THE POWER OF PHOTOGRAPHS: EFFECTS OF RELATIONSHIP AWARENESS ON
RELATIONSHIP OUTCOMES

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A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

University of Houston

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In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

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By

Julie A. Brunson

December, 2011

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ABSTRACT

The present study attempts to provide an experimental manipulation of relationship awareness incorporating methods and theory from self-awareness research. Participants completed a series of baseline measures, and then their levels of relationship awareness and self-awareness were manipulated by exposing them to photographs of themselves with their partners (relationship awareness condition), photographs of just themselves (self-awareness condition), or still-life photographs (control condition). Results suggest that the manipulation of relationship awareness was successful, but only for those in shorter relationships, while the manipulation of self-awareness was unsuccessful. Results were also conceptualized in terms of implicit and explicit relationship awareness, with implicit relationship awareness more common in older individuals and explicit relationship awareness more common in younger individuals, supporting past work. Results are discussed in terms of explicit and implicit relationship awareness and their patterns across the lifespan.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

To Phil, my biggest supporter

The Power of Photographs: Effects of Relationship Awareness on Relationship

Outcomes

In the past several decades, a great deal of psychological interest has been focused on the concept of the self, with one particularly prominent new theory in this area being self-awareness theory (Duval & Wicklund, 1972; Gibbons, 1990). Self-awareness theory has had numerous implications for many different areas in social psychology, including social facilitation, conformity, aggression, deindividuation, adjustment, and emotional experience (Fejfar & Hoyle, 2000). However, there has not been a great deal of research that has examined the relation between self-awareness and close relationships, or, more specifically, how self-awareness theory relates to relationship awareness. The current study is designed to examine whether relationship awareness has the same implications for relationships as self-awareness does for the self.   What follows is an overview of self-awareness theory and relationship awareness along with its related concepts. Then other variables which may be relevant to the process of relationship awareness are discussed.

Self-Awareness Theory

Self-awareness theory is based on the idea that attention can be directed in only one of two directions at a time: inwardly (to the self) or outwardly (to the environment) (Duval & Wicklund, 1972). When attention is focused on the self by looking in a mirror or at a photograph, that person is theorized to be going through a process of self-evaluation. During this process, the individual will compare whatever aspect of his or her self that is most salient with a particular ideal self, and a discrepancy between the two will cause dissonance, discomfort, and in some cases depression (Fejfar & Hoyle, 2000; Pyszczynski & Greenberg,

1987). At this point, the person should either attempt to reduce the discrepancy or avoid the awareness of it (Duval & Wicklund, 1972).

Further revisions of the theory have delineated the process that is hypothesized to occur when an individual is self-aware (Gibbons, 1990). First, the increase in self-awareness leads to an increase in the accessibility of the self-schema, which is associated with increased accuracy and veridicality of self-reports. At this point, a process of self-evaluation occurs where a comparison is made between a relevant standard and any one of three hierarchical levels of the self: experiential (arousal and emotions), behavioral (standards of behavior), and global/evaluative (overall comparison with ideal self). Which level of the self is salient is dependent on the context of the situation. The behavioral and long-term consequences that result are reflective of the result of the comparison; for example, while self-aware, individuals who realize that they are not living up to their particular ideal standards for themselves are likely to demonstrate negative affect, avoidance, and possibly a long-term behavior change in an attempt to become more in line with the ideal (Gibbons, 1990). It is important to note that what the self is being compared to is not always or necessarily an ideal self. Instead it is a relevant standard or point of comparison (Carver & Scheier, 1981). Research has supported this idea of personal standards being relevant in the evaluative process, as the personal standards of truth and honesty influence the effects of self-awareness on lying and cheating (Gibbons & Gerrard, 1986; Wojciszke, 1987).

Relationship Awareness

It is possible that relationship awareness consists of a process and outcomes that are analogous to self-awareness, but before this point can be considered the basics of the concept of relationship awareness need to be introduced.   Relationship awareness refers to a person's

focusing attention on different aspects and interaction patterns of his or her relationship (Acitelli, 1992). This would include any thoughts about either the couple or the relationship itself. This is distinct from a relational schema because while a schema is a cognitive structure, relationship awareness instead refers to a process of thinking about how the couple relates to one another. Relationship awareness was introduced as a method by which to research the effects of thinking and talking about relationships, and so most of the research relating to relationship awareness has used relationship talk (statements that refer to interaction patterns, or comparisons or contrasts between partners in the relationship) as a means of measuring relationship awareness (Acitelli, 1992, 2002).

Relationship awareness has been shown to be related to marital and life satisfaction for wives but not husbands (Acitelli, 1992), a sense of equity in the relationship and decreases in depression for both men and women, and greater relationship satisfaction, greater feelings of competency in the relationship, feeling more cared for in the relationship, having less tension about their partner and their sexual relationship, and having less anxiety in general for women (Acitelli, 2002). Research has also shown that women engage in relationship talk (a manifestation of relationship awareness) and think about certain aspects of their relationship more often than men do (Acitelli & Young, 1996; Cate, Koval, Lloyd, Wilson, 1995). These findings suggest that relationship awareness can have a far-reaching effect on the quality of a relationship and its effects on the couple involved. However, there are still questions to be answered about many of these effects, partly because of the lack of experimental research conducted on them.

Relational Schemas and Relationship Ideals

In order to fully link relationship awareness to self-awareness, some additional concepts from social cognition and relationships need to be introduced. First is the notion of relational schemas, or cognitive structures that contain representations of regular patterns of interpersonal interactions (Baldwin, 1992). Baldwin suggests that just as people tend to have different *possible selves* which they are trying to attain (or avoid), people also have different *possible relationships*. For example, there may be a particular set of relatedness patterns that in the past resulted in some sort of positive outcome, so an individual may strive to recreate those patterns (or avoid conflicting patterns). This could be analogous to the idea of relationship ideals, or standards by which an individual will judge his or her relationships. Research has supported the concept of relationship ideals as cognitive constructs that vary across individuals in terms of how chronically accessible they are (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999).

Relationship Awareness and Self-Awareness

These possible connections between self-awareness theory and relationship awareness form the basis for the present study. If the process involved in self-awareness theory is applied to relationship awareness, then increased relationship awareness could increase the accessibility of an individual's relational schema. Increased accessibility, in turn, could activate relevant relationship ideals, which have previously been suggested to function as standards by which to judge a relationship (Fletcher, et al., 1999). Similar to self-awareness theory, comparison of one's own relationship to standards could lead to a variety of both short-term and long-term outcomes, depending on the result of the comparison.

4

Although relationship awareness has not previously been manipulated using mirrors or photographs, it makes conceptual sense that it could. If being placed in front of a mirror causes an individual to focus inwardly to him or herself, it seems possible that if a partner was to be focused on an image of the couple, it may also cause that person to focus inwardly, although not necessarily to the self as an individual, but to the relationship the partners share. As long as the image emphasizes the relationship of the couple (as opposed to their separate identities) or is related to something both people consider important to their relationship, viewing it should cause an increase in relationship awareness.

Interdependent Self-Construal

Another variable which may affect the outcomes of relationship awareness is the extent to which the individual's self-concept is linked to his or her social connections. The underlying principle guiding interdependent self-construal is the idea that an individual's social connections, which include roles, group memberships, and relationships, influence their view of themselves (Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Because of this, in order to enhance their view of the self, the individual will work to find ways to emphasize and strengthen relationships with others. Individuals with an interdependent self-construal are more likely to take others into account when making decisions, are more likely to self-disclose, and are more likely to develop and foster close relationships (Cross et al., 2000). The role of the other in the relationship will also be more important and more focal in behavior and consciousness (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Thus, it is expected that this type of self-construal will be positively related to relationship awareness.

Commitment

Level of commitment may also influence the effect of relationship awareness on an individual. The influence of commitment is illustrated in research which has shown that people in a committed relationship tend to form a couple identity, which includes the partner in the cognitive representation of the self (Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991; Whitton, Stanley, & Markman, 2007). They also tend to adopt an orientation in which what is viewed as best for the couple and for the individual are integrated, which is also known as the transference of motivation in interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Whitton et al., 2007). This orientation has been shown to relate to higher levels of relationship satisfaction (Williams-Baucom, Atkins, Sevier, Eldridge, & Christensen, 2010). Commitment has also been shown to predict many prorelationship maintenance behaviors as well as engagement in constructive behaviors while inhibiting destructive ones (Tran & Simpson, 2009).

Research has shown that higher levels of commitment buffers the negative effects of partner insecurities, such that these individuals feel more positive emotions and behave more constructively during a potential relationship threat (Tran & Simpson, 2009). Commitment may also work in a similar way in response to a discrepancy between the relationship and the ideal, such that individuals who are highly committed but not very satisfied may not report the hypothesized decreases in satisfaction with the relationship and positive affect after increased relationship awareness.

However, research on the investment model and interdependence theory suggests an opposite pattern. This research suggests that individuals who report low satisfaction but moderate commitment to their relationships demonstrate entrapment, which is characterized

by lower rewards and satisfaction but also a decrease in the quality of their alternatives (Rusbult, 1983). These individuals continue on in their unhappy relationships because they feel as though it is the best they can do at the time; they are trapped in their relationships due to a lack of suitable alternatives. In this case, increased relationship awareness could still lead to negative affect and lower reports of satisfaction, despite the higher levels of commitment, because the individual may be reminded of negative emotions associated with feeling trapped rather than positive emotions associated with the relationship (and thus the commitment to it). This study hopes to clarify the relationship between relationship awareness, relationship satisfaction, and commitment.

Model of Relationship Awareness

Based on this previous research, a new model of relationship awareness is proposed which will be tested in this study (See Figure 1). This model proposes that, similar to self-awareness, relationship awareness leads to an increase in access to the relational schema. This in turn leads to a comparison with the relationship ideal or standards, which are assumed to consist of a happy, satisfied relationship. In self-awareness theory, a comparison of the actual self to an ideal will always lead to a mismatch (and thus negative affect or avoidance) because of the difficulty in actually attaining those high standards for the self (Gibbons, 1990).
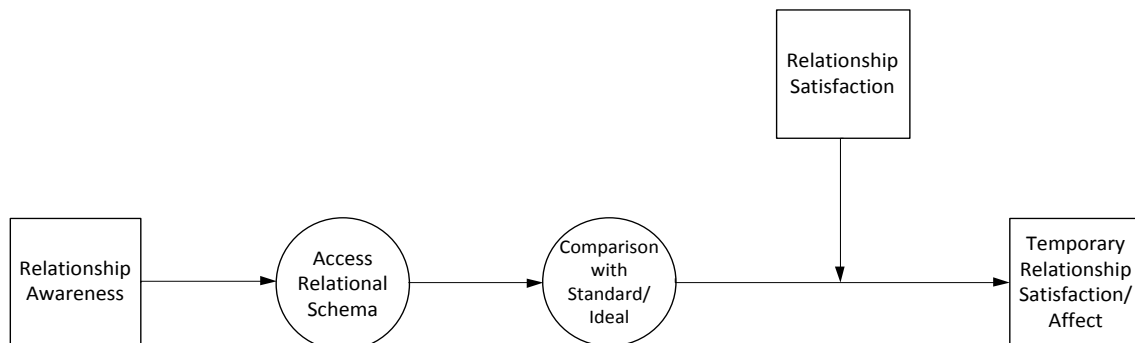

Figure 1: Proposed model of relationship awareness.

7

Although ideal standards of a relationship may be similarly difficult to attain, the comparison should not always result in a mismatch in the case of relationship awareness. Research on positive illusions in relationships (e.g., Murray, Holmes, & Griffin, 1996) has shown that individuals in satisfied relationships tend to downplay the negative aspects of their partners and see their partners (and, by extension, their relationships) as better than they are. In this case, it would be possible for an individual to perceive a match to his or her relationship ideal, and this should lead to increased positive affect and relationship satisfaction. If the actual relationship is not perceived as meeting the standards of the relationship ideal, then negative affect and low relationship satisfaction should follow.

Present Study: Hypotheses

Based on previous research on relationship awareness and self-awareness, I am testing the following hypotheses. First, because of the previously mentioned similarities between relationship awareness and self-awareness, it is hypothesized that exposure to photographs of one's self with a significant other will increase the level of relationship awareness in that individual (Hypothesis 1).

Second, the present study examines a possible moderator that may affect the role of relationship awareness on an individual. Because self-awareness involves a process where the relevant aspects of the self are compared to a standard or ideal, relationship awareness should work in much the same way, increasing access to relational schemas and relationship ideals. Because an individual who reports a low level of relationship satisfaction should experience dissonance when the relationship is compared to ideals, this person is expected to report negative affect and lower satisfaction with the relationship after relationship awareness. On the other hand, someone in a satisfied relationship should experience more

8

positive affect and feel more satisfied with the relationship after a comparison with ideals. In this way, global relationship satisfaction is hypothesized to moderate the effects of relationship awareness on later reports of both momentary relationship satisfaction (Hypothesis 2a) and mood (Hypothesis 2b).

Individuals who have a more interdependent self-construal are hypothesized to be more likely to demonstrate relationship awareness, regardless of condition (Hypothesis 3). Women are also expected to be more likely to demonstrate an interdependent self-construal (Hypothesis 4a) and relationship awareness (Hypothesis 4b). Individuals who are more committed to their relationships are expected to be more likely to demonstrate relationship awareness (Hypothesis 5). In addition, individuals who report greater satisfaction with their relationship are also hypothesized to be more likely to demonstrate relationship awareness (Hypothesis 6). Finally, individuals who score higher on a measure of the tendency to think about one's relationship are also expected to demonstrate higher levels of relationship awareness, because of the conceptual similarities between relationship thinking and relationship awareness (Hypothesis 7).

Method

Overview

Individuals either e-mailed or brought to the laboratory 4 photographs (2 of just themselves and 2 of themselves with their significant others) and completed some measures online prior to the study. When they arrived at the laboratory, they were told they were participating in a study on communication and interpersonal processes, and they first completed some preliminary questionnaires. The participants then completed a task where they looked at and described either the couple photographs (relationship awareness

condition), the photographs of the self (self-awareness condition), or two photographs of a still life (control condition). Afterwards, the participants completed several more measures and were then debriefed, thanked, and left.

Participants

Participants (n=68) consisted of undergraduate students recruited in psychology and computer science courses at the University of Houston. Participants who were enrolled in psychology courses received extra credit in those courses for their participation. In addition, participants who completed the survey during 2 particular semesters were entered in a drawing to win 2 $50 gift cards. The participants were required to be at least 18 years of age and currently in a romantic relationship of at least 3 months. In addition, they were required to provide the 4 photographs in order to participate.

Participants were predominantly female (49 women, 19 men) with ages ranging from 18 to 51 (mean = 22.88, SD = 5.56). The mean relationship length was 29.83 months, and most participants (82%) reported being in an exclusive dating relationship (10% reported being married and 7% reported being engaged). The ethnic breakdown of the sample was 37% Caucasian, 26% Hispanic, 20% Asian-American, 12% African-American, 3% multiracial, and 1% Native American.

Measures

Pre-experimental measures

Demographics. Participants completed a demographics questionnaire, which contained questions pertaining to general demographics as well as some basic information about their relationships (e.g., relationship length, relationship status). (See Appendix A)

Relationship satisfaction. Global relationship satisfaction was measured using the Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS; Hendrick, 1988).   The RAS consists of seven items that measure different aspects of relationship satisfaction. Sample items are "In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?" "How good is your relationship compared to most?" and "To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?" These questions are scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("not at all/extremely poor") to 7 ("a great deal/extremely good"). The average of all seven items was computed to create the relationship satisfaction score ($\alpha = .78$). (See Appendix B)

Commitment. Commitment was measured using the 7-item commitment subscale of the Investment Model Scale (IMS; Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998). Participants rate on a 9-point Likert scale (ranging from 0 = *do not agree at all* to 8 = *agree completely*) the extent to which they agree with certain statements, such as, "It is likely that I will date someone other than my partner within the next year" and "I am committed to maintaining my relationship with my partner".   Cronbach's alpha in the current study was .73. (See Appendix C)

Relationship awareness. Global relationship awareness was measured using 4 items from the Couples and Well-Being survey (Acitelli, 1997). These items ask participants to indicate how often they think about their relationship with their partner and how often they talk about their relationship with their partner using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *all the time*). Participants are also asked to indicate in the past two weeks how often they have thought about their relationship with their partner and how often they have talked about their relationship with their partner using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *every day*). Reliability for this measure was good ($\alpha = .86$). (See Appendix D)

Interdependent self-construal. Interdependent self-construal was measured using the 11-item Relational-Interdependent Self-Construal Scale (RISC; Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000). This scale measures an individual's tendency to think of oneself in terms of relationships with close others using questions such as, "My close relationships are an important reflection of who I am" and "In general, my close relationships are an important part of my self-image". Respondents rate their level of agreement with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The RISC has been shown to have high convergent validity, strong discriminant validity, and acceptable levels of internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha in this study was .71. (See Appendix E)

Relationship thinking. The tendency to think about one's relationship was included as an exploratory measure and was assessed using the Relationship Thinking Scale (RTS; Cate, Koval, Lloyd, & Wilson, 1995). Participants rate how characteristic certain statements are of them on a 6-point Likert scale (0 = *extremely uncharacteristic* to 5 = *extremely characteristic*). Sample items include, "I think about all of the fun my partner and I have had together" and "I wonder how my partner feels about our relationship". Reliability in the current study was good (α = .88). (See Appendix F)

Relational and couple identity. Relational and couple identity were measured assessed using from Acitelli, Rogers, and Knee (1999). These measures were embedded in a larger questionnaire covering various domains of identity. To assess relational identity, participants were asked to indicate whether certain terms (friendly, caring about others, friend, son/daughter) describe the way they think about themselves on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*extremely well*). They were also asked to indicate how important these terms were in describing the way they viewed themselves on a scale from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5

(*extremely important*). These items were averaged to create a score for relational identity. Couple identity was assessed in the same way, with participants indicating the extent to which they viewed themselves as being "part of a couple" and how important being "part of a couple" was to them, using the same 5-point scales described above. These items were averaged to create the couple identity score. For the current study, Cronbach's alpha for couple identity was .60 and .86 for relational identity. (See Appendix G)

Communication. In order to support the cover story and also to explore possible relations of communication to other measures, participants also took the 30-item La Trobe Communication Questionnaire (LCQ; Douglas, O'Flaherty, & Snow, 2000). The LCQ is designed to measure communication skills, including items such as, "When talking to others, do you hesitate, pause, or repeat yourself?" and "When talking to others, do you get 'side-tracked' by irrelevant parts of the conversation?" Items are scored on a 4-point Likert scale, from 1 (*usually or always*) to 4 (*never or rarely*). The total score was obtained by summing ratings across all items. The LCQ has been shown to have good internal consistency and good stability over an 8-week period. Cronbach's alpha for this study was .86. (See Appendix H)

Post-experimental measures

Relationship awareness. Momentary relationship awareness (as well as self-awareness) was measured using the Linguistic Implications Form (LIF; Wegner and Giuliano, 1980). The LIF is a sentence completion task in which participants choose one of three pronouns with which to complete the sentence. For example, in the sentence, "It isn't easy to get lost in this town, but somehow (*I, we, they*) managed it" participants could choose either "I", "we", or "they" to complete the sentence. The test is described as an investigation

of the redundancy of brief phrases and sentences, and the participants are informed that while all choices are grammatically correct, one choice may seem more so based on the information given in the rest of the sentence. The revised version of this form consists of 20 sentences in which participants can choose between first person singular, first person plural, or third person pronouns. The total number of responses in which the participant selects a first person plural pronoun (we, us, or our) is that person's score for relationship awareness. Likewise, the total number of responses in which the participant selects a first person singular pronoun (I, me, or my) is that person's self-awareness score. The LIF will also serve as a manipulation check to ensure that exposure to the couple photographs produced increased levels of relationship awareness and exposure to the self photographs produced increased levels of self-awareness. (See Appendix I)

Although this test is traditionally used as a measure of self-focus, previous research supports its use as a measure of relationship awareness. For example, Agnew, Van Lange, Rusbult, and Langston (1998) found that people who were in romantically committed relationships tended to spontaneously use more first person plural pronouns to describe the self and relationship. In addition, the use of pronouns such as "we" and "us" has been considered a part of relationship talk (a manifestation of implicit relationship awareness) in past research (e.g., Acitelli, 1988, 1992).

Relationship quality. The Perceived Relationship Quality Components (PRQC; Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000) was used to measure momentary relationship quality. The PRQC consists of 18 questions that measure six different dimensions of relationship quality: satisfaction, commitment, intimacy, trust, passion, and love. This measure has been modified to refer to the way participants feel right now about their relationships. Sample

items include "How satisfied are you with your relationship?" "How dedicated are you to your relationship?" "How close is your relationship?" and "How much do you love your partner?" Participants rate their current partner and relationship on a 7-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 7 = *extremely*). Items are averaged across all dimensions, with higher scores indicating greater perceived relationship quality. The PRQC has been shown to have good internal reliability (Fletcher et al., 2000) and good predictive validity (Kearns & Fincham, 2005; Shaver, Schachner, & Mikulincer, 2005). In this study, Cronbach's alpha ranged from .81 to .96 for the subscales, with an alpha of .97 for the global measure. (See Appendix J)

Affect. Positive and negative affect was measured using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellgren, 1988). The PANAS asks participants to describe to what extent they are currently feeling a variety of affective states (e.g., excited, scared) on a 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*) scale. The scale consists of 10 negative (α = .85) and 10 positive (α = .92) emotions. (See Appendix K)

Procedure

The participants signed up for the study online through the Sona system. After signing up, they received a link to an online version of some of the pre-experimental questionnaires (RAS, commitment level of the IMS, RISC, global relationship awareness, RTS, and relational identity). After completing these questionnaires, they were given a password which they used to sign up for a lab session timeslot. Each timeslot was for 45 minutes and included only one participant. The participants were instructed to sign up for a session that was approximately 1-2 weeks away.

At this point, the participants received an email with instructions on how to submit their photographs via email. The email asked the participants to send the photographs as soon as possible and also to reply back if they were planning on bringing hard copies of the photographs to the session. Reminder emails were sent to participants who had not submitted photographs approximately 1 week and, if necessary, 1 day before the scheduled session. However, many participants still did not submit photographs before the session or bring photographs to the session. These individuals were allowed to access photographs online (e.g., through Facebook) and email them to the specified email address. The participants were informed that they would receive all of their photographs back and that we would not keep any of their photographs.

Upon arriving to the laboratory for the lab session, participants were taken to a room where they completed the rest of the pre-experimental questionnaires (demographics, LCQ) online. When they completed these questionnaires, they were taken to a separate room where the experimental manipulation took place. They were told they were completing a communication task in order to investigate some of the general components of how people tend to communicate. They were asked to describe 2 photographs on a computer screen in such a way that someone who had never seen them could visualize them, including any people or places, the environment or background, and the context of the photograph. Participants were given 1 minute for each photograph to organize their thoughts and plan what they were going to say and then 1.5 minutes to verbally describe each photograph. A total of 5 minutes was devoted to the task as a whole. The participants were told to be as detailed as possible, and if they stopped describing the photograph before the time was up, they were prompted to keep going. Participants were randomly assigned to 1 of 3 conditions:

relationship awareness (2 photographs of the couple on the computer screen), self-awareness (2 photographs of the self on the computer screen), or control (2 still-life photographs on the computer screen). The participants saw and described the photographs that corresponded to their condition and did not see any of the other photographs. The photographs were approximately the same size and took up most of the computer screen.

The research assistant sat in the room with the participants while they completed the communication task. In order to support the cover story, notes were taken during the task. While these notes did not have anything to do with the way in which the individuals were communicating *per se,* they did include any unusual or unexpected responses or occurrences during the task which might be used to explain contrary findings later.

Upon completion of the communication task, the research assistant explained that the photographs the participants brought in would be used in a later part of the study, which needed to be set up now, in order to support the cover story. In the meantime, the participant was asked to complete the post-experimental questionnaires (LIF, PANAS, PRQC) in order to gain some more information on how people tend to communicate and use language. Once the participants were completed, they were debriefed, thanked, and left.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 provides zero-order correlations, means, and standard deviations for the main variables of interest. As shown, global relationship awareness was not significantly related with relationship awareness on the LIF, but was positively related to relationship thinking and positive affect and negatively related to self-awareness on the LIF. Relationship awareness on the LIF was significantly negatively related to self-awareness on the LIF (as would be expected) but not related to any of the other hypothesized variables. Relationship

thinking was positively related to pre-manipulation commitment and interdependent self-construal. Individuals who indicated high levels of commitment and relationship satisfaction prior to the manipulation were significantly more likely to report positive affect after the manipulation, and individuals who reported low levels of relationship satisfaction prior to the manipulation were more likely to report negative affect afterwards. Momentary relationship satisfaction (measured after the manipulation) was positively associated with commitment, global relationship satisfaction, and positive affect (and negatively related to negative affect). In general, individuals who were happy and committed in their relationships also tended to be happier after the manipulation, regardless of condition.

In addition, individuals who were older and in longer relationships also tended to have higher relationship awareness scores on the LIF (and thus lower self-awareness scores on the LIF), higher relationship thinking scores, and higher global relationship awareness. Individuals who were older (but not those who were in longer relationships) also tended to have lower levels of interdependent self-construal. Gender was not significantly correlated with any of the main variables of interest. Means and standard deviations for relationship awareness and self-awareness by condition are shown in Table 2.

Preliminary analyses also identified an outlier with rather extreme scores on relationship awareness on the LIF, age, and relationship length. Analyses were conducted both with and without the outlier, and the exclusion of the outlier typically did not significantly alter results. In addition, examination of the data does not indicate any reason why these values would not be valid, so reported results include the outlier. However, results that are different when the outlier is excluded are noted.

Table 1.

Zero-Order Correlations Among Primary Measures

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	M	SD
1. Relationship awareness (LIF)	---													7.00	2.65
2. Self-awareness (LIF)	-.74***	---												8.97	2.78
3. Interdependent self-construal	-.04	.06	---											61.54	8.76
4. Commitment (IMS)	-.02	.10	.17	---										7.08	1.08
5. Global relationship satisfaction (RAS)	.07	-.07	.17	.63***	---									4.28	0.58
6. Relationship thinking	.00	-.11	.24*	.26**	.03	---								3.48	0.82
7. Positive affect	.14	-.10	.05	.36***	.34***	.17	---							31.18	8.51
8. Negative affect	.00	.10	.00	-.11	-.23*	.10	-.24**	---						13.82	4.96
9. Global relationship awareness	.19	-.16	.14	.07	.05	.41***	.21*	.02	---					4.07	0.73
10. Gender	.06	-.08	.11	-.19	-.11	-.11	.07	-.13	.05	---				1.28	0.45
11. Relationship length	.30**	-.23*	-.08	.00	-.08	-.25**	.07	-.06	-.52***	-.05	---			29.84	34.34
12. Age	.32***	-.25*	.07	-.15	-.20	-.37***	.03	-.03	-.39***	.06	.72***	---		22.88	5.54
13. Momentary relationship satisfaction	.12	-.11	.07	.52***	.70***	.02	.35***	-.30**	.08	-.13	-.06	-.12	---	5.96	1.30

Note. N= 68. Gender is coded with women as 1 and men as 2. Higher scores on relationship awareness, self-awareness, relationship-interdependent self-construal, commitment, relationship satisfaction, relationship thinking, positive affect, negative affect, and global relationship awareness reflect more of each variable.
*p < .10. **p < .05. ***p < .01.

19

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations for Relationship Awareness and Self-Awareness by Condition.

Condition	Relationship Awareness (LIF)	Self-Awareness (LIF)
Relationship Awareness	7.34 (3.53)	8.38 (2.50)
Self-Awareness	7.09 (1.87)	8.95 (2.42)
Control	6.58 (2.36)	9.88 (2.68)

Note. Relationship awareness n=22, self-awareness n=22, control n=24. Standard deviations are given in parentheses.

In addition, several of the variables were transformed in order to help with non-normality. These variables include both global and momentary relationship satisfaction, negative affect, and commitment. However, these transformations did not significantly alter results and so are not included in the following analyses.

In order to test Hypothesis 1, that exposure to the photographs of the couple would increase relationship awareness, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. The results of the ANOVA indicated no significant different in levels of relationship awareness across all three conditions, $F(2,65) = .51, p = .60$. Interestingly, results of a regression analysis including relationship length and age show a significant interaction between condition and relationship length, $F(2, 56) = 5.70, p = .006$, and a marginally significant interaction between condition and age, $F(2,56) = 2.92, p = .06$. However, without the previously mentioned outlier, the interaction between condition and age was nonsignificant, $F(2,55) = 1.85, p = .17$. As can be seen in Figure 2, these results suggest that the manipulation was effective, but only for those who are in shorter relationships (and possibly those who are younger). However, the manipulation of self-awareness was ineffective, as exposure to photographs of the self did not increase levels of self-awareness (regardless of age or relationship length).
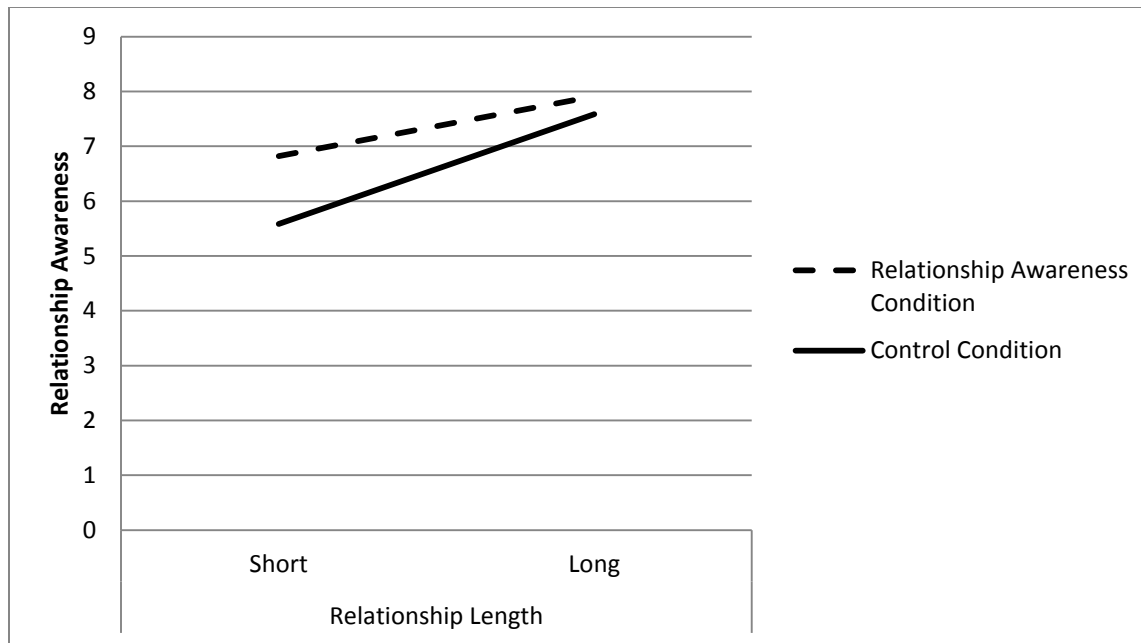
Figure 2: Interaction of relationship length and condition in predicting relationship awareness.

A regression analysis was run in order to test whether global relationship satisfaction (RAS) moderated the effects of relationship awareness on post-experimental reports of relationship satisfaction (Hypothesis 2a). The overall model was significant, $F(3, 64) = 21.62, p < .0001$, but neither of the main effects were significant, $F(1,64) = 1.80, p = .18$ for global relationship satisfaction and $F(1,64) = .80, p = .37$ for relationship awareness. In addition, the interaction of relationship awareness and global relationship satisfaction was not significant, $F(1, 64) = .96, p = .33$. A regression was also run in order to test the hypothesis that global relationship satisfaction moderates the effect of relationship awareness on post-experimental reports of mood (Hypothesis 2b). For positive affect, the overall model was significant, $F(3,64) = 3.59, p = .02$, but the main effects were not, $F(1,64) = 3.08, p = .08$ for global relationship satisfaction, and $F(1,64) = 1.15, p = .29$ for relationship awareness. The interaction was also not significant, $F(1,64) = .94, p = .34$. The overall model was not

significant for negative affect, $F(3,64) = 1.44, p = .24$. Because the manipulation of

relationship awareness was only effective for individuals who were younger and in shorter

relationships, these hypotheses were also tested when only including those individuals.

However, even when including only younger people and people who were in shorter

relationships, there were still no significant interactions of relationship awareness and global

relationship satisfaction or mood. The lack of support for these interactions suggests that

individuals who are not happy in their relationships do not feel worse about their relationships or

more negative affect after increased relationship awareness.

To address Hypothesis 3, that individuals who have a more interdependent self-construal

will demonstrate higher levels of relationship awareness, a regression analysis was performed.

Interdependent self-construal did not predict relationship awareness on the LIF, $F(1,66) =$

$.12, p = .73$. Similarly, interdependent self-construal did not predict global relationship

awareness, $F(1,66) = 1.28, p = .26$. We found no relation between interdependent self-

construal and either of our two measures of relationship awareness.

No gender differences were found in levels of interdependent self-construal, $t(66) =$

$-.88, p = .38$ (Hypothesis 4a). Likewise, no gender differences were found in levels of

relationship awareness on the LIF, $t(66) = -.51, p = .61$, or global relationship awareness,

$t(66) = -.43, p = .67$ (Hypothesis 4b). This result is not consistent with past work (e.g., Cross

et al., 2000). However, because we had a sample that included predominantly women (49

women, 19 men), it is difficult to make gender comparisons. In addition, there is reason to

believe that because the ostensible topic of the study was interpersonal communication,

participants had to have been in a relationship, and participants had to provide photographs of

themselves with their partners in order to be eligible, men who are more relational than average might be more likely to participate.

Commitment was not related to levels of relationship awareness on the LIF, $F(1,66) = .04, p = .84$, or global relationship awareness, $F(1,66) = .31, p = .58$ (Hypothesis 5). Similarly, relationship satisfaction was not related with either relationship awareness on the LIF, $F(1,66) = .36, p = .55$, or global relationship awareness, $F(1,66) = .14, p = .71$. Relationship thinking was also not related to relationship awareness on the LIF, $F(1,66) = .00, p = 1.00$, but it was significantly related to global relationship awareness, $F(1,66) = 12.99, p < .001$.

As can be seen, there was very little support for the majority of hypotheses as they were originally specified. However, because of the surprising lack of support for our hypotheses, we decided to perform further analyses that specify different types of relationship awareness. Acitelli (2008) made the distinction between implicit and explicit forms of relationship awareness, with implicit relationship awareness including couple identity and the use of first-person plural pronouns and explicit relationship awareness including actually thinking and talking about the relationship. We created a composite measure of implicit relationship awareness by summing scores on the couple identity and relationship awareness (LIF) measures (total number of first person plural pronouns), and we also created an explicit relationship awareness composite measure by averaging scores on the relationship thinking measure and the global relationship awareness measure (which includes both thinking and talking about the relationship). Using this new conceptualization, the link between relationship thinking and global relationship awareness (explicit) but not relationship awareness on the LIF (implicit) becomes clearer.

As can be seen in Table 3, implicit and explicit relationship awareness are not significantly correlated, which supports their conceptualization as distinct forms of relationship awareness. In addition, explicit relationship awareness is significantly and negatively correlated with age and relationship length, suggesting that explicit relationship awareness is more common in younger people and those in a relatively short relationship. This follows with reasoning in Acitelli (1993) that younger people (or people in a shorter relationship) need to work at defining their relationships, which requires both thinking and talking about them. Implicit relationship awareness is significantly and positively related to both age and relationship length, which suggests older people and people who are in longer relationships tend to have higher levels of implicit relationship awareness. Because of our reconceptualization of relationship awareness into two distinct types, we reevaluated several of our hypotheses. For Hypothesis 3, interdependent self-construal did not predict implicit relationship awareness, $F(1,66) = 0.00, p = .98$. However, interdependent self-construal did marginally predict explicit relationship awareness, $F(1,66) = 3.62, p = .06$, suggesting that individuals who place great value on their social relationships when defining themselves may be more likely to think and talk about their relationships but not more likely to demonstrate couple identity or cognitive interdependence.

Commitment did not significantly predict levels of implicit relationship awareness, $F(1,66) = 0.07, p = .79$. However, there were main effects of both commitment and age in predicting explicit relationship awareness, $F(1,64) = 10.47, p = .002$ for commitment, and $F(1,64) = 5.33, p = .02$ for age. There was also a significant interaction between commitment and age in predicting explicit relationship awareness, $F(1,64) = 9.04, p = .004$, such that for older people, the level of commitment did not have much of an effect on the level of explicit

Table 3.

Zero-Order Correlations Among Explicit and Implicit Relationship Awareness and Primary Measures

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	M	SD
1. Explicit relationship awareness	---										2.78	0.65
2. Implicit relationship awareness	.11	---									11.24	2.85
3. Age	-.45***	.29**	---								22.88	5.54
4. Relationship length	-.45***	.33***	.72***	---							29.84	34.45
5. Commitment	.20*	.03	-.15	.00	---						7.08	1.08
6. Relationship satisfaction (RAS)	.04	.15	-.20	-.08	.63***	---					4.28	0.59
7. Interdependent self-construal	.23*	.00	-.22*	-.08	.17	.17	---				31.18	8.76
8. Positive affect	.23*	.19	.03	.07	.36***	.34***	.05	---			61.54	8.51
9. Negative affect	.08	-.04	-.03	-.06	-.11	-.23*	-.11	-.24**	---		13.82	4.96
10. Gender	-.04	.10	.06	-.05	-.19	-.11	.11	.07	-.13	---	1.28	0.45

Note. N= 68. Gender is coded with women as 1 and men as 2. Higher scores on explicit relationship awareness, implicit relationship awareness, commitment, relationship satisfaction, interdependent self-construal, positive affect, and negative affect reflect more of each variable.

*p < .10. **p < .05. ***p < .01.

relationship awareness, but for younger people, explicit relationship awareness increased as commitment increased (as can be seen in Figure 3). This suggests that the more committed younger people are to their relationship, the more they will think and talk about it, possibly in an attempt to define a relationship that is increasingly important to them (whereas they might not work so hard to define a relationship to which they are not very committed). However, older people did not demonstrate this trend, which may suggest that older individuals already have strong levels of implicit relationship awareness and may not feel a need to explicitly talk or think about the relationship. A similar effect was not found when looking at the interaction between relationship length and commitment in predicting explicit relationship awareness, however.
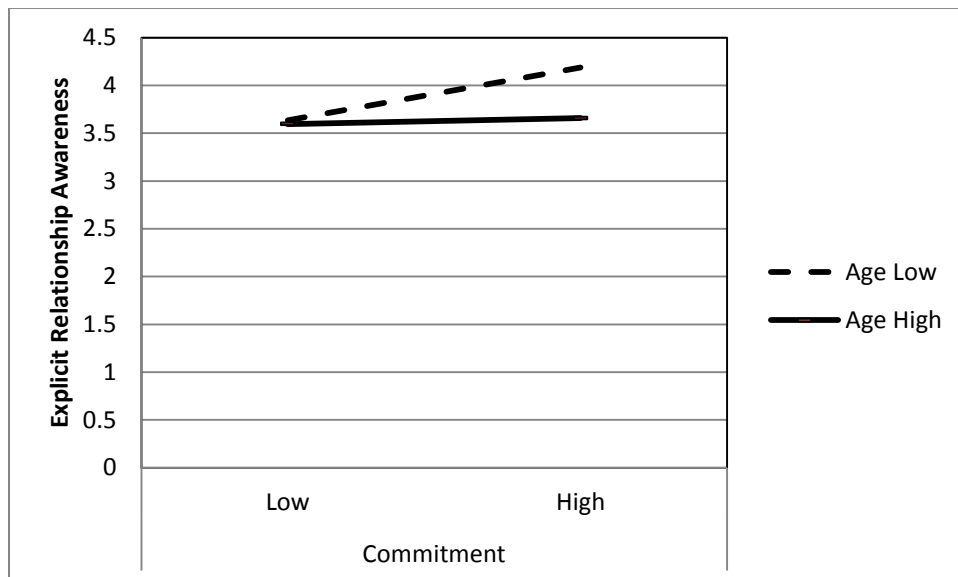

Figure 3: Interaction of age and commitment in predicting explicit relationship awareness.

Conclusion

These results have a number of implications for future research and theory. First, the distinction between implicit and explicit relationship awareness has been shown to be quite

valuable (Acitelli, 2008). The present research suggests that patterns of implicit and explicit

relationship awareness tend to change across the lifespan, with explicit relationship awareness

more common in younger individuals and earlier on in the relationship and implicit relationship

awareness becoming more common in older individuals and longer relationships. This may

mean that explicit relationship awareness, thinking and talking about the relationship, is a

stepping stone to developing implicit relationship awareness, or cognitive interdependence

(Agnew et al., 1998) and couple identity (Acitelli et al., 1999). In addition, the use of the

implicit/explicit distinction is valuable in understanding interdependent self-construal (Cross et

al., 2000), which appears to be linked to thinking and talking about the relationship but not the

formation of a couple identity (Acitelli et al., 1999). Similarly, we may be able to gain a better

understanding of other related concepts by applying the distinction between implicit and explicit

relationship awareness.

    While at first it appeared that our manipulation of relationship awareness was ineffective,

further analyses suggested that it did work, but only for younger individuals. This is an

interesting finding that may be best explained by distinguishing between implicit and explicit

relationship awareness. The number of first-person plural pronouns is a measure of implicit

relationship awareness, and we found that focusing on photographs of the couple was only

effective in increasing implicit relationship awareness for younger individuals, who may tend to

be lower in implicit relationship awareness anyway. Because older individuals may already be

higher in implicit relationship awareness, it may be more difficult to noticeably increase their

levels. Future research might examine whether this trend also operates when examining explicit

relationship awareness; such that exposing participants to couple photographs increases explicit

relationship awareness in older people but not younger people. In addition, other methods of

27

manipulating relationship awareness stemming from self-awareness theory, such as the presence of mirrors (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1978), could be explored.

There were several limitations of the current study. For example, our manipulation of self-awareness did not appear to be effective. This is somewhat surprising, as the technique used came straight from self-awareness theory. However, our results show that the use of first-person singular pronouns was relatively common in all three conditions. It is possible that because all participants had to submit photographs of just themselves regardless of condition, and because the couple photographs also included the participants, they may have already been primed to have increased self-focus. In addition, many participants provided their photographs at the actual lab session (rather than prior), which may have exacerbated this effect. Even in the relationship awareness condition, there was more self-awareness than relationship awareness. Future research may want to investigate whether the tendency to focus on the self is stronger than the tendency to focus on the relationship, and whether or not this trend depends on an individual's level of couple identity (Acitelli et al., 1999).

It is unclear whether our proposed model of relationship awareness has been supported. The hypothesized interactions between relationship satisfaction prior to the manipulation and satisfaction and affect reported after the manipulation were not significant. However, people who were not happy in their relationships before the manipulations did tend to report negative affect and poor satisfaction with the relationship after the manipulation, and those who reported being happy in their relationship prior to the manipulation reported positive affect and satisfaction with their relationship afterwards. Because of the relatively small sample size and the relatively small number of participants who were not happy in their relationship, we may

have lacked sufficient power to detect this effect. Further work needs to be done with a larger and more diverse sample in order to clarify this issue and further test the model.

The nature of the sample also poses some other limitations for this study. For example, the small number of male participants made it difficult to examine many of the hypothesized gender effects. In addition, the differing findings between age, relationship length, and some of our constructs of interest remain unclear. For example, it is unclear why there was a significant interaction between age and commitment in predicting explicit relationship awareness, but there was not an interaction between relationship length and commitment in predicting the same.

Future work should attempt to gain a larger and more diverse sample, such as a community sample with multiple time points, in order to further investigate these results. Nonetheless, this study makes a contribution to the literature on relationship awareness by providing a seemingly effective experimental manipulation and interesting results regarding age and relationship length, in addition to providing direction for future studies.

Instructions: We are interested in some general demographic information about you. Please indicate your response by clicking the appropriate selection:

1. Please identify your gender:
    a. Female
    b. Male

2. What is your age? _____

3. Please indicate your current relationship status:
    a. Exclusive Dating
    b. Engaged
    c. Married

4.   Please indicate how long you have you been in this relationship:
    _____year(s) _____month(s)

5. Which of the following terms best describes you?
    a. African-American
    b. Asian-American
    c. Caucasian (Hispanic)
    d. Caucasian (Non-Hispanic)
    e. Native American
    f. Middle Eastern
    g. Multi-racial
    h. Other (please indicate) _____

Appendix B
Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

Instructions: Please rate the extent to which each of the following statements describes your feelings on the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all/ Extremely poor				A great deal/ Extremely good

1. How well does your partner meet your needs?
2. In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?
3. How good is your relationship compared to most?
4. How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?
5. To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?
6. How much do you love your partner?
7. How many problems are there in your relationship?

Appendix C
Commitment Level of Investment Model Scale

Instructions: Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding your current relationship, using the scale below.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Do not agree at all				Neutral				Agree completely

1. I want our relationship to last for a very long time.

2. I am committed to maintaining my relationship with my partner.

3. I would not feel very upset if our relationship were to end in the near future.

4. It is likely that I will date someone other than my partner within the next year.

5. I feel very attached to our relationship—very strongly linked to my partner.

6. I want our relationship to last forever.

7. I am oriented toward the long-term future of my relationship (for example, I imagine being with my partner several years from now).

Appendix D
Global Relationship Awareness

1. How often do you think about your relationship with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	All the time

2. In the last two weeks, how often have you thought about your relationship with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once	2-3 times	Every few days	Every day

3. How often do you talk about your relationship with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	All the time

4. In the last two weeks, how often have you talked about your relationship with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once	2-3 times	Every few days	Every day

Instructions: Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

1. My close relationships are an important reflection of who I am.

2. When I feel very close to someone, it often feels to me like that person is an important part of who I am.

3. I usually feel a strong sense of pride when someone close to me has an important accomplishment.

4. I think one of the most important parts of who I am can be captured by looking at my close friends and understanding who they are.

5. When I think of myself, I often think of my close friends or family also.

6. If a person hurts someone close to me, I feel personally hurt as well.

7. In general, my close relationships have very little to do with how I feel about myself.

8. Overall, my close relationships have very little to do with how I feel about myself.

9. My close relationships are unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.

10. My sense of pride comes from knowing who I have as close friends.

11. When I establish a close friendship with someone, I usually develop a strong sense of identification with that person.

Appendix F
Relationship Thinking Scale (RTS)

Instructions: For each of the statements, indicate the degree to which the statement is characteristic of you using the scale below:

0	1	2	3	4	5
Extremely uncharacteristic					Extremely characteristic

1. I think about whether my partner feels the same about me as I do about him/her.

2. I wonder about how close my partner feels toward me.

3. I reflect on whether I am being treated fairly/unfairly in our relationship.

4. I wonder about how my partner feels about our relationship.

5. I reflect on how much I love my partner.

6. I reflect on how much my partner loves me.

7. I think about our sexual relationship.

8. I think about all of the fun my partner and I have had together.

9. I think about all the experiences that my partner and I have shared together.

10. I think about the memories I have of our relationship.

11. I find myself at times drifting off and thinking about my relationship with my partner.

12. I wonder about how well/poorly I do/will get along with my partner's family.

13. I wonder about how well/poorly I do/will get along with my partner's friends.

14. I wonder about how well/poorly my partner and my family do/will get along.

15. I wonder about how well/poorly my partner and my friends do/will get along.

Appendix G
Relational/Couple Identity

Note: Items marked with an asterisk are included in the measure of relational identity.
Below are some questions that ask how you think about yourself. Please indicate how well each of the following describes the way you think about yourself by putting an X in the appropriate box.

	Extremely Well	Very Well	Somewhat Well	Not Very Well	Not At All Well
1. Cooperative					
2. Mature					
3. Friendly*					
4. Hard Working					
5. Caring about others*					
6. Contented					
7. Involved in hobbies or leisure activities					
8. A part of a couple					
9. Involved in your job					
10. Involved in working around the house					
11. A son/daughter*					
12. A man/woman					
13. A friend*					

Below are some questions that ask how important each of these things are to the way you think about yourself. Please indicate how important each of the following is to you by putting an X in the appropriate box.

	Extremely Important	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Very Important	Not At All Important
1. Being cooperative					
2. Being mature					
3. Being friendly*					
4. Being hard working					
5. Caring about others*					
6. Being contented					
7. Involved in hobbies or leisure activities					
8. Being a part of a couple					
9. Your job					
10. Involved in working around the house					
11. Being a son/daughter*					
12. Being a man/woman					
13. Being a friend*					

La Trobe Communication Questionnaire (LCQ)

Instructions: For each of the statements below, indicate how often the statement is characteristic of you using the scale below:

Usually or always	Often	Sometimes	Never or rarely
1	2	3	4

When talking to others do you:

1. Leave out important details?
2. Use a lot of vague or empty words such as 'you know what I mean' instead of the right word?
3. Go over and over the same ground in conversations?
4. Switch to a different topic of conversation too quickly?
5. Need a long time to think before answering the other person?
6. Find it hard to look at the other speaker?
7. Have difficulty thinking of the particular word you want?
8. Speak too slowly?
9. Say or do things others might consider rude or embarrassing?
10. Hesitate, pause, or repeat yourself?
11. Know when to talk and when to listen?
12. Get 'side-tracked' by irrelevant parts of the conversation?
13. Find it difficult to follow group conversations?
14. Need the other person to repeat what they have said before being able to answer?
15. Give people information that is not correct?
16. Make a few false starts before getting your message across?
17. Have trouble using your tone of voice to get the message across?
18. Have difficulty getting the conversation started?
19. Keep track of the main details of conversations?
20. Give answers that are not connected to the question?
21. Find it easy to change your speech style (e.g., tone of voice, choice of words) according to the situation you are in?
22. Speak too quickly?
23. Put ideas together in a logical way?
24. Allow people to assume wrong impressions from your conversations?
25. Carry on talking about things for too long in your conversations?
26. Have difficulty thinking of things to say to keep the conversation going?
27. Answer without taking time to think about what the other person has said?
28. Give information that is completely accurate?
29. Lose track of conversations in noisy places?
30. Have difficulty getting the conversation started?

Appendix I
Linguistic Implications Form (LIF)

 In the psychology of language, it has often been found that what people say contains a certain amount of redundancy. For example, you might hear only a part of a conversation going on across the room at a party, but still be able to fill in the blanks because much of the information in the conversation is repetitious. To research this phenomenon, we are beginning by collecting some judgments of standard passages—brief phrases, sentences, and the like—to find out how redundant they are. This exercise is concerned with the use of pronouns.

Your task is to look at each of the following passages and try to fill in the blank in each one. In each blank there are several possible pronouns that may make sense in the sentence. Please circle the word that makes the most sense to you. Fill in every blank. Even if you have to guess on some or many of the passages, go ahead and make your best guess for each one. Please try to fill in the most likely word (by circling that word in each sentence.)

1. All of (*our, my, his*) answers matched the ones in the back of the book.
2. At first it didn't seem to make any difference, but by later that night the noise from the party was entirely too loud to allow (*her, me, us*) to sleep.
3 .The salesman tried to persuade (*me, her, us*) to buy a set of encyclopedias.
4. The noise got to (*us, them, me*) before long.
5. (*Our, His, My*) idea of fun is sitting at home and listening to music.
6. The sun went down just when (*we, she, I*) decided to go outside.
7. Please don't do this to (*her, us, me*); it is just not fair.
8. It was (*her, our, my*) understanding that the deadline for the paper had been delayed one week.
9. Except for (*me, us, her*), everyone failed the test.
10. As a result of (*our, my, his*) suggestions, a minor revision in the policy has occurred.
11. (*He, We, I*) spent so much time on the initial planning that it seemed impossible to finish before the deadline.
12. It rained so hard that all of (*our, my, her*) clothes got soaked.
13. For the past few months, (*I, we, they*) have had reports of squabbling and dissatisfaction among the office workers.
14. According to (*our, my, her*) notes, only five of the original seven laws are still in existence.
15. Someone stopped (*them, me, us*) to get directions to the stadium.
16. (*We, He, I*) waited by the phone for the doctor to return the call.
17. The cashier charged (*her, us, me*) too little for the groceries.
18. The mosquitoes didn't even bother (*him, us, me*).
19. Dinner was waiting on the table when (*he, I, we*) came back from the store.
20. It isn't easy to get lost in this town, but somehow (*I, we, they*) managed it.

Perceived Relationship Quality Components (PRQC)

Instructions: Please rate the extent to which you feel this way *right now, at the present moment,* about your current partner and relationship using the scale shown below.

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

Right now:

1. How satisfied are you with your relationship?

2. How content are you with your relationship?

3. How happy are you with your relationship?

4. How committed are you to your relationship?

5. How dedicated are you to your relationship?

6. How devoted are you to your relationship?

7. How intimate is your relationship?

8. How close is your relationship?

9. How connected are you to your partner?

10. How much do you trust your partner?

11. How much can you count on your partner?

12. How dependable is your partner?

13. How passionate is your relationship?

14. How lustful is your relationship?

15. How sexually intense is your relationship?

16. How much do you love your partner?

17. How much do you adore your partner?

18. How much do you cherish your partner?

Appendix K
Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you feel this way *right now, that is, at the present moment*. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or extremely not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	

_____ interested   _____ irritable

_____ distressed   _____ alert

_____ excited   _____ ashamed

_____ upset   _____ inspired

_____ strong   _____ nervous

_____ guilty   _____ determined

_____ scared   _____ attentive

_____ hostile   _____ jittery

_____ enthusiastic   _____ active

_____ proud   _____ afraid

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