12.52
Social anxiety composite score	40.57	26.77	37.66	23.75
DASS-Depression (DASS-D) subscale score	9.84	8.78	8.72	7.93
DASS-Anxiety (DASS-A) subscale score*	8.41	7.80	6.79	6.60
DASS-Stress (DASS-S) subscale score	13.76	8.77	13.48	9.18
DASS-Total score (sum of 3 subscales)	32.02	22.57	28.98	20.81
Generalized anxiety composite score	22.17	15.12	20.26	14.35
ECR Attachment anxiety score	3.24	1.18	2.97	1.24
ECR Attachment avoidance score*	2.60	1.10	2.20	1.02

Note. * denotes a significant group difference ($p < .005$).

Table 26. *Hypothesis 5a: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Attachment Avoidance, Attachment Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (Both Sexes; N = 122)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T2)		.32***		.01		.05†		–.01	.35***
PS	.11		.11		.15		.16		
RC (T1)	.56***		.46***		.66***		.68***		
AttAnx			–.02		–.05		–.07		
AttAvd			–.14		–.17		–.22		
AttAnx x PS					.07		.13		
AttAvd x PS					.23		.26		
AttAnx x RC					–.06		.07		
AttAvd x RC					–.25*		–.26†		
AttAnx x PS x RC							–.18		
AttAvd x PS x RC							.06		
RS (T2)		.18***		.00		.04		.00	.16***
PS	.06		.07		.05		.04		
RS (T1)	.43***		.43***		.46***		.45***		
AttAnx			–.05		–.01		–.02		
AttAvd			.04		.15		.15		
AttAnx x PS					–.16		–.16		
AttAvd x PS					–.11		–.09		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAnx x RS					.09		.09		
AttAvd x RS					–.10		–.09		
AttAnx x PS x RS							.01		
AttAvd x PS x RS							–.03		
RVs (T2)		.22***		–.01		–.01		.00	.19***
PS	.08		.09		.09		.12		
RVs (T1)	.46***		.46***		.50***		.49***		
AttAnx			–.04		–.08		–.05		
AttAvd			–.09		–.01		–.01		
AttAnx x PS					.01		–.05		
AttAvd x PS					–.12		–.19		
AttAnx x RVs					.08		.02		
AttAvd x RVs					–.04		–.06		
AttAnx x PS x RVs							.09		
AttAvd x PS x RVs							.09		
RVp (T2)		.17***		.02		–.02		.02	.17***
PS	–.10		–.11		–.09		–.18		
RVp (T1)	.41***		.35***		.37***		.34***		
AttAnx			–.03		–.14		–.33		
AttAvd			–.13		–.16		–.32		
AttAnx x PS					.10		**.34**		
AttAvd x PS					–.08		.25		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAnx x RVp					.12		.30		
AttAvd x RVp					.01		.15		
AttAnx x PS x RVp							**–.20**		
AttAvd x PS x RVp							–.35		

Note. AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value – partner. Values in bold indicate evidence of multicollinearity (tolerance below .100; variance inflation factors (VIFs) greater than 8); caution is warranted while interpreting these data.

[a]df = 120; [b]df = 118; [c]df = 114; [d]df = 112.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 27. *Hypothesis 5a: Regressions Examining Male Participants' Attachment Avoidance, Attachment Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 33)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T2)		.26***		.06		–.03		.14**	.41**
RC (T1)	.53***		.28**		.52		.51		
AttAnx			–.08		–.05		.37		
AttAvd			–.33		–.23		–.29		
AttAnx x RC					.04		.08		
AttAvd x RC					–.23		.78		
AttAnx x AttAvd x RC							1.21**		
RS (T2)		.05		–.01		–.02		.05	–.04
RS (T1)	.29		.29		.20		.24		
AttAnx			–.09		.02		.15		
AttAvd			.01		.04		–.01		
AttAnx x RS					–.21		–.07		
AttAvd x RS					–.06		.27		
AttAnx x AttAvd x RS							.47		
RVs (T2)		.20**		–.02		–.05		–.01	.12
RVs (T1)	.47**		.59†		.81*		.78*		
AttAnx			–.10		–.05		.04		
AttAvd			.16		.22		.21		
AttAnx x RVs					.06		.03		
AttAvd x RVs					–.26		–.12		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAnx x AttAvd x RVs							.19		
RVp (T2)		.32***		.05		.08		.00	.35**
RVp (T1)	.59***		.47*		.33		.33		
AttAnx			–.18		–.47†		–.47†		
AttAvd			–.13		–.49		–.49		
AttAnx x RVp					.45		.45		
AttAvd x RVp					.40		.41		
AttAnx x AttAvd x RVp							.01		

Note. AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value – partner. As a result of low statistical power due to small sample size, caution is warranted while interpreting the results in blocks 3 and 4.
[a]*df* = 32; [b]*df* = 30; [c]*df* = 28; [d]*df* = 27.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 28. *Hypothesis 5a: Regressions Examining Female Participants' Attachment Avoidance, Attachment Anxiety, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 89)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T2)		.33***		.00		.04		.00	.34***
RC (T1)	.58***		.53***		.78***		.77***		
AttAnx			–.01		.09		.10		
AttAvd			–.08		.13		.13		
AttAnx x RC					–.16		–.16		
AttAvd x RC					–.21		–.21		
AttAnx x AttAvd x RC							.01		
RS (T2)		.26***		.00		.05†		.03†	.31***
RS (T1)	.52***		.53***		.57***		.50***		
AttAnx			–.02		.12		.23		
AttAvd			.03		.08		.07		
AttAnx x RS					–.19		–.19		
AttAvd x RS					–.13		–.14		
AttAnx x AttAvd x RS							.23†		
RVs (T2)		.21***		.03		.00		–.01	.20
RVs (T1)	.47***		.37**		.36*		.34†		
AttAnx			.03		–.06		.02		
AttAvd			–.21		–.22		–.25		
AttAnx x RVs					.11		.07		
AttAvd x RVs					.00		.01		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
AttAnx x AttAvd x RVs							.10		
RVp (T2)		.14***		–.02		.02		.00	.13**
RVp (T1)	.38***		.33**		.34**		.34**		
AttAnx			.03		.02		.04		
AttAvd			–.14		–.13		–.13		
AttAnx x RVp					.10		.09		
AttAvd x RVp					–.14		–.14		
AttAnx x AttAvd x RVp							.04		

Note. AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value-partner.
[a]*df* = 88; [b]*df* = 86; [c]*df* = 84; [d]*df* = 83.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 29. *Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Social Anxiety Composite Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (Both Sexes; N = 122)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T2)		.34***		.01		.04*		.01	.36***
PS	.11		.14†		.27**		.25**		
RC (T1)	.56***		.53***		.56***		.63***		
SocAnx			–.11		–.64**		–.63**		
SocAnx x PS					.54**		.57**		
SocAnx x RC					.04		.22		
SocAnx x PS x RC							–.22		
RS (T2)		.18***		.00		.00		.00	.15***
PS	.06		.06		.08		.08		
RS (T1)	.43***		.43***		.42***		.43***		
SocAnx			–.03		–.10		–.10		
SocAnx x PS					.07		.07		
SocAnx x RS					.02		.03		
SocAnx x PS x RS							–.01		
RVs (T2)		.22***		.00		–.01		.01	.22***
PS	.08		.09		.13		.16		
RVs (T1)	.46***		.46***		.46***		.39***		
SocAnx			–.06		–.19		–.24		
SocAnx x PS					.11		.12		
SocAnx x RVs					.08		–.16		
SocAnx x PS x RVs							.28		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RVp (T2)		.17***		.00		.02		.01	.18***
PS	–.10		–.08		–.06		–.06		
RVp (T1)	.41***		.41***		.41***		.37***		
SocAnx			–.08		–.19		–.13		
SocAnx x PS					.09		.02		
SocAnx x RVp					.15†		–.06		
SocAnx x PS x RVp							.23		

Note. PS = Participant sex; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value-partner.
[a]*df* = 120; [b]*df* = 119; [c]*df* = 117; [d]*df* = 116.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 30. *Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Male Participants' Social Anxiety Composite Score as a Predictor of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 33)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.26***		.13*		.06	.42***
RC (T1)	.53***		.58***		.85***		
SocAnx			–.36*		–.37*		
SocAnx x RC					.37		
RS (T2)		.05		.00		.00	–.01
RS (T1)	.29		.29		.27		
SocAnx			–.05		–.05		
SocAnx x RS					–.02		
RVs (T2)		.20**		–.01		.00	.15†
RVs (T1)	.47**		.48**		.47†		
SocAnx			–.12		–.12		
SocAnx x RVs					–.02		
RVp (T2)		.32***		.03		.03	.35**
RVp (T1)	.59***		.63***		.93**		
SocAnx			–.18		–.32		
SocAnx x RVp					.35		

Note. Anx = Social anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value – partner. As a result of low statistical power due to small sample size, caution is warranted while interpreting the results in block 3.
[a]$df = 32$; [b]$df = 31$; [c]$df = 30$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 31. *Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Female Participants' Social Anxiety Composite Score as a Predictor of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 89)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.33***		.00		.00	.32***
RC (T1)	.58***		.57***		.55***		
SocAnx			–.03		–.05		
SocAnx x RC					.03		
RS (T2)		.26***		.00		.00	.24***
RS (T1)	.52***		.52***		.51***		
SocAnx			–.01		–.01		
SocAnx x RS					.01		
RVs (T2)		.21***		.00		.04†	.23***
RVs (T1)	.47***		.46***		.37***		
SocAnx			–.05		–.16		
SocAnx x RVs					.24†		
RVp (T2)		.14***		.00		.03	.15***
RVp (T1)	.38***		.37***		.33**		
SocAnx			–.07		–.11		
SocAnx x RVp					.19		

Note. SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment (Time 1); RS = Relationship satisfaction (Time 1); RVs = Relationship value–self (Time 1); RVp = Relationship value–partner (Time 1)

[a]$df = 88$; [b]$df = 87$; [c]$df = 86$.

† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 32. *Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining the Interactions Between Females' Social Anxiety Composite Scores and Relationship Quality Indicators as Predictors of Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 89)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		$.38^{***}$		$.10^{**}$	$.45^{***}$
RC (T1)	$.32^{*}$		$.38^{**}$		
RS (T1)	$.26^{\dagger}$		.16		
RVs (T1)	$.31^{\dagger}$		.11		
RVp (T1)	–.22		–.07		
SocAnx	–.04		$–.20^{\dagger}$		
SocAnx x RC			–.24		
SocAnx x RS			–.13		
SocAnx x RVs			$.50^{***}$		
SocAnx x RVp			.15		

Note. SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment (Time 1); RS = Relationship satisfaction (Time 1); RVs = Relationship value–self (Time 1); RVp = Relationship value–partner (Time 1)

[a]$df = 84$; [b]$df = 80$.

† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 33. *Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Generalized Anxiety Composite Score, and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, When Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (Both Sexes; N = 122)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T2)		.32***		.00		.01		.02*	.34***
PS	.11		.11		.17†		.13		
RC (T1)	.56***		.55***		.56***		.64***		
GenAnx			–.02		–.28		–.35		
GenAnx x PS					–.29		.39†		
GenAnx x RC					–.05		.32		
GenAnx x PS x RC							–.42*		
RS (T2)		.18***		.00		–.01		.00	.16***
PS	.06		.05		.01		.00		
RS (T1)	.43***		.44***		.45***		.46***		
GenAnx			.05		.23		.20		
GenAnx x PS					–.18		–.14		
GenAnx x RS					–.03		.05		
GenAnx x PS x RS							–.10		
RVs (T2)		.22***		.00		.00		.00	.20***
PS	.08		.08		.10		.12		
RVs (T1)	.46***		.47***		.46***		.44***		
GenAnx			.01		–.15		–.14		
GenAnx x PS					.17		.14		
GenAnx x RVs					–.01		–.11		
GenAnx x PS x RVs					.27		.12		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RVp (T2)		.17***		.00		.04		.01	.19***
PS	–.10		–.10		–.09		–.08		
RVp (T1)	.41***		.41***		.42***		.38***		
GenAnx			–.01		–.14		–.02		
GenAnx x PS					–.05		–.07		
GenAnx x RVp					.22*		–.06		
GenAnx x PS x RVp							.29		

Note. GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value–self; RVp = Relationship value–partner.
[a]$df = 120$; [b]$df = 119$; [c]$df = 117$; [d]$df = 116$.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 34. *Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Males' Generalized Anxiety Composite Scores and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 33)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.26***		.02		.04	.28**
RC (T1)	.53***		.53**		.69***		
GenAnx			–.16		–.20		
GenAnx x RC					.27		
RS (T2)		.05		–.01		.00	.00
RS (T1)	.29		.31		.30		
GenAnx			.10		.11		
GenAnx x RS					–.02		
RVs (T2)		.20**		.00		.00	.14
RVs (T1)	.47**		.46**		.45†		
GenAnx			–.07		–.07		
GenAnx x RVs					–.01		
RVp (T2)		.35***		.00		–.01	.29**
RVp (T1)	.59***		.59***		.70**		
GenAnx			–.05		–.11		
GenAnx x RVp					.15		

Note. GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value–self; RVp = Relationship value–partner.
[a]$df = 32$; [b]$df = 31$; [c]$df = 30$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 35. *Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Females' Generalized Anxiety Composite Scores and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 89)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.33***		.00		.02	.33***
RC (T1)	.58***		.58**		.64***		
GenAnx			.02		.08		
GenAnx x RC					–.15		
RS (T2)		.26***		.00		.00	.25***
RS (T1)	.52***		.53***		.55***		
GenAnx			.03		.06		
GenAnx x RS					–.07		
RVs (T2)		.21***		.00		.00	.19***
RVs (T1)	.47***		.47***		.46***		
GenAnx			.04		.01		
GenAnx x RVs					.05		
RVp (T2)		.14***		.00		.06*	.18***
RVp (T1)	.38***		.38***		.35***		
GenAnx			.00		–.10		
GenAnx x RVp					.26*		

Note. GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value–self; RVp = Relationship value–partner.
[a]$df = 88$; [b]$df = 87$; [c]$df = 86$.
* $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 36. *Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining the Interactions Between Females' Generalized Anxiety Composite Scores and Relationship Quality Indicators as Predictors of Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 89)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.38***		.12**	.47***
RC (T1)	.34**		.48***		
RS (T1)	.28*		.31*		
RVs (T1)	.29†		.09		
RVp (T1)	–.22		–.18		
GenAnx	.04		–.18		
GenAnx x RC			–.13		
GenAnx x RS			–.04		
GenAnx x RVs			.45***		
GenAnx x RVp			.06		

Note. GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; RC = Relationship commitment (Time 1); RS = Relationship satisfaction (Time 1); RVs = Relationship value–self (Time 1); RVp = Relationship value–partner (Time 1)

[a]$df = 84$; [b]$df = 80$.

† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 37. *Hypothesis 6: Means and Standard Deviations for Relationship Quality in Follow-Up Participants as a Function of Relationship Status at 6-Month Follow-Up (Together/Apart; N = 163)*

Primary predictors	Relationship status	*M*	*SD*
Relationship commitment*	Together	8.31	1.19
	Broken up	7.10	1.95
Relationship satisfaction*	Together	6.21	.90
	Broken up	5.44	1.16
Relationship value–self*	Together	6.62	.86
	Broken up	6.05	1.05
Relationship value–partner*	Together	6.58	.80
	Broken up	6.05	1.20
Relationship status at Time 2	Males	Females	
Together	33	89	
Apart	11	30	

Note. * Indicates significant group difference (together versus broken up; $p < .005$) with FWER set at $\alpha = .10$ for 18 predictors.

Table 38. *Hypothesis 6: Means and Standard Deviations for Attachment Anxiety, Attachment Avoidance, Social Anxiety, and Generalized Anxiety in Time 2 Participants as a Function of Relationship Status (Together/Apart) at 6-Month Follow-Up (N = 163)*

	Relationship status	*M*	*SD*
ECR – Attachment anxiety	Together	2.97	1.24
	Broken up	3.42	1.33
ECR – Attachment avoidance*	Together	2.20	1.02
	Broken up	2.90	1.29
Social Phobia Scale (SPS)	Together	17.32	12.88
	Broken up	19.63	16.41
Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS)	Together	20.34	12.52
	Broken up	18.98	14.89
Social anxiety composite score	Together	37.66	23.75
	Broken up	38.61	29.78
DASS – Depression subscale	Together	8.72	7.93
	Broken up	12.20	8.94
DASS – Anxiety subscale	Together	6.79	6.60
	Broken up	10.39	9.85
DASS – Stress subscale	Together	13.48	9.18
	Broken up	15.37	8.73
Generalized anxiety composite score	Together	20.26	14.35
	Broken up	25.76	17.24

Note. DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale; ECR = Experiences in Close Relationships.
Together: males n = 33; females n = 89; Broken up: males n = 11; females n = 30
* Indicates significant group difference (together vs. broken up; $p < .005$) with FWER set at $\alpha = .10$ for 18 predictors.

Table 39. *Hypothesis 6a: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Self-Reported Relationship Quality, and Two-Way Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up (Full T2 Sample; N = 163)*

	Block 1			Block 2			Total
	B[a]	*OR*	$\chi^{2(b)}$	*B*[a]	*OR*	$\Delta\chi^{2(c)}$	$\chi^{2(d)}$
			21.05***			10.41*	31.46***
Constant	–1.10**	.33		–1.07	.34		
PS§	.22	1.24		.09	1.10		
RC	–.38†	.69		–.21	.81		
RS	–.40	.67		–1.02	.36		
RVs	.18	1.19		1.10	2.99		
RVp	–.10	.91		–1.32*	.27		
RC x PS				–.18	.84		
RS x PS				.59	1.80		
RVs x PS				–1.19**	.31		
RVp x PS				1.78*	5.93		

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value–self; RVp = Relationship value–partner.

[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1; [b]*df* (χ^2) = 5; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 4; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 9.

§ Female participants; Base (0) = male participants.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 40. *Hypothesis 6a: Logistic Regressions Examining Participants' Self-Reported Relationship Quality Indicators as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up (by Participant Sex)*

	Males			Females		
	B[a]	*OR*	$\chi^{2(b)}$	*B*[a]	*OR*	$\chi^{2(b)}$
			17.35**			14.11**
Constant	–1.07*	.34		–.98***	.38	
RC	–.21	.81		–.39	.68	
RS	–1.02	.36		–.44	.65	
RVs	1.10	2.99		–.09	.91	
RVp	–1.32*	.27		.46	1.59	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value-self; RVp = Relationship value-partner.
[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1; [b]*df* (χ^2) = 4.
* $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 41. *Hypothesis 6b: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Attachment Anxiety, Attachment Avoidance, and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (Full T2 Sample; N = 163)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 18.64^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(b)} = 1.91$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 6.56$		$\Delta\chi^{2(b)} = 4.19$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 31.31^{***}$
	B[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	
Constant	–.87***	.42	–.91***	.40	–.48	.61	–.41	.66	
PS§	–.33	.72	–.25	.78	–.53	.59	–.69	.50	
RC	–.51***	.60	–.41**	.67	–.70***	.50	–.86***	.42	
AttAnx			.14	1.15	.23	1.26	.06	1.06	
AttAvd			.18	1.20	.56	1.75	.67	1.94	
AttAnx x PS					–.21	.81	–.05	.95	
AttAvd x PS					–.65	.52	–.89	.41	
AttAnx x RC					.07	1.07	–.31	.74	
AttAvd x RC					.32*	1.37	.40*	1.50	
AttAnx x PS x RC							.53†	1.71	
AttAvd x PS x RC							–.11	.90	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance.

[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 163; [b]*df* (χ^2) = 2; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 4; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 10.

§ Female participants; Base (0) = male participants.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 42. *Hypothesis 6b: Logistic Regressions Examining Participants' Attachment Anxiety, Attachment Avoidance, and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (by Participant Sex)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Total
Male participants[a] (n = 44)	$\chi^{2(c)} = 8.16^{**}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(d)} = 1.87$		$\Delta\chi^{2(e)} = 7.17^{*}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 1.61$		$\chi^{2(f)} = 18.80^{**}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	-1.22^{**}	.29	-1.25^{**}	.27	$-1.10^{\dagger}$	.33	–.84	.43	
RC	$-.61^{**}$	.55	–.34	.71	-1.59^{*}	.21	$-1.51^{\dagger}$	.22	
AttAnx			.24	1.28	–.11	.91	–.10	.91	
AttAvd			.58	1.78	.39	1.47	.03	1.03	
AttAnx x RC					–.50	.61	–.07	.94	
AttAvd x RC					$.70^{\dagger}$	2.01	.68	1.98	
AttAnx x AttAvd x RC							–.53	.59	
	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Total
Female participants[b] (n = 119)	$\chi^{2(c)} = 10.74^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(d)} = .86$		$\Delta\chi^{2(e)} = 4.02$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 1.98$		$\chi^{2(f)} = 17.60^{**}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	$-.88^{***}$	.41	$-.91^{***}$	.40	–.51	.61	–.56	.58	
RC	$-.47^{**}$	.63	$-.39^{\dagger}$	.68	$-.72^{**}$	.50	$-.84^{**}$	.43	
AttAnx			.12	1.13	.03	1.26	.19	1.21	
AttAvd			.11	1.12	–.13	1.75	–.26	.77	
AttAnx x RC					.20	1.07	.12	1.13	
AttAvd x RC					–.51	1.37	.28	1.32	
AttAnx x AttAvd x RC							.19	1.20	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance.
[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 44; [b]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 119; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 1; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 3; [e]*df* (χ^2) = 3; [f]*df* (χ^2) = 6.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 43. *Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Social Anxiety Composite Score, and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (Full T2 Sample; N = 163)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 18.64^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .69$		$\Delta\chi^{2(b)} = .03$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 4.21^{*}$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 23.57^{***}$
	B[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	
Constant	–.87***	.42	–.84***	.43	–.85	.43	–.69	.50	
PS§	–.33	.72	–.44	.65	–.42	.66	–.92	.40	
RC	–.51***	.60	–.54***	.58	–.54***	.58	–.70***	.50	
SocAnx			–.19	.83	–.16	.85	–.71	.50	
SocAnx x PS					.00	1.00	.02	1.02	
SocAnx x RC					–.02	.98	–.49†	.62	
SocAnx x PS x RC							.68*	1.97	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 163; [b]*df* (χ^2) = 2; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 1; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 6.
§ Female participants; Base (0) = male participants.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 44. *Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regressions Examining Social Anxiety Composite Score at Time 1 as a Predictor of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (by Participant Sex)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
Male participants[a] (n = 44)	$\chi^{2(c)} = 8.16^{**}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .06$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 5.96^{*}$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 14.17^{**}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	–1.22**	.29	–1.28**	.28	–2.20**	.11	
RC	–.61**	.55	–.62*	.54	–1.34	.24	
SocAnx			–.13	.88	–1.06	.26	
SocAnx x RC					.39	.35	
	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
Female participants[b] (n = 119)	$\chi^{2(c)} = 10.74^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .57$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .68$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 11.99^{**}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	–.88***	.41	–.86***	.43	–.78**	.46	
RC	–.47**	.63	–.50**	.61	–.57**	.57	
SocAnx			–.19	.83	–.24	.79	
SocAnx x RC					.14	1.15	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 44; [b]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 119; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 1; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 3.
* *p* < .025. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .001.

Table 45. *Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Generalized Anxiety Composite Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (Full T2 Sample; N = 163)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 18.64^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 1.03$		$\Delta\chi^{2(b)} = .22$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 1.64$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 21.53^{***}$
	B[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	
Constant	–.87***	.42	–1.13**	.33	–1.09**	.34	–1.20**	.31	
PS§	–.33	.72	.22	1.24	.18	1.20	.34	1.40	
RC	–.51***	.60	–.48***	.62	–.47***	.62	–.54***	.58	
GenAnx			.22	1.24	.44	1.54	.29	1.33	
GenAnx x PS					–.26	.77	–.13	.88	
GenAnx x RC					–.01	.99	–.40	.67	
GenAnx x PS x RC							.47	1.60	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score
[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 163; [b]*df* (χ^2) = 2; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 1; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 6.
§ Female participants; Base (0) = male participants.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 46. *Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regressions Examining Participants' Generalized Anxiety Composite Score and Two-Way Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (by Participant Sex)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
Male participants[a] (n = 44)	$\chi^{2(c)} = 8.16^{**}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .56$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 2.47$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 11.19^{*}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	–1.22**	.29	–1.13**	.32	–1.39**	.25	
RC	–.61**	.55	–.57*	.57	–.87*	.42	
GenAnx			.40	1.50	.10	1.10	
GenAnx x RC					–.70	.50	
	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
Female participants[b] (n = 119)	$\chi^{2(c)} = 10.74^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .66$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .13$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 11.99^{**}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	–.88***	.41	–.93***	.40	–.91***	.41	
RC	–.47**	.63	–.43**	.65	–.45**	.64	
GenAnx			.19	1.21	.19	1.21	
GenAnx x RC					.05	1.05	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score.
[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 44; [b]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 119; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 1; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 3.
* $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 47. *Summary of Support for Hypotheses 5 and 6*

	Hypothesis 5[a]				Hypothesis 6[b]
Predictor	Commitment (T2)	Satisfaction (T2)	Value-Self (T2)	Value-Partner (T2)	Break-up
RC (T1)	All				Both
RS (T1)	Females	Females			Females
RVs (T1)	Females		All		
RVp (T1)				All	Males
AttAnx					
AttAvd	All				All; Females
SocAnx	Males		Females		Females
SIAS	All; Females				All; Females
SPS	All; Females				
GenAnx	All		Females	Females	
DASS-Dep	Females		All		Females
DASS-Anx	All; Females	All			Females
DASS-Str	All; Females	All	All; Both	All	Females

Note. Greyed-out boxes indicate relationships that were not tested.

All = All participants collectively; Both = Both sexes independently; Females = Females independently; Males = Males independently (significant male results are not reported in some cases due to low power associated with inadequate sample size).

RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value-self; RVp = Relationship value-partner; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance; SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score; SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score; GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score; DASS-Dep = Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.

[a]N = 122 (33 male; 89 female); [b]N = 163 (44 male; 119 female).

This table is offered as a basic and simplified overview of this study's findings. The reader is strongly encouraged to review all corresponding data and discussions for a full explanation of results.

Figure 1. Participant flow chart

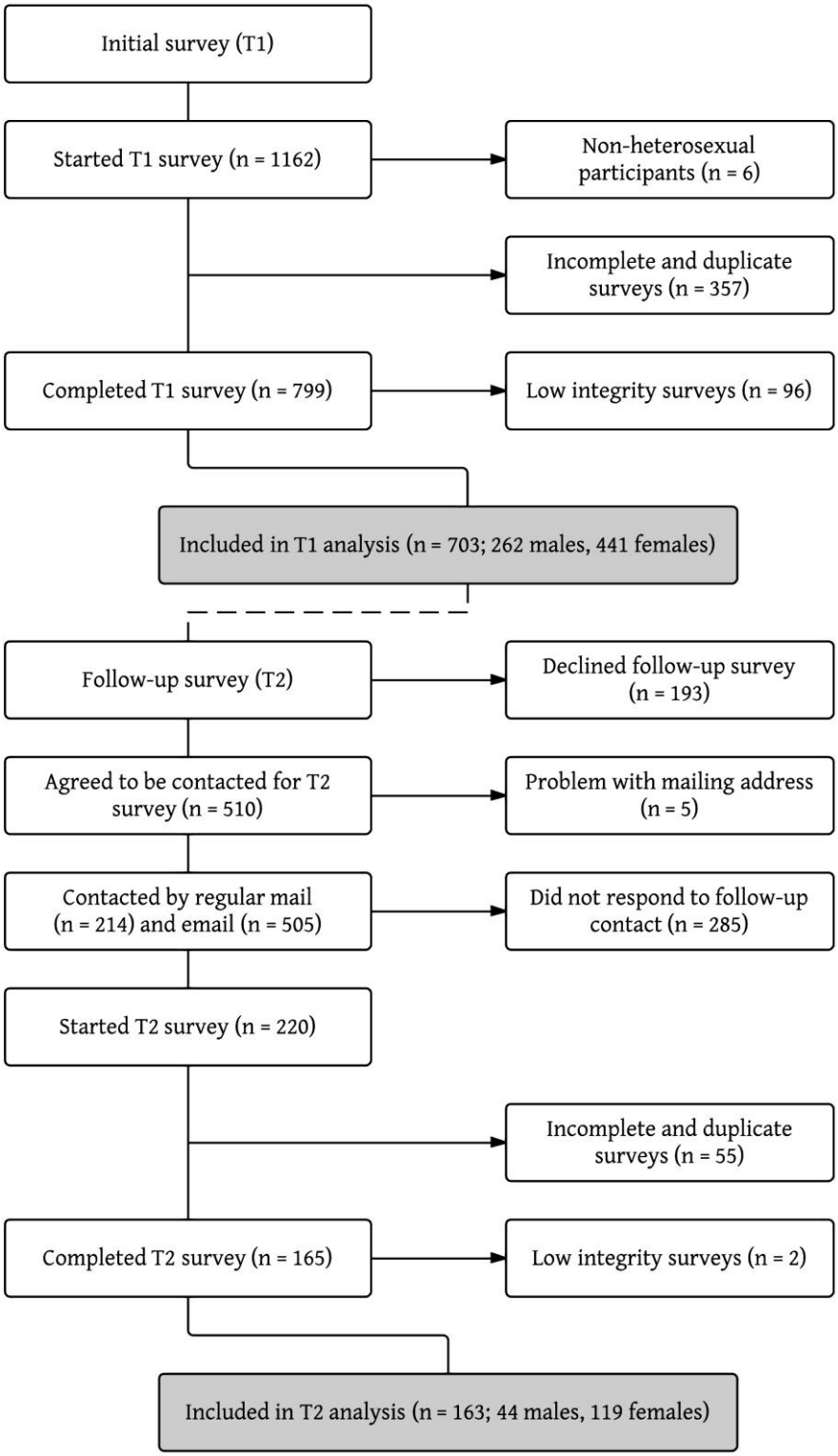


Figure 2. Hypothesis 1: MANOVA Results for Attractiveness Ratings of Opposite-Sex Targets as a Function of Self-Reported Relationship Commitment (Trichotomous) at Time 1 (Full Sample; *N* = 703)

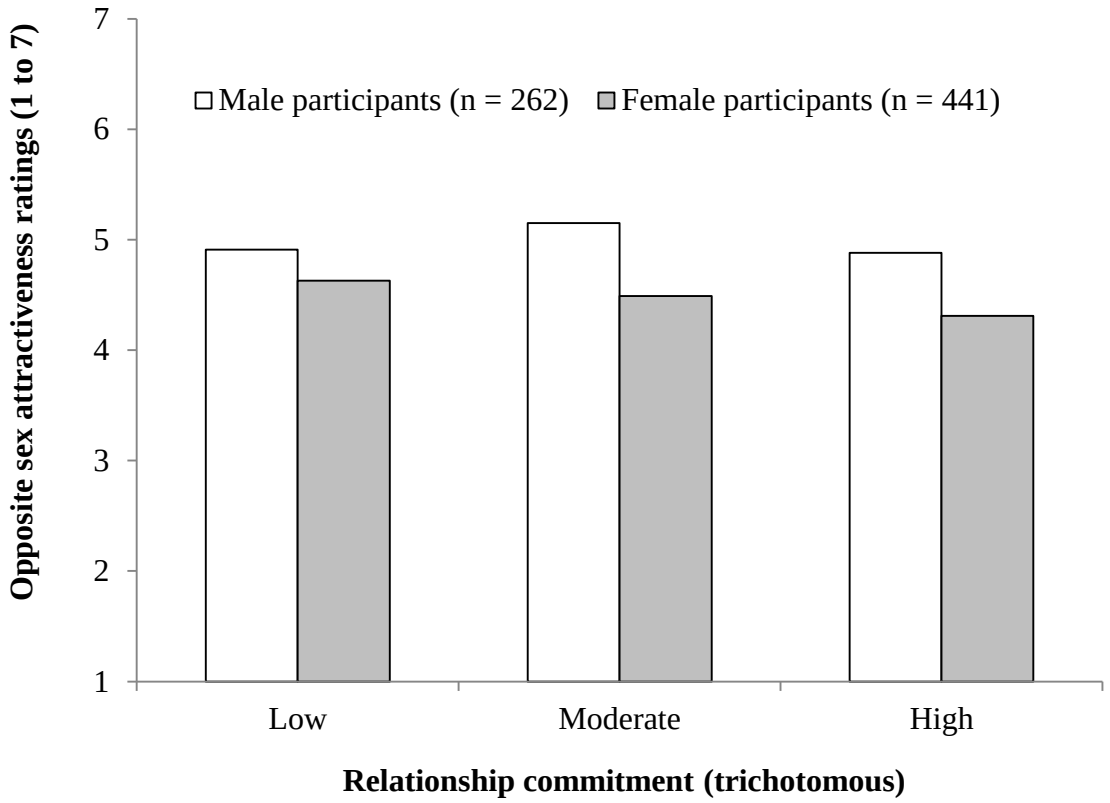


Figure 3. Hypothesis 1: Self-Reported Relationship Commitment as a Function of Relationship Status at Time 1 (Full Sample; *N = 703*)

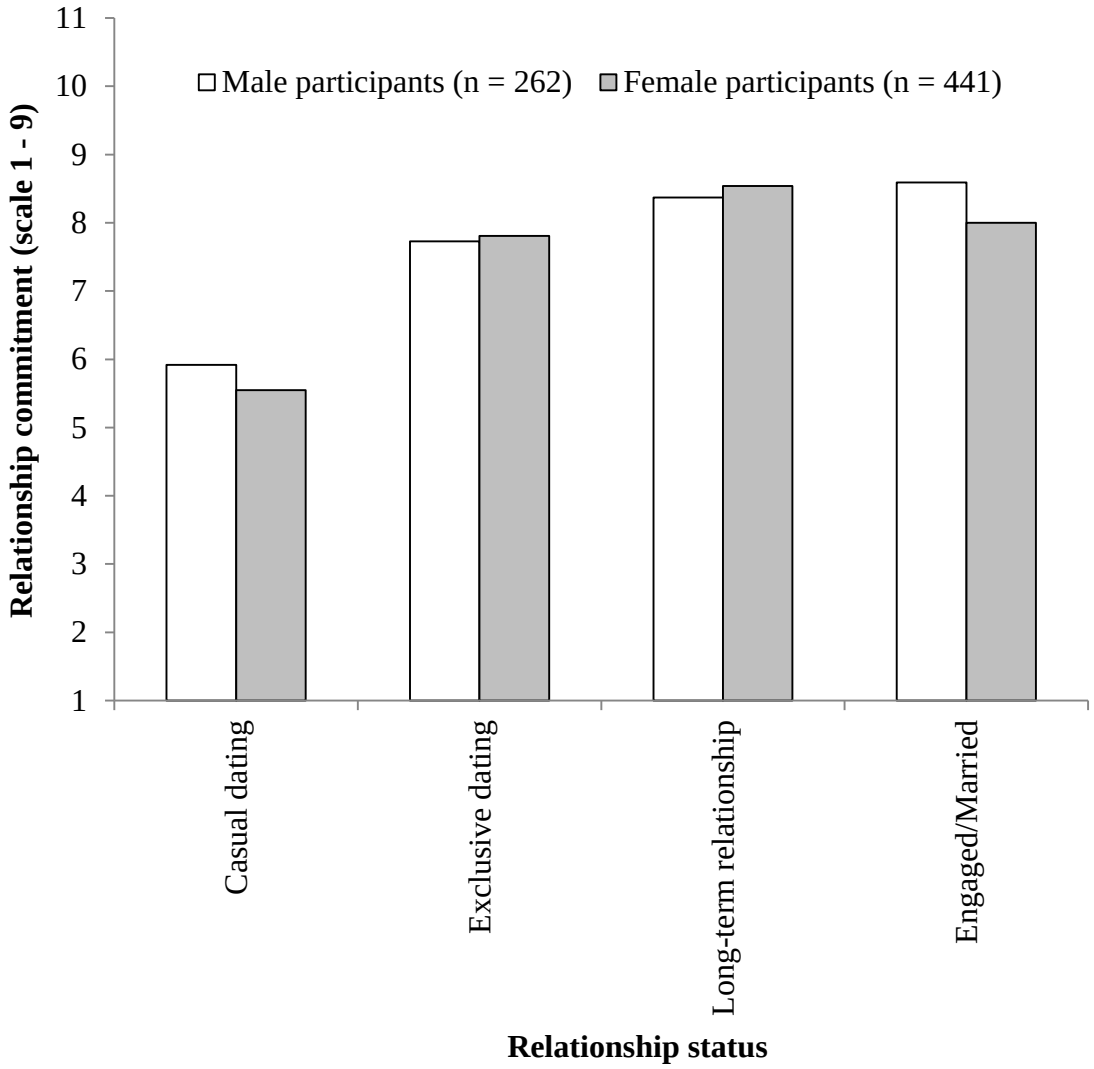
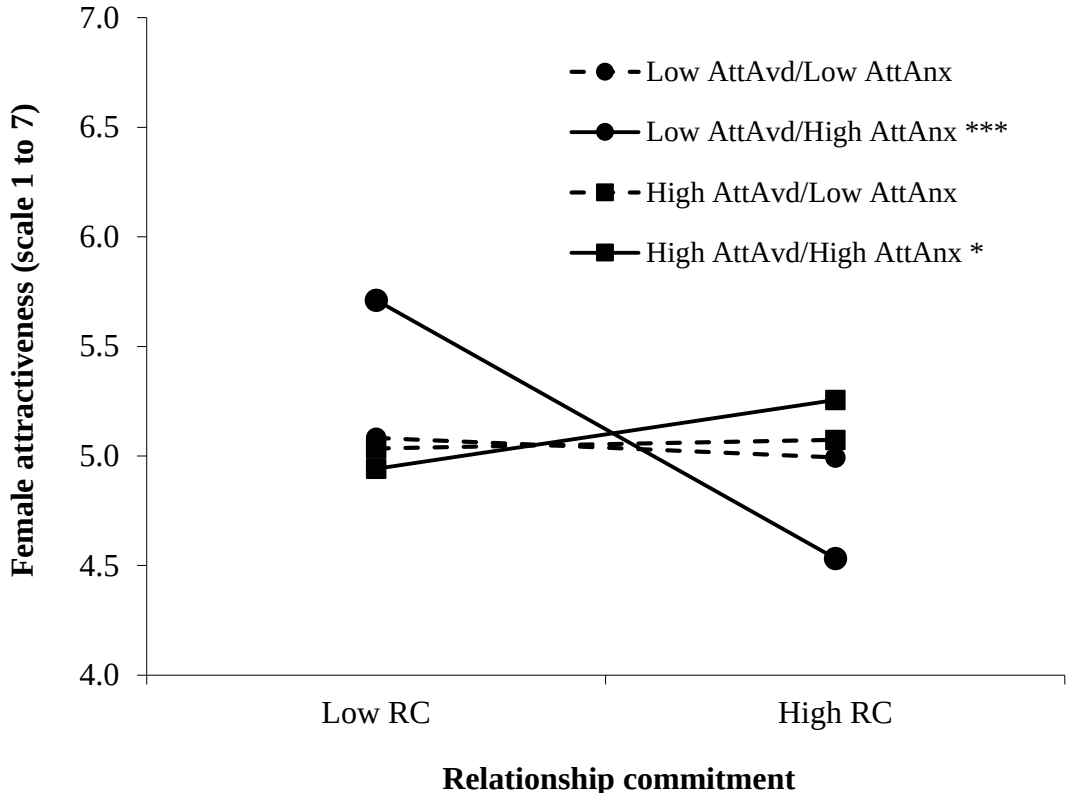
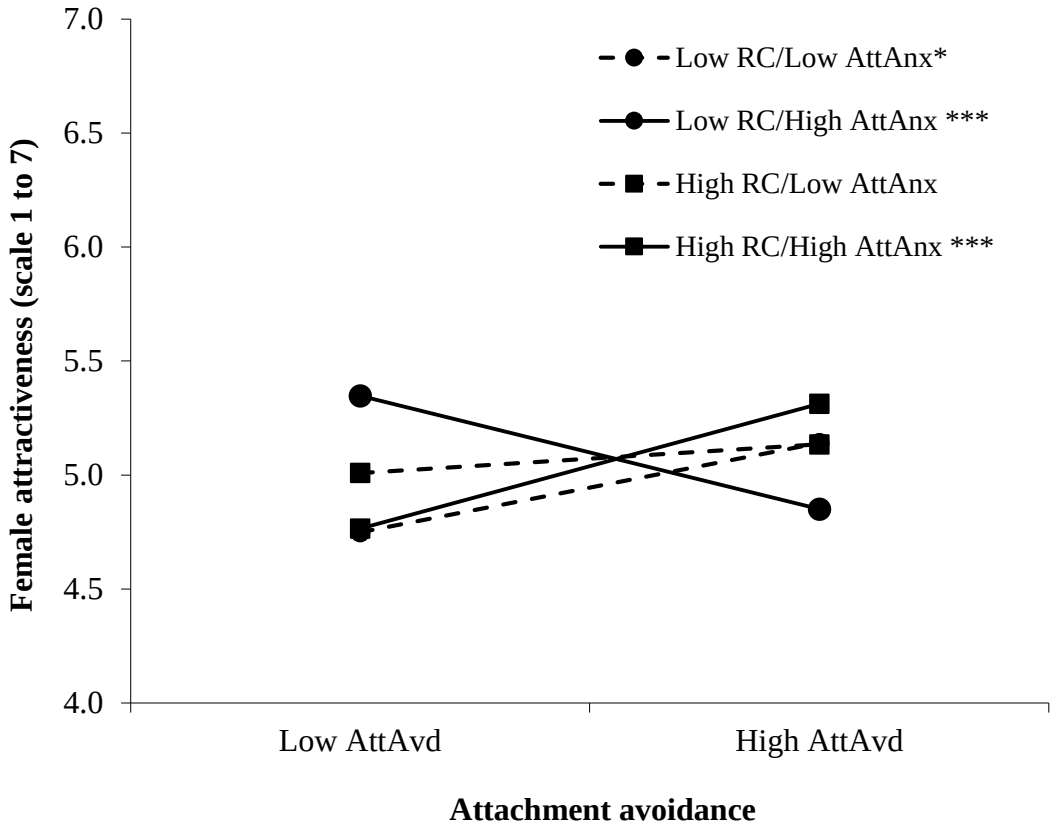


Figure 4. Hypothesis 2: Effects for Relationship Commitment on Males' Ratings of Female Attractiveness as a Function of Attachment Avoidance and Attachment Anxiety (n = 262)



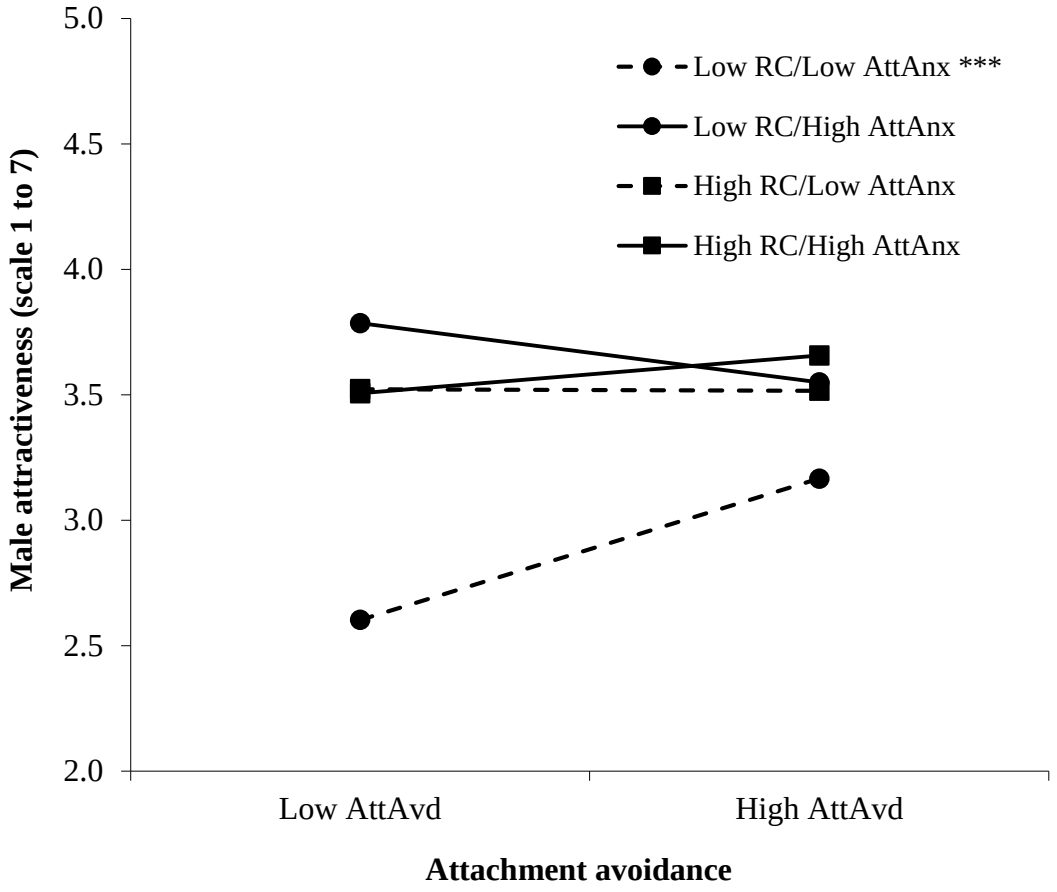
Note. RC = Relationship commitment; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance.
Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: M = 7.52, SD = 1.66; AttAnx: M = 3.16, SD = 1.13; AttAvd: M = 2.65, SD = 1.03.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowAttAvd/LowAttAnx}} = RC(-.027) + 5.04$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowAttAvd/HighAttAnx}} = RC(.012) + 5.05$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighAttAvd/LowAttAnx}} = RC(-.357) + 5.11$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighAttAvd/HighAttAnx}} = RC(.095) + 5.10$
* $p < .025$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure 5. Hypothesis 2: Effects for Attachment Avoidance on Males' Ratings of Female Attractiveness as a Function of Relationship Commitment and Attachment Anxiety (n = 262)



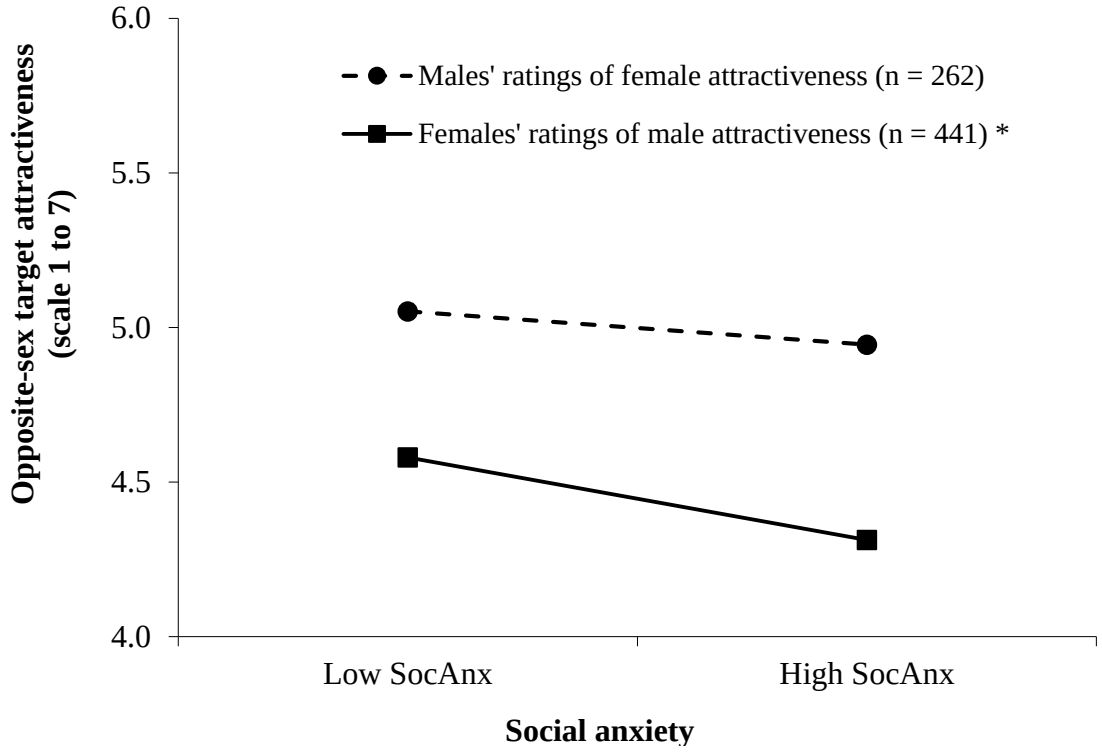
Note. RC = Relationship commitment; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance.
Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: M = 7.52, SD = 1.66; AttAnx: M = 3.16, SD = 1.13; AttAvd: M = 2.65, SD = 1.03. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized attachment scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowRC/LowAttAnx}} = AttAvd(.190) + 4.93$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowRC/HighAttAnx}} = AttAvd(-.242) + 5.11$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighRC/LowAttAnx}} = AttAvd(.061) + 5.07$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighRC/HighAttAnx}} = AttAvd(.266) + 5.02$
* $p < .025$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure 6. Hypothesis 2: Effects of Attachment Anxiety and Relationship Commitment on Males' Ratings of Male Attractiveness (*n* = 262)



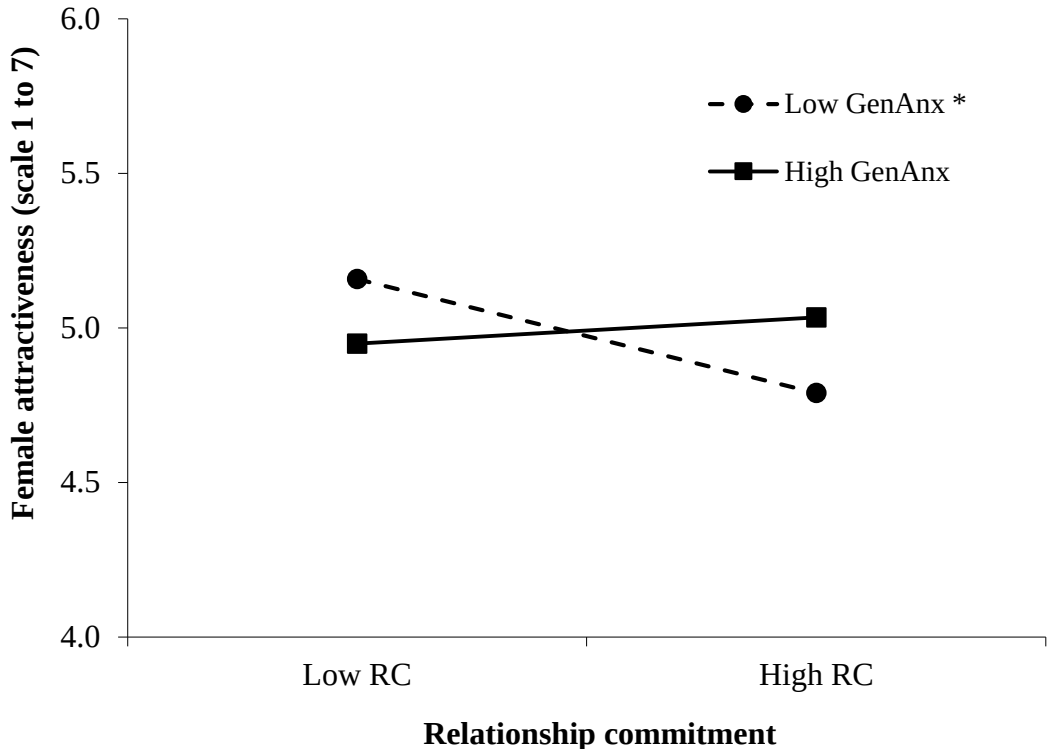
Note. RC = Relationship commitment; AttAnx = Attachment anxiety; AttAvd = Attachment avoidance.
Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively: RC: *M* = 7.52, *SD* = 1.66; AttAnx: *M* = 3.16, *SD* = 1.13; AttAvd: *M* = 2.65, *SD* = 1.03. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized attachment scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowRC/LowAttAnx}} = AttAvd(.274) + 2.89$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowRC/HighAttAnx}} = AttAvd(-.115) + 3.68$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighRC/LowAttAnx}} = AttAvd(-.003) + 3.52$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighRC/HighAttAnx}} = AttAvd(.073) + 3.58$
*** $p < .001$.

Figure 7. Hypothesis 3: Effects of Social Anxiety Composite Score on Ratings of Opposite-Sex Target Attractiveness (Full Sample; N = 703)



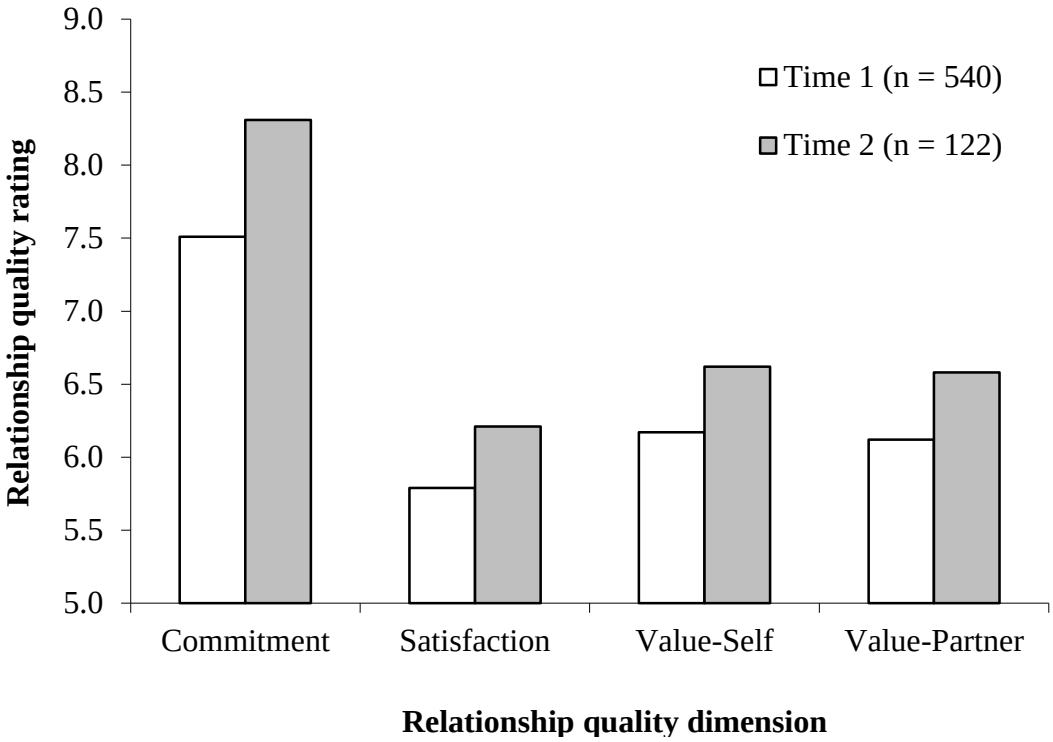
Note. SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
Low and high values for SocAnx were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively: Males: M = 35.81, SD = 24.08; Females: M = 42.40, SD = 27.50. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized composite scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{Males}} = SocAnx(-.063) + 4.99$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{Females}} = SocAnx(-.137) + 4.46$
* $p < .01$.

Figure 8. Hypothesis 4: Effects of Generalized Anxiety and Relationship Commitment on Ratings of Female Attractiveness (Full Sample; N = 703)



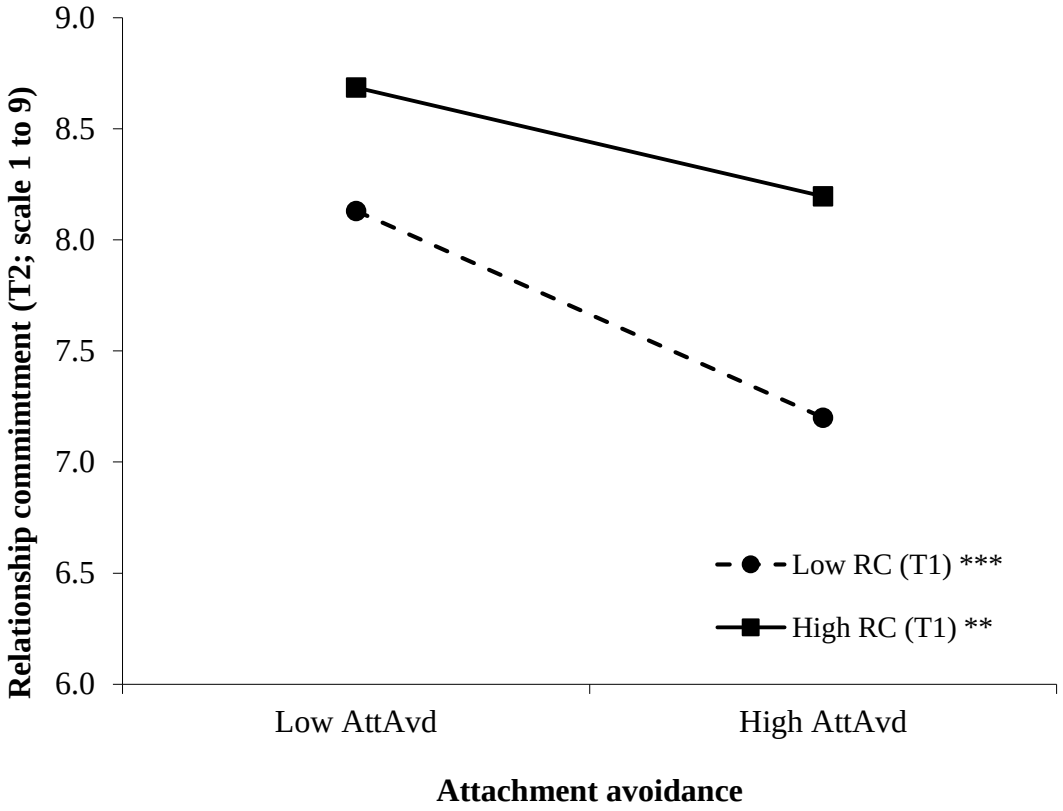
Note. RC = Relationship commitment; GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score. Low and high values for both predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively: RC: M = 7.62, SD = 1.71; GenAnx: M = 22.05, SD = 15.14. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized composite scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowGenAnx}} = RC(-.108) + 4.98$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighGenAnx}} = RC(.025) + 4.99$
* $p < .01$.

Figure 9. Relationship Quality Ratings for Time 1 Participants and Time 2 Participants Who Were Still in a Relationship at 6-Month Follow-Up



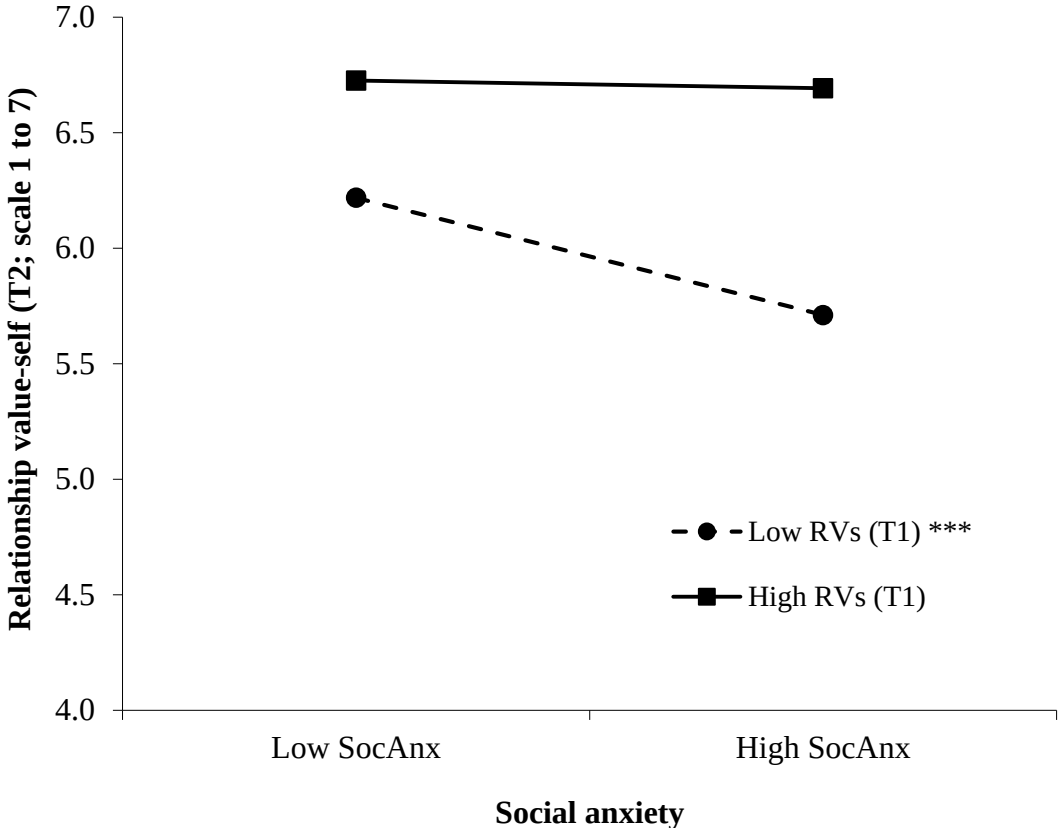
Note. Relationship commitment scale: 1 to 9; Relationship satisfaction, value-self, and value-partner scales: 1 to 7.

Figure 10. Hypothesis 5a: Effects of Attachment Avoidance and Relationship Commitment at Time 1 on Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (Both Sexes; *n* = 122)



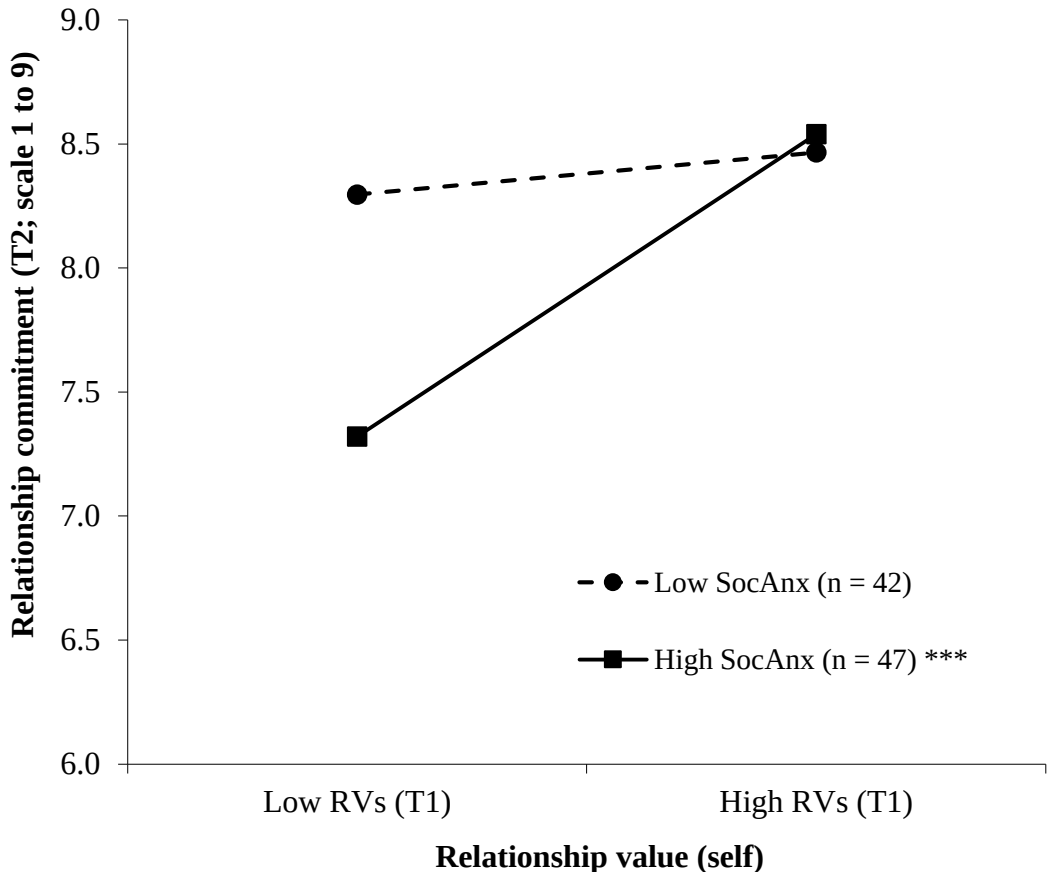
Note. RC = Relationship commitment, AttAvd = Attachment avoidance.
Low and high values for both predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: *M* = 8.31, *SD* = 1.19; AttAvd: *M* = 2.20; *SD* = 1.02.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowRC}} = AttAvd(-.458) + 7.50$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighRC}} = AttAvd(-.241) + 8.35$
** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure 11. Hypothesis 5b: Effects of Social Anxiety and Relationship Value-Self at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Value-Self at 6-Month Follow-Up (*n* = 89)



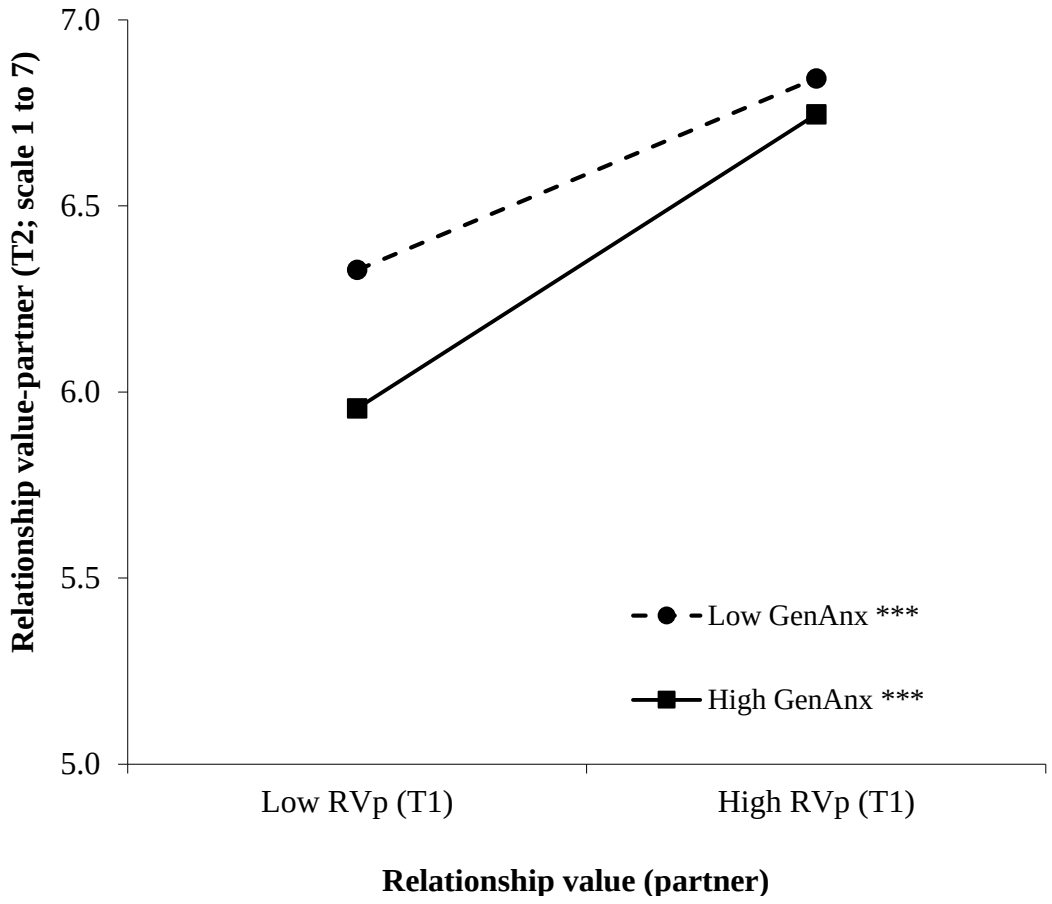
Note. RVs = Relationship value-self, SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
Low and high values for both predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVs: *M* = 6.71; *SD* = .80; SocAnx: *M* = 41.48, *SD* = 25.03. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized composite scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowRVs}} = SocAnx(-.381) + 5.95$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighRVs}} = SocAnx(-.025) + 6.71$
*** $p < .001$.

Figure 12. Hypothesis 5b: Effects of Social Anxiety and Relationship Value-Self at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (n = 89)



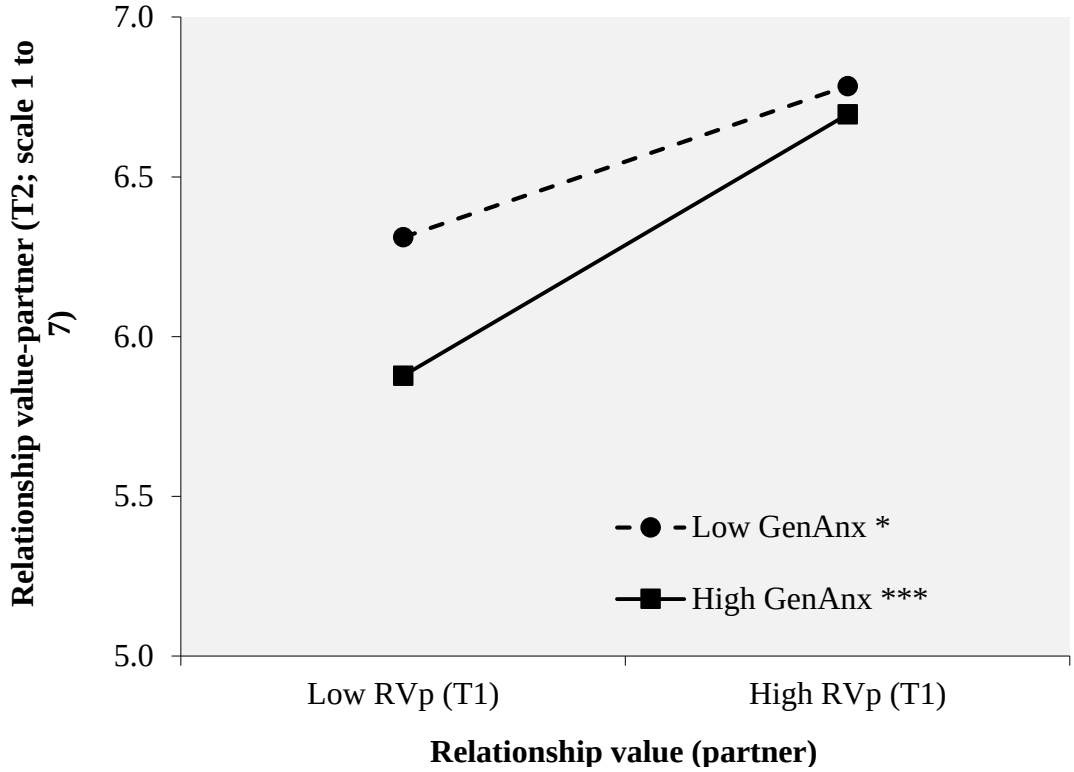
Note. RVs = Relationship value-self, SocAnx = Social anxiety composite score.
Low and high values for both predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVs: M = 6.71; SD = .80; SocAnx: M = 41.48, SD = 25.03. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized composite scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowSocAnx}} = RVs(.106) + 8.33$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighSocAnx}} = RVs(.762) + 7.54$
*** $p < .001$.

Figure 13. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of Generalized Anxiety and Relationship Value-Partner at Time 1 on Relationship Value-Partner at 6-Month Follow-Up (Both Sexes; n = 122)



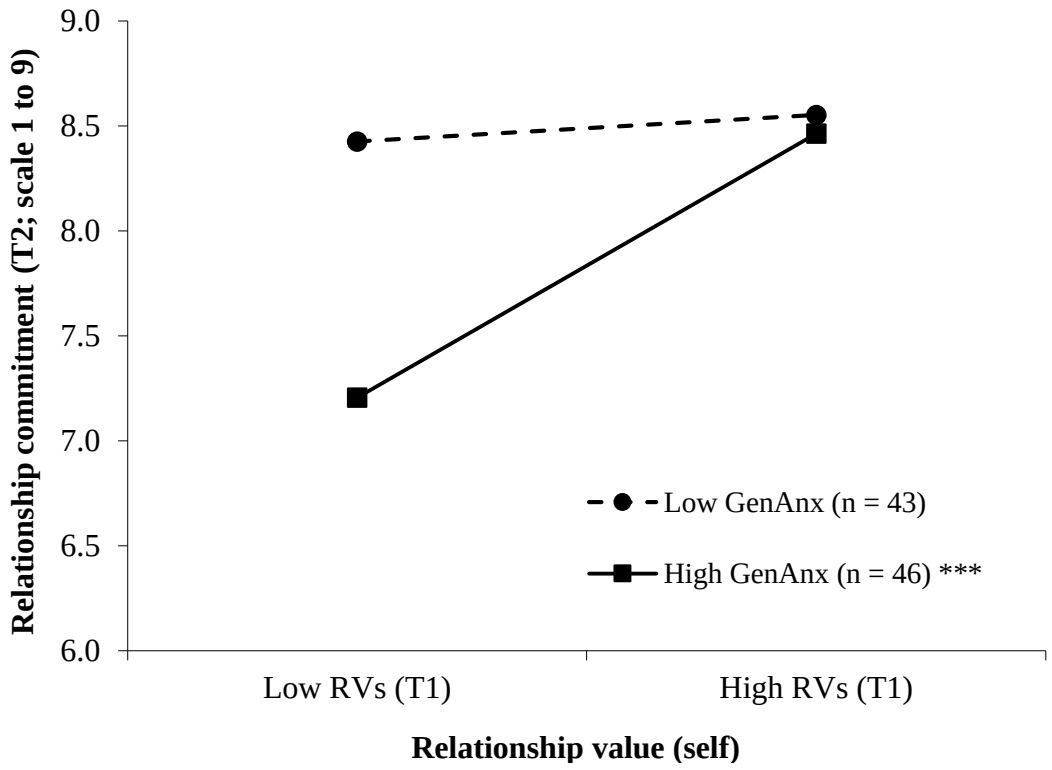
Note. RVp = Relationship value-partner, GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVp: M = 6.58; SD = .80; GenAnx; M = 20.26, SD = 14.35. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized composite scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowGenAnx}} = RVp_{T1}(.320) + 6.44$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighGenAnx}} = RVp_{T1}(.492) + 6.13$
*** $p < .001$.

Figure 14. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of Generalized Anxiety and Relationship Value-Partner at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Value-Partner at 6-Month Follow-Up (n = 89)



Note. RVp = Relationship value-partner, GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVp: M = 6.56; SD = .84; GenAnx; M = 22.04, SD = 15.42. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized composite scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowGenAnx}} = RVp(-.213) + 6.22$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighGenAnx}} = RVp(.067) + 6.58$
* $p < .025$, *** $p < .001$.

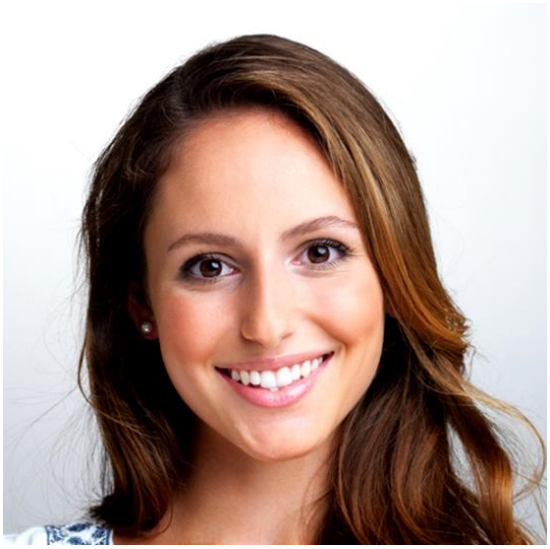
Figure 15. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of Generalized Anxiety and Relationship Value-Self at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (n = 89)



Note. RVs = Relationship value-self, GenAnx = Generalized anxiety composite score. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVs: M = 6.71; SD = .80; GenAnx; M = 22.04, SD = 15.42. Standardized coefficients were used for graphing based on standardized composite scores.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowGenAnx}} = RVs(.079) + 8.45$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighGenAnx}} = RVs(.786) + 7.43$
*** $p < .001$.

Appendix A
Samples of Human Targets

Female targets



Male targets

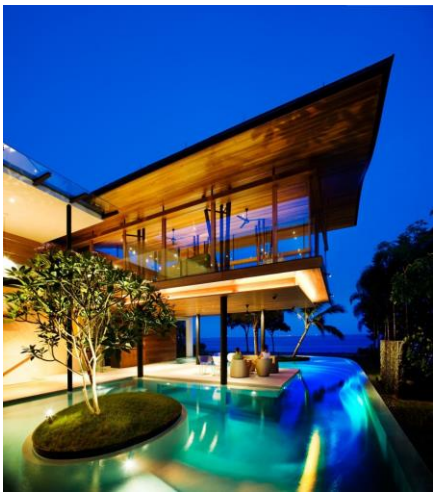
(Images were obtained from Dr. John Lydon, personal communication)

Appendix B

Control Targets

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

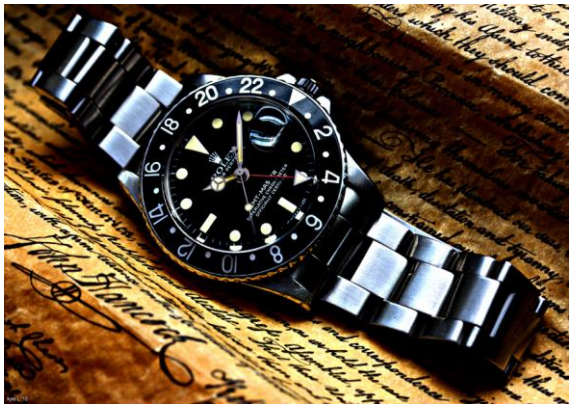
5. 

Image sources:1. http://www.nordiclandscapes.com/Waterfalls-Rivers-Lakes
2. http://pixshark.com/hot-nature-wallpaper-hd.htm
3. http://www.caandesign.com/fish-house-by-guz-architects
4. http://imglisting.com/lamborghini-gallardo-black.html
5. http://wallpapercave.com/rolex-wallpaper

Appendix C

Study Deception and Data Integrity Check

1. I think my answers on this survey reflect how I truly feel
   - ❍ Completely Disagree
   - ❍ Disagree
   - ❍ Neither Disagree or Agree
   - ❍ Agree
   - ❍ Completely Agree

2. I tried to answer all of the questions honestly
   - ❍ Not at all
   - ❍ Rarely
   - ❍ Sometimes
   - ❍ Most of the time
   - ❍ All of the time

3. I took breaks (e.g., checked email, talked on the phone; got up from the computer) from completing this survey.
   - ❍ Not at all
   - ❍ Once
   - ❍ Twice
   - ❍ Three or four times

4. If you took a break, how long was it? _____ (in minutes)

5. Someone sat with me and helped me complete this survey
   - ❍ Yes
   - ❍ No

6. This is the first time I completed this survey
   - ❍ Yes
   - ❍ No

Appendix D

Biographical Questionnaire

1. What is your age? _____

2. Please indicate how you would best describe your ethnicity by checking one of the general categories presented below.
   - ❍ White (Caucasian/European)
   - ❍ Black (African/West Indies)
   - ❍ Asian (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Filipino, Vietnamese)
   - ❍ South Asian (e.g., East Indian, Pakistani, Punjabi)
   - ❍ First Nations/Aboriginal
   - ❍ Other (specify):

3. Were you born in Canada?
   - ❍ Yes
   - ❍ No

   [If "No"] Approximately how many years have you lived in Canada? _____

4. Using the scale below, please select the choice that best reflects your level of commitment to your current partner. For this question consider "commitment" as the degree to which you are exclusively committed – sexually, emotionally, and psychologically – to your current partner:

Not at all committed				Moderately committed				Extremely committed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

5. Based on the scale below, please select a number that *best* reflects your level of overall satisfaction with your current relationship.

Extremely unsatisfied			Neither satisfied nor satisfied			Extremely satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Based on the scale below, how much do you value your current relationship?

Do not value it at all			Neutral			Value it very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Based on the scale below, how much do you think your partner values your current relationship? (provide your best guess)

Does not value	Is neutral	Values it

it at all						very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. How would you describe the adults who raised you from when you were born to when you reached the age of 12? (check all that apply)
    - ❍ They were both my biological parents
    - ❍ Biological mother only
    - ❍ Biological father only
    - ❍ Biological mother and stepfather
    - ❍ Biological father and stepmother
    - ❍ Grandparents
    - ❍ I was adopted
    - ❍ I was raised in foster care
    - ❍ Other (describe): _____

9. What was your parents' marital status *from when you were born to when you reached the age of 13?* (So, for example, if your parents divorced when you were *14* you would answer "my parents were married throughout that entire period")
    - ❍ My parents were married throughout that entire period
    - ❍ My parents became separated/divorced during that time
    - ❍ My parents separated and then reunited during that time
    - ❍ My parents separated and one or both married new partner during that time
    - ❍ Other (describe): _____

10. Indicate your mother's highest level of education:
    - ❍ Did not attend school
    - ❍ Completed some elementary school
    - ❍ Completed some high school
    - ❍ Obtained a high school diploma
    - ❍ Obtained a bachelor's degree
    - ❍ Obtained a master's degree
    - ❍ Obtained a doctoral degree

11. Indicate your father's highest level of education:
    - ❍ Did not attend school
    - ❍ Completed some elementary school
    - ❍ Completed some high school
    - ❍ Obtained a high school diploma
    - ❍ Obtained a bachelor's degree
    - ❍ Obtained a master's degree
    - ❍ Obtained a doctoral degree

12. What was your family's average annual income from when you were born to the age of 12? (provide your best guess)
    - ❍ $0 - $15,000
    - ❍ $16,000 - $30,000

- ❍ $31,000 - $45,000
- ❍ $46,000 - $60,000
- ❍ $61,000 - $75,000
- ❍ $76,000 - $90,000
- ❍ $91,000 - $105,000
- ❍ $106,000 - $120,000
- ❍ $121,000 - $135,000
- ❍ $136,000 - $150,000
- ❍ $150,000 - $200,000
- ❍ >$200,000

13. When you were growing up, how do you think your family stood financially relative to others?
    - ❍ My family was much poorer financially than most other families.
    - ❍ My family was about the same as other families financially.
    - ❍ My family was much wealthier financially than most other families.

14. Do you have any siblings?
    - ❍ Yes
    - ❍ No

    [If "Yes"] How many siblings do you have? _____

15. Using the scale below, how physically attractive would you say you are?

Not at all attractive						Extremely attractive
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. Using the scale below, how ambitious would you say you are? (When answering this question, consider things like your anticipated final education level, anticipated income, and ultimate career goals.)

Not at all ambitious						Extremely ambitious
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix E

Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR; Brennan et al., 1998)

[Strongly disagree] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 [Strongly agree]

Using the scale above, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

1. I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down.
2. I worry about being abandoned.
3. I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners.
4. I worry a lot about my relationships.
5. Just when my partner starts to get close to me I find myself pulling away.
6. I worry that romantic partners wont care about me as much as I care about them.
7. I get uncomfortable when a romantic partner wants to be very close.
8. I worry a fair amount about losing my partner.
9. I don't feel comfortable opening up to romantic partners.
10. I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her.
11. I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back.
12. I often want to merge completely with romantic partners, and this sometimes scares them away.
13. I am nervous when partners get too close to me.
14. I worry about being alone.
15. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.
16. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.
17. I try to avoid getting too close to my partner.
18. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner.
19. I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.
20. Sometimes I feel that I force my partners to show more feeling, more commitment.
21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on romantic partners.
22. I do not often worry about being abandoned.
23. I prefer not to be too close to romantic partners.
24. If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry.
25. I tell my partner just about everything.
26. I find that my partner(s) don't want to get as close as I would like.
27. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.
28. When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel somewhat anxious and insecure.
29. I feel comfortable depending on romantic partners.
30. I get frustrated when my partner is not around as much as I would like.
31. I don't mind asking romantic partners for comfort, advice, or help.
32. I get frustrated if romantic partners are not available when I need them.
33. It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need.
34. When romantic partners disapprove of me, I feel really bad about myself.
35. I turn to my partner for many things, including comfort and reassurance.
36. I resent it when my partner spends time away from me.

Appendix F

Social Phobia Scale (SPS)

Using the answer key provided below, please indicate the degree to which you feel the statement is characteristic or true of you.

0 = not at all 1 = slightly 2 = moderately 3 = very 4 = extremely

1. I become anxious if I have to write in front of other people.
2. I become self-conscious when using public toilets.
3. I can suddenly become aware of my own voice and of others listening to me.
4. I get nervous that people are staring at me as I walk down the street.
5. I fear I may blush when I am with others.
6. I feel self-conscious if I have to enter a room where others are already seated.
7. I worry about shaking or trembling when I'm watched by other people.
8. I would get tense if I had to sit facing other people on a bus or a train.
9. I get panicky that others might see me to be faint, sick or ill.
10. I would find it difficult to drink something if in a group of people.
11. It would make me feel self-conscious to eat in front of a stranger at a restaurant.
12. I am worried people will think my behaviour odd.
13. I would get tense if I had to carry a tray across a crowded cafeteria.
14. I worry I'll lose control of myself in front of other people.
15. I worry I might do something to attract the attention of others.
16. When in an elevator I am tense if people look at me.
17. I can feel conspicuous standing in a queue.
18. I get tense when I speak in front of other people.
19. I worry my head will shake or nod in front of others.
20. I feel awkward and tense if I know people are watching me.

(Mattick & Clarke, 1998)

Appendix G

Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS)

Using the answer key provided below, please indicate the degree to which you feel the statement is characteristic or true of you.

0 = not at all 1 = slightly 2 = moderately 3 = very 4 = extremely

1. I get nervous if I have to speak with someone in authority (teacher, boss, etc.).
2. I have difficulty making eye-contact with others.
3. I become tense if I have to talk about myself or my feelings.
4. I have difficulty mixing comfortably with the people I work with.
5. I tense-up if I meet an acquaintance in the street.
6. When mixing socially I am uncomfortable.
7. I feel tense if I am alone with just one other person.
8. I have difficulty talking with other people.
9. I worry about expressing myself in case I appear awkward.
10. I find it difficult to disagree with another's point of view.
11. I have difficulty talking to attractive persons of the opposite sex.
12. I find myself worrying that I won't know what to say in social situations.
13. I am nervous mixing with people I don't know well.
14. I feel I'll say something embarrassing when talking.
15. When mixing in a group I find myself worrying I will be ignored.
16. I am tense mixing in a group.
17. I am unsure whether to greet someone I know only slightly.

(Mattick & Clarke, 1998; Adjusted as recommended by Rodebaugh & Heimberg, 2007)

Appendix H

Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale – Short Version (DASS21)

Please read each statement and select a number 0, 1, 2 or 3, which indicates how much the statement applied to you *over the past week*. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any statement.

The rating scale is as follows:

0 - Did not apply to me at all
1 - Applied to me to some degree, or some of the time
2 - Applied to me to a considerable degree, or a good part of time
3 - Applied to me very much, or most of the time

1. I found it hard to wind down.
2. I was aware of dryness of my mouth.
3. I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all.
4. I experienced breathing difficulty (e.g., excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion).
5. I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things.
6. I tended to over-react to situations.
7. I experienced trembling (e.g., in the hands).
8. I felt that I was using a lot of nervous energy.
9. I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself.
10. I felt that I had nothing to look forward to.
11. I found myself getting agitated.
12. I found it difficult to relax.
13. I felt down-hearted and blue.
14. I was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with what I was doing.
15. I felt I was close to panic.
16. I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything.
17. I felt I wasn't worth much as a person.
18. I felt that I was rather touchy.
19. I was aware of the action of my heart in the absence of physical exertion (e.g., sense of heart rate increase, heart missing a beat).
20. I felt scared without any good reason.
21. I felt that life was meaningless.

(Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995)

Appendix I

Sociosexual Orientation Inventory (SOI; Simpson & Gangestad, 1991)

Information about your relationship habits

Instructions: Please answer all of the following questions honestly. For the questions dealing with behaviour, write your answers in the blank spaces provided. For the questions dealing with thoughts and attitudes, *circle* the appropriate number on the scales provided.

1. With how many different partners have you had sex (sexual intercourse) within the past year?

2. How many different partners do you foresee yourself having sex with during the next five years? (Please give a *specific*, *realistic* estimate). _____

3. With how many different partners have you had sex on *one and only one* occasion?

4. How often do you fantasize about having sex with someone other than your current dating partner? (Circle one).

    1. never
    2. once every two or three months
    3. once a month
    4. once every two weeks
    5. once a week
    6. a few times each week
    7. nearly every day
    8. at least once a day

5. Sex without love is OK.

I Strongly Disagree								I Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

6. I can imagine myself being comfortable and enjoying "casual" sex with different partners.

I Strongly Disagree								I Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

7. I would have to be closely attached to someone (both emotionally and psychologically) before I could feel comfortable and fully enjoy having sex with him or her.

I Strongly Disagree								I Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Appendix J
Attention to Alternatives Questionnaire (ATA)

[text in brackets not seen by participants]

Directions: You will be presented with a series of statements, one at a time, about dating and relationships. Read each statement and then press the appropriate key to indicate your level of agreement with the statement. Remember, your responses are kept completely anonymous and confidential. There are 29 statements in all, each statement should take you less than 10 seconds.

0 = not at all 1 = slightly 2 = moderately 3 = very 4 = extremely

[Factor 1: Active prowling]

1. I'm always looking for new romantic partners even when I'm already in a relationship.
2. When I go out without my partner, I usually pretend that I'm single.
3. I visit singles websites without my partner's knowledge.
4. I sometimes pretend to be single when I'm already dating someone.
5. I'm always on the prowl for an exciting new relationship.
6. I often have lunch or coffee with someone else without telling my current partner.
7. I sometimes browse the ads on Internet dating sites even when I'm already in a relationship.
8. If my relationship were to end, I know who my next partner would be.
9. I never pass up a chance to meet attractive new partners.
10. Even when I have a partner, I like to keep my options open.
11. I like to be aware of whom I could date other than my current partner.
12. I always like to have a backup partner available.

[Factor 2: Passive awareness]

1. There is no harm in looking at hot people of the opposite sex when they walk by.
2. I always notice attractive people of the other sex at social gatherings.
3. I see no harm in appreciating good looks in members of the opposite sex.
4. I can't help but notice when attractive members of the opposite sex are around.
5. When attractive people of the opposite sex walk by, they grab my attention.
6. I believe it's okay to look as long as I don't touch.
7. I do not think it is wrong to notice attractive members of the opposite sex.
8. It is human to notice attractive members of the opposite sex.
9. Good-looking people of the opposite sex always catch my attention.

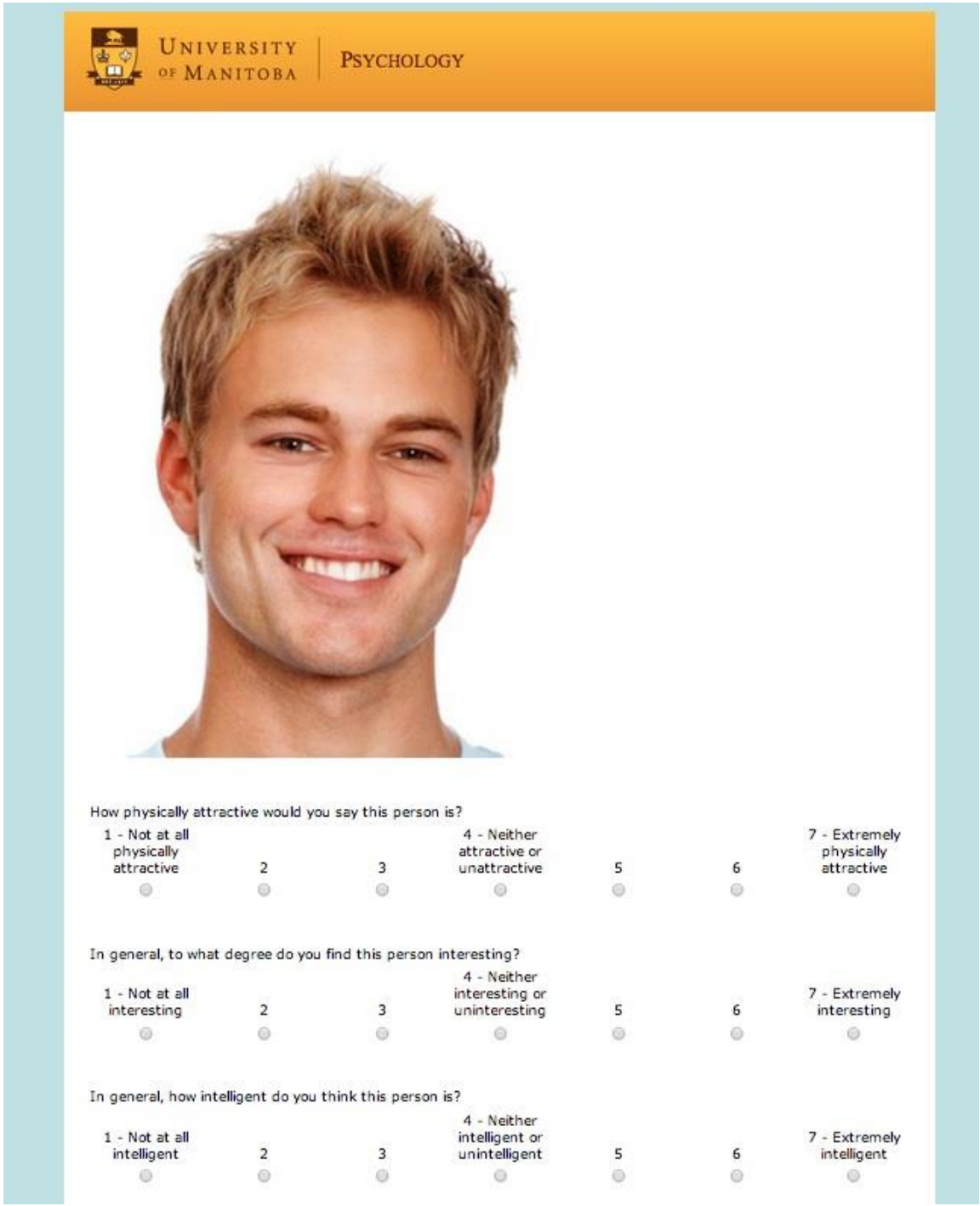
[Factor 3: Willful Disinterest]

1. I cannot imagine myself with anyone other than my current partner.
2. Even when my partner and I disagree, I still cannot imagine being with anyone else.
3. There's no point in looking around because I will never find someone better than my current partner.

4. I try not to think of anyone but my partner in a romantic way.
5. When I'm in a relationship, other possible partners do not interest me.
6. My partner has my undivided attention.
7. I think about my partner too much to notice other members of the opposite sex.
8. When I'm dating someone, I don't check out other people.

(Miller et al., 2010)

Appendix K
Sample of Target Rating Screen



Appendix L

Follow-up Questionnaire

As you may recall, you participated in a study on individual preferences and agreed to answer our follow-up questionnaire six (6) months after the first questionnaire. Thank you for taking the time to help us with this research.

In order to match up your responses today with those from your original questionnaire, please enter the code number you were provided with in the email.

Code Number: [*participant entered code number*]

Please think about the romantic relationship you were in six (6) months ago and which you completed our questionnaire about.

1. How would you describe your relationship now? (choose one)
   a. We are still together and our relationship is even better than it was six months ago.
   b. We are still together and the quality of the relationship is about the same as it was six months ago.
   c. Our relationship is slowing down.
   d. We are taking a break from the relationship.
   e. We have broken up.

[Note: If participants chose options a – c, Qualtrics directed them to complete questions 2 - 5. If participants chose either option d or e, Qualtrics directed them to complete questions 6 - 9.]

2. Using the scale below, please select a number that *best* reflects your level of commitment to your current partner. Considering there are different kinds of commitment, for this question consider "commitment" as the degree to which you are exclusively committed – sexually, emotionally, and psychologically – to your current partner (IMPORTANT NOTE: This is a 9-point scale).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Not at all committed Extremely committed

3. Based on the scale below, please select a number that *best* reflects your level of satisfaction with your current relationship.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Extremely unsatisfied Extremely satisfied

4. Based on the scale below, how much do you value your current relationship?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Do not value it at all Value it very much

5. Based on the scale below, how much do you think your partner values your current relationship? (provide your best guess)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Does not value it at all Values it very much

[*If participants had broken up since the initial survey, they answered the following questions*]

6. Were you surprised by the ending of your relationship?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not at all Very much

7. How much did you contemplate ending the relationship prior to it dissolving?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not at all Very much

8. Did you want the relationship to end?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not at all Very much

9. Would you like the relationship to start up again?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not at all Very much

10. Who ended the relationship?
    - ❍ I did
    - ❍ My partner did
    - ❍ The decision was mutual

11. Do you know why the relationship ended?
    - ❍ Yes, I know exactly why it ended
    - ❍ I have a rough idea about why it ended, but I'm not totally sure
    - ❍ No, I have absolutely no idea why it ended

12. What factors do you think caused your relationship to end? Why do you think your relationship ended? (Check all that apply)
    - ❍ I met someone new
    - ❍ My partner met someone new
    - ❍ My partner was too needy or "clingy"
    - ❍ My partner didn't support me when I needed him/her
    - ❍ My partner wasn't faithful to me (e.g., sexually or emotionally)
    - ❍ I wasn't faithful to my partner (e.g., sexually or emotionally)
    - ❍ I got bored with the relationship
    - ❍ We both lost interest and/or just drifted apart
    - ❍ We differed too significantly on our values
    - ❍ Other reason (please indicate):

Appendix M

Mate Preference Questionnaire

Please read the following list of qualities and rate their desirability in someone you might marry. You will rate these qualities in two different ways, so read each set of instructions carefully to ensure you are providing your answers correctly.

Rate how important the following 14 qualities are in a person you would marry. Rate each quality using the following scale:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not at all important Very important

	Rating
• kind and understanding	_____
• exciting personality	_____
• intelligent	_____
• physically attractive	_____
• healthy	_____
• athletic	_____
• easygoing	_____
• creative	_____
• wants children	_____
• college graduate	_____
• good earning capacity	_____
• good heredity	_____
• sense of humour	_____
• religious	_____

Rank the same 14 qualities in order of their relative importance to one another (1 being "most important" and 14 being "least important"). Note: You can only use each number once. If you think two qualities are equally important, do your best to choose which one is *more* important, even if the difference is only slight.

	Rank
• kind and understanding	_____
• exciting personality	_____
• intelligent	_____
• physically attractive	_____
• healthy	_____
• athletic	_____
• easygoing	_____
• creative	_____
• wants children	_____

- college graduate _____
- good earning capacity _____
- good heredity _____
- sense of humour _____
- religious _____

(Adapted from Buss & Barnes, 1986)

Appendix N

Instructions for Rating Targets

Instructions for rating human targets:

For the next part to this study, you will be evaluating single students at the University of Manitoba who are going to participate in a computer dating study later on this year. Having people in relationships make these kinds of evaluations is a good source of information for us. During your evaluations, please be as honest as possible.

Remember, your responses are kept private and confidential.

Instructions for rating control targets:

We also want to get your opinion of the attractiveness, or visual appeal, of different images. So for this task you are to rate the following objects based on how appealing they are to look at.

For each photo, click on a number from 1 to 7, 1 being “very visually unappealing” and 7 being “very visually appealing”. All responses are confidential.

Appendix O1

Hypothesis 3: Supplementary Regressions Examining Participant Scores on the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS), Social Phobia Scale (SPS), and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (Full Sample)

Full-sample regressions were also conducted with participant sex and relationship commitment being entered into block 1, SIAS score (centered) and SPS score (centered) entered into block 2, four 2-way interactions entered into block 3, and two 3-way interactions entered into block 4. For these regressions (see Table O1 below), a 3-way interaction emerged between SIAS score, relationship commitment, and participant sex, which predicted participants' ratings of all three male target traits: attractiveness, $\beta = .225$, $t(693) = 2.55$, $p = .011$; interestingness, $\beta = .235$, $t(693) = 2.60$, $p = .009$; and intelligence, $\beta = .235$, $t(693) = 2.60$, $p = .010$. A 2-way interaction between SIAS and relationship commitment also predicted ratings of female attractiveness, $\beta = .164$, $t(695) = 2.82$, $p = .005$. Simple effects analysis subsequently uncovered a devaluation effect of relationship commitment on female attractiveness for participants who scored low on the SIAS, $\beta = -.106$, $t(695) = -2.23$, $p = .006$. There was also a main effect of SIAS score on participants' ratings of female interestingness, $\beta = -.115$, $t(699) = -1.99$ $p = .047$, with higher scores on the SIAS predicting lower ratings of female interestingness: *FInter* = -.008 * SIAS + 4.45. An opposite main effect was also found for participants' SPS scores on ratings of female intelligence, $\beta = .147$, $t(699) = 2.51$, $p = .012$, with higher scores predicting higher ratings of intelligence: *FIntel* = .008 * SPS + 4.62. Neither SIAS nor SPS were predictive of control target ratings for the full sample.

Table O1. *Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Participant Scores on the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS), Social Phobia Scale (SPS), and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.12***		.01*		.01†		.01*	.14***
PS	.35***		.37***		.37***		.37***		
RC	–.06		–.06†		–.07†		–.08*		
SIAS			.02		.21*		.20*		
SPS			–.11*		–.27**		–.28**		
SIAS x PS					–.25**		–.24**		
SPS x PS					.22*		.22*		
SIAS x RC					–.01		–.18*		
SPS x RC					–.03		.03		
SIAS x RC x PS							.23**		
SPS x RC x PS							–.09		
Male interestingness		.09***		.01		.02*		.01*	.11***
PS	.30***		.31***		.31***		.31***		
RC	–.05		–.05		–.06		–.07		
SIAS			.02		.25**		.24**		
SPS			–.07		–.22*		–.23*		
SIAS x PS					–.32***		–.30***		
SPS x PS					.21*		.21*		
SIAS x RC					–.01		–.17*		
SPS x RC					–.04		.04		
SIAS x RC x PS							.24**		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SPS x RC x PS							–.11		
Male intelligence		.09***		.01		.01		.01*	.10***
PS	.30***		.31***		.31***		.31***		
RC	–.04		–.04		–.04		–.05		
SIAS			.04		.19*		.17*		
SPS			–.08		–.17		–.17		
SIAS x PS					–.20*		–.19*		
SPS x PS					.13		.12		
SIAS x RC					–.01		–.19*		
SPS x RC					–.03		.07		
SIAS x RC x PS							.24**		
SPS x RC x PS							–.14		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.01†		.01	.01
PS	–.01		–.01		.00		.00		
RC	–.04		–.05		–.06		–.06		
SIAS			.01		.05		.04		
SPS			–.04		–.11		–.11		
SIAS x PS					–.03		–.02		
SPS x PS					.08		.08		
SIAS x RC					.17**		.04		
SPS x RC					–.11†		–.04		
SIAS x RC x PS							.17†		
SPS x RC x PS							–.09		
Female interestingness		.01*		.01		.00		.00	.01
PS	–.10*		–.10**		–.10**		–.10*		
RC	–.04		–.04		–.04		–.05		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SIAS			−.12*		−.09		−.10		
SPS			.10†		.10		.10		
SIAS x PS					−.03		−.02		
SPS x PS					−.01		−.01		
SIAS x RC					.07		.00		
SPS x RC					−.02		.00		
SIAS x RC x PS							.08		
SPS x RC x PS							−.02		
Female intelligence		.00		.01*		.01		.00	.01
PS	.04		.02		.03		.02		
RC	.01		.01		.01		.01		
SIAS			−.10†		.01		.01		
SPS			.15*		.10		.11		
SIAS x PS					−.15		−.14		
SPS x PS					.08		.07		
SIAS x RC					.04		.00		
SPS x RC					.02		.09		
SIAS x RC x PS							.06		
SPS x RC x PS							−.09		
Control visual appeal		.03***		.00		.00		.00	.03***
PS	−.18***		−.18***		−.17***		−.18***		
RC	.05		.04		.04		.05		
SIAS			−.08		−.05		−.05		
SPS			.03		−.05		−.04		
SIAS x PS					−.05		−.05		
SPS x PS					.11		.09		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SIAS x RC					–.04		–.05		
SPS x RC					.05		.11		
SIAS x RC x PS							.03		
SPS x RC x PS							–.07		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; PS = Participant sex; SAIS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score.
[a]$df = 701$; [b]$df = 699$; [c]$df = 695$; [d]$df = 693$.
[†] $p < .10$. [*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.

Appendix O2

Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Males' Scores on the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS), Social Phobia Scale (SPS), and Interactions, as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment

Regressions were also conducted for each participant sex, with relationship commitment being entered into block 1, SIAS and SPS scores entered into block 2, and the two 2-way interactions entered into block 3. Regression results for male participants (provided in Table O2 below) revealed that SIAS or SPS scores did not predict their judgements of female attractiveness. However, there was a main effect of SPS score on judgements of male attractiveness, $\beta = -.194$, $t(259) = -2.24$, $p = .026$, with high-SPS males rating other male targets as less attractive compared to low-SPS males: *MAttr* = -.023 * SPS + 3.42. Alternatively, when males judged male targets on interestingness, social interaction anxiety (i.e., SIAS) was found to be significant, $\beta = .194$, $t(259) = 2.24$, $p = .026$, but in the opposite direction, with high-SIAS males rating other male targets as *more* interesting compared to low-SIAS males: *MInter* = .020 * SIAS + 3.49.

Table O2. *Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Males' Scores on the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS), Social Phobia Scale (SPS), and Interactions, as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 262)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.00		.02		.02	.02
RC	.02		.00		–.01		
SIAS			.16		.15		
SPS			–.19*		–.21*		
SIAS x RC					–.16		
SPS x RC					.05		
Male interestingness		.00		.02		.01	.02
RC	.04		.03		.03		
SIAS			.19*		.18†		
SPS			–.16		–.16		
SIAS x RC					–.15		
SPS x RC					.06		
Male intelligence		.00		.01		.02	.01
RC	–.01		–.02		–.02		
SIAS			.15		.14		
SPS			–.13		–.13		
SIAS x RC					–.17		
SPS x RC					.07		
Female attractiveness		.00		–.01		.00	–.01
RC	.01		.00		.00		
SIAS			.03		.03		
SPS			–.10		–.10		
SIAS x RC					.04		
SPS x RC					–.03		
Female interestingness		.00		–.01		.00	–.01
RC	–.01		–.01		.00		
SIAS			–.10		–.10		
SPS			.11		.11		
SIAS x RC					.00		
SPS x RC					.01		
Female intelligence		.01		.01		.02	.02
RC	.11		.12†		.15*		
SIAS			.00		–.01		
SPS			.10		.14		
SIAS x RC					.00		
SPS x RC					.14		
Control visual appeal		.00		.01		.01	.01
RC	.08		.08		.10		
SIAS			–.05		–.06		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SPS			–.06		–.03		
SIAS x RC					–.06		
SPS x RC					.14		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.01		–.01		–.01	.01
RC	–.12		–.11		–.12		
SIAS			–.10		–.10		
SPS			.04		.03		
SIAS x RC					.11		
SPS x RC					–.10		
Relationship interest		.03**		.01		.00	.03†
RC	–.18**		–.17**		–.18**		
SIAS			–.16		–.15		
SPS			.11		.10		
SIAS x RC					.06		
SPS x RC					–.07		
Dating interest		.03**		.03*		.00	.05**
RC	–.19**		–.18**		–.18**		
SIAS			–.24**		–.23**		
SPS			.18†		.17†		
SIAS x RC					.05		
SPS x RC					–.04		
Sexual interest		.05***		.02†		.00	.06***
RC	–.22***		–.21***		–.21***		
SIAS			–.21*		–.21*		
SPS			.18†		.18†		
SIAS x RC					.02		
SPS x RC					.01		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; SAIS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score.
[a]$df = 261$; [b]$df = 259$; [c]$df = 257$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix O3

Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Females' Scores on the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS), Social Phobia Scale (SPS), and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment

For female participants (results in Table O3 below), neither the SIAS nor SPS scales predicted ratings for male attractiveness, however, an interaction between SIAS and relationship commitment predicted their ratings of female attractiveness, β = .232, $t(438) = 3.09$, $p = .002$. Further probing disclosed a devaluation effect of relationship commitment for low-SIAS females, β = -.159, $t(438) = -3.31$, $p = .001$, but not for high SIAS females, β = .039, $t(438) = .793$, $p = .428$ (see Figure O3 below). The SIAS also predicted females' ratings of male interestingness, β = -.172, $t(438) = -2.27$, $p = .024$, with high-SIAS females rating males as less interesting than low-SIAS females: *FIntel* = -.012 * SIAS + 4.22. With respect to females judging the intelligence of female targets, there were two opposing main effects. Specifically, females who scores high on the SIAS rated female targets as less intelligent compared to low-SIAS females, β = -.173, $t(436) = -2.26$, $p = .024$; *FIntel* = -.010 * SIAS + 4.67. Alternatively, females with higher scores on the SPS rated female targets as more intelligent compared to less socially phobic females, β = .188, $t(436) = 2.45$, $p = .015$, *FIntel* = .010 * SPS + 4.67. As hypothesized, neither the SIAS nor the SPS scores predicted participants' ratings of control targets.

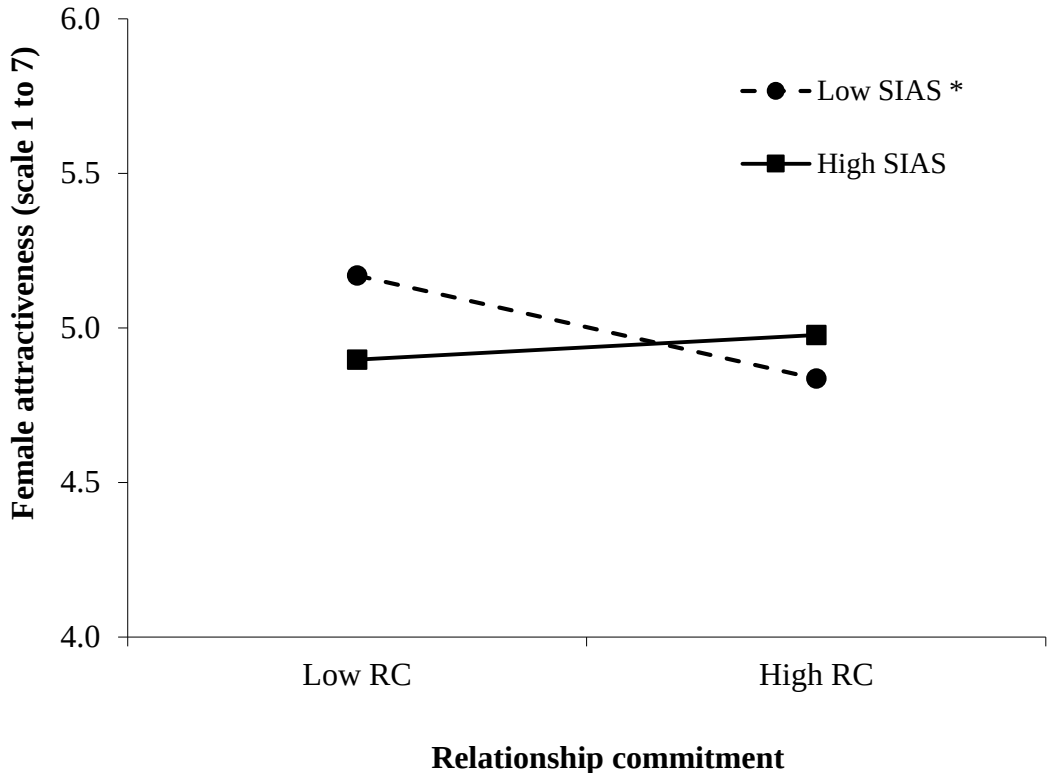
Table O3. *Hypothesis 3: Regressions Examining Females' Scores on the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS), Social Phobia Scale (SPS), and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 441)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.01**		.02*		.01	.03**
RC	–.13**		–.14**		–.15**		
SIAS			–.14*		–.13		
SPS			–.01		–.02		
SIAS x RC					.14		
SPS x RC					–.10		
Male interestingness		.01*		.02**		.01	.04***
RC	–.12*		–.13**		–.15**		
SIAS			–.17*		–.17†		
SPS			.04		.03		
SIAS x RC					.16†		
SPS x RC					–.11		
Male intelligence		.00		.01		.01	.01
RC	–.06		–.07		–.08		
SIAS			–.07		–.07		
SPS			–.02		–.02		
SIAS x RC					.13		
SPS x RC					–.13		
Female attractiveness		.00		.00		.02**	.02†
RC	–.07		–.07		–.09		
SIAS			–.01		.01		
SPS			–.01		–.02		
SIAS x RC					.23**		
SPS x RC					–.14		
Female interestingness		.00		.01		.01	.00
RC	–.05		–.05		–.07		
SIAS			–.13		–.12		
SPS			.10		.09		
SIAS x RC					.10		
SPS x RC					–.03		
Female intelligence		.00		.01†		.00	.01
RC	–.05		–.05		–.06		
SIAS			–.17*		–.17*		
SPS			.19*		.18*		
SIAS x RC					.08		
SPS x RC					–.03		
Control visual appeal		.00		–.01		.00	–.01
RC	.03		.03		.03		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SIAS			−.11		−.11		
SPS			.07		.07		
SIAS x RC					−.02		
SPS x RC					.01		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.04***		.01		.01	.05***
RC	−.22***		−.22***		−.23***		
SIAS			−.11		−.10		
SPS			.04		.03		
SIAS x RC					.14		
SPS x RC					−.08		
Relationship interest		.07***		.00		.01†	.07***
RC	−.26***		−.27***		−.28***		
SIAS			−.02		−.01		
SPS			.01		−.01		
SIAS x RC					.16*		
SPS x RC					−.07		
Dating interest		.08***		.00		.02*	.09***
RC	−.28***		−.29***		−.31***		
SIAS			−.05		−.04		
SPS			.01		−.01		
SIAS x RC					.15†		
SPS x RC					−.03		
Sexual interest		.04***		.00		.01	.04***
RC	−.20***		−.20***		−.22***		
SIAS			−.01		.00		
SPS			.02		.01		
SIAS x RC					.16†		
SPS x RC					−.08		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; SAIS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score.
[a]$df = 440$; [b]$df = 438$; [c]$df = 436$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure O3. Hypothesis 3: Effects of SIAS Score and Relationship Commitment on Females' Ratings of Female Attractiveness (n = 441)



Note. RC = Relationship commitment; SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale.
Low and high values for both predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: M = 7.68, SD = 1.74; SIAS: M = 21.15, SD = 13.98.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowSIAS}} = RC(-.096) + 5.02$.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighSIAS}} = RC(.023) + 4.93$.
* $p < .01$.

Appendix P1

Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Participants' Scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscales, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (Full Sample)

In this case, regression models for the full sample involved entering participant sex and relationship commitment being into block 1, each of the three centered DASS subscales scores[18] into block 2, the six 2-way interactions with sex and commitment into block 3, and the three 3-way interactions into block 4. Regression results on the full sample (provided in Table P1 below) generally confirmed the suspicion that the Anxiety and Stress subscales were influencing target ratings in different ways. Specifically, for all participants, DASS-Anxiety scores had a negative impact on their ratings of all three male traits: attractiveness, $\beta = -.179$, $t(698) = -3.54$, $p < .001$; *MAttr* = -.031 * DASS-A + 3.47; interestingness, $\beta = -.124$, $t(698) = -2.39$, $p = .017$; *MInter* = -.018 * DASS-A + 3.51; and intelligence (marginally), $\beta = -.095$, $t(698) = -1.83$, $p = .068$, *MIntel* = -.011 * DASS-A + 3.94. Alternatively, DASS-Stress scores had a positive main effect on all participants' ratings, but only for female attractiveness, $\beta = .169$, $t(698) = 2.87$, $p = .004$; *FAttr* = .018 * DASS-S + 5.02, and female interestingness, $\beta = .123$, $t(698) = 2.08$, $p = .038$; *FAttr* = .013 * DASS-S + 4.46, with ratings of female targets increasing with higher self-reported stress scores. Consistent with prediction, a negative main effect was also found for DASS-Stress scores on ratings of control target visual appeal (CVA), $\beta = -.195$, $t(698) = -3.38$, $p = .001$, with higher Stress scores predicting lower ratings of control targets: *CVisApp* = -.017 * DASS-S + 5.87. Again, DASS-Anxiety had an opposite effect of roughly comparable magnitude on these control target ratings, with higher anxiety scores resulting in higher ratings of visual appeal, $\beta = .183$, $t(698) = 3.46$, $p = .001$, *CVisApp* = .018 * DASS-A + 5.87. This was qualified by a marginally significant DASS-Anxiety by participant sex interaction, $\beta = .162$, $t(692) = 1.82$, $p = .070$.

[18] Out of theoretical and clinical interest, participants' DASS-Depression subscale scores were also entered into these regressions and are included in the tables.

Table P1. *Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Participants' Scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscales, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (Full Sample; N = 703)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
Male attractiveness		.12***		.02**		.00		.00	.13***
PS	.35***		.34***		.41***		.41***		
RC (T1)	−.06		−.06†		−.01		.08		
DASS-Dep			.02		.09		.07		
DASS-Anx			−.18***		−.22**		−.22**		
DASS-Str			.11*		.11		.12		
DASS-Dep x PS					−.12		−.10		
DASS-Anx x PS					.07		.07		
DASS-Str x PS					.00		−.01		
DASS-Dep x RC					−.07		−.21		
DASS-Anx x RC					.01		.07		
DASS-Str x RC					.02		.01		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							.14		
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							−.10		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							.01		
Male interestingness		.09***		.01†		−.01		.01	.09***
PS	.30***		.29***		.40***		.39***		
RC (T1)	−.05		−.05		−.01		.07		
DASS-Dep			−.01		.11		.10		
DASS-Anx			−.12*		−.08**		−.08		
DASS-Str			.12*		.05		.06		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Dep x PS					–.19†		–.17		
DASS-Anx x PS					–.03		–.04		
DASS-Str x PS					.08		.07		
DASS-Dep x RC					–.05		–.16		
DASS-Anx x RC					.04		.13		
DASS-Str x RC					–.01		–.04		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							.12		
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							–.14†		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							.03		
Male intelligence		.09***		.01		.00		.01	.09***
PS	.30***		.30***		.38***		.37***		
RC (T1)	–.04		–.05		–.08		.05		
DASS-Dep			.01		.09		.08		
DASS-Anx			–.10†		–.11		–.11		
DASS-Str			.00		–.05		–.05		
DASS-Dep x PS					–.13		–.10		
DASS-Anx x PS					.03		.02		
DASS-Str x PS					.07		.06		
DASS-Dep x RC					.04		–.14		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.06		.03		
DASS-Str x RC					.01		.07		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							.16		
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							–.12		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							–.08		
Female attractiveness		.00		.02*		–.01		.00	.01
PS	–.01		–.03		–.02		–.02		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T1)	–.04		–.06		–.12		–.13		
DASS-Dep			–.10†		–.08		–.08		
DASS-Anx			–.10†		–.11		–.11		
DASS-Str			.17**		.17		.17		
DASS-Dep x PS					–.02		–.02		
DASS-Anx x PS					.02		.02		
DASS-Str x PS					–.02		–.02		
DASS-Dep x RC					.07		.09		
DASS-Anx x RC					.00		–.04		
DASS-Str x RC					.05		.08		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							–.03		
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							.06		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							–.04		
Female interestingness		.01*		.01		.00		.00	.00
PS	–.10*		–.11**		–.14		–.13		
RC (T1)	–.04		–.04		–.11		–.19†		
DASS-Dep			–.04		–.05		–.04		
DASS-Anx			–.06		.01		.01		
DASS-Str			.12*		.08		.08		
DASS-Dep x PS					.04		.03		
DASS-Anx x PS					–.09		–.09		
DASS-Str x PS					.04		.05		
DASS-Dep x RC					.08		.20		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.01		–.01		
DASS-Str x RC					–.01		–.10		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							–.10		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							.01		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							.10		
Female intelligence		.00		.00		–.01		.00	–.01
PS	.04		.03		.06		.05		
RC (T1)	.01		.01		–.12		–.07		
DASS-Dep			.01		.06		.06		
DASS-Anx			–.05		–.04		–.03		
DASS-Str			.08		.04		.03		
DASS-Dep x PS					–.05		–.06		
DASS-Anx x PS					–.02		–.03		
DASS-Str x PS					.05		.06		
DASS-Dep x RC					.18†		.11		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.02		.06		
DASS-Str x RC					–.07		–.01		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							.06		
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							–.10		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							–.08		
Control visual appeal		.03***		.03***		–.01		.00	.05***
PS	–.18***		–.16***		–.12		–.11		
RC (T1)	.05		.05		.03		.02		
DASS-Dep			–.02		.02		.03		
DASS-Anx			.18***		.07		.07		
DASS-Str			–.20***		–.16		–.17		
DASS-Dep x PS					–.07		–.09		
DASS-Anx x PS					.16†		.16†		
DASS-Str x PS					–.05		–.04		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Dep x RC					.02		.05		
DASS-Anx x RC					.05		.05		
DASS-Str x RC					–.03		.03		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							–.04		
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							.02		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							–.07		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; PS = Participant sex; DASS-Dep = DASS Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.
[a]$df = 701$; [b]$df = 698$; [c]$df = 692$; [d]$df = 689$.
$^{\dagger}p < .10$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Appendix P2

Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Males' Scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscales, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment

Sex-specific regressions for DASS subscale scores were conducted by entering relationship commitment into block 1, the three DASS subscale scores into block 2, and the three 2-way interactions into block 3. Regressions using male participants exclusively (see Table P2 below) provided some support for Hypothesis 4. First, for males rating female attractiveness, a marginally significant main effect was found for DASS-Stress scores, $\beta = .192$, $t(258) = 1.96$, $p = .052$, with highly stressed males rating females as *more* attractive than less stressed males: *FAttr* = .018 * DASS-S + 5.02. A marginally significant main effect was also found for males' DASS-Anxiety scores on their ratings of male attractiveness, $\beta = -.175$, $t(258) = -2.10$, $p = .037$, *MAttr* = -.037 * DASS-A + 3.50, with highly anxious males rating male targets as less attractive than did less anxious males. Contrary to expectations, no other effects were found for males' ratings of other target types or traits, including control targets (all *p*s > .025).

Table P2. *Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Males' Scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscales, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, When Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 262)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.00		.02		–.01	.01
RC (T1)	.02		.02		.21		
DASS-Dep			.10		.08		
DASS-Anx			–.18†		–.18†		
DASS-Str			.07		.08		
DASS-Dep x RC					–.25		
DASS-Anx x RC					.06		
DASS-Str x RC					.04		
Male interestingness		.00		.01		.02	.00
RC (T1)	.04		.06		.24		
DASS-Dep			.13		.12		
DASS-Anx			–.07		–.06		
DASS-Str			.02		.03		
DASS-Dep x RC					–.23		
DASS-Anx x RC					.12		
DASS-Str x RC					.01		
Male intelligence		.00		–.01		–.01	–.01
RC (T1)	–.01		.00		.13		
DASS-Dep			.09		.08		
DASS-Anx			–.09		–.09		
DASS-Str			–.05		–.05		
DASS-Dep x RC					–.17		
DASS-Anx x RC					.03		
DASS-Str x RC					.08		
Female attractiveness		.00		.02		.01	.00
RC (T1)	.01		–.01		–.05		
DASS-Dep			–.09		–.09		
DASS-Anx			–.12		–.12		
DASS-Str			.19†		.18		
DASS-Dep x RC					.06		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.04		
DASS-Str x RC					.11		
Female interestingness		.00		.00		–.01	–.01
RC (T1)	–.01		–.02		–.19		
DASS-Dep			–.07		–.04		
DASS-Anx			.01		.12		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Str			.09		.08		
DASS-Dep x RC					.22		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.01		
DASS-Str x RC					–.09		
Female intelligence		.01		–.01		–.01	.00
RC (T1)	.11		.13		.10		
DASS-Dep			.07		.09		
DASS-Anx			–.04		–.02		
DASS-Str			.03		.02		
DASS-Dep x RC					.04		
DASS-Anx x RC					.07		
DASS-Str x RC					.02		
Control visual appeal		.01		.01		–.01	.01
RC (T1)	.08		.08		.04		
DASS-Dep			.02		.04		
DASS-Anx			.07		.08		
DASS-Str			–.17		–.18		
DASS-Dep x RC					.05		
DASS-Anx x RC					.05		
DASS-Str x RC					.04		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.01		–.01		–.01	.00
RC (T1)	–.12		–.13†		–.24		
DASS-Dep			–.11		–.09		
DASS-Anx			.03		.03		
DASS-Str			.07		.06		
DASS-Dep x RC					.15		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.01		
DASS-Str x RC					–.02		
Relationship interest		.03**		.00		–.01	.02
RC (T1)	–.18**		–.19**		–.35**		
DASS-Dep			–.08		–.06		
DASS-Anx			.03		.03		
DASS-Str			.01		.00		
DASS-Dep x RC					.21		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.06		
DASS-Str x RC					–.05		
Dating interest		.03**		.00		–.01	.02
RC (T1)	–.19**		–.20**		–.29*		
DASS-Dep			–.07		–.06		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Anx			.04		.04		
DASS-Str			.01		.01		
DASS-Dep x RC					.12		
DASS-Anx x RC					−.08		
DASS-Str x RC					.00		
Sexual interest		.05***		.00		−.01	.03†
RC (T1)	−.22***		−.23***		−.34*		
DASS-Dep			−.05		−.04		
DASS-Anx			.03		.03		
DASS-Str			.06		.06		
DASS-Dep x RC					.15		
DASS-Anx x RC					−.05		
DASS-Str x RC					−.02		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; DASS-Dep = DASS Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.
[a]$df = 261$; [b]$df = 258$; [c]$df = 255$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix P3

Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Females' Scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscales, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, Controlling for Relationship Commitment

Results of regressions using female participants (provided in Table P3 below) revealed a main effect of DASS-Anxiety scores on their ratings of male attractiveness, $\beta = -.192$, $t(437) = -2.71$, $p = .007$, *MAttr* = -.025 * DASS-A + 4.42, and male interestingness, $\beta = -.160$, $t(437) = -2.25$, $p = .025$, *MInter* = -.019 * DASS-A + 4.19. For female participants, higher scores on the DASS-Stress subscale also marginally predicted higher ratings of male attractiveness, $\beta = .149$, $t(437) = 2.06$, $p = .040$, *MAttr* = .017 * DASS-S + 4.42, and significantly predicted ratings of male interestingness, $\beta = .186$, $t(437) = 2.58$, $p = .010$, *MInter* = .020 * DASS-S + 4.19. Females' ratings of male intelligence were also predicted by a two-way interaction between DASS-Anxiety score and relationship commitment, $\beta = -.164$, $t(434) = -2.20$, $p = .029$. In terms of females' ratings of female targets, there was another marginally significant main effect for DASS-Stress on judgements of female attractiveness, $\beta = .154$, $t(437) = 2.11$, $p = .036$, with high-DASS-Stress females rating female targets as more attractive than low-DASS-Stress females: *FAttr* = .018 * DASS-S + 4.95. Also in support of Hypothesis 4, both DASS-Anxiety and DASS-Stress scores were found to impact females' judgements of control target visual appeal. Specifically, high-DASS-Anxiety females rated control targets as more visually appealing, $\beta = .257$, $t(437) = 3.61$, $p < .001$, *CVisApp* = .026 * DASS-A + 5.62, whereas high-DASS-Stress females rated control targets as less visually appealing, $\beta = -.212$, $t(437) = -2.92$, $p = .004$, *CVisApp* = -.019 * DASS-S + 5.62. In brief, stress had the opposite affect on females' ratings of female attractiveness than it did for ratings of both male attractiveness and control target attractiveness.

Table P3. *Hypothesis 4: Regressions Examining Females' Scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscales, and Interactions as Predictors of Target Ratings, Controlling for Relationship Commitment (N = 441).*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Male attractiveness		.01**		.03**		–.01	.03**
RC (T1)	–.13**		–.14**		–.23*		
DASS-Dep			–.06		–.05		
DASS-Anx			–.19**		–.20**		
DASS-Str			.15†		.14†		
DASS-Dep x RC					.10		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.09		
DASS-Str x RC					.06		
Male interestingness		.01*		.03**		.00	.03**
RC (T1)	–.12*		–.14**		–.23*		
DASS-Dep			–.12		–.11		
DASS-Anx			–.16*		–.16*		
DASS-Str			.19**		.18*		
DASS-Dep x RC					.11		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.08		
DASS-Str x RC					.03		
Male intelligence		.00		.01		.01	.01
RC (T1)	–.06		–.08		–.26*		
DASS-Dep			–.05		–.05		
DASS-Anx			–.10		–.11		
DASS-Str			.04		.03		
DASS-Dep x RC					.23		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.16†		
DASS-Str x RC					–.01		
Female attractiveness		.00		.01		–.01	.01
RC (T1)	–.07		–.08		–.11		
DASS-Dep			–.10		–.10		
DASS-Anx			–.09		–.08		
DASS-Str			.15†		.14†		
DASS-Dep x RC					.03		
DASS-Anx x RC					.02		
DASS-Str x RC					.04		
Female interestingness		.00		.01		–.01	.00
RC (T1)	–.05		–.05		–.06		
DASS-Dep			–.01		–.01		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Anx			−.10		−.10		
DASS-Str			.13		.13		
DASS-Dep x RC					.00		
DASS-Anx x RC					.00		
DASS-Str x RC					.03		
Female intelligence		.00		.00		.01	.00
RC (T1)	−.05		−.05		−.21†		
DASS-Dep			−.02		−.01		
DASS-Anx			−.06		−.07		
DASS-Str			.10		.10		
DASS-Dep x RC					.23		
DASS-Anx x RC					−.07		
DASS-Str x RC					−.09		
Control visual appeal		.00		.04***		.00	.03**
RC (T1)	.03		.03		.06		
DASS-Dep			−.05		−.05		
DASS-Anx			.26***		.26***		
DASS-Str			−.21**		−.21**		
DASS-Dep x RC					−.03		
DASS-Anx x RC					.07		
DASS-Str x RC					−.06		
Target interest ratings							
Attraction to target		.04***		−.01		.00	.04***
RC (T1)	−.22***		−.22***		−.27***		
DASS-Dep			−.10		−.10		
DASS-Anx			−.01		−.01		
DASS-Str			.10		.09		
DASS-Dep x RC					.06		
DASS-Anx x RC					−.03		
DASS-Str x RC					.03		
Relationship interest		.07***		.00		.00	.06***
RC (T1)	−.26***		−.27***		−.37***		
DASS-Dep			−.06		−.05		
DASS-Anx			.03		.03		
DASS-Str			.03		.02		
DASS-Dep x RC					.13		
DASS-Anx x RC					−.05		
DASS-Str x RC					.01		
Dating interest		.08***		.00		.01	.08***
RC (T1)	−.28***		−.28***		−.39***		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Dep			−.07		−.06		
DASS-Anx			.01		.01		
DASS-Str			.10		.08		
DASS-Dep x RC					.14		
DASS-Anx x RC					.00		
DASS-Str x RC					−.01		
Sexual interest		.04***		.00		−.01	.04**
RC (T1)	−.20***		−.19***		−.32**		
DASS-Dep			−.01		.00		
DASS-Anx			.05		.05		
DASS-Str			.03		.03		
DASS-Dep x RC					.16		
DASS-Anx x RC					−.06		
DASS-Str x RC					.00		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; DASS-Dep = DASS Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.
[a]$df = 440$; [b]$df = 437$; [c]$df = 434$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix Q1

Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (Both Sexes)

The regression model used here for the full sample, as well as for each sex, was identical to the models used for the social anxiety composite score with the one exception being that SIAS and SPS scores were entered in place of the composite score. Results of regressions on the full sample (presented in Table Q1 below) indicated the SIAS interacted with commitment at Time 1 to predict commitment at Time 2, $\beta = .426$, $t(114) = 2.49$, $p = .014$. Subsequent simple effects analyses revealed that participants who scored higher on the SIAS at Time 1 experienced greater increases in relationship commitment at Time 2, $\beta = .647$, $t(114) = 10.35$, $p < .001$, compared to those who scored lower on that scale, $\beta = .507$, $t(114) = 5.99$, $p < .001$. An interaction between SPS and relationship commitment at Time 1 mirrored the effect found for the SIAS, $\beta = -.383$, $t(114) = -2.30$, $p = .023$, with participants who scored higher on the SPS experiencing greater increases in relationship commitment, $\beta = .724$, $t(114) = 9.15$, $p < .001$, compared to those who scored lower on that scale, $\beta = .470$, $t(114) = 6.88$, $p < .001$ (see Figure Q1 below). Importantly, there was also a significant sex by SPS interaction predicting relationship commitment at follow-up, $\beta = 1.00$, $t(114) = 3.11$, $p = .002$, thus it was decided to probe this interaction further using sex-specific regressions. No other simple effects were found for the SIAS or the SPS (ps > .05), and neither of the two scales predicted participants' ratings of relationship satisfaction, value-self, or value-partner at follow-up.

Table Q1. *Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (Both Sexes; N = 122)*

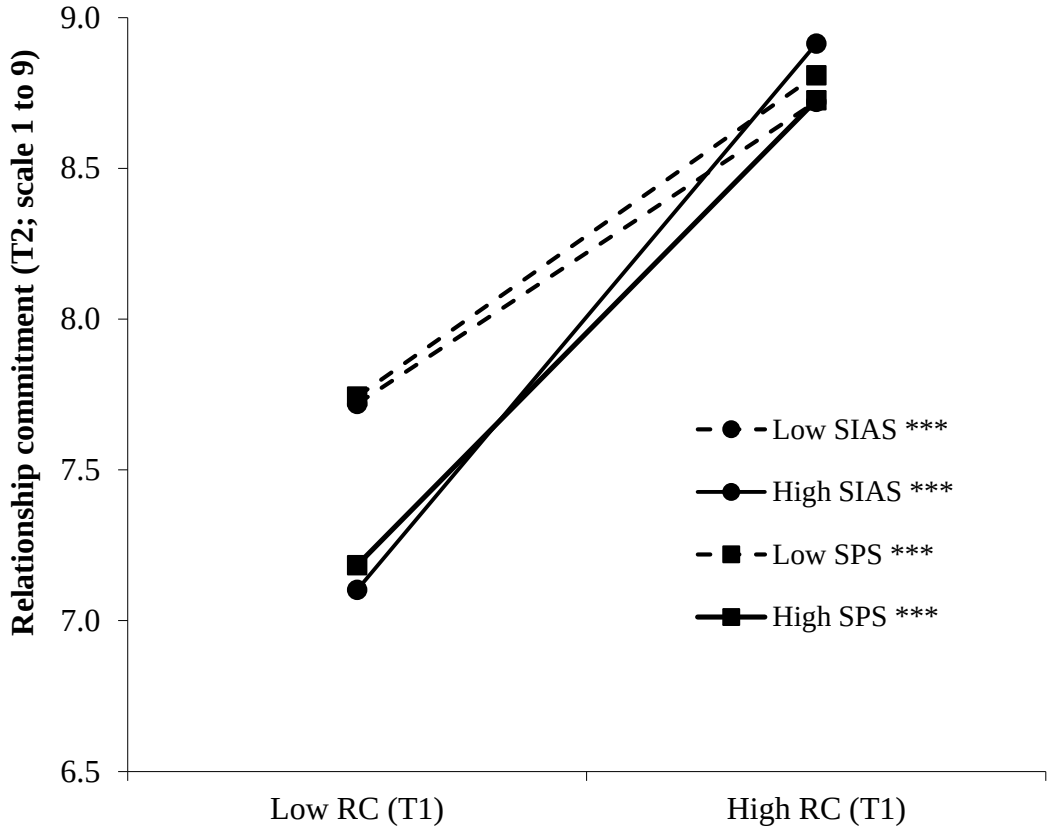
	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T2)		.32***		.02		.09**		.01	.40***
PS	.11		.15†		.41***		.34**		
RC (T1)	.56***		.53***		.55***		.63***		
SIAS			.05		**.07**		**.05**		
SPS			–.17		**–.98****		**–.88****		
SIAS x PS					**–.22**		**–.24**		
SPS x PS					**1.00**		**.99****		
SIAS x RC					.43*		**.27**		
SPS x RC					–.38*		**–.06**		
SIAS x PS x RC*							**.20**		
SPS x PS x RC*							**–.41**		
RS (T2)		.18***		.01		–.02		.00	.15***
PS	.06		.05		.07		.08		
RS (T1)	.43***		.43***		.40***		.40***		
SIAS			–.17		**–.33**		**–.34**		
SPS			.15		**.23**		**.23**		
SIAS x PS*					**.08**		**–.09**		
SPS x PS*					**–.19**		**–.03**		
SIAS x RS					.26		**.30**		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SPS x RS					–.23		**–.25**		
SIAS x PS x RS*							**–.04**		
SPS x PS x RS*							**.03**		
RVs (T2)		.22***		.00		–.03		.02	.22***
PS	.08		.09		.13		.19		
RVs (T1)	.46***		.46***		.43***		.36***		
SIAS			–.02		**–.35**		**–.34**		
SPS			–.05		**.12**		**.01**		
SIAS x PS*					**.17**		**.23**		
SPS x PS*					**–.03**		**–.03**		
SIAS x RVs					.35		**.51**		
SPS x RVs					–.27		**–.64**†		
SIAS x PS x RVs*							**–.24**		
SPS x PS x RVs*							**.49**		
RVp (T2)		.17***		–.01		–.03		–.01	.16***
PS	–.10		–.08		–.04		–.03		
RVp (T1)	.41***		.40***		.41***		.38***		
SIAS			.05		**–.09**		**.27**		
SPS			–.14		**–.16**		**–.44**		
SIAS x PS*					**.00**		**–.35**		
SPS x PS*					**.12**		**.39**		
SIAS x RVp					.28		**–.31**		
SPS x RVp					–.12		**.23**		

(cont.)	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
SIAS x PS x RVp*							**.58**		
SPS x PS x RVp*							**–.32**		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; PS = Participant sex; SAIS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value–partner. Values in bold indicate evidence of multicollinearity (tolerance below .100; variance inflation factors (VIFs) greater than 8); caution is warranted while interpreting these data.
[a]*df* = 120; [b]*df* = 118; [c]*df* = 114; [d]*df* = 112.
[†] $p < .10$. [*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.

Figure Q1. Hypothesis 5b: Effects of Social Interaction Anxiety, Social Phobia, and Relationship Commitment at Time 1 on Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (Both Sexes; n = 122)



Note. RC = Relationship commitment, SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score, SPS = Social Phobia Score. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: M = 8.31; SD = 1.19; SIAS: M = 20.34, SD = 12.52; SPS: M = 17.32, SD = 12.88.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowSIAS}} = RC_{T1}(.422) + 7.90$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighSIAS}} = RC_{T1}(.763) + 7.43$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowSPS}} = RC_{T1}(.449) + 7.94$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighSPS}} = RC_{T1}(.650) + 7.47$
*** $p < .001$.

Appendix Q2

Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Males' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1

Looking at males specifically (results presented in Table Q2 below), there was a significant main effect for SPS on relationship commitment at follow-up, $\beta = -.359$, $t(31) = -2.54$, $p = .016$, with high-SPS males reporting lower levels of commitment at Time 2 compared to low-SPS males: $RC = -.088 * SPS + 6.73$. Importantly, however, the small sample size for high SPS males in this regression (n = 2) makes accurate interpretation of this finding problematic.

Table Q2. *Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Males' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 33)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.26***		.17*		.03	.49**
RC (T1)	.53***		.56***		.78**		
SIAS			.07		–.02		
SPS			–.47*		–.38		
SIAS x RC					.17		
SPS x RC					.14		
RS (T2)		.08		–.01		–.01	–.06
RS (T1)	.29		.31		.21		
SIAS			–.14		–.18		
SPS			.09		.08		
SIAS x RS					.23		
SPS x RS					–.27		
RVs (T2)		.20**		–.02		–.02	.12
RVs (T1)	.47**		.50**		.43		
SIAS			–.21		–.22		
SPS			.09		.06		
SIAS x RVs					.29		
SPS x RVs					–.33		
RVp (T2)		.32***		.05		.13†	.44***
RVp (T1)	.59***		.64***		1.47***		
SIAS			.07		.73		
SPS			–.27		–1.11**		
SIAS x RVp*					**–.96**		
SPS x RVp*					**1.72***		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; SAIS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value – partner. Values in bold indicate evidence of multicollinearity (tolerance below .100; variance inflation factors (VIFs) greater than 8); caution is warranted while interpreting these data.

[a]$df = 32$; [b]$df = 30$; [c]$df = 28$.

† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix Q3

Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Females' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1

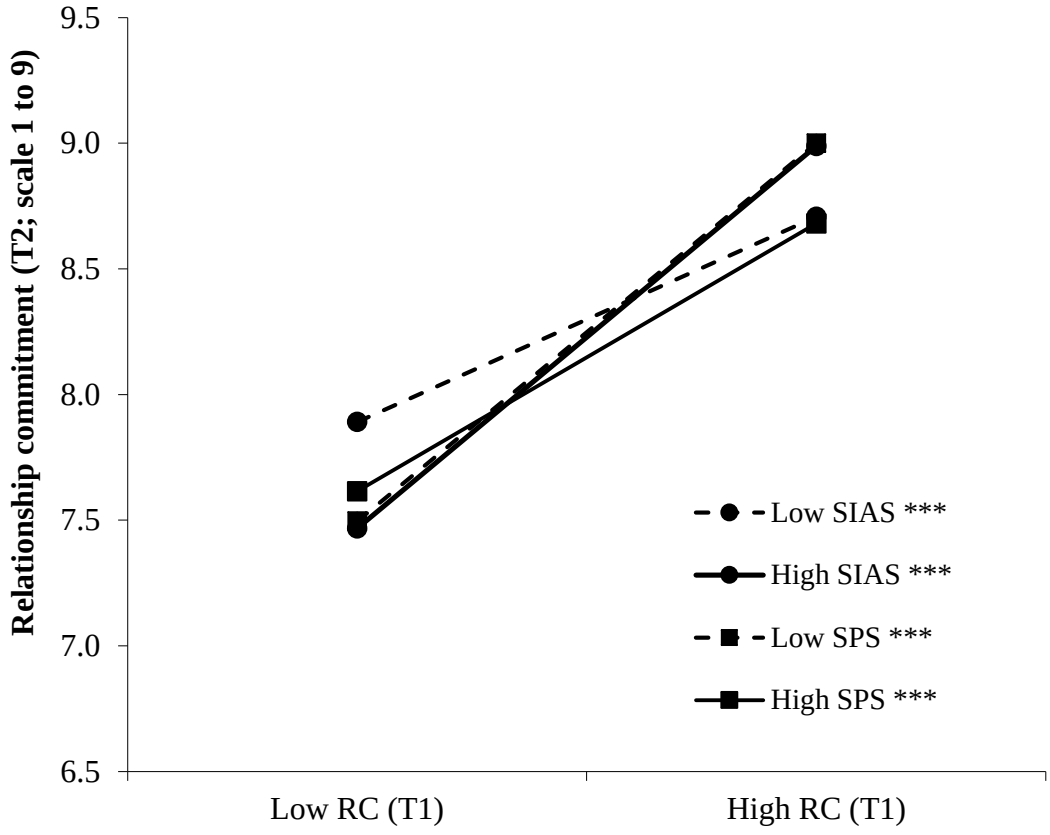
For females, two-way interactions between relationship commitment at Time 1 and both SIAS and SPS replicated what was found for all participants (refer to Table Q3 below). Simple effects analysis of the SIAS-commitment interaction, $\beta = .584$, $t(84) = 2.86$, $p = .005$, revealed the main effect for relationship commitment at Time 1 played out differently for high- versus low-SIAS females. Again replicating what was found for all participants, females who scored higher on the SIAS scale reported greater increases in relationship commitment at follow-up, $\beta = .662$, $t(84) = 7.08$, $p < .001$, compared to low-SIAS females, $\beta = .440$, $t(84) = 3.60$, $p < .001$. The analysis of the SPS-commitment interaction, $\beta = -.566$, $t(84) = -2.72$, $p = .008$, revealed that, as was found in the full sample, high-SPS females reported greater increases in relationship commitment at Time 2, $\beta = .696$, $t(84) = 6.35$, $p < .001$, compared to low-SPS females, $\beta = .339$, $t(84) = 4.07$, $p < .001$ (see Figure Q3 below).

Table Q3. *Hypothesis 5b: Regressions Examining Females' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 89)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.33***		–.01		.06*	.37***
RC (T1)	.58***		.56***		.61***		
SIAS			.07		–.26		
SPS			–.11		.22		
SIAS x RC					.58**		
SPS x RC					–.57**		
RS (T2)		.26***		–.02		.02	.26***
RS (T1)	.52***		.52***		.48***		
SIAS			–.18		–.28		
SPS			.17		.25		
SIAS x RS					.30		
SPS x RS					–.27		
RVs (T2)		.21***		–.01		.05	.23***
RVs (T1)	.47***		.46***		.36***		
SIAS			.05		–.13		
SPS			–.10		–.03		
SIAS x RVs					.35		
SPS x RVs					–.11		
RVp (T2)		.14***		–.01		.05	.15**
RVp (T1)	.38***		.36***		.34***		
SIAS			.05		–.12		
SPS			–.13		–.03		
SIAS x RVp*					.33		
SPS x RVp*					–.12		

Note. RC = Relationship commitment; SAIS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score; SPS = Social Phobia Scale score; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value – self; RVp = Relationship value–partner.
[a]$df = 88$; [b]$df = 86$; [c]$df = 84$.
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure Q3. Hypothesis 5b: Effects of Social Interaction Anxiety, Social Phobia, and Relationship Commitment at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (n = 89)



Note. RC = Relationship commitment, SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale score, SPS = Social Phobia Scale score.
Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: M = 8.40; SD = 1.12; SIAS; M = 21.98, SD = 13.18; SPS: M = 19.51, SD = 13.67.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowSIAS}} = RC_{T1}(.366) + 7.99$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighSIAS}} = RC_{T1}(.682) + 7.45$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowSPS}} = RC_{T1}(.742) + 7.69$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighSPS}} = RC_{T1}(.478) + 7.74$
*** $p < .001$.

Appendix R1

Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (Both Sexes)

Based on the earlier analyses that disclosed the unique effects of each of the DASS subscales, it was decided to test the predictive potential of each DASS subscale, but this time on relationship quality at Time 2.[19] The regression models used for both full-sample and sex-specific regressions, was the same model used for the SIAS and SPS described above, with the exception that the three DASS subscale scores were used in place of the SIAS and SPS scores. Results of regressions on all participants (presented in Table R1 below) uncovered a series of significant two-way interactions between DASS subscale scores and relationship quality ratings. First, a DASS-Anxiety by commitment interaction was found to predict commitment at follow-up, $\beta = -.371$, $t(111) = -3.02$, $p = .003$. An interaction between DASS-Stress and commitment was also found to predict commitment at follow-up, $\beta = .566$, $t(111) = 3.30$, $p = .001$. Detailed analyses of these interactions revealed that weakly committed participants who were highly anxious at Time 1 were slightly less committed to their relationships at follow-up, $\beta = .626$, $t(111) = 3.96$, $p < .001$, compared to those who were less anxious, $\beta = .492$, $t(111) = 2.92$, $p < .01$. The same was found for highly stressed participants, $\beta = .651$, $t(111) = 4.10$, $p < .001$, compared to less stressed counterparts, $\beta = .497$, $t(111) = 3.06$, $p < .01$ (see Figure R11). With respect to relationship satisfaction, both the DASS-Anxiety scale, $\beta = -.360$, $t(111) = -2.59$, $p = .011$, and DASS-Stress scale, $\beta = .310$, $t(111) = 2.30$, $p = .024$, interacted with participants' satisfaction ratings at Time 1 to predict satisfaction ratings at follow-up. Simple effects analysis replicated for DASS-Stress what was found for DASS-Anxiety (see Figure R12).

With respect to how much participants valued their relationships at follow-up, two 2-way interactions were found. First, participants' value-self ratings at Time 1 interacted with DASS-Depression scores to predict value-self at Time 2, $\beta = -.410$, $t(111) = -3.04$, $p = .003$. Simple effects analysis revealed that depression had a polarizing effect on relationship value between Time 1 and Time 2. First, of the participants who valued their relationships less at Time 1, those who also reported higher levels of depressive symptoms valued their relationships more at follow-up, $\beta = .417$, $t(111) = 3.42$, $p < .001$, compared to those who reported fewer depressive symptoms, $\beta = .582$, $t(111) = 8.36$, $p < .001$. These simple slopes also reflected that, of the participants who highly valued their relationships at Time 1, those who reported greater depressive symptoms reported *higher* levels of relationship value at follow-up compared to those who were less depressed (see Figure R13). The same polarizing effect was found for an interaction between value-self scores at Time 1 and DASS-Stress predicting value-self at follow-up, $\beta = .492$, $t(111) = 3.35$, $p = .001$. In this case, however, it was high-stress participants that provided both the highest and lowest ratings of relationship value at follow-up depending on how much they valued their relationships at Time 1, $\beta = .582$, $t(111) = 8.36$, $p < .001$. Whereas participants who were less stressed at Time 1 provided more moderate relationship value scores at follow-up, $\beta = .417$, $t(111) = 3.42$, $p < .001$ (see Figure R13). Finally, a DASS-Stress by

[19] Due to issues with small sample size and multicollinearity, the reported beta values for three-way interactions involving participant sex are likely inflated for this set of regressions. Thus, significant three-way interactions involving sex are not identified or investigated here.

relationship value-partner (T1) interaction predicted how much participants believed their partners valued their relationship at follow-up, β = .317, $t(111) = 2.14$, $p = .035$. Simple effects analysis mirrored the results found for the value-self predictor, for both low stress participants, β = .311, $t(111) = 2.78$, $p = .007$, and high stress participants, β = .497, $t(111) = 5.73$, $p < .001$ (see Figure R14). There was also a marginally, significant main effect of DASS-Depression on participants' ratings of how much they felt their partners valued the relationship, β = -.228, $t(117) = -1.89$, $p = .062$, with participants who reported a higher depressive emotional state at Time 1 providing lower partner value ratings compared to their less-depressed counterparts: *RVp* = -.025 * DASS-D + 6.43.

Table R1. *Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Participant Sex, Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (Both Sexes; N = 122)*

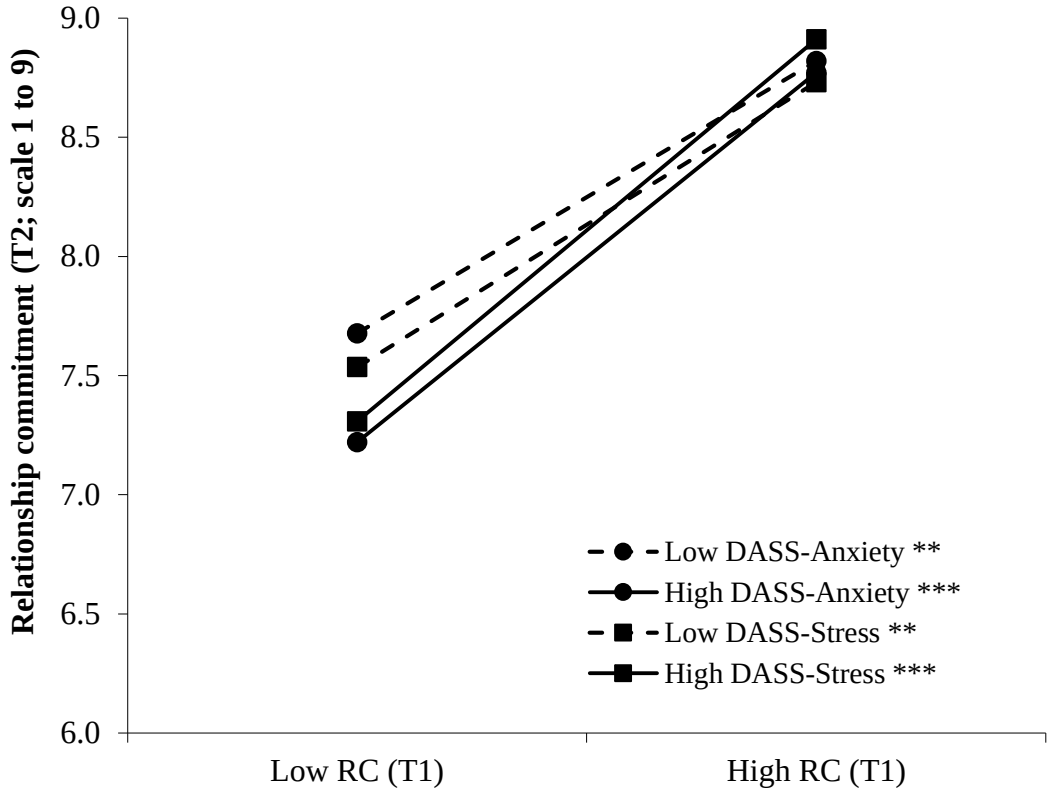
	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Block 4[d]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.32***		.00		.12***		.10***	.50***
PS	.10		.12		–.08		–.45**		
RC (T1)	.55***		.55***		.67***		**.01**		
DASS-Dep			–.08		–.41*		**–.64**		
DASS-Anx			.05		**.29**		**.52**		
DASS-Str			–.14		**–.56***		**–.50**		
DASS-Dep x PS					**.61**		**1.13**		
DASS-Anx x PS					**–.12**		**–.44**		
DASS-Str x PS					**.20**		**–.05**		
DASS-Dep x RC					–.32		**.82**		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.37**		**–.91**		
DASS-Str x RC					.57**		**.64**		
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							**–1.13**		
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							**.63**		
DASS-Str x PS x RC							**.09**		
RS (T2)		.18***		–.01		.08†		.02	.21***
PS	.06		.05		.23		.19		
RS (T1)	.43***		.43***		.32**		.39***		
DASS-Dep			–.01		.21		.29		
DASS-Anx			.09		**.43**		**.52†**		
DASS-Str			–.04		**–.46**		**–.78***		
DASS-Dep x PS					**–.40**		**–.40**		
DASS-Anx x PS					**–.18**		**–.32**		

	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Str x PS					**.39**		**.71**†		
DASS-Dep x RS					.01		**.08**		
DASS-Anx x RS					–.36*		**–.65***		
DASS-Str x RS					.31*		**.87***		
DASS-Dep x PS x RS							**–.13**		
DASS-Anx x PS x RS							**.36**		
DASS-Str x PS x RS							**–.59**		
RVs (T2)		.22***		–.01		.10**		.03	.30***
PS	.08		.08		.25		.38*		
RVs (T1)	.46***		.46***		.38***		.38***		
DASS-Dep			–.04		.31		.44†		
DASS-Anx			.11		**.09**		**.03**		
DASS-Str			–.06		**–.74***		**–1.02****		
DASS-Dep x PS					**–.22**		**–.43**		
DASS-Anx x PS					**.05**		**.10**		
DASS-Str x PS					**.45**		**.79***		
DASS-Dep x RVs					–.41**		–.71**		
DASS-Anx x RVs					–.11		–.35		
DASS-Str x RVs					.49***		**1.25*****		
DASS-Dep x PS x RVs							.38		
DASS-Anx x PS x RVs							.23		
DASS-Str x PS x RVs							**–.84***		
RVp (T2)		.17***		.03		.06		–.01	.19***
PS	–.10		–.10		.00		**–.12**		
RVp (T1)	.41***		.39***		.39***		.32**		
DASS-Dep			–.23†		.00		**–.28**		
DASS-Anx			–.01		**.04**		**.28**		
DASS-Str			.18		**–.23**		**.00**		

DASS-Dep x PS					**–.21**		**.06**		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Anx x PS					**–.08**		**–.27**		
DASS-Str x PS					**.29**		**.06**		
DASS-Dep x RVp					–.17		**.16**		
DASS-Anx x RVp					.06		**–.35**		
DASS-Str x RVp					.32*		**–.02**		
DASS-Dep x PS x RVp							**–.25**		
DASS-Anx x PS x RVp							**.36**		
DASS-Str x PS x RVp							**.36**		

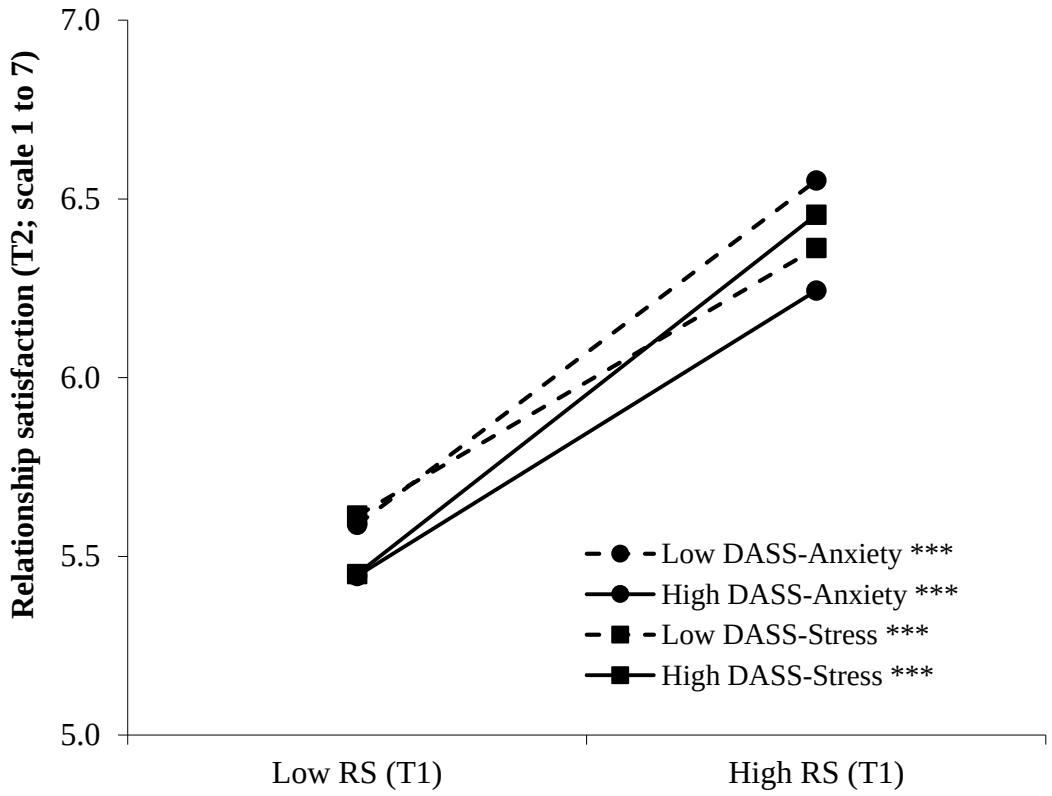
Note. PS = Participant sex; DASS-Dep = DASS – Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value–self; RVp = Relationship value–partner. Values in bold indicate evidence of multicollinearity (tolerance below .100; variance inflation factors (VIFs) greater than 8); caution is warranted while interpreting these data.
[a]$df = 120$; [b]$df = 117$; [c]$df = 111$; [d]$df = 108$.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure R11. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Anxiety, DASS-Stress, and Relationship Commitment at Time 1 on Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (Both Sexes; *n* = 122)



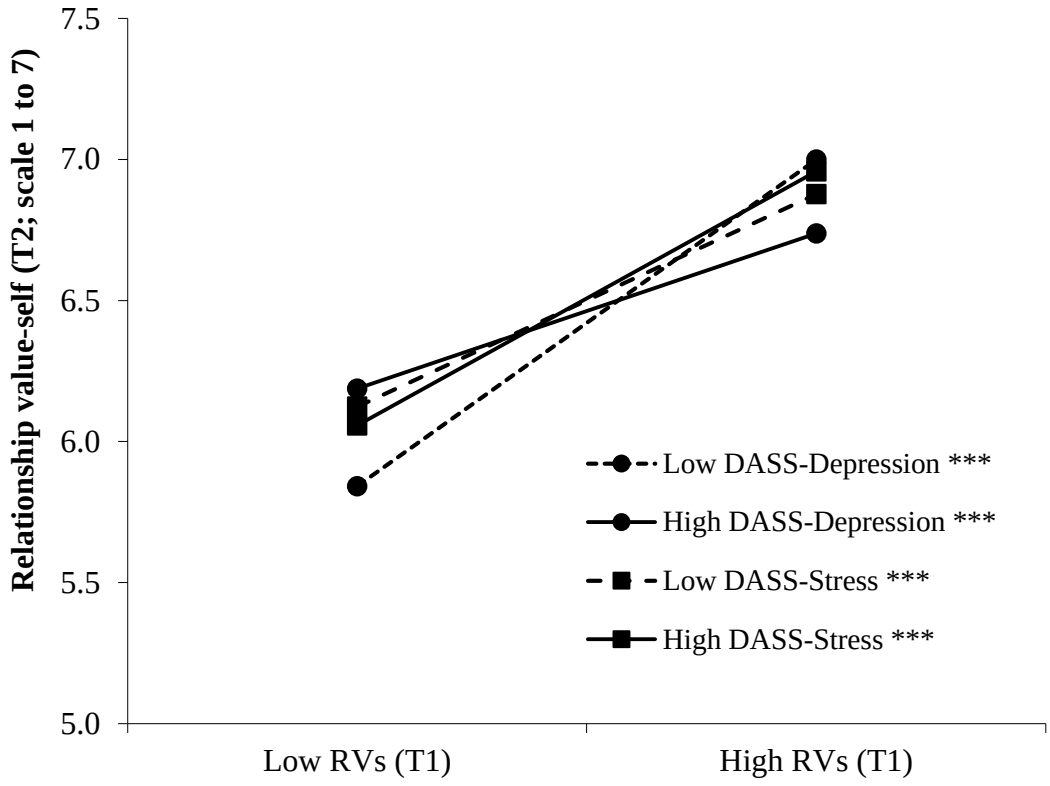
Note. RC = Relationship commitment; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: *M* = 8.31; *SD* = 1.19; DASS-Anxiety: *M* = 6.79, *SD* = 6.60; DASS-Stress: *M* = 13.48, *SD* = 9.18.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Anx}} = RC_{T1}(.479) + 7.89$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Anx}} = RC_{T1}(.650) + 7.50$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Str}} = RC_{T1}(.501) + 7.75$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Str}} = RC_{T1}(.672) + 7.60$
** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure R12. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Anxiety, DASS-Stress, and Relationship Satisfaction at Time 1 on Relationship Satisfaction at 6-Month Follow-Up (Both Sexes; n = 122)



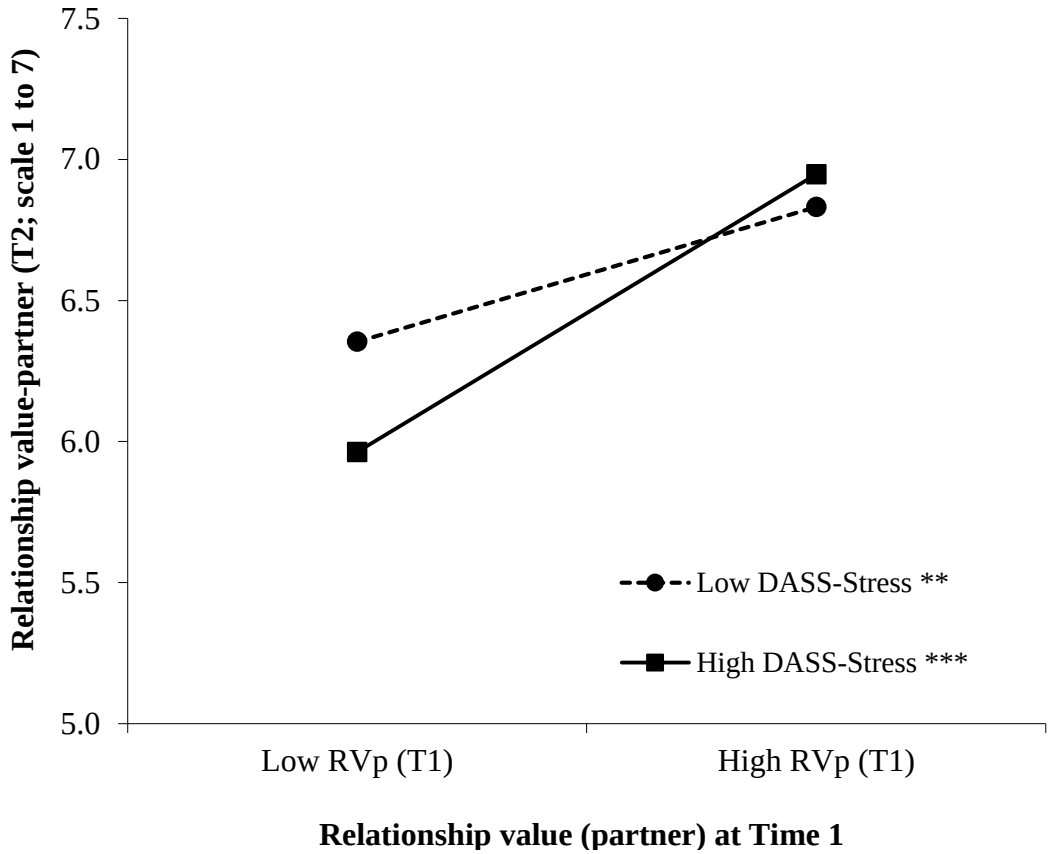
Note. RS = Relationship satisfaction; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RS: M = 6.21; SD = .90; DASS-Anxiety: M = 6.79, SD = 6.60; DASS-Stress: M = 13.48, SD = 9.18.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Anx}} = RS_{T1}(.538) + 5.84$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Anx}} = RS_{T1}(.447) + 5.66$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Str}} = RS_{T1}(.419) + 5.81$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Str}} = RS_{T1}(.563) + 5.72$
*** $p < .001$.

Figure R13. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Depression, DASS-Stress, and Relationship Value-Self at Time 1 on Relationship Value-Self at 6-Month Follow-Up (Both Sexes; *n* = 122)



Note. RVs = Relationship value-self; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVs: *M* = 6.62; *SD* = .86; DASS-Depression: *M* = 8.72, *SD* = 7.93; DASS-Stress: *M* = 13.48, *SD* = 9.18.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Dep}} = RVs_{T1}(.786) + 6.18$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Dep}} = RVs_{T1}(.321) + 6.33$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Str}} = RVs_{T1}(.439) + 6.31$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Str}} = RVs_{T1}(.525) + 6.28$
*** $p < .001$.

Figure R14. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Stress and Relationship Value-Partner at Time 1 on Relationship Value-Partner at 6-Month Follow-Up (Both Sexes; n = 122)



Note. RVp = Relationship value-partner; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVp: M = 6.58; SD = .80; DASS-Stress: M = 13.48, SD = 9.18.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Stress}} = RVp_{T1}(.297) + 6.46$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Stress}} = RVp_{T1}(.613) + 6.18$
** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Appendix R2

Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Males' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1

Regression models for each sex were the same as those used for the sex-specific regressions for SIAS and SPS scores, with the exception that sex was excluded as a predictor. Regression results for male participants (provided in Table R2) revealed only one significant predictor: a DASS-Stress by relationship value-self (T1) interaction, which predicted how much they valued their relationships at follow-up, $\beta = .693$, $t(26) = 2.46$, $p = .021$. An analysis of simple effects could not be conducted on male participants because the sample sizes were too small for the low value-self group (n = 12) as well as the high DASS-Stress group (n = 10). A DASS-Stress by relationship value-self interaction also trended toward significance ($p = .032$).

Table R2. *Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Males' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 33)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		Total
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
RC (T2)		.26***		.12		*.19**	*.47****
RC (T1)	.53***		.50**		*.16*		
DASS-Dep			–.31		*–.39*†		
DASS-Anx			.17		*.32*		
DASS-Str			–.16		*–.30*		
DASS-Dep x RC					*.44*		
DASS-Anx x RC					*–.54*†		
DASS-Str x RC					*.43*		
RS (T2)		.05		–.05		*.12*	*.05*
RS (T1)	.29		.32		*.33*		
DASS-Dep			.14		*.18*		
DASS-Anx			.20		*.30*		
DASS-Str			–.16		*–.40*		
DASS-Dep x RS					*.06*		
DASS-Anx x RS					*–.42*		
DASS-Str x RS					*.51*		
RVs (T2)		.20**		–.04		*.18*	*.27*†
RVs (T1)	.47**		.45*		*.43*†		
DASS-Dep			.14		*.28*		
DASS-Anx			.09		*.02*		
DASS-Str			–.25		*–.49*†		
DASS-Dep x RVs					*–.52*†		
DASS-Anx x RVs					*–.21*		
DASS-Str x RVs					*–.69**		
RVp (T2)		.32***		–.03		*–.03*	*.24*†
RVp (T1)	.59***		.61***		*.74**		
DASS-Dep			–.19		*–.45*		
DASS-Anx			.11		*.25*		
DASS-Str			–.05		*.00*		
DASS-Dep x RVp					*.41*		
DASS-Anx x RVp					*–.24*		
DASS-Str x RVp					*–.02*		

Note. DASS-Dep = DASS – Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value–self; RVp = Relationship value–partner. Values in italics are inflated due to small sample size; caution is warranted while interpreting these data.
[a]$df = 32$; [b]$df = 29$; [c]$df = 26$.
[†] $p < .05$. [*] $p < .025$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.

Appendix R3

Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Females' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1

For female participants (see Table R3 below), their ratings of relationship commitment at follow-up were predicted by a series of two-way interactions. First, relationship commitment at Time 1 interacted with DASS-Depression to predict females' commitment at follow-up, β = -1.201, $t(82) = -4.25$, $p < .001$. Subsequent analyses uncovered that females who were both weakly committed at Time 1 and who reported higher levels of depressive symptoms reported being more committed to their relationships at follow-up, β = .462, $t(81) = 2.58$, $p = .012$, compared to females who were weakly committed but less depressed, β = .795, $t(82) = 4.44$, $p < .001$. Conversely, females who were highly committed and more depressed at Time 1 reported lower levels of commitment at follow-up compared to their less depressed counterparts (see Figure R31). There was also an interaction between relationship commitment at Time 1 and DASS-Anxiety, β = -.303, $t(82) = -2.28$, $p = .025$. Only one simple effect emerged from the interaction: highly anxious females who were weakly committed at Time 1 reported lower levels of commitment at follow-up, β = .664, $t(82) = 3.52$, $p < .001$, compared to less anxious females, β = .237, $t(82) = 1.32$, $p = .189$, an effect opposite of what was found for depression (see Figure R32). DASS-Stress also interacted with relationship commitment at Time 1 to predict commitment at follow-up, β = .985, $t(82) = 4.82$, $p < .001$. Similar to what was found for highly anxious females, highly stressed females who were also less committed to their relationships at Time 1 reported lower levels of relationship commitment at follow up, β = .647, $t(82) = 3.40$, $p = .001$, compared to their less stressed counterparts, β = .466, $t(82) = 2.52$, $p = .014$ (see Figure R32). Similar effects emerged from an interaction between females' DASS-Stress scores and their relationship value-self ratings at Time 1, β = .468, $t(82) = 2.53$, $p = .013$. Specifically, females who were weakly committed and highly stressed at Time 1 reported lower levels of relationship value at Time 2, β = .498, $t(82) = 4.44$, $p < .001$, compared to less stressed females, β = .427, $t(82) = 3.36$, $p = .001$ (see Figure R33). Finally, relationship value-partner ratings at Time 1 interacted with DASS-Stress to predict value-partner ratings follow-up, β = .384, $t(82) = 2.23$, $p = .028$. A simple effect of relationship value-partner emerged for highly stressed females, β = .611, $t(82) = 4.10$, $p < .001$, but not for less stressed females, β = .178, $t(82) = 1.22$, $p = .228$ (see Figure R34).

To further probe how females' relationship commitment is affected by depression, anxiety, and stress, I also ran regressions using each DASS subscale score and the four relationship quality indicators from Time 1 to predict relationship commitment at follow up. For these regressions, I entered each of the four relationship quality indicators into block 1 along with the DASS subscale being tested, and then the four 2-way interactions between the DASS subscale and each of the four relationship quality indicators into Block 2. For the DASS-Depression subscale, only the interaction between the DASS-D and relationship commitment was significant (refer again to Figure R31). However, the results for the Anxiety and Stress subscales were quite different. First, the Anxiety subscale interacted with value-self ratings at Time 1 to predict commitment at follow up, β = .374, $t(82) = 2.63$, $p = .010$. A more in-depth analysis revealed that anxious females who valued their relationships less at Time 1 were

significantly less committed to their relationships at follow up, β = .794, $t(82) = 5.53$ $p < .001$, compared to females who were less anxious, β = -.040, $t(82) = -.200$, $p = .842$ (see Figure R35). Second, the Stress subscale interacted with value-self ratings at Time 1 to predict commitment at follow up, β = .486, $t(82) = 3.11$, $p = .003$. Through simple effects analysis, a picture emerged that was similar to what was found for anxiety: highly stressed females who valued their relationships less at Time 1 were much less committed to their relationships at follow up, β = .682, $t(82) = 4.59$, $p < .001$, compared to females who were less stressed, β = .333, $t(82) = 2.10$, $p = .039$ (see Figure R35). Simple effects for Anxiety and Stress could not conducted due to small sample size of females in the low value-self group (n = 14).

Table R3. *Hypothesis 5c: Regressions Examining Females' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Quality at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Quality at Time 1 (n = 89)*

	Block 1[a]		Block 2[b]		Block 3[c]		
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
RC (T2)		.33***		.00		.19***	.49***
RC (T1)	.58***		.59**		1.22***		
DASS-Dep			.08		.52**		
DASS-Anx			–.02		.07		
DASS-Str			–.02		–.59***		
DASS-Dep x RC					**–1.20***		
DASS-Anx x RC					–.30*		
DASS-Str x RC					.99***		
RS (T2)		.26***		–.01		.05	.27***
RS (T1)	.52***		.52***		.42***		
DASS-Dep			–.10		–.15		
DASS-Anx			.06		.21		
DASS-Str			.06		–.01		
DASS-Dep x RS					–.08		
DASS-Anx x RS					–.30		
DASS-Str x RS					.29		
RVs (T2)		.21***		–.02		.06	.24***
RVs (T1)	.47***		.46***		.38**		
DASS-Dep			–.18		.01		
DASS-Anx			.15		.20		
DASS-Str			.04		–.23		

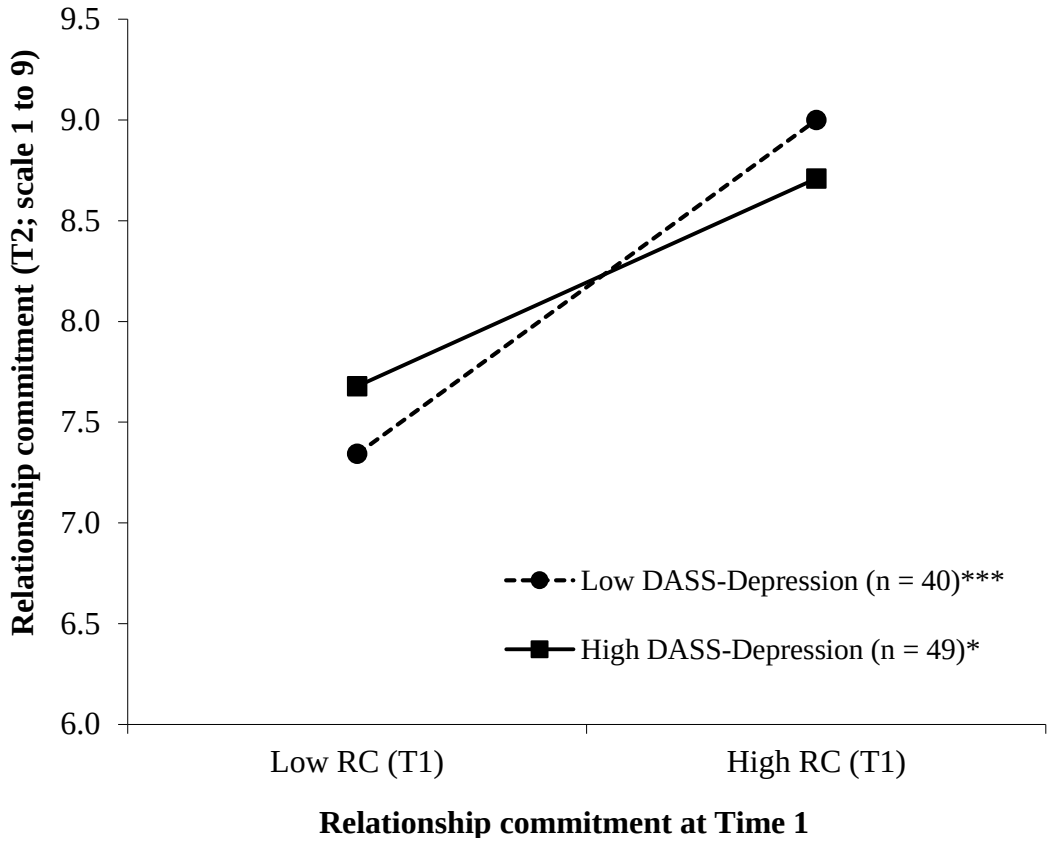
	β	R^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	Total R^2
DASS-Dep x RVs					–.32		
DASS-Anx x RVs					–.13		
DASS-Str x RVs					.47*		
RVp (T2)		.14***		.04		.08†	.19***
RVp (T1)	.38***		.35***		.27†		
DASS-Dep			–.26		–.24		
DASS-Anx			–.02		–.01		
DASS-Str			.22		.05		
DASS-Dep x RVp					–.10		
DASS-Anx x RVp					.00		
DASS-Str x RVp					.38†		

Note. DASS-Dep = DASS – Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score; RC = Relationship commitment; RS = Relationship satisfaction; RVs = Relationship value–self; RVp = Relationship value–partner. Values in bold indicate evidence of multicollinearity (tolerance below .100; variance inflation factors (VIFs) greater than 8); caution is warranted while interpreting these data.

[a]$df = 88$; [b]$df = 84$; [c]$df = 81$.

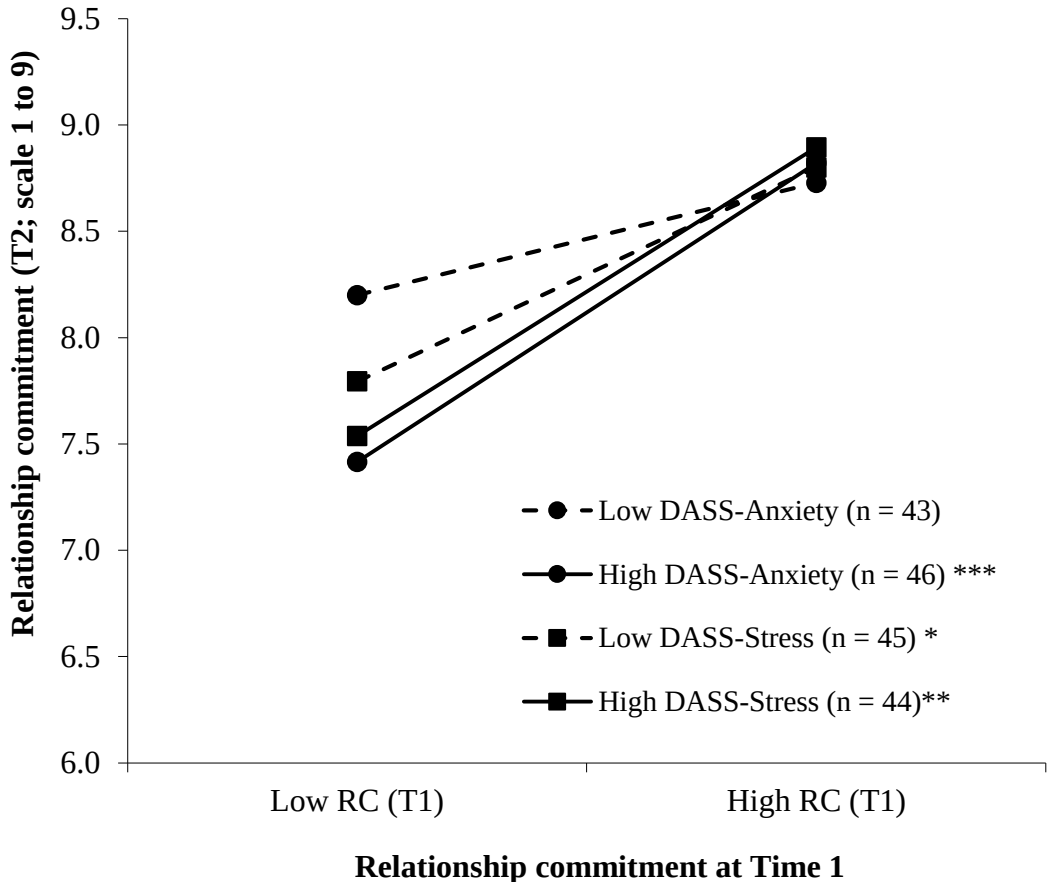
† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure R31. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of Females' DASS-Depression subscale scores and Relationship Commitment at Time 1 on Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (*n* = 89)



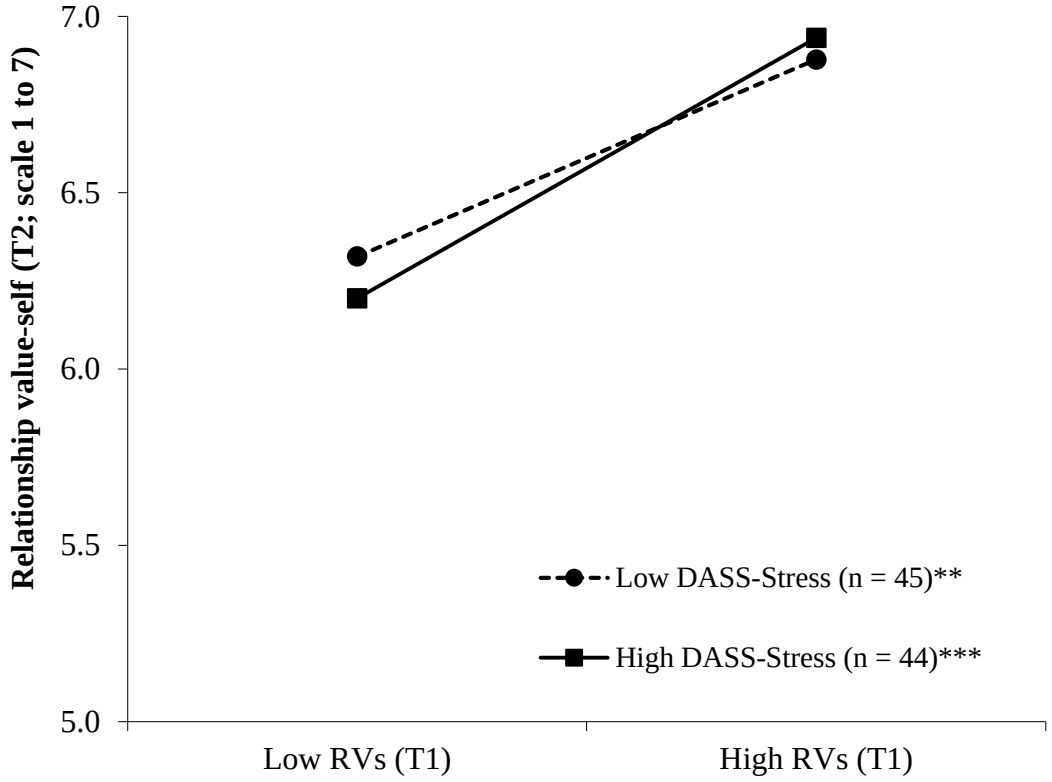
Note. RC = Relationship commitment; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: *M* = 8.40; *SD* = 1.12; DASS-Depression: *M* = 9.64, *SD* = 8.23.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Dep}} = RC_{T1}(.795) + 7.55$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Dep}} = RC_{T1}(.462) + 7.80$
* $p < .025$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure R32. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Anxiety, DASS-Stress, and Relationship Commitment at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (*n* = 89)



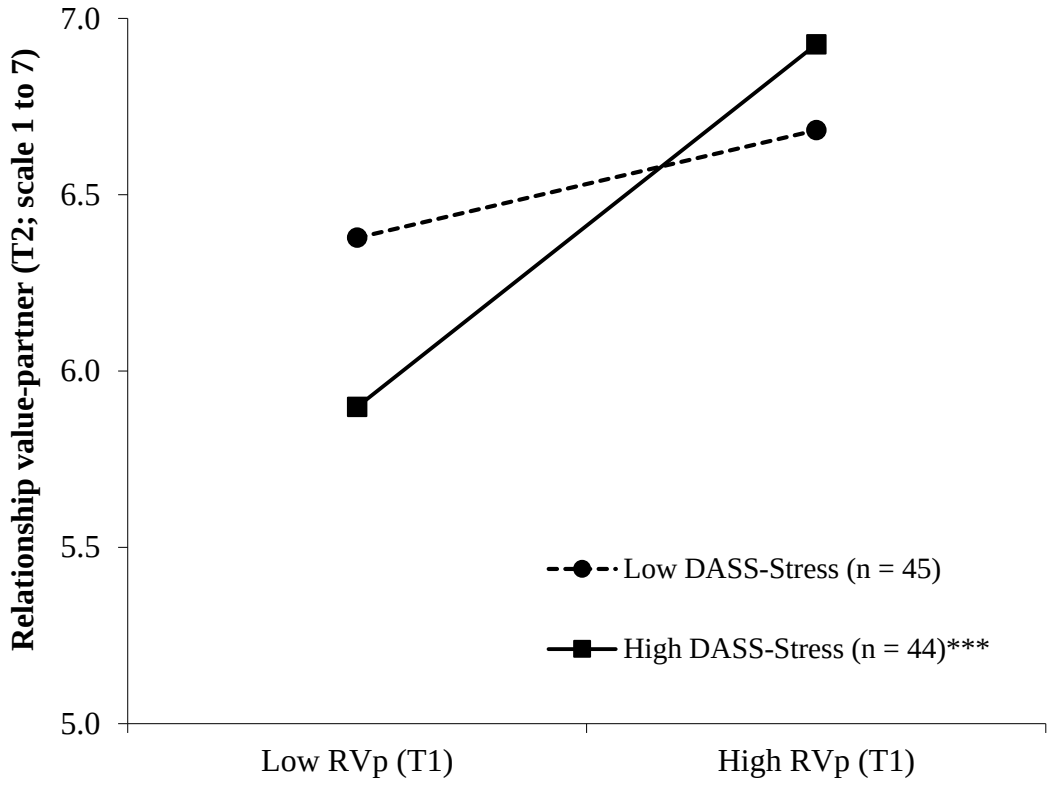
Note. RC = Relationship commitment; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RC: *M* = 8.40; *SD* = 1.12; DASS-Anxiety: *M* = 7.39, *SD* = 7.05; DASS-Stress: *M* = 14.65, *SD* = 9.89.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Anx}} = RC_{T1}(.237) + 8.26$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Anx}} = RC_{T1}(.630) + 7.58$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Str}} = RC_{T1}(.451) + 7.91$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Str}} = RC_{T1}(.608) + 7.70$
* $p < .025$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure R33. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Stress and Relationship Value-Self at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Value-Self at 6-Month Follow-Up (*n* = 89)



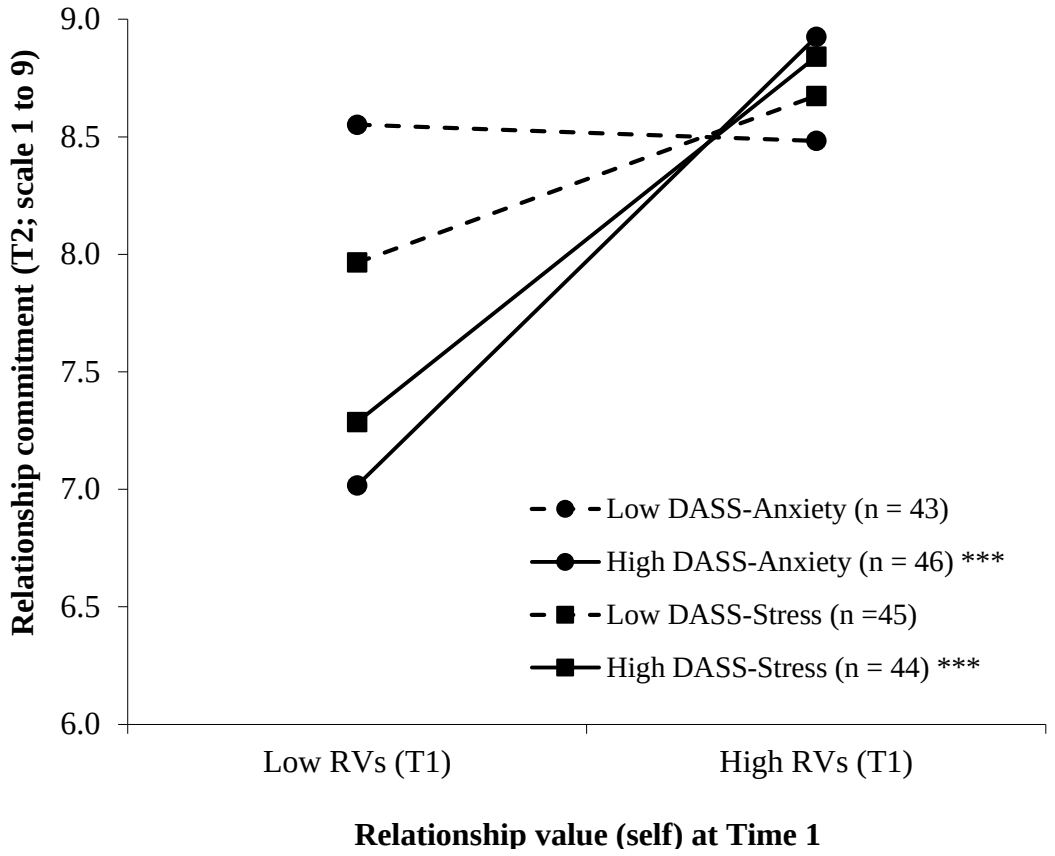
Note. RVs = Relationship value-self; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVs: *M* = 6.71; *SD* = .80; DASS-Stress: *M* = 14.65, *SD* = 9.89.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Str}} = RVs_{T1}(.349) + 6.42$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Str}} = RVs_{T1}(.462) + 6.33$
** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure R34. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Stress and Relationship Value-Partner at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Value-Partner at 6-Month Follow-Up (n = 89)



Note. RVp = Relationship value-partner; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVp: M = 6.56; SD = .84; DASS-Stress: M = 14.65, SD = 9.89.
$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Str}} = RVp_{T1}(.181) + 6.45$
$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Str}} = RVp_{T1}(.611) + 6.15$
*** $p < .001$.

Figure R35. Hypothesis 5c: Effects of DASS-Anxiety, DASS-Stress, and Relationship Value-Self at Time 1 on Females' Relationship Commitment at 6-Month Follow-Up (*n* = 89)



Note. RVs = Relationship value-self; DASS = Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. Low and high values for all predictors were graphed at 1 SD below and above the mean, respectively; RVs: *M* = 6.71; *SD* = .80; DASS-Anxiety: *M* = 7.39, *SD* = 7.05; DASS-Stress: *M* = 14.65, *SD* = 9.89.

$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Anx}} = RVs_{T1}(-.041) + 8.54$

$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Anx}} = RVs_{T1}(1.13) + 7.48$

$\hat{Y}_{\text{LowDASS-Str}} = RVs_{T1}(.421) + 8.14$

$\hat{Y}_{\text{HighDASS-Str}} = RVs_{T1}(.923) + 7.66$

*** $p < .001$.

Appendix S1

Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (Full T2 Sample)

Consistent with the regression procedure used in the latter half of Hypothesis 5b, SIAS and SPS scores were also assessed for their predictive potential, but this time for predicting relationship break-up at follow-up instead of relationship quality. Regression results on the full sample (provided in Table S1 below) uncovered two small main effects for both SIAS, B = -.058, $Wald(1) = 5.27$, $p = .022$, and SPS (marginal), $B = .042$, $Wald(1) = 3.28$, $p = .070$, which resulted in a slight model improvement, from 74.8% to 76.1%.

Table S1. *Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Interactions at Time 1 as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (Full T2 Sample; N = 163)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 18.64^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(b)} = 5.81^{*}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 3.40$		$\Delta\chi^{2(b)} = 5.72^{*}$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 33.57^{***}$
	B[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	
Constant	–.87***	.42	–.88***	.42	–.91***	.40	–.80	.45	
PS[§]	–.33	.72	–.26	.77	–.16	.85	–.61***	.54	
RC	–.33	.72	–.54***	.58	–.51***	.60	–.61	.89	
SIAS			–.06*	.94	–.07	.93	–.12	1.10	
SPS			.04†	1.04	.07	1.07	.09	1.06	
SIAS x PS					.01	1.01	.06	.95	
SPS x PS					–.03	.97	–.05	.85	
SIAS x RC					–.03	.97	–.16†	1.12	
SPS x RC					.03	1.03	.11	1.16	
SIAS x PS x RC							.15†	.91	
SPS x PS x RC							–.09	.45	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale; SPS = Social Phobia scale.

[a]df (*Wald*) = 1, N = 163; [b]df (χ^2) = 2; [c]df (χ^2) = 4; [d]df (χ^2) = 10.

§ Female participants; Base (0) = male participants.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix S2

Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regressions Examining Males' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Two-Way Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 44)

The predictive potential of the individual SIAS and SPS scores were also tested within each sex independently. For male participants, neither SIAS nor SPS scores were significant in predicting break-up (see Table S2 below).

Table S2. *Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regressions Examining Males' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Two-Way Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 44)*

Male participants[a]	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 8.16^{**}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = .46$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 7.83^{*}$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 16.45^{**}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	–1.22**	.29	–1.13†	.32	–1.73†	.18	
RC	–.61**	.55	–.63**	.53	–1.04	.35	
SIAS			–.04	1.04	–.12	.89	
SPS			.03	.32	.07	1.07	
SIAS x RC					–.16	.86	
SPS x RC					.09	1.09	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale; SPS = Social Phobia Scale.

[a]df (*Wald*) = 1, $N = 44$; [b]df (χ^2) = 1; [c]df (χ^2) = 2; [d]df (χ^2) = 5.

† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix S3

Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regressions Examining Females' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Two-Way Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 119)

The predictive potential of the individual SIAS and SPS scores were also tested within each sex independently. For female participants, there was a significant main effect for SIAS, B = -.067, $Wald(1) = 5.12$, p = .024, OR = .94, (95% CI [.898, .992]). Specifically, females who scored above 35 (66th percentile) on the SIAS were 81% more likely to have broken up at Time 2 than those who scored at the mean or below (see Table S3 below).

A more in-depth analysis uncovered a number of simple effects. For females who scored high on the SIAS, there was a simple effect of relationship commitment, B = -.523, $Wald(1) = 6.37$, p = .012, OR = .59 (95% CI [.395, .890]), relationship satisfaction (marginal), B = -.600, $Wald(1) = 4.55$, p = .033, OR = .55 (95% CI [.317, .953]), and relationship value-self (marginal), B = -.656, $Wald(1) = 4.53$, p = .030, OR = .52 (95% CI [.283, .950]), but not for relationship value-partner (p = .174). Specifically, females who scored higher on the SIAS were approximately 41% more likely to have broken up for every point lower they scored on the relationship commitment scale, 45% more likely for every point lower on the satisfaction scale, 48% more likely for every point lower on the value-self scale. There were no significant simple effects for females who scored below the median on the SIAS (all ps > .025).

The findings were similar for the SPS. For females who scored above the median on the SPS, there was a simple effect of relationship commitment, B = -.470, $Wald(1) = 4.95$, p = .026, OR = .63 (95% CI [.413, .946]), and relationship satisfaction (marginal), B = -.628, $Wald(1) = 4.43$, p = .035, OR = .53 (95% CI [.297, .958]). This time however, the relationship value-self scale was not significant in predicting break-up for high-SPS females (p = .051), nor was the relationship value-partner scale (p = .152). In sum, females who scored higher on the SIAS were approximately 37% more likely to have broken up for every point lower they scored on the relationship commitment scale and 47% more likely for every point lower on the satisfaction scale. Again, there were no significant simple effects for females who scored below the median on the SPS (all ps > .025).

Table S3. *Hypothesis 6c: Logistic Regressions Examining Females' Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) Score, Social Phobia Scale (SPS) Score, and Two-Way Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 119)*

Female participants[a]	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 10.74^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 5.90^{\dagger}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 1.13$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 17.77^{**}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	$-.88^{***}$	.41	$-.91^{***}$	.40	$-.83^{**}$	.44	
RC	$-.47^{**}$	.63	$-.49^{**}$	.61	$-.55^{**}$	.58	
SIAS			$-.07^{*}$	.94	$-.64^{\dagger}$	.94	
SPS			.05	1.05	.04	1.04	
SIAS x RC					−.01	.99	
SPS x RC					.02	1.02	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; SIAS = Social Interaction Anxiety Scale; SPS = Social Phobia Scale.

[a]df (*Wald*) = 1, N = 119; [b]df (χ^2) = 1; [c]df (χ^2) = 2; [d]df (χ^2) = 5.

$^{\dagger}p < .05$. $^{*}p < .025$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Appendix T1

Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (Full T2 Sample)

Individual DASS subscale scores were also tested for predicting relationship dissolution in the full sample. No main or interaction effects were found to be significant in predicting break-up (see Table T1 below).

Table T1. *Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regression Examining Participant Sex, Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Score, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (Full T2 Sample; N = 163)*

	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 18.64^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 3.94$		$\Delta\chi^{2(d)} = 3.61$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 4.85$		$\chi^{2(e)} = 31.04^{**}$
	B[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	*B*[a]	*OR*	
Constant	−.87***	.42	−.87***	.42	.15	.40	.20	1.23	
PS§	−.33	.72	−.29	.75	−1.32	.85	−1.52***	.22	
RC	−.33	.72	−.46***	.63	−.49	.60	−.33	.72	
DASS-Dep			.03	1.03	.10	.93	.07	1.07	
DASS-Anx			.05	1.05	.05	1.07	.09	1.09	
DASS-Str			−.04	.96	−.08	1.01	−.10	.91	
DASS-Dep x PS					−.10	.97	−.10	.91	
DASS-Anx x PS					.00	1.03	−.01	.99	
DASS-Str x PS					.04	.94	.06	1.06	
DASS-Dep x RC					.00	.94	−.03	.97	
DASS-Anx x RC					−.02	.94	.03	1.03	
DASS-Str x RC					.03	.94	−.04	.97	
DASS-Dep x PS x RC							.07	1.07	
DASS-Anx x PS x RC							−.08	.92	
DASS-Str x PS x RC							−.07	1.07	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; PS = Participant sex; RC = Relationship commitment; DASS-Dep = DASS – Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.
[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 163; [b]*df* (χ^2) = 2; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 3; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 6; [e]*df* (χ^2) = 14.
§ Female participants; Base (0) = male participants.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix T2

Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regressions Examining Males' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 44)

Individual DASS subscale scores were also tested for predicting relationship dissolution in each sex independently. Similar to what was found in the full sample, none of the DASS subscales was significant in predicting break-up in male participants (see Table T2 below).

Table T2. *Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regressions Examining Males' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 44)*

Male participants[a] (n = 44)	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 8.16^{**}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 3.56$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 1.58$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 13.30$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	−1.22**	.29	−1.21**	.30	−1.36**	.26	
RC	−.61**	.55	−.52†	.60	−.44	.65	
DASS-Dep			.09	1.10	.07	1.07	
DASS-Anx			.08	1.09	.09	1.09	
DASS-Str			−.09	.91	−.10	.91	
DASS-Dep x RC					−.03	.97	
DASS-Anx x RC					.03	1.03	
DASS-Str x RC					−.04	.96	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; DASS-Dep = Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.

[a]*df* (*Wald*) = 1, *N* = 44; [b]*df* (χ^2) = 1; [c]*df* (χ^2) = 3; [d]*df* (χ^2) = 7.

† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix T3

Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regressions Examining Females' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 119)

Individual DASS subscale scores were also tested for predicting relationship dissolution in each sex independently. Simple effects analyses for female participants uncovered a number of specific effects (see Table T3 below). First, for females who scored above the median on the DASS-Depression scale, there were simple effects for relationship commitment, B = -.439, $Wald(1) = 5.82$, $p = .016$, $OR = .64$ (95% CI [.451, .921]), and relationship satisfaction, B = -.603, $Wald(1) = 5.30$, $p = .021$, $OR = .55$ (95% CI [.327, .914]). The relationship value-self scale was not significant in predicting break-up for high-SPS females ($p = .050$), nor was the relationship value-partner scale ($p = .748$). In sum, females who scored higher on the DASS-Depression scale were approximately 36% more likely to have broken up for every point lower they scored on the relationship commitment scale and 45% more likely for every point lower on the satisfaction scale. Again, there were no significant simple effects for females who scored below the median on the SPS (all ps > .025.

Interestingly, for the DASS-Anxiety scale, simple effects emerged only for females who scored *below* the median on the scale. Specifically, there were simple effects for relationship commitment, B = -.522, $Wald(1) = 5.00$, $p = .025$, $OR = .59$ (95% CI [.376, .938]), relationship satisfaction, B = -.779, $Wald(1) = 5.68$, $p = .017$, $OR = .45$ (95% CI [.242, .871]), and relationship value-self, B = -.776, $Wald(1) = 5.22$, $p = .022$, $OR = .46$ (95% CI [.236, .896]). In sum, females who scored below the median on the DASS-Anxiety scale were approximately 41% more likely to have broken up for every point lower they scored on the relationship commitment scale, 55% more likely for every point lower on the satisfaction scale, and 54% more likely for every point lower on the value-self scale. Again, the relationship value-partner scale was not significant in predicting break-up for low-DASS-Anxiety females ($p = .723$). All predictors were insignificant for high-DASS-Anxiety females (all ps > .025).

For the DASS-Stress scale, simple effects arose only for females who scored above the median on the DASS-Stress scale. Specifically, simple effects emerged for relationship commitment, B = -.419, $Wald(1) = 4.80$, $p = .028$, $OR = .66$ (95% CI [.452, .957]), and relationship satisfaction, B = -.549, $Wald(1) = 4.80$, $p = .028$, $OR = .58$ (95% CI [.353, .944]). The relationship value-self scale was not significant in predicting break-up for high-DASS-Stress females ($p = .035$), nor was the relationship value-partner scale ($p = .691$). In sum, females who scored higher on the DASS-Stress scale were approximately 34% more likely to have broken up for every point lower they scored on the relationship commitment scale and 42% more likely for every point lower on the satisfaction scale. Again, there were no significant simple effects for females who scored below the median on the DASS-Stress scale (all ps > .025).

Table T3. *Hypothesis 6d: Logistic Regressions Examining Females' Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) Subscale Scores, and Interactions as Predictors of Relationship Break-Up at 6-Month Follow-Up, Controlling for Relationship Commitment at Time 1 (n = 119)*

Female participants[a]	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Total
	$\chi^{2(b)} = 10.74^{***}$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 2.21$		$\Delta\chi^{2(c)} = 4.89$		$\chi^{2(d)} = 17.83^{*}$
	B	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	*B*	*OR*	
Constant	–.88***	.41	–.88***	.41	–.78**	.46	
RC	–.47**	.63	–.43**	.65	–.96†	.38	
DASS-Dep			.00	1.00	–.02	.98	
DASS-Anx			.05	1.05	.08	.96	
DASS-Str			–.02	.98	–.04	1.04	
DASS-Dep x RC					.04	.95	
DASS-Anx x RC					.04	1.03	
DASS-Str x RC					.04	.46	

Note. OR = Odds Ratio; RC = Relationship commitment; DASS-Dep = Depression subscale score; DASS-Anx = DASS Anxiety subscale score; DASS-Str = DASS Stress subscale score.

[a]df (*Wald*) = 1, N = 119; [b]df (χ^2) = 1; [c]df (χ^2) = 3; [d]df (χ^2) = 7.

† $p < .05$. * $p < .025$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.