ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: ATTACHMENT STYLE, RELATIONSHIP
                           SATISFACTION, INTIMACY, LONELINESS, GENDER
                           ROLE BELIEFS, AND THE EXPRESSION OF
                           AUTHENTIC SELF IN ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

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The current study sought to explore the possible facilitators and inhibitors of the expression of authentic self in heterosexual romantic relationships, and specifically, to increase understanding about the possible influence of gender role attitudes. Additionally, the study sought to assess the factor structure of the Authenticity in Relationships Scale (AIRS; Lopez & Rice, 2006)—initially normed on a college population—in a sample of post-college adults involved in a range of romantic attachments. A non-experimental field survey explored how variables of interest related to each other in a sample 241 male and female heterosexuals between the ages of 25 and 38. Analyses revealed strong associations between authenticity and attachment style, relationship satisfaction, intimacy, loneliness, and egalitarianism. Findings also included significant differences in regards to authenticity, relationship satisfaction, intimacy, and loneliness among participants depending on relationship type. Exploratory factor analysis suggested that Lopez & Rice's two-factor solution did not hold for this non-college sample, and suggested a one-factor solution for the AIRS. Implications of the study and suggestions for future research building upon the findings are discussed.

ATTACHMENT STYLE, RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION, INTIMACY, LONELINESS, GENDER ROLE BELIEFS, AND THE EXPRESSION OF AUTHENTIC SELF IN ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

By

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Chapter One

Introduction

This above all: to thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.
                    - William Shakespeare, *Hamlet*

Authenticity has been described as one of the hallmarks of identity achievement (Erikson, 1968), an essential component of mental health and psychological adjustment (Horney, 1950; Kohut, 1971; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1951; Winnicott, 1960), and a key component of interpersonal functioning and healthy relationships (Lopez and Rice 2006). However, despite its primacy in the theoretical literature, many interesting and unanswered questions remain about facilitators and barriers to the expression of authentic self in different relational and cultural contexts.

Harter (1999, 2002) defines authenticity as acting and expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inwardly experienced values, desires, and emotions. Although this process of achieving congruence between inner experiencing and outer expression is largely an individual process, increasingly, authenticity researchers are finding that authentic self-expression depends on feeling valued and accepted by others (Harter, Marold, Whitesell & Cobbs, 1996; Harter, Waters, Whitesell, & Kastelic, 1998; Neff & Harter, 2002). Additionally, it has been suggested that one's expression of authentic self is influenced not only by close interpersonal relationships, but by larger socio-cultural issues such as gender, power, and autonomy, and that these factors may play important roles in shaping the processes related to authenticity (Deci & Ryan, 2000, Ryan & Deci, 2004).

Despite its popularity as a theoretical construct, authenticity has been relatively under-researched (Lopez & Rice, 2006). Some preliminary findings have linked expression of authentic self to correlates such as self-esteem, social support, and optimism (Harter, Marold, Whitesell, & Cobbs, 1996), conflict avoidance (Neff & Harter, 2002; Cole, 2001; Metts, 1989; Peterson, 1996), well-being (Harter 1999, 2002; Leak & Cooney, 2001; Neff & Suizzo, 2006), power (Neff & Harter, 2002; Neff & Suizzo, 2006), and culture (Neff & Suizzo, 2006).

Perhaps the most researched linkage in the authenticity literature has been the relationship between expression of authentic self and adult attachment style. Attachment researchers have noted that, among all the relationships adults are likely to have, romantic relationships are the ones which most closely mirror attachment dynamics established during childhood; similarly, it has been suggested that expression of authentic self is most likely to occur, and therefore best researched, within the context of adult romantic relationships (Lopez & Rice, 2006). Consistently, researchers examining the associations between these variables within the context of adult romantic relationships have found strong, positive associations between secure attachment style and authenticity (Kim, 2005; Leak & Cooney, 2001; Lopez & Rice, 2006; Mikulincer & Nachson, 1991). However, beyond this somewhat preliminary understanding of the role of attachment style, many questions remain about other possible facilitators and barriers to authenticity.

Additionally, authenticity researchers only recently have begun to explore whether and how being authentic contributes to satisfying relationships. Researchers who have attempted to answer the fundamental question of whether being authentic in relationships actually is beneficial (Lopez & Rice, 2006; Keelan, Dion, & Dion, 1998;

Murray, Holmes, & Griffin, 1996) have found conflicting results that suggest complex relationships between variables such as relationship type, cultural context, and power dynamics within romantic relationships. Less is known about demographic issues such as race, socioeconomic status, religion, culture, relationship history, child-of-divorce status, or issues such as one's fear of aloneness, fear of rejection, or desire to have and maintain an intimate relationship.

Some studies of authenticity in romantic relationships (Lopez & Rice, 2006; Neff & Suizzo; 2006) have reported an interesting main effect for gender such that women report being significantly more authentic in their relationships than men. While the authors theorize about the possible reasons for these sex differences, this highlights an emerging theme in authenticity research—the curious, but very uncertain, role of gender and conformity to gender role norms in the expression of authentic self. Lopez and Rice (2006) noted that, while there seems to be some consistency in findings showing differences between men and women, little is known about why these differences exist, or how differences between men and women may occur in patterned, gendered ways. They called for authenticity research focused on illuminating the role of adherence to gender role norms, suggesting that socialization during childhood might greatly impact expression of authentic self during adulthood.

Previous researchers have reported several important preliminary findings about the relationship between attachment style and authentic expression during adulthood, as well as important findings regarding how relational authenticity may impact romantic relationship satisfaction. Additionally, previous researchers have found differences in levels of authenticity along sex lines and theorized that those differences might occur in

predictably gendered patterns. An important goal of the present study was to further explore whether beliefs about contemporary gender roles might influence the expression of authentic self in romantic relationships, and to gather evidence regarding whether being authentic relates to having more satisfying relationships.

Few studies have examined authenticity empirically, and as such, authenticity is an emerging construct. The present study sought to help clarify the construct of authenticity by exploring how it might differ from and relate to other constructs (e.g., intimacy, loneliness). Additionally, it built upon the existing literature by examining the relationships between authenticity, attachment, beliefs about gender role, and relationship satisfaction in a post-college aged adult population.

Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

The present study explored the relationships between attachment, beliefs about gender roles, relationship satisfaction, intimacy, loneliness, and the expression of authentic self in adult romantic relationships. This literature review begins by presenting a theoretical foundation that summarizes the theoretical and empirical contributions important to the construct of authenticity, as well as a brief exploration of two constructs, intimacy and loneliness, that are hypothesized to be related to—but distinct from—authenticity. Next, the theory and empirical work that have explored attachment theory, with a special focus on attachment in adult romantic relationships, is reviewed. Then, an exploration of theory and research about the development of gender role norms during childhood and beliefs about those norms in adulthood is presented. Finally, a brief review of the literature on relationship satisfaction and its measurement as it relates to the goals of the present study is summarized.

Authenticity

The concept of selfhood and living an "examined" life that illuminates one's authentic self has been contemplated and explored by philosophers (e.g., Socrates, Descartes, Sartre), anthropologists (e.g., Holland, 1997; Marsella, De Vos, & Hsu, 1985; Shweder, 1984), sociologists, and psychologists for many centuries (Baumeister, 1987; Harbus, 2002). Among the social sciences, there has been some consensus that the self is a universal attribute of the human condition that is influenced to varying degrees by both culturally specific ideas and the social situation of the individual (Baumeister, 1997; Holland, 1997; Shweder, 1984).

Within the field of psychology, having knowledge of and expressing one's authentic self have been considered hallmarks of identity achievement (Erikson, 1968; Neff & Suizo, 2006), key components of healthy relational and interpersonal functioning (Lopez & Rice, 2006), and important correlates of psychological well-being (Harter 1999, 2002). However, despite its prominent role in many fundamental theories of psychological development and adjustment (Horney, 1950; Kohut, 1971; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1951; Winnicott, 1960), authenticity has been a surprisingly unexplored construct in the empirical literature (Harter, 2002; Lopez and Rice, 2006).

Defining authenticity

The dearth of empirical research on authenticity and authentic self may be linked to longstanding disagreement among theorists and researchers about how best to operationally define the construct. For example, while Rogers (1961) postulated that the "real person" consists of feelings that underlie a "false front," Bem (1972) suggested that the actions one takes are the defining manifestations of one's self, and that mental states occur simply as consequences of watching what one does. These two seemingly conflicting perspectives from the annals of psychology—one which orients authentic self totally within the private mind of the individual, and one which places authentic self in the expression of external behaviors—illustrate just one aspect of the difficulty associated with operationally defining authenticity.

Another aspect of this debate centers on whether the construct of authentic self is (1) a stable individual-differences variable representative of a "core" self, (2) a relational and temporal construct that occurs uniquely in each interpersonal interaction with others, or (3) some amalgam of the two. Arguing for an interaction between core self and

interpersonal influences, Winnicott (1960), for example, theorized that children's early experiences of their caregivers' responsiveness to feelings and needs compel them to shape themselves to be most acceptable to caregivers; in other words, when actual self-experiences are deemed unacceptable by others, children "split off" those aspects from their formative self-images as a protective strategy and in an attempt to maintain their relationships. Later, Mitchell (1992) argued against the existence of a core self, and suggested that one's authentic self is an ever-changing and subjective organization of meanings that a person creates as she or he moves through time and experiences various cognitions and emotions.

Harter (2002), a leading authenticity researcher, has defined authenticity as a fluid and dynamic process of expressing one's self in ways that are consistent with inward values, emotions, and desires. This definition allows for a "true" self, "false" selves, and the expression of different aspects of true and false selves in different relational contexts, which she terms "multiple selves." Building on Gilligan's (1993) contention that people (and young girls, specifically) tend to experience a lack of "voice" during late adolescence and early adulthood, Harter notes that an important and complex developmental task is identifying and expressing the "real me" that does not feel false, while also achieving a self that is flexible and adaptable.

From Harter's perspective, discovering how to achieve a balance between knowing one's core authentic self and exhibiting flexibility in different social contexts is not only adaptive, but an important developmental milestone and an essential task of achieving a state of authenticity. Thus, as adolescents and adults engage in the expression of authentic self, they engage in a process that is individually determined, as

well as situationally, temporally, relationally, and contextually bound (Harter, 2002; Mitchell, 1992; Neff & Suizo, 2006).

Empirical research

As theorists and researchers have moved toward operational definitions guided by the perspective of a "true" self embedded in and influenced by social and relational contexts, they have identified multiple possible barriers, facilitators, and correlates of authenticity. Researchers have examined variables related to self (e.g., self-esteem, optimism, well-being) and to others (e.g., support from parents and peers), as well as relational variables (e.g., type of relationship, power balance within the relationship) and cultural variables (e.g., differential valuing of self, gender role norms, religiosity). Due to the exploratory nature and relatively early stage of authenticity research, many researchers have tended to collect data across broad categories of self, other, relationship, and culture simultaneously. This section reviews the existing research on authenticity, and integrates findings to delineate unexplored or under-explored variables important to achieving a greater understanding of the construct.

In an attempt to explore self, other, and relational variables related to authenticity, Harter, Marold, Whitesell, and Cobbs (1996) asked middle-school students to report on their parents' and peers' behaviors, as well as their own engagement in true- versus false-self behavior. They found that participants who reported engaging in the highest levels of true-self behavior (i.e., the most authentic) had the highest levels of self-esteem, more positive affect, and greater levels of optimism than their less authentic peers. Further, these highly authentic adolescents reported receiving the highest levels of unconditional support from parents and peers. Meanwhile, adolescents who reported engaging in false-

self behavior acknowledged doing so to obtain desired support and approval from significant others, noting that they perceived that their true selves were not liked by parents and peers.

Similarly, in a study of authenticity in adult romantic relationships, Neff and Harter (2002) found that participants who were most preoccupied with maintaining a connection with their partners tended to resolve conflict by acceding to their partners' needs and being less authentic about their own needs. Related studies of the use of deception in intimate relationships have found that when partners engage in inauthentic behavior, it is frequently done so to avoid conflict or to avoid partner anger (Cole, 2001; Metts, 1989; Peterson, 1996). Taken together, these findings suggest that cost-benefit appraisals influence the expression of authentic self in various types of relationships, and that these appraisals are partially informed by participants' diligent and continual assessment of their relational partners' approval or disapproval of "true-self."

Other researchers have focused on the links between expression of authentic self, personality traits, and attachment style. In a study exploring the relational behaviors of 209 college students, Leak and Cooney (2001) asked participants to report on their levels of authenticity, their autonomy within their relationships, their level of self-determination in relationships, and their attachment styles. The authors found positive relationships between high levels of autonomy and self-determination, secure attachment style, and greater authenticity, as well as significant relationships between these four variables and several indices of positive psychological health and well-being.

Lopez and Rice (2006) also found support for a strong relationship between authenticity and attachment style. Guided by Harter's definition of authenticity, the

authors developed a measure intended to assess the expression of authentic self in intimate relationships, and then used this measure to examine the relationships between authenticity and the variables of self-esteem, attachment insecurity, and emotional distress. Additionally, the authors sought to explore theorists' assumptions that authentic expression leads to better interpersonal relationships by testing the correlations and predictive power between authenticity and relationship satisfaction. Consistent with other authenticity theorists and researchers, they theorized that people who are less authentic in their intimate relationships do so because they are overly concerned with maintaining partner approval and avoiding conflict. They hypothesized that participants who reported having a less authentic interaction style would report less satisfaction in their relationships, and suggested that hiding one's true self would not have the positive effects on relationships participants intend them to have.

Using a sample of 487 college student participants who reported being involved in romantic relationships at the time of the study, Lopez and Rice (2006) found moderate relationships between authenticity and self-esteem, and a more substantial negative relationship between authenticity and self-concealment. They found moderate relationships between authenticity and attachment style, noting that participants' willingness to engage in deception with their partners was related to having high attachment avoidance and high attachment anxiety, as was participants' unwillingness to take intimate emotional risks. They found significant and positive correlations between authenticity and relationship satisfaction, and reported that authenticity accounted for a significant percentage of the variance in predicting relationship satisfaction. In addition,

the authors found that female participants reported being significantly more authentic in their relationships than male participants.

In their review of authenticity literature, Lopez and Rice (2006) summarized findings in support of the notion that people can accurately acknowledge, differentiate, and report when they are being authentic or inauthentic in relationships, and that authentic self-behavior has been found to be most commonplace in the context of emotionally significant relationships. Indeed, adult romantic relationships have been the focus of most recent existing authenticity research. As has been shown, several studies have focused on links between authenticity, health, well-being, and other variables related to personality traits or outcomes such as satisfaction. However, some studies of authenticity in adult romantic relationships have broadened the scope to explore how issues of culture, gender, and power may impact the expression of authentic self, while others have focused on how relationship type and level of commitment impact authenticity. The remainder of this section reports on the few studies that have examined authenticity in larger cultural and relational contexts, as their findings directly influence the hypotheses and research questions guiding the present study.

Culture, gender, and power. Two important precursors to the expression of authentic self in intimate relationships are (1) a sense of autonomy, or, the freedom to express one's self honestly, and (2) and a sense of connectedness. These relationship qualities have been shown to be important to both men and women (Gilligan & Attanucci, 1988), and among people in both collectivist and individualistic cultures (Killen & Wainryb, 2000). Speaking more specifically to the importance of power balances in relationships, Miller (1986) noted that being in a position of subordination

and lacking power relates to compromising and hiding one's true feelings and needs in relationships. Similarly, self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2004) suggests that authentic behavior only can emerge after primary needs for autonomy and connectedness are satisfied, and that having the ability to make authentic, intrinsically-motivated choices free from the domination of others is a prerequisite for mental and emotional health across cultures.

Building on Deci and Ryan's (2000) self-determination theory, Neff and Suizzo (2006) noted recent findings showing that, across cultures and ethnic groups, men and women tend to endorse both independent and interdependent values, and they maintain that autonomy and connectedness are basic human needs. The authors chose to explore how issues of gender, culture, and power influence authentic expression by studying authenticity and well-being in the romantic relationships of European Americans and Mexican Americans. Specifically, they focused on how intersections of class, gender, and perceived power inequities influenced self-expression in intimate relationships. At the outset, they noted several important differences between the two cultures included in the study: (1) that Mexican American culture tends to be more collectivist than European American culture; (2) that Mexican American mothers tend to value politeness and obedience over self-direction in their children's behavior while the opposite is true of European American mothers; and (3) that gender roles tend to be more traditional in Mexican American culture, with an expectation that males should be dominant and independent, and that women should be passive, compliant, and responsive to others.

The authors hypothesized that, in both cultures, partners who perceived themselves as having lower power in the relationship would report being less authentic,

and that this lack of authenticity would be associated with less relational well-being as evidenced by lower self-esteem and more depression. As expected, when exploring for main effects, they found that those who described themselves as subordinate in their relationship reported being significantly less authentic than those who were equal or dominant. However, they found no significant differences in power according to sex, and no significant sex differences in power across ethnic groups, and, like Lopez and Rice (2006), reported the interesting finding that women in their study scored significantly higher on measures of authenticity than men.

When the authors performed follow up t-tests to explore the source of a significant three-way interaction among power, sex, and ethnicity, they found that subordinate Mexican American men reported being significantly more authentic than subordinate Mexican American women, while Mexican American men who were equal or dominant in their relationship reported being significantly less authentic than equal and dominant Mexican American women. The authors suggested that Mexican American men who see themselves as being more dominant in their relationship feel as if their behavior (and subsequent dominant role) is imposed on them culturally, and that these cultural expectations limit their freedom to express their inner thoughts and feelings— that they must conceal their emotions from their partners to maintain feelings of power and control. Also worthy of note was their finding that authenticity mediated the association between power and well-being, and that authenticity actually accounted for a very large proportion of the variance in well-being.

Relationship type. Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon (1994) studied how relationship type influences authenticity in romantic relationships by exploring

differences in how people want their partners to view them—authentically versus positively. The authors presented the thesis that long-term, committed marital relationships offer people an important environment in which to act authentically, receive self-verification feedback, and grow; however, the dynamics occurring within these long-term committed relationships stand in sharp contrast to the dynamics that occur within the relationships they grow out of—dating relationships—which the authors describe as being "notoriously" inauthentic.

The authors suggested that dating is a time of mutual evaluation and relatively weak commitment, and that this relationship construct consists of a continual quest for acceptance by the partner mixed with continual scrutiny of that partner as either acceptable or unacceptable. The authors postulate that marriage symbolically ends the period of evaluation, and that after marriage or commitment, partners' mutual trust grows, their levels of investment in their partners' development as a person deepens, and their perspectives on each other become relatively sophisticated. As life goals become mutually intertwined, it becomes more critical that both partners can accurately judge each others' weaknesses and strengths. This, the authors suggest, is the key difference between marital and dating relationships: when a dating partner makes a criticism, it is viewed as a potentially relationship-threatening evaluation, but when a spouse criticizes, it can provide powerful pieces of self-insight because its intention is to increase the chances of the partnership reaching mutual goals.

Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon (1994) noted that as one matures and self-concepts become stable, self-verifying evaluations by others tend to be viewed as a testament to one's authenticity, while nonverifying evaluations are associated with

feelings of wariness and discomfort, regardless of whether those evaluations contain positive or negative content. This leads to the authors' guiding question: does relationship type influence whether we would rather have our partners know us or adore us?

The authors hypothesized that dating partners would feel more intimate with those who evaluated them positively and that marriage partners would feel more intimate with those who evaluated them in a self-verifying manner, even when the verification contained negative content. They found support for their hypotheses and suggested that marital commitment turns people from seekers of positivity to seekers of self-verification; in other words, once people commit to long-term relationships, they want to be seen accurately and to be known authentically by their spouses.

A particularly interesting finding of Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon's (1994) study is that people with negative self-perceptions reported having their highest levels of intimacy with dating partners who viewed them positively and marital partners who viewed them negatively. Across the board, married people tended to report being less intimate with spouses whose evaluations were extremely favorable, and apparently, nonverifying. The authors theorized that inappropriately positive evaluations may foster a sense of inauthenticity and distrust in the person who is delivering them. The work of these authors illuminates how complex the construct of authenticity is—and how powerful relational context may be to the expression of authentic self.

Building on this idea that decisions about authenticity are made within the context of individual relationships, Kernis (2003) noted that being authentic involves allowing close others to see the "real you," the good and the bad, and that this interpersonal risk is taken in the interest of developing mutual intimacy and trust. He further argued that for

self-knowledge gleaned from relationships with others to be useful in the development of personal strengths such as self-esteem, it must be based on an accurate assessment of one's actual strengths and limitations, and thus, authentic expression of "true self" in interpersonal relationships is essential.

Intimacy

In a model describing the intimacy process, Reis and Shaver (1988) noted that intimacy begins when one person expresses personally revealing feelings of information to another, and continues when the listener responds supportively and empathically. They explained that for an interaction to become intimate, the discloser must feel understood, validated, and cared for. So, authenticity might be described as something one does (based in no small part on one's relationship and level of comfort with the other person), while intimacy is something that happens between two people—an experience to which both people contribute. Indeed, authenticity can facilitate or inhibit intimacy, depending on how the receiver of the authentic revelations responds. Certainly, timing, content, and extent of authentic expression each contribute to how disclosures are received by others, and whether those disclosures enhance or inhibit the experience of intimacy between two people.

As with authenticity, intimacy is a frequently theorized-about construct that has received little empirical attention until only recently, and is one for which very little empirical work about its relationship with authenticity exists. Among both theoreticians and researchers, there has been a longstanding lack of consensus about operational definitions of intimacy. For example, a search of the term "intimacy" in the literature reveals that it has been frequently used as a proxy for sexual behavior—as in, one person

engaging in *physically* intimate behavior with another. Indeed, this emphasis on the sexual component of intimacy highlights the way colloquial terminology may have influenced the scientific exploration of the construct, and begs the question, what does sex have to do with intimacy?

Since a goal of the present study was to deepen an understanding of authenticity by distinguishing it from potentially related constructs, it seemed important to be guided by definitions of intimacy that capture the elusive construct people theoretically risk exposing their authentic selves to achieve. Additionally, it seemed vital to understand whether definitions that include sex as a component of intimacy might complicate this exploration by confounding it with variables related to sexual behavior and frequency of sexual interactions.

Notably, Hatfield and Rapson (1993) postulated five necessary components to intimacy which included sex, emotional expressiveness, affection, trust, and communication. Also highlighting the role of sex, Schaefer (1981), in the development of a one of the most widely used measures of intimacy (the Personal Assessment of Intimacy in Relationships questionnaire), included sexual behavior in the model along with emotional, social, intellectual, and recreational intimacy as a necessary component of intimacy.

Some researchers, however, have chosen to exclude sexual behavior in their assessments of intimacy and instead, have explored the construct in terms of emotional closeness (Adams, 1968; Beckman, 1981; Leigh, 1982), solidarity (Levinger & Snoek, 1972; Scanzoni, 1979), and sense of certainty about the relationship (Huston & Burgess, 1979). Chelune, Robison, and Kommor (1984) defined intimacy as "a relational process

in which we come to know the innermost, subjective aspects of another, and are known in a like manner" (p. 14), while Timmerman (1991), in a review of the literature, argued that the minimal conditions for intimacy are reciprocity of trust, emotional closeness, and self-disclosure. This highlights a second basic question that has faced intimacy researchers: whether operational definitions of intimacy should change depending on the type of relationship being studied, or whether the intimacy occurring in romantic couples can and should be assessed using the same operational definition as the intimacy that occurs in non-sexual relationships (e.g., parents and children, teachers and students, and between friends, family, neighbors, co-workers, etc.).

In a study of the relationship between intimacy and intergenerational aid given between mothers and daughters, Walker and Thompson (1983) used a convergence of non-sexual, emotional-closeness focused intimacy definitions to explain the operational definition that guided the measurement tool used in their study (initially developed by Walker, 1979). They founded their work on Davis's (1973) assertion that intimacy is too broad a concept to be defined succinctly, as well as Bengston and Cutler's (1976) focus on dimensions of understanding, fairness, respect, and affection, and Troll and Smith's (1976) emphasis on intensity, liking, loving, approving, and accepting. They noted that the guiding elements to the construction of Walker's measure included affection, enjoyment or satisfaction, a feeling that the relationship is important, openness, respect for the partner, acceptance of the partner's ideas and criticisms, solidarity, and a sense of commitment to, or certainty about, the relationship. This definition—although admittedly complex and less than parsimonious—seemed to capture the type of intimacy that might be present in the model relating intimacy to authenticity.

If, as Kernis noted, being authentic is a risk that one takes in the interest of building intimacy in interpersonal relationships, clearly differentiating between the variables authenticity and intimacy, and understanding possible relationships between the two, are important steps in the exploration.

Loneliness

If we are to build on the theoretical model which proposes that being authentically self-revealing is a risk one takes in an attempt to deepen relationships with others (e.g., to attain greater intimacy), it is important to understand the feared consequences of such a risk: momentary or permanent rejection by the other, and ultimately, loneliness. If authenticity can lead to increased relational intimacy, it follows that authenticity might also lead to loneliness if one's authentic expressions of self, desires, or needs are rejected by one's relationship partner.

From a theoretical perspective, there has been some dispute regarding whether loneliness should be considered a unidimensional or multidimensional construct. The most generally accepted definition of the construct is founded in a multidimensional approach to defining loneliness. This definition put forth by Weiss (1973) postulated that loneliness is composed of two dimensions: social loneliness and emotional loneliness. While social loneliness refers to a lack of social relationships, emotional loneliness refers to a lack of intimate companionship. Interestingly, however, the most widely used loneliness measure, the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau, & Ferguson, 1978), was built upon a unidimensional definition of "global" or "general feeling" of loneliness. This unidimensional approach is designed to

account for the participant's perception of themselves as having deficits in relationships with intimate others or a general deficiency of interpersonal ties.

In a review of the construct of loneliness and several measures developed to assess it, Oshagen and Allen (1992) noted that the prevalence of loneliness in the general population has been estimated to range from 15% to 28%. Relationships have been shown between loneliness and relational style, the quality of one's social networks, interpersonal skills, anxiety, depression, self-esteem, boredom, sex roles, and standard demographic variables (e.g., Cutrona, 1982; Kalliopuska & Laitinen, 1991; Levin & Stokes, 1986; Shaver & Buhrmester, 1983; Vaux, 1988). More recently, researchers have found strong links between loneliness and attachment anxiety and avoidance, shame, depression, and the satisfaction of one's basic psychological needs (Wei, Shaffer, Young, & Zakalik, 2005), as well as the mediating roles of social self-efficacy and self-disclosure between loneliness and depression (Wei, Russell, & Zakalik, 2005).

While loneliness has been a greatly researched construct, a relationship to the specific construct authenticity appears to be non-existent in the literature. A search of the keywords loneliness and authenticity (and grammatical variations of both words) returned no results. However, the aforementioned studies which linked loneliness to self-disclosure prompted an additional literature search and revealed several theoretical writings and empirical articles—most written in the 1980s—linking the two constructs and which may have import for the study of authenticity. First, it is important to understand how authenticity differs from self-disclosure in the literature.

While authenticity has been defined as congruence between internal experiencing and external expression, Davis and Franzoi's (1986) study provided a prime example of

how researchers' use of the construct self-disclosure distinguishes it from authenticity. The authors asked participants to use a Likert scale to rate their degree of disclosure ("discuss not at all" to "discuss fully and completely") in predetermined subject areas (e.g., "My worst fears" and "Things I have done which I feel guilty about"). This explicates an important distinguishing characteristic between the two constructs: while authenticity relates to truthful expression of one's feelings and thoughts, self-disclosure is more all-encompassing in that it can relate to both one's secret inner thoughts as well as the level of one's truthful reporting of past or current events. In other words, while self-disclosure may be defined as a general measure of truth-telling about self, events, occurrences, and factual material, authenticity may be more narrowly defined as truth-telling about one's own thoughts and feelings. Importantly, the truthfulness of authentic self-disclosures can only be assessed by the teller, while the truthfulness of some self-disclosures can be assessed by witnesses and other outside observers.

Returning to the relationship between self-disclosure and loneliness, Davis and Franzoi (1986), using structural equation modeling, found interesting causal relationships between the variables. They reported that a model built on the assumption that less self-disclosure leads to greater loneliness seemed to be roughly equivalent to a model based on the assumption that greater loneliness leads to less self-disclosure; both paths were significant and seemed to suggest a mutual and cyclical relationship between the two variables. Meanwhile, Berg and Peplau (1982) found significant relationships between loneliness and disclosure about one's past and willingness to disclose, but only for female participants. Also of interest to the present study because of the gender role implications (which will be discussed in greater detail in the section on conformity to gender roles

below) were the authors' findings that more androgynous participants were significantly less lonely than strongly gender-stereotyped participants.

Although loneliness and authenticity have not been studied explicitly until now, the results of previous studies which have explored related constructs suggest strong links between truth-telling about one's self, intimacy, loneliness, attachment style, and gender role attitudes. In summary, this review of theoretical and empirical literature related to authenticity (and the associated constructs intimacy and loneliness) suggests that the extent to which people act authentically is influenced by early childhood experiences of approval and disapproval of actual needs, thoughts, and feelings, as well as the risks and benefits associated with the revelation of authentic self within particular relational, social, and cultural contexts. In short, authenticity scholars agree that the expression of authentic self is a dynamic process and is one that does not occur in a vacuum.

The literature review section that follows will explore attachment style, a construct that has been shown to have an important relationship with authenticity. In particular, this review will explore theory and research focused on understanding how early childhood experiences may influence behavior in adult relationships.

<div align="center">Attachment</div>

Bowlby's (1969/1982, 1973, 1980, 1988) attachment theory postulates that children's interactions with primary caregivers during infancy shapes their help-seeking and attachment behavior, as well as their internal representations of themselves and of caregivers. He proposed that early attachment experiences (i.e. seeking to have basic needs met) results in children organizing their views of themselves as either loveable or unloveable, and their attachment figures as either trustworthy or untrustworthy. He

further hypothesized that once shaped, these internal representations serve as templates that influence how individuals navigate attachment relationships throughout life.

Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) work observing infant attachment behavior provided compelling support for an integral part of Bowlby's theory—that infants tend to seek and maintain proximity to attachment figures, particularly during times of stress. Ainsworth described three major patterns of attachment strategies employed by infants, as well as patterns of maternal caregiving behavior that seemed to prompt and influence infants' attachment styles. "Anxious-avoidant" infants showed little interest in the presence or absence of their mothers while at play, little distress at separation from their mothers, and tended to ignore their mothers upon being reunited with them. Mothers of these infants tended to either reject their attachment needs or to respond to them aversively. "Secure," infants played actively in their mothers' presence, showed some distress and reduced play behavior when separated from their mothers, but were easily comforted by their mothers once reunited with them. Mothers of these infants tended to be sensitive and responsive to the infants' communication signals and provided what Ainsworth called a "secure base" from which the infants could freely explore the world. "Anxious-ambivalent" infants seemed to be hypervigilant about maintaining contact with their mothers, clung more intensely to their mothers after separation, were not easily comforted, and exhibited inhibited play behavior when separated from mothers. Interestingly, mothers of these infants responded so inconsistently to their babies that the babies seemed to respond by reacting to even mildly stressful situations with constant demands for attention and care.

Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) descriptions of children and their mothers underscore the interactional nature of attachment style and provide powerful examples of how

behavior, emotion, and cognition lead to the development of internal working models. Before infants have access to verbal language, they experience and express intense feelings of joy at the security associated with available, responsive caregivers, feelings of anger and anxiety upon separation from attachment figures, and feelings of sadness and depression at the loss of caregivers. Bowlby (1969/1982, 1973, 1980, 1988) argued that these intense feelings and the subsequent internal working models that are shaped by them influence which information individuals attend to and remember, and the attributions and interpretations that individuals make about life events. These working models operate on an unconscious level, act as filters through which one screens incoming information, and tend to be reinforced by repeated instances of one's interpersonal relating style.

Adult Attachment

Both Bowlby (1969/1982, 1979, 1980, 1988) and Ainsworth (1985, 1989) wrote extensively on the subject of attachment in adulthood and called for research on attachment beyond infancy and across the life span. However, it was not until the mid-1980s that research on adult attachment began to take on more of a central role in attachment-related research (Simpson & Rholes, 1998), possibly due to the complexity involved in both the theory and measurement issues of attachment in adults.

Collins and Read (1990) noted that within the fields of social and developmental psychology, it generally has been agreed upon that the nature and quality of one's close relationships during adulthood are strongly influenced by affective events that take place during childhood between children and caregivers. However, one of the primary difficulties facing adult attachment researchers has been the many types of attachment

relationships likely to occur during adulthood. While childhood attachment tends primarily to involve parent-child relationships, as adults, attachment relationships continue to occur across the life span, and can include relationships with peers during adolescence, romantic relationships and close friendships in adulthood, and relationships with one's own children (Ainsworth, 1985, 1989; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002). Consequently, researchers studying adult attachment are faced with the task of limiting their studies to capture the dynamics within particular types of attachment relationships.

Measurement of adult attachment. Throughout development, the primacy of particular attachment figures shift. Whereas children are likely to become attached to multiple adult caregiver figures, in adulthood, as needs change and priorities shift, the primary attachment figure tends to be one's partner(s) in romantic relationships (Ainsworth, 1985, 1989). In recent years, researchers have used attachment theory as a framework for understanding adult love relationships, suggesting that the process of falling in love is one of becoming attached that shares important similarities with what occurs during child-caregiver attachment (Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Much has been written about the methodological issues associated with measuring adult attachment behavior, particularly because these behaviors are not overtly observable; while babies and small children tend to exhibit uncensored attachment behavior that is easily observed, adults tend to be astute at hiding their inner responses, emotions, and cognitive reactions. Subsequently, researchers are forced to rely upon participants' self-reports, memories about, and perceptions of their internal working models of attachment. Although self-report measures introduce issues of participant bias and deception and tend to oversimplify the categorization of complex individuals

(Simpson & Rholes, 1998; Jacobvitz, Curran, & Moller, 2002), attachment researchers have performed continual processes of modification and refinement to improve assessments (Crowell, Fraley, & Shaver, 1999; Simpson & Rholes, 1998).

Key studies related to authenticity. Adult attachment has grown to be a greatly researched construct across many types of adult relationships and associated variables of interest. Because this is such an expansive literature, and since several studies that explored the relationships between attachment and authenticity were addressed above, the remainder of this literature review section addresses attachment studies having findings that appear to be relevant to the study of authenticity, even when authenticity was not the explicit focus of those studies.

Collins and Feeney (2000) agreed with Hazan and Shaver's (1987) and others' view that attachment theory provides a strong framework for examining adult intimate relationships because it posits how attachment styles can influence the nature and quality of supportive exchanges between intimate partners. They explained that different attachment styles serve as "rules" that guide one's responses to emotionally distressing situations and one's expectations about the availability and willingness of partners to be responsive to needs. In their study of caregiving behavior and support-seeking, Collins and Feeney (2000) observed 93 dating couples as they discussed a non-relationship oriented personal concern, and assessed the couples' stress, support seeking, and caregiving behavior. They found that attachment style had a moderating effect on the relationship between stress and support-seeking such that those participants with avoidant attachment styles tended to seek less support from their partners, while those with less avoidant styles sought more support in relationship to their reported stress levels.

Similarly, when highly anxious participants under stress did seek support, they did so in unclear and possibly less effective ways such as sulking or indirect hinting. Further, they found a link between participants' expectations about their partners' caregiving behavior and their perceptions of actual support partners provided. Although the authors did not explicitly study the construct of authenticity, their results suggest a relationship between attachment style and participants' willingness to authentically reveal their true levels of stress to their partners. Specifically, their results suggest that people with secure attachment styles may be more overt and authentic in expressing their needs and asking partners for support than people with insecure attachment styles.

Collins and Allard (2001) and Collins and Read (1994) have theorized that once attachment styles with early caregivers have developed, they operate as internal working models outside of one's awareness, and tend to impact one's perception, behavior, and emotion in other attachment-related contexts. In a review of attachment research, Feeney (1999) reported on numerous studies that supported attachment theorists' assumptions that differences in attachment style lead to profound differences in self-image and expectations for others' behavior. For example, secure adults not only tend to have more favorable images of themselves and more optimistic expectations about others in their social world, but also tend to experience more satisfying and well-functioning relationships than those with insecure styles. Conversely, among insecurely attached adults, those having avoidant styles tend to report low levels of intimacy, stability, and commitment in their relationships, while preoccupied styles tend to report experiencing emotional extremes and higher levels of conflict and jealousy.

In two studies, Collins, Ford, Guichard, and Allard (2006) explored how adult attachment styles act as cognitive models that shape perceptions and the construals that individuals make about their intimate partners' behavior. Citing Taylor's (1998) work in the field of cognitive psychology, the authors noted that preexisting goals, expectations, and schemas create "top-down" (p. 201) working models that influence how people perceive new information. While this is frequently an adaptive process contributing to cognitive efficiency, for those holding pessimistic working models about relationships, these top-down processes can predispose them not only to perceive partners negatively, but to act in ways that support their prejudiced perceptions.

In the first study, the authors found that participants high in attachment-related anxiety responded to hypothetical partner transgressions (i.e., partners behaving in ways that are insensitive or unresponsive) by experiencing distress, endorsing relationship-threatening attributions, and endorsing behavioral intentions that were likely to result in conflict. In the second study, they found that anxious participants endorsed relationship-threatening attributions for their partner's transgressions, attended less to partner's positive behaviors, and noted that these patterns occurred most frequently in unhappy relationships. In contrast, the authors noted that avoidant individuals endorsed pessimistic attributions for their partner's positive behavior and fewer pessimistic attributions for their partner's transgressions, noting that these effects occurred regardless of participants' level of relationship satisfaction. This suggests that insecure working models of attachment are associated with less adaptive responses to positive as well as negative events, and illustrates how attachment style can influence expectations, construals about

partner behavior, and the level of authentic expression about inner emotional responses to partner behavior.

In a study that featured authenticity explicitly, Kim (2005) proposed that authentic self would serve as a mediator of the relationships between attachment style and emotional intelligence, and between attachment style and cognitive fragmentation. Kim found that the degree of participants' levels of authentic self mediated the relationships between attachment dimensions and either emotional intelligence or cognitive fragmentation. Specifically, a higher score on the secure attachment dimension was associated with a greater degree of authentic self, which in turn, was associated with greater levels of emotional intelligence and having fewer fragmented cognitive concepts about the self and romantic relationships. On the other hand, a higher score on the anxious-ambivalent attachment dimension was associated with a lower degree of authentic self, which, in turn, was associated with a lower level of emotional intelligence and having more fragmented cognitive concepts about the self and romantic relationships. Kim's study indicates that the secure attachment styles are related to being more authentic in relationships, while both the avoidant and anxious-ambivalent attachment orientations are associated with being less authentic and more dysfunctional.

In summary, Bowlby's and Ainworth's work on infant attachment has led to important theories about the powerful internal mental representations that influence relationships across the life span. As researchers have developed theories about adult attachment style and the empirical literature has grown, clear links between attachment style and the expression of authentic self have been delineated. As has been shown, multiple studies have confirmed a relationship between secure attachment styles and a

propensity for authentic self expression in romantic relationships. Additionally, several studies have shown links between avoidant and anxious styles and various types of inauthentic, and sometimes dysfunctional, relationship beliefs and behavior.

To build upon the authenticity and attachment literature, it is important to consider other variables introduced during childhood that may influence people's beliefs about who they should or should not be, and what they can and cannot reveal about themselves to their intimate partners. The next section explores theory and research important to understanding how conformity to gender role norms might impact the expression of authentic self.

<center>Beliefs About Gender Role Norms</center>

As with attachment style, it has been hypothesized that socially-sanctioned gender role norms influence and shape human behavior from infancy, and that powerful messages from adult caregivers to infants and young children impact the development of interpersonal styles of interaction, as well as identity (Bem, 1981; Chodorow, 1978; Kohlberg, 1966). Research has confirmed that clearly defined beliefs about behaviors deemed gender-appropriate tend to develop in children by age 5 (Lytton & Romney, 1991), and that these gender role norms do not only constrain behavior, but provide guidelines for what women and men should allow themselves to think and feel (Deaux & Major,1987; Eagly 1987).

Tenenbaum and Leaper (2002) have suggested that differential parental treatment transmits complex gender role self-concepts, stereotypes, and attitudes valued by larger society to children. In their meta-analysis of the correlations between parents' and children's attitudes, Tenenbaum and Leaper (2002) reported that parents' gender schemas

tend to be related to their children's beliefs about their self-concepts and gender attitudes towards others. As children observe their parents' behavior (and the consequences of adhering to or eschewing gendered behavior) and make inferences about their parents' beliefs, they are subject to parental admonitions and endorsements of their own sex-typed traditional and nontraditional behavior. As the authors state, "Parents provide children with their first lessons on what it means to be a woman or a man," and these lessons occur in contexts that eventually evolve into the domains of adult intimate relationships.

Some researchers have noted that sex role ideology can transmit from parents to children in clusters, and that these clustered belief systems ultimately have powerful influence in multiple life domains. Lottes (1991) found significant correlations between various sex role constructs including macho personality, non-feminist attitudes, lack of acceptance of homosexuality, adversarial sexual beliefs, and traditional attitudes toward female sexuality. Buhrke (1988), meanwhile, noted that sex role ideology tends to impact beliefs in so many life domains at once that it can be considered unidimensional—that regarding household tasks, childcare responsibilities, intellectual role, and employment roles, participants tend to endorse either broadly traditional or broadly egalitarian attitudes. Similarly, in a study of entering college freshmen, Lottes and Kuriloff (1992) found high correlations between the construct of sex role ideology (as measured by attitudes toward female sexuality, male dominance, homosexuality, and feminism) and level of religious dogmatism, political orientation, tolerance of minority groups, level of conventionality, and attitudes toward hedonism. This suggests that attitudes about sex roles in the realm of interpersonal relationships and personal behavior are influenced significantly by demographic variables such as socioeconomic class, religious belief

systems, and racial/ethnic cultural configurations of families; it also supports the theory

that sex role attitudes tend to be transmitted from parents to children in clusters of

relational and interpersonal value archetypes that become powerful arbiters of behavior

and identity during adulthood.

Gender role in adulthood. Much theory and research has focused on exploring

and defining modern gender role norms, and has attempted to understand how expression

of and adherence to gender role norms in adults impacts men and women, their

psychological health, and their interpersonal relationships. This section presents some of

the leading gender role theories and makes explicit the implications of their findings to

the present study.

Different rules for men and women. McCreary (1994) noted that as men and

women develop, it is normative to internalize and display both traditionally masculine

and feminine characteristics; ultimately however, men are expected to behave in ways

that are predominantly "masculine," and women to behave in ways that are

predominantly "feminine." McCreary notes that gender transgressors—those who

deviate from gender role norms—can expect to be rewarded and punished for their

gendered behavior accordingly. Mahalik (2000), one of the leading researchers of gender

adherence and gender transgression, agreed that failing to conform to socially prescribed

gender roles may result in being perceived and evaluated negatively by others, but also

theorized that men may face more severe social sanctions and punishment for deviating

from gender norms.

In a further exploration of this hypothesis, Sirin, McCreary, and Mahalik (2004)

examined the influence of gender role transgressions on perceptions of men and women's

social status. They had 59 undergraduate participants rate vignettes of hypothetical male

and female gender role transgressors (who transgressed either on trait and behavior characteristics) on measures of perceived social status, perceived homosexuality, and perceived value dissimilarity. In line with Mahalik's (2000) earlier theory, they hypothesized that men would be punished more harshly than women for deviating from traditional gender role norms. The authors found that the trait-based male gender role transgressor was perceived to be lower in social status and more likely to be homosexual than the female transgressor, while the behavioral-based male gender role transgressor was perceived to be lower in social status and more value-dissimilar than the female gender role transgressor. The authors suggested that their findings provide evidence for the notion that men experience greater constraints in how they can enact masculine gender roles in regards to both trait characteristics and behaviors, and that women enjoy greater latitude when enacting gender roles. They noted that other research examining gender role transgressions generally has observed that, although both males and females are likely to be evaluated less positively when they do not conform to gender role stereotypes, males tend to be viewed significantly more negatively than females when they transgress (Antill, 1987; Archer, 1984; McCreary, 1994).

In other work on issues related to male gender role socialization, O'Neil's (1981) theory of gender role conflict suggests that rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles learned by men during childhood socialization can result in the personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self. O'Neil suggests that gender role conflict negatively impacts the expression and fulfillment of the restricted person's full human potential, and that in its most detrimental forms, can lead to violence and significant psychological and physical health risks and consequences.

O'Neil's work has shown significant relationships between men's restriction of emotionality and anxiety about close dating relationships, fear of intimacy, and psychological distress (O'Neil, 1981; O'Neil et al., 1995), and also has shown that men's restrictive emotionality is strongly associated with the detrimental consequences of discomfort in close interpersonal relationships. Other studies have supported O'Neil's theory and findings, and indicate strong links between male gender role conflict and psychological distress in nonclinical samples (e.g., Good & Mintz, 1990; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), homophobic feelings, approval of Type A behavior, attitudes that self-disclosure is unmanly, and approval of asymmetrical decision-making power in intimate relationships (Thompson, Grisanti, & Pleck, 1985). Men's traditional gender-role attitudes also have been associated with attitudes supporting the use of physical force and marital violence (Finn, 1986), self-reported drug use, aggressive behavior, dangerous driving following alcohol consumption, and delinquent behavior during high school (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984). Additionally, gender role conflict has been correlated negatively with psychological well-being, self-esteem, and intimacy (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), correlated positively with depression and anxiety (Good & Mintz, 1990; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), and related directly to a decreased likelihood of help seeking (Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989).

Mahalik, O'Neil, and countless other researchers have detailed how men's adherence to socially-sanctioned gender role norms can have detrimental effects on their personal health and relationships. Other researchers, however, have chosen to explore how girls and women have been constricted by gender role norms, and how, as with men, this socialization occurs on societal, interpersonal, and self levels that are interrelated.

In a report of the American Psychological Association's Task Force on the Sexualization of Girls (2007), for example, it was reported that cultural norms, expectations, and values about how girls should look and behave are communicated in myriad ways, including through the media. The authors noted that as cultures are infused with sexualized representations of girls and women, it becomes accepted that such sexualization is "good and normal." Subsequently, girls are treated as, and encouraged to be, sexual objects by family, peers, and others, until eventually, girls begin to treat and experience themselves as sexual objects (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; McKinley & Hyde, 1996), thus limiting full realization and expression of who they are. As girls learn that sexualized behavior and appearance are approved of and rewarded by society and by the people whose opinions matter most to them, they are likely to internalize these standards, thus engaging in self-objectification.

The task force authors suggest several important possible consequences of sexualization of girls and women. They note evidence that girls exposed to sexualizing and objectifying media are more likely to experience body dissatisfaction, depression, and lower self-esteem, and that self-objectification has been shown to diminish cognitive ability and to cause shame. They suggest that sexualization of girls and women increases the likelihood of young women believing that physical appearance is the best path to power and acceptance, and note that this may negatively influence girls' achievement levels and their ways of behaving interpersonally—particularly when thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are valued according to how attractive they make girls and women appear to potential relationship partners.

Other authors have chosen to explore how external cultural forces regarding social and relational acceptance influence girls' patterns of interpersonal behavior. Brown and Gilligan's (1992) study of 100 adolescent girls attending a boarding school in the Midwest revealed patterns of self-silencing as a means of preserving their relationships. In interviews, the girls reported the belief that speaking openly with others about feelings of anger, frustration, and pain would endanger their relationships, and that disavowing their negative emotions and displaying calmer, quieter behaviors would increase their chances of being liked by others.

Because the girls in the Brown and Gilligan study were predominantly White and upper-middle class, another researcher (Way, 1995) sought to explore whether and how self-silencing behaviors occurred in girls of different racial and socioeconomic backgrounds. Way (1995) interviewed 12 adolescent racial minority girls from a lower socioeconomic class in a large Northeastern city and found somewhat different patterns of self-silencing. She noted that while these girls did not report silencing themselves in relation to parents, teachers, and female peers as did the predominantly White girls in Brown and Gilligan's (1992) study, they instead reported silencing themselves primarily in their relationships with male peers. Way (1995) noted that while racial minority girls might not be socialized to be passive and quiet, and in fact, may be differently socialized by their parents to be strong and assertive in the face of prejudice, they still reported feeling intensely fearful about revealing their authentic thoughts and feelings to male peers, and felt it was necessary to engage in self-silencing behaviors to maintain their relationships with boys.

Jack (1991) built upon these reports of self-silencing behavior in adolescent girls in her theory of the relationship between self-silencing and depression in adult women. Jack theorized that women are socialized to repudiate their voices to ensure survival of significant relationships—particularly romantic relationships with men. She suggested that women conceal the true nature of their thoughts, feelings, inner conflicts, and needs because they fear that revealing these aspects of themselves will lead to ruptures or loss of relationships. As women realize the extent to which they have silenced themselves in an effort to maintain relationships, or determine that their feelings and needs are problematic, Jack theorized, they experience depression.

Interestingly, researchers have found evidence that self-silencing behaviors occur in men as well as women. Gratch, Bassett, and Attra (1995) gave a measure of self-silencing to 600 male and female Asian, African-American, Caucasian, and Hispanic college students and found that the men in the sample actually scored higher on self-silencing behaviors than the women. The authors suggested that when men self-silenced, they did so because they lacked facility with the language of emotions—that they did not know how to identify and express their feelings, while when women self-silenced, they did so because they feared the implications of expressing their authentic feelings. In a study of married couples, Thompson (1995) similarly found that husbands scored higher on a measure of self-silencing than wives, but that only wives' self-silencing correlated with depression.

As with the attachment literature described above where researchers have looked to the domain of intimate romantic relationships to gain understanding about the barriers and facilitators to expression of authentic self, examining beliefs about gender roles may

similarly illuminate ways in which men and women reveal themselves to each other differently. The research presented in this review section suggests that there are social penalties for acting outside of prescribed roles and rewards for adhering to them, that powerful cultural assumptions about men and women's facility with the language of emotions may influence who decides to reveal what interpersonally, and that one's expression of authentic self may be influenced significantly by relational and societal pressures to conform along gendered lines. Although little of the work presented here discusses the construct of authenticity explicitly, their findings suggest that gender socialization plays an undeniable role in shaping identity and behavior, particularly in regards to revealing one's true thoughts, feelings, and needs in intimate relationships.

The next section of the literature review provides a brief overview of the much-researched construct of relationship satisfaction, and explores how this construct is useful to achieving the goals of the present study.

Relationship Satisfaction

Relationship satisfaction is perhaps the most widely studied relationship outcome (Donaghue & Fallon, 2003; Michaels et al, 1984; Rusbult, 1983; Sprecher, 2001; VanYperen & Buunk, 1991), and has been shown to be correlated with commitment (Floyd & Wasner, 1994; Rusbult, 1983); love, sexual attitudes, self-disclosure, and investment in the relationship (Hendrick, 1988; Rusbult, 1983); relationship stability (Sprecher, 2001); and long-term orientation toward the relationship, psychological attachment to the relationship, and intention to persist in the relationship (Arriaga & Agnew, 2001). One can view relationship satisfaction as a barometer of a relationship—an indicator of whether a relationship is functioning successfully, contains romantic love,

provides satisfaction to the partners involved in it, or is at risk of breaking apart. Relationship satisfaction is generally examined in the context of other variables; as such, this review will discuss relationship satisfaction in conjunction with the variables authenticity, attachment, and conformity to gender role norms.

In a study linked to authentic perceiving, Murray, Holmes, and Griffin (1996) proposed that relationship satisfaction is associated with idealistic, rather than realistic, perceptions of one's partner. In an exploration of whether idealization of one's romantic partner leads to relationship satisfaction or, instead, leaves people vulnerable to inevitable disappointments and disillusionment, the authors asked both members of heterosexual married and dating couples to rate themselves and their partners on a variety of interpersonal attributes. Participants also rated the typical and ideal partner on these attributes. Using path analysis, the authors found that participants' impressions of their partners were more a mirror of their self-images and ideals than a reflection of their partners' self-reported attributes. Overall, intimates saw their partners in a more positive light than their partners actually saw themselves. Interestingly, the authors reported that participants' idealized constructions of their partners predicted greater satisfaction; individuals appeared to be happiest when they idealized their partners and their partners idealized them. In regards to authenticity, and in contrast to Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon's (1994) results presented in the section on authenticity which suggested differences between marital and dating relationships, these results suggest that a certain degree of idealization or illusion may be a critical feature of satisfying dating and even marital relationships. Taken together, the results of both studies suggest the uncertain validity of authenticity theorists' assumptions that authenticity leads to better

relationships and greater satisfaction. At the very least, they suggest a complicated relationship between authenticity and relationship satisfaction that may be dependent not only on the type of the relationship, but on the attachment styles (and other characteristics) of the individuals involved in the relationship.

In a qualitative study of relationship satisfaction that offers interesting findings in regard to both authenticity and attachment, Keelan, Dion, and Dion (1997) compared 99 participants having different attachment styles in terms of how intimate the content of their self-disclosures were, and depending on whether those disclosures were given to strangers or intimate partners. The authors assessed levels of self-disclosure by recording participants as they talked about different topics while anticipating that either their current partner or an opposite-sex stranger would later hear it. They found that participants with secure attachment styles disclosed more intimately to their partners than to strangers, while those with fearful, preoccupied, or dismissing attachment styles did not differ in their levels of disclosure depending on who they believed would ultimately hear the recordings.

Specifically, participants having secure attachment styles disclosed more personal facts to their partners than to strangers and were also perceived as being more comfortable while self-disclosing to partners than to strangers. The authors also found that securely attached participants reported significantly greater relationship satisfaction than insecure participants (i.e. those with fearful, dismissing, or preoccupied styles). In an exploration of how self-disclosure might mediate the relationship between attachment style and relationship satisfaction, the authors found that one type of self-disclosure stood apart from the others, and described "faciliative disclosure" as disclosure that is likely to

elicit personal disclosures from others. Participants who had secure attachment styles were more skilled at faciliative disclosure, had higher levels of self-disclosure to partners, lower levels of disclosure to strangers, and reported the higher levels of relationship satisfaction. This study provides more evidence that attachment style is related to both authenticity and relationship satisfaction, while raising more questions about the complicated relationship between what is disclosed authentically, how, and to whom.

In a study of gender role conflict and relationship satisfaction, Rochlen and Mahalik (2004) examined the relationship between women's perceptions of their male partners' level of gender role conflict and women's relationship satisfaction and well-being. They asked 175 female participants to report on their perceptions of their most recent or current romantic partner's gender role conflict, as well as to complete measures related to their own levels of depression, anxiety, self-esteem, and relationship satisfaction. They found that women who perceived their romantic partners as scoring higher on subscales related to achieving success, power, and competition and lower on subscales related to affectionate behavior with other men (i.e. men who were less likely to have close male friendships) reported greater levels of depression and anxiety, and lower levels of relationship satisfaction. Meanwhile, women who perceived their partners as scoring lower on subscales related to achieving success, power, and competition and lower on a subscale of having restrictive emotionality reported greater relationship satisfaction, less depression, and less anxiety.

Rochlen and Mahalik's (2004) findings suggest that, as discussed in the literature review section on gender role norms, men's rigid and restrictive gendered behavior can have negative consequences for both men and the women with whom they are involved with romantically. Although this study does not discuss authenticity explicitly, it may be

inferred that men who are behaving in stereotypically gendered ways might be concealing true thoughts and feelings that fall outside of their restrictive beliefs about what is appropriate for men to experience and reveal to others, which might directly impact their female partners' experiences within their relationships.

In her development of a measure intended to assess relationship satisfaction, Hendrick (1988) noted that relationship satisfaction is an important construct because it is an effective discriminator of which couples will stay together and which will break apart, and because it helps researchers identify which couples are and are not at risk so that variables hypothesized to impact the relationship can be explored. Additionally, she notes the importance of assessing several dimensions of relationship satisfaction, including level of love, awareness of problems, and kinds of expectations experienced by partners so that links between these dimensions and the variables of interest can be more understood. Hendrick notes that, as the study of close personal relationships has increased, relationship satisfaction remains one of the most important variables to consider in our exploration of relational behaviors; certainly, this study examined how the variables of interest presented in the literature review above contributed to the experience of relationship satisfaction.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

As has been shown, the variables of interest for the present study include several greatly researched constructs (attachment style, beliefs about gender role norms, intimacy, loneliness, and relationship satisfaction) and one construct—authenticity—that is comparatively under-researched. Even when authenticity has not been the explicit focus of studies that examined the other variables, the findings have provided important clues about how the variables might relate to each other, and have suggested possible

directions other researchers should explore. However, as research continues to suggest important and seemingly consistent links between attachment style and authenticity, questions have been raised about the construct of authenticity, its operational definition, and how it might differentially relate to variables such as intimacy and loneliness— variables that might influence, and be influenced by, one's authentic expression of self.

Further, this literature review has identified findings and delineated theoretical foundations suggesting that differences in men's and women's levels of authentic expression might be influenced by their beliefs about gender roles, and that exploring how these variables relate is an important next step in understanding what facilitates and inhibits authentic self-expression. Additionally, the research to date suggests inconsistent and complex relationships between expression of authentic self, relationship satisfaction, loneliness, and intimacy; the present study sought to add to what is known about the relationships among these variables.

Statement of the Problem

The present study built on the work of Lopez and Rice (2006) by examining their measure of authenticity (Authenticity in Relationships Scale; AIRS) and the relationships between authenticity, attachment style, and relationship satisfaction. While their study provided several important preliminary findings about the relationship between attachment style and authentic expression using a sample of college-aged adults, and provided an important first look into understanding how their conception of relational authenticity may impact romantic relationship satisfaction, the present study sought to explore the factor structure of the AIRS in a different population (both partnered and non-partnered post-college aged adults). Further, the present study sought to further clarify

Lopez and Rice's conception of the construct by exploring the convergent validity of

intimacy and the discrimant validity of loneliness. Additionally, although Lopez and Rice

did find differences in levels of authenticity along sex lines, their study did not explore

how and why men and women may differ and did not assess participants' beliefs about

gender roles. An important goal of the present study was to answer Lopez and Rice's call

for more exploration of whether beliefs about gender roles influence the expression of

authentic self in romantic relationships.

Few studies have examined authenticity empirically, and it appears that none have

studied explicitly the influence of beliefs about gender roles on the expression of

authentic self. The present study built upon the existing literature by further examining

the construct of authenticity and its relationships with attachment, beliefs about gender

role, intimacy, loneliness, and relationship satisfaction.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: Will the two-factor solution for the Authenticity in Relationships

Scale hold in the population used for the present study?

Because the present study used a population of interest that differed significantly

in terms of age and relationship history from the college-aged populations explored by

Lopez and Rice, it was anticipated that the two-factor solution they suggested might not

hold. Thus, the durability of the AIRS factor structure needed to be assessed using an

exploratory factor analysis to delineate the best factor structure representing authenticity

for the sample used in the present study.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive relationship between authenticity and relationship satisfaction such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report high levels of relationship satisfaction.

As detailed in the literature review, theorists have made broad assumptions about the role of authenticity in promoting successful interpersonal functioning and have linked it to all kinds of positive relational outcomes. Kernis (2003), for example, noted that the presence or absence of authenticity conveys important information about the levels of mutual trust and intimacy occurring within an intimate relationship.

Building on these theoretical assumptions, Lopez and Rice (2006) hypothesized that participants' self-reported levels of authenticity within the context of their current intimate relationships would show at least a moderate correlation with relationship satisfaction. The authors theorized that having a strong orientation towards interpersonal authenticity is linked with the belief that the benefits of being open with one's partner outweigh any risks or cost, and that people having this orientation would be most satisfied with their relationships. They found that authenticity related to being unwilling to accept or engage in deception, as well as authenticity related to being willing to self-disclose, both were significantly correlated with relationship satisfaction (at .33 and .56, respectively). This hypothesis was intended to build upon Lopez and Rice's (2006) findings and to generate more data to illuminate the relationship between authenticity orientation and relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a negative relationship between authenticity and attachment anxiety such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report low levels of attachment anxiety.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a negative relationship between authenticity and attachment avoidance such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report low levels of attachment avoidance.

Thus far in the authenticity literature, attachment style has been the leading variable hypothesized to have a strong relationship with the expression of authentic self. As detailed in the literature review, empirical work has provided evidence suggesting that attachment styles developed in childhood endure into adulthood and impact the behavior exhibited in romantic relationships. It has been theorized that early experiences of having needs met, ignored, or denied lead to internal mental representations of self and others, and create patterns of behaviors and expectations that may lead to self-fulfilling prophecies interpersonally. For example, people with secure attachment styles may enter their relationships expecting their partners to meet their needs, and thus, may feel safer to express their needs authentically to their partners. Their authentic expression of self may enhance the levels of intimacy and trust in their relationship, which, in turn, might deepen the relationship and lead to further experiences of expressing needs and having them met.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 were intended to build upon Lopez and Rice's (2006) findings that more secure attachment styles are linked to higher levels of being authentic interpersonally. In their study, Lopez and Rice found that unwillingness to accept or engage in deception was moderately, negatively, and comparably correlated with high levels of both attachment anxiety (-.40) and avoidance (-.43). However, they found less comparable results when exploring the relationship between willingness to self-disclose (intimate risk-taking) and attachment style; while willingness to self-disclose was significantly and negatively related to both attachment anxiety and avoidance, its

relationship with avoidance was much stronger than its relationship to anxiety (-.59, as opposed to -.17, respectively). The authors note that the less robust relationship between self-disclosure and anxiety suggests a complex relationship between the larger constructs of authenticity and attachment. They cite Mikulincer and Nachson's (1991) earlier findings that, although anxiously attached people are as likely as securely attached people to self-disclose, their patterns of disclosure tend to be less flexible and less reciprocal. Accordingly, Lopez and Rice (2006) suggest that while anxiously attached people do engage in self-disclosure at levels similar to their securely attached counterparts, they may have complicated motivations for doing so—motivations that include both authenticity-seeking and rejection-avoiding goals.

These hypotheses were intended to build upon Lopez and Rice's (2006) findings in a different, and potentially broader sample, and to generate more data about the complex relationships between authenticity orientation and attachment style. *Hypothesis 4:* There will be a positive relationship between authenticity and egalitarianism such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report high levels of egalitarianism.

Hypothesis 4 was intended to answer Lopez and Rice's (2006) call for more exploration of the relationships between gender role beliefs and the expression of authentic self in romantic relationships. Their findings of significant differences between the self-reported authenticity levels of men and women in romantic relationships suggest that gender role socialization and beliefs may play an important, and as-yet unexplored role in authenticity.

Research Question 1: Among attachment style (Avoidance and Anxiety), egalitarianism, loneliness, intimacy, and relationship satisfaction, what significantly predicts authenticity in romantic relationships?

Although Lopez and Rice (2006) tested the relationships between attachment style, authenticity, and relationship satisfaction, the addition of beliefs about gender roles, intimacy, and some of the demographic items of interest were believed to potentially alter the relationships among the variables. Establishing the strength of predictive relationships between the independent variables and authenticity was an important step in understanding the as yet unexplored influence of beliefs about gender roles, loneliness, and intimacy on authentic expression in romantic relationships.

Chapter Three

Method

Design

A non-experimental descriptive survey design using quantitative methods was used to investigate the questions of interest.

Participants

Two-hundred forty-one men (n=70) and women (n=171) aged between 25 and 38 participated in an online survey (a preliminary power analysis indicated a minimum of 178 participants were needed). Participation was open to people engaged in either a dating or marital relationship (n=185), as well as those not involved in a dating or marital relationship (n=56). Participants who indicated they were not involved in dating or marital relationships were administered a shorter version of the survey (i.e., they were not administered an assessment of current relationship satisfaction or the intimacy measure as detailed in the Measures section below). Participants who were not currently in—or reported never having been in—an intimate romantic relationship were included to explore for differences in the relationships among the variables authenticity, attachment, beliefs about gender role norms, intimacy, and loneliness based on relationship status. For example, people with the most insecure attachment orientations may be less likely to engage in ongoing romantic relationships; including them in a study about romantic relationships—and comparing those data to that obtained from partnered participants— might lead to greater understanding about the complex relationships among variables.

The rationale for including participants aged 25 to 38 was to explore the relationships between the variables of interest within one age cohort who were likely to have been exposed to similar cultural and mass media messages about intimate

relationships and gender role norms. Participants aged between 25 and 38 were born between the years 1969 and 1982, meaning that the formative years of their gender role socialization occurred in the latter part of the 20th century during a time of rapidly changing gender role norms. The low end of the age range was chosen to restrict people still in college (an important time of separation, individuation, and relational identity development) from participating, while the high end of the age range is meant to include people likely to have had at least one significant, long term partner relationship. Additionally, enough range in age was needed to explore whether expression of authentic self occurred differently, or with more or less frequency, across age groups from the mid-20s to the late-30s.

The rationale for limiting the present study to heterosexual participants was to explore the range of gender role norms to which adults seeking or involved in heterosexual couple relationships may adhere. While some adults seeking opposite sex partners are likely to adhere stringently to gender role norms (especially to those purported to attract potential partners), others are likely to adhere much less stringently to gender roles norms because they may feel that gender role adherence is unrelated to attracting romantic partners. Additionally, heterosexuals have been found to adhere more strongly to gender role norms than bisexual, lesbian, gay, and transgendered individuals, who may be considered "gender transgressors" within their cultural circles, and who may be more fluid in their expression of gender, particularly in cultures where gender role norms are less stringent (Fassinger & Arseneau, 2007; Huston & Schwartz, 2002; Ross, 1983). For the present study, it was important to capture a range of adherence to gender role norms within the heterosexual orientation, and in particular, to generate enough

participation for the purposes of comparing men to women, and for comparing individual participants within groups of men and women.

Response Rate

Due to the nature of recruitment for the present study, it is impossible to know how many people received a recruitment email inviting them to participate in the survey. However, information was collected about the number of times individuals visited the study website. Based on these numbers, 347 people visited the site and started the survey during the time of data collection and 241 participants completed the survey. An estimation of the response rate of those who visited the website and completed the survey can be calculated at 69.45% based on this information.

Table 1 contains demographic information about participants who completed the entire survey.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Participants by Sex

Characteristics	Male (n=70)	Female (n=171)	Total (n=241)	Total Percent
Age				
25-29	29	87	116	48.2%
30-34	26	62	88	36.5%
35-38	15	22	37	15.3%
Race/Ethnicity				
African-American/Black	5	15	20	8.3%
Asian-American/Pacific Islander	2	6	8	3.3%
Asian-Indian	3	1	4	1.7%
Biracial/Multiracial	0	4	4	1.7%
Hispanic/Latino/a	2	12	14	5.8%
Middle Eastern/Arab	0	3	3	1.2%
Native American/Native Alaskan	0	1	1	0.4%
White/European American	55	128	183	75.9%
Foreign National	0	1	1	0.4%
Other	3	0	3	1.2%

Relationship Status			
Married	25	63	88	36.5%
Committed partnership, unmarried	11	27	38	15.8%
Monogamous dating relationship	14	35	49	20.3%
Non-monogamous dating relationship	3	7	10	4.1%
Not in a relationship	17	39	56	23.2%
Religion			
Agnostic	14	33	47	19.5%
Atheist	18	16	34	14.1%
Buddhist	1	2	3	1.2%
Catholic	10	33	43	17.8%
Christian	13	50	63	26.1%
Hindu	2	0	2	0.8%
Jewish	7	26	33	13.7%
Muslim	0	2	2	0.8%
Taoist	1	0	1	0.4%
Other	4	9	13	5.4%
Political Stance			
Very Conservative	3	1	4	1.7%
Somewhat Conservative	10	12	22	9.1%
Middle of the Road	10	22	22	13.3%
Somewhat Liberal	23	58	81	33.6%
Very Liberal	21	67	88	36.5%
Not Political	2	7	9	3.7%
Other	1	4	5	2.1%
Region			
Southwest	0	6	6	2.5%
West	5	9	14	5.8%
Midwest	6	17	23	9.5%
Northeast	17	59	76	31.5%
Mid-Atlantic	29	54	83	34.4%
South	12	19	31	12.9%
Hawaii	0	2	2	0.8%
Outside US	1	5	6	2.5%
Parents Marital Status			
Parents stayed married	46	111	157	65.1%
Parent separated	2	3	5	2.1%

Parents divorced	16	41	57	23.7%
Parents remarried	4	9	13	5.4%
Parents never married	2	7	9	3.7%
Age at Parents' Divorce				
n/a	48	119	167	69.3%
0-4 years	3	13	16	6.6%
5-9 years	8	16	24	10%
10-14 years	6	5	11	4.6%
15-19 years	2	11	13	5.4%
20 years or older	3	7	10	4.1%
Number of Previous Serious Relationships				
0	6	15	21	8.7%
1	13	48	61	25.3%
2	19	56	75	31.1%
3	16	29	45	18.7%
4	7	15	22	9.1%
5	4	5	9	3.7%
6	5	3	8	3.3%
Divorce Status				
Has divorced	7	13	20	8.3%
Has never divorced	63	158	221	91.7%
Desires Committed Partner Relationship				
Not like me	4	2	6	2.5%
Somewhat like me	18	30	48	19.9%
Very much like me	48	139	187	77.6%
Desires Noncommittal "Casual" Relationships				
Not like me	46	143	189	78.4%
Somewhat like me	20	28	48	19.9%
Very much like me	4	0	4	1.7%

As can be seen in Table 1, the ages of the 241 participants ranged from 25 to 38 years; the mean age of participants (not shown) was 30.22 years (SD=3.64). This sample consisted of 8.3% African American/Black, 3.3% Asian-American/Pacific Islander, 1.7% Asian-Indian, 1.7% Biracial/Multiracial, 5.8% Hispanic/Latino/a, 1.2% Middle

Eastern/Arab, 0.4% Native American/Native Alaskan, 75.9% White/European

American, 0.4% Foreign National, and 1.2% Other participants.

Religiously, this sample was diverse; predominantly represented were Agnostics

(19.5%), Atheists (14.1%), Catholics (17.8%), Christians (26.1%), and Jews (13.7%).

Less predominantly represented were Buddhists (1.2%), Hindus (0.8%), Muslims (0.8%),

and Taoists (0.4%). Politically, that majority of participants described themselves as

either Somewhat Liberal (33.6%) or Very Liberal (36.5%); nearly 11% were

Conservative and 13.3% described themselves as "Middle of the Road." Geographically,

participants were drawn from across the United States, with the majority of respondents

coming from the Northeast (31.5%), Mid-Atlantic (34.4%), and the South (12.9%);

however, the West (5.8%), Southwest (2.5%), and Midwest (9.5%) were also represented,

as were a small percentage of participants living in Hawaii (0.8%) and abroad (2.5%).

Participants were asked to report if they were children of divorce, and if so, their

age at the time of their parents' divorce. The majority (65.1%) of participants reported

that their parents stayed married, while roughly a fourth reported having experienced

parental divorce (23.7%) or separation (2.1%). Of those participants who indicated their

parents had divorced (following percentages not shown in Table 1), 21.6% were ages 0-4,

32.4% were ages 5-9, 14.9% were ages 10-14, 17.6% were ages 15-19, and 13.5% were

20 years of age or older at the time of the divorce.

Participants also were asked to report on their relationship history and current

relationship status. More than half of the participants (52.3%) reported being either

married or in a committed partner relationship, and roughly 20% of participants described

themselves as being in a monogamous dating relationship. A small percentage (4.1%) of

participants reported being in non-monogamous dating relationships with one or more people and close to a fourth (23.2%) of the participants reported that they were not involved in dating or marital relationships at the time of survey participation.

A small percentage of participants (8.7%) reported that they had had no previous "serious" relationships, while 25.3% reported having had one previous relationship, 31.1% had two relationships, 18.7% had three previous relationships, and 16.1% reported having had four or more previous relationships. Although the vast majority of the sample (91.7%) had not been divorced, 8.3% did report having experienced one divorce; no one in the sample had been divorced more than once.

Two final items on the demographic questionnaire asked participants about their interest in having romantic relationships. The first item asked participants to rate their desire to have a committed partner relationship using a three-point Likert scale of agreement. The majority of participants (77.6%) agreed that this desire was "very much like me," while 19.9% agreed it was "somewhat like me," and 2.5% reported it was "not like me." Conversely, the second item asked participants to rate their desire to "date a lot of people casually" using the same three-point scale. In a similar pattern, 78.4% of the sample indicated this statement was "not like me," while 19.9% agreed it was "somewhat like me," and 1.7% reported it was "very much like me."

Procedures

Participants were recruited via a snowball sampling technique in which 120 potential participants were contacted through a chain of referrals based on an extended network of relationships and contacts (Goodman, 1961; see Appendix A). In snowball sampling, emails (or some other personal contact method) are sent to potential

participants requesting that they pass on a brief message describing the study to acquaintances who they believe also might qualify to participate in the study.

To increase the racial, religious, economic, and attitudinal diversity of the sample, strategic contacts were made with members of various social, cultural, geographic, racial/ethnic, and religious groups through the researcher's personal and professional relationship network. Email solicitations for participation were sent through these contacts as appropriate and individuals interested in participating were directed to a hyperlink to arrive at the online version of the survey.

To assess the success of this solicitation technique meant to increase participation by historically under-represented groups, one demographic category—race—was compared to United States Census data. Specifically, the proportion of majority-to-minority groups in the present study (75.9% White/European, 24.1% minority races) was compared to the 2000 U.S. Census to assess how representative the participants in the present study were of the distribution of race/ethnicity in the population.

According to the 2000 U.S. Census, White/European Americans made up 75.1% of the population, while 12.3% were of Black/African American descent, 3.6% were identified as Asian American, 2.4% were identified as Multiracial, .9% were Native American, .1% were Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islanders, and .42% were Middle Eastern Americans. Latino heritage—an ethnicity, not a race—can include members of White, African-American, Asian, and all other racial groups; 12.5% of Americans identified as Latino or Hispanic in the 2000 U.S. Census. Although the proportions of minority groups in the present study do not reflected the exact distributions of minority racial and ethnic groups in the 2000 U.S. Census, the overall proportions of majority-to-minority groups is

quite similar, and suggests that a reasonable amount of racial/ethnic diversity was achieved in the present study.

Participation was voluntary and confidential. No compensation was offered in return for participation in the present study; however, all participants were given the opportunity to enter a lottery to win either $50 cash or a $50 iTunes music card by entering their email addresses at the end of the survey. One-hundred sixty-three participants entered in the lottery. One participant's email was selected and this person elected to have the iTunes music card mailed to her home address.

Measures

Demographic questionnaire. Participants were asked for information regarding age, race/ethnicity, religion, political stance, educational and employment status, parents' marital status, age at parental divorce (if applicable), current relationship status, length of time in their current romantic relationship (if applicable), and number of previous relationships. Participants' current relationship status determined whether or not they were they administered the entire battery of measures; since the satisfaction and intimacy measures employed were designed to assess current relationships, only participants who reported being involved in a relationship at the time of their participation completed these two measures and participants who described themselves as not currently involved in a romantic relationship were not. Additionally, two one-item measures assessed participants' desire to be in a committed relationship and their desire to have multiple romantic experiences (see Appendix B). (The demographic results and descriptive information about the sample were reported in the Participants section and in Table 1 above.)

Authenticity. The Authenticity in Relationships Scale (AIRS; Lopez & Rice, 2006) assesses the extent to which participants favor accurate and mutual exchanges about self-experiences with their intimate partners over the relational risks associated with discomfort, partner disapproval or rejection, and relationship instability or loss. The AIRS (see Appendix F) contains items consistent with general statements of authenticity in relationships (n=13), as well as two major constructs that emerged during factor analysis: 1) Unacceptability of Deception (n=13), which assesses participants' willingness to engage in, and accept, deceptive and inaccurate self- and partner-representations, and 2) Intimate Risk-Taking (n=11), which assesses participants' preferences or disposition toward uninhibited self-disclosure and risk-taking with one's partner. An example item of a general AIRS item which did not fit into either of the two subscale factors is, "I would rather have my partner leave me than not know who I really am." An example of a UOD subscale item (reverse-scored) is, "I'd rather my partner have a positive view of me than a completely accurate one." An example of an IRT subscale item is, "I share my deepest thoughts with my partner even if there's a chance that he/she won't understand them."

The 37-item AIRS employs a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all descriptive of me) to 9 (very descriptive of me), and yields two subscale scores, a 13-item Unacceptability of Deception subscale score (UOD) and an 11-item Intimate Risk-Taking subscale score (IRT). The UOD score ranges from 13 to 117 and the IRT score ranges from 11 to 99; in each case, higher scores indicate a greater orientation toward authenticity in romantic relationships. The full length 37-item AIRS was administered and was examined via exploratory factor analysis (see Results section) to explore how the

items would hold in an older population than the college student population upon which it was normed.

Lopez and Rice (2006) reported internal consistency reliability coefficients of .88 and .85 for the UOD and IRT scales, respectively. The authors reported moderately to substantially significant relationships (p<.001) between the AIRS and measures of concurrent validity, which included the variables self-esteem, depression, splitting, self-concealment, attachment security, and relationship satisfaction. In the present study, the internal reliability coefficients for the UOD and IRT subscales were .83 and .89, respectively. (The exploratory factor analysis used in many of the subsequent analyses is discussed in detail in the Results section below.)

Attachment. The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECRS; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; see Appendix G) assesses adult romantic attachment using the two dimensions of Anxiety and Avoidance. The 36-item ECRS asks participants to report their experiences in close relationships in general (rather than restricting their answers to reflect their experiences in a current relationship) using a 7-point Likert scale of agreement ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly).

The Avoidance subscale (18 items) measures one's degree of discomfort with emotional closeness, openness, and interdependence in romantic relationships. An example of an item from the Avoidance subscale is, "Just when my partner starts to get close to me, I find myself pulling away." The Anxiety subscale measures the degree to which one fears being rejected, neglected, or abandoned by romantic partners. An example of an item from this subscale is, "I worry that romantic partners won't care about me as much as I care about them."

Brennan et al. (1998) reported that the ECRS was created through a large-scale instrument development process in which 1,086 participants completed 14 existing self-report attachment measures with a total of 60 subscales. A principal components analysis yielded the two attachment factors anxiety and avoidance and the items that were most highly correlated with the two factors were selected for the ECRS. Both subscales have showed high internal consistency estimates, ranging from .90 to .94 for Avoidance and from .88 to .91 for Anxiety (e.g., Brennan et al., 1998; Mohr, Gelso, & Hill, 2005; Woodhouse, 2003). Lopez and Gormley (2002) reported test-retest reliabilities over a 6-month interval of .68 for anxiety and .71 for avoidance. ECRS subscale scores for the two attachment dimensions—Anxiety and Avoidance—are determined by calculating mean scores; lower scores reflect more secure attachment styles and higher scores suggest more insecure attachment styles. In the present study, the internal consistency coefficients for Avoidance and Anxiety subscales were .94 and .93, respectively.

Gender role beliefs. The Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES; Beere, King, Beere, & King, 1984; see Appendix H) assesses gender role attitudes and beliefs about role, duty, or need differences between men and women. The 25-item short form KK contains 25 items representing each of five domains: marital roles, parental roles, employment roles, social-interpersonal-heterosexual roles, and educational roles. All of the items explicitly or implicitly compare women and men. Examples of items include, "Women have as much ability as men to make major business decisions," and, "A marriage will be most successful if the husband's needs are considered first." Each item is accompanied by five response items, ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly

disagree). Scores range from 25 to 125 with higher scores indicating more egalitarian, or less traditional, gender role attitudes.

Beere, King, Beere, and King (1984) reported internal consistency reliability coefficients of .91 and .94 for Forms BB and KK, respectively. King and King (1986) found a curvilinear relationship between the SRES and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence & Helmriech, 1972), and concluded that egalitarianism is a separate construct from feminist attitudes. In the present study, the internal consistency coefficient was .86.

Relationship satisfaction. The unifactorial Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS; Hendrick, 1988; see Appendix D) assesses satisfaction in romantic relationships (e.g., love, expectations, and difficulties). The 7-item RAS contains questions about satisfaction with one's partner, the relationship as a whole, and the extent to which needs are met within the relationship. An example of an item is, "How good is your relationship compared to most?" The RAS employs a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (low satisfaction) to 5 (high satisfaction), and yields one total RAS score ranging from 7 to 35; higher scores correspond with greater relationship satisfaction.

Hendrick (1988) reported item-total correlations ranging from .57 to 76 and a reliability coefficient of .86. The RAS measure was also positively correlated with the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier, 1976), a well-respected measure of dyadic satisfaction. Hendrick (1988) also provided evidence for the validity of the RAS by demonstrating that it effectively predicted which couples in the study's initial sample would stay together (at a rate of 91%) and which would not (at a rate of 86%) three months post-participation. This suggests that the RAS not only assesses whether

relationships are satisfying, but the extent to which they are functional and likely to endure over time.

Since the RAS is intended to assess satisfaction in current, ongoing romantic relationships, this measure was administered only to participants who reported being involved in a relationship at the time of their participation in the present study. In the present study, the internal consistency coefficient was .88.

Intimacy. The 17-item intimacy measure used in the present study (see Appendix E) was originally developed as part of a 50-item measure development and factor analysis study in which Walker (1979) examined various aspects of intimacy. In a later paper, Walker and Thompson (1983) extracted the 17-items that represented the first factor, described as "a general intimacy or affection factor" (p.844), and used this factor as an independent measure of intimacy in a study of mother-daughter relationships. Items were slightly modified to include both masculine and feminine pronouns. Examples of items include, "S/he is important to me," "We feel like we're a unit," and "S/he always thinks about my best interest." Items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale and answers are summed and averaged to create scores that range from 1 to 7, with higher scores indicating greater intimacy. Walker and Thompson (1983) reported internal reliability coefficients ranging from .91 to .97, and for the present study, the coefficient was .97.

Loneliness. The 20-item UCLA Loneliness Scale, Version 3 (Russell, 1996; see Appendix I) is part of a long program of research begun by Russell, Peplau, and Ferguson (1978) that resulted in a measure of loneliness that has come to be viewed as the "standard" in the field (Shaver & Brennan, 1991). Although much of the research conducted on the initial measure involved college student samples, as the research

program progressed, studies including adults in varying professions (e.g., nurses, teachers) and the elderly were performed, and various length versions of the scale were developed. As the scale was refined, its psychometric properties were strengthened.

Examples of items included in Version 3 are, "How often do you feel left out?" and "How often do you feel close to other people?" The scale uses a 4-point Likert scale, and asks participants to rate the frequency of their agreement with the items, with answers ranging from "never" to "always." Scores are summed and higher scores indicate greater degrees of loneliness.

Russell (1996) reported internal consistency coefficients ranging from .89 to .94 for his 20-item measure. However, due to a technical error, the two final items of this measure ("How often do you feel there are people you can talk to?" and "How often do you feel there are people you can turn to?") were not administered to the participants in this sample. In the present study, the internal consistency coefficient for the 18-item measure was .93.

Chapter Four

Results

Preliminary analyses

Means, standard deviations, and reliabilities were computed for each of the

variables of interest and are presented in Table 2. As can be seen in Table 2, all measures

had high levels of internal consistency (α >.83).

Table 2
*Means of Total Scores, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of Authenticity (AIRS,
UOD, and IRT), Attachment Anxiety and Attachment Avoidance, Loneliness, Intimacy,
Relationship Satisfaction, and Sex Role Egalitarianism*

Scale	Possible Range of Scores	Mean of Total Score (SD)	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)
Authenticity: Unacceptability of Deception (UOD; n=241)	(13-117) Summed	93.27 (15.09)	.83
Authenticity: Intimate Risk Taking (IRT; n=241)	(11-99) Summed	80.71 (13.54)	.90
Attachment: Anxiety (ANX; n=241)	(1-7) Mean	3.29 (1.23)	.93
Attachment: Avoidance (AVOID; n=241)	(1-7) Mean	2.35 (1.04)	.94
Loneliness (LONE; n=241)	(18-72) Summed	35.70 (9.38)	.93
Intimacy (INT) (n=185)	(1-7) Mean	6.08 (1.08)	.97
Relationship Satisfaction (RAS; n=185)	(7-35) Summed	29.32 (4.48)	.88
Sex Role Egalitarianism (SRES; n=241)	(25-125) Summed	115.70 (9.50)	.89

As can be seen in Table 2, this sample had relatively high self-reported scores of unacceptability of deception (with a mean score 28.27 points above the scale midpoint of 65) and slightly lower—but still high—intimate risk-taking scores (with a mean score 25.71 above the scale midpoint of 55). In terms of attachment, this sample appeared to be only very slightly below (.21 points) the scale midpoint score for anxiety of 3.5, and had substantially lower scores of avoidance (with mean scores 1.15 points below the scale midpoint). This sample scored lower in terms of loneliness (with a mean score 9.3 points lower than the scale midpoint of 45), and high in terms of egalitarianism (with a mean score 40.7 points above the scale midpoint of 75). Those participants in relationships at the time of the study reported high levels of relationship satisfaction (with a mean score 8.32 points above the scale midpoint of 21), as well as high levels of intimacy (with mean score 2.58 points above the scale midpoint of 3.5).

Prior to conducting analyses for the hypotheses and research questions below, correlations were calculated to explore the relationships between the variables of interest and to examine relationships among demographic variables. Table 3 presents a correlation matrix for the variables of interest.

Table 3
Bivariate Correlation of Variables of Interest

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. IRT	1.00							
2. UOD	.66**	1.00						
3. ANX	-.32**	-.41**	1.00					
4. AVOID	-.71**	-.61**	.34**	1.00				
5. LONE	-.33**	-.33**	.50**	.37**	1.00			
6. INT	.44**	.35**	-.27**	-.27**	-.41**	1.00		
7. RAS	.54**	.45**	-.35**	-.54**	-.54**	.57**	1.00	
8. SRES	.23**	.34**	-.13*	-.19**	-.13*	.06	.17	1.00

Note. Correlations significant at the p<0.05 level are indicated by * and correlations significant at the p<0.01 level are indicated by **.

As can be seen in Table 3, significant relationships existed between many of the variables. Intimate risk-taking had positive relationships with unacceptability of deception (r = .66, p<.01), intimacy (r = .44, p<.01), relationship satisfaction (.54, p<.01), and egalitarianism (.23, p<.01), and negative relationships with attachment anxiety (r = -.32, p<.01), attachment avoidance (r = -.71, p<.01), and loneliness (r = -.33, p<.01). Unacceptability of deception had a similar pattern of relationships to the variables, showing positive correlations with intimacy (r = .35, p<.01), relationship satisfaction (r = .45, p<.01), and egalitarianism (r = .34, p<.01), and negative correlations with attachment anxiety (r = -.41, p<.01), attachment avoidance (r = -.61, p<.01), and loneliness (r = -.33, p<.01).

The attachment variables avoidance and anxiety also tended to have a pattern of correlations with the other variables. Attachment anxiety had positive associations with avoidance (r = .34, p<.01) and loneliness (r = .50, p<.01), and negative associations with intimate risk-taking (r = -.32, p<.01), unacceptability of deception (r = -.41, p<.01), intimacy (r = -.27, p<.01), relationship satisfaction (r = -.35, p<.01), and egalitarianism (r = -.13, p<.05). Attachment avoidance had positive associations with loneliness (r = .37, p<.01), and negative associations with intimate risk-taking (r = -.71, p<.01), unacceptability of deception (r = -.61, p<.01), intimacy (r = -.27, p<.01), relationship satisfaction (r = -.54, p<.01), and egalitarianism (r = -.19, p<.05).

To summarize, moderate-to-strong relationships were found between many of the variables. In particular, the two types of authenticity were negatively related to avoidance, anxiety, and loneliness, but had positive associations with intimacy, relationship satisfaction, and egalitarianism. In addition, negative associations were found

between attachment anxiety and taking risks in intimate relationships, viewing deception as unacceptable, rating one's relationship as being highly intimate, reporting high relationship satisfaction, and holding egalitarian views. Attachment avoidance had similar associations with these same variables, and both attachment constructs had positive associations with loneliness.

Differences between major demographic variables

In addition to examining the means and the correlations of the major variables under investigation, four sets of analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were performed to explore for significant differences among the sexes, among levels of relationship status, among age groups, and among parents' marital/divorce status. For purposes of more meaningful comparison, data related to age, relationship status, and parents' marital/divorce status were collapsed into smaller groups to compare participants. Age was collapsed into Group 1 (25-29 year olds; n=116), Group 2 (30-34 year olds; n=88), and Group 3 (35-38 year olds; n=37). Relationship status was collapsed into Group 1 (married/partnered; n=126), Group 2 (dating; n=59), and Group 3 (single/alone; n=56). Parents' marital/divorce status was collapsed into Group 1 (parents' marriage intact; n=157) and Group 2 (parents' marriage not intact; n=84).

Eight dependent variables of interest were tested, including: Authenticity IRT, Authenticity UOD, Avoidance, Anxiety, Egalitarianism, Loneliness, Relationship Satisfaction, and Intimacy. Tests of the first six variables included data from all 241 participants, and tests of Relationship Satisfaction and Intimacy included data from the 185 participants who were in relationships. In all instances except for where there were fewer than three groups (i.e., sex, or the single/alone category when examining

Relationship Satisfaction and Intimacy), Hochberg's GT2 adjustment was done to control

for different sample sizes. Hochberg's GT2 adjustment is similar to the Tukey procedure,

but is more conservative and recommended when sample sizes are unequal. In instances

where post hoc tests could not be performed, t-tests explored for strength and direction of

significant differences.

As can be seen in Table 4, significant differences emerged among the

demographic variables sex and current relationship status. Specifically, there were

significant differences between men and women's scores on Authenticity UOD, $F(1,$

$239) = 5.24$, $p < .05$; Anxiety, $F(1, 239) = 8.89$, $p < .05$; and Egalitarianism, $F(1, 239) =$

11.56, $p < .05$.

Table 4
Comparison of Means by Sex

	n (Female, Male)	Female Mean	Male Mean	df	Mean Square	F	p
Authenticity IRT	241 (171, 70)	80.41	81.46	1, 239	54.528	.297	.59
Authenticity UOD	241 (171, 70)	94.68	89.93	1, 239	1171.035	5.236	**.02**
Anxiety	241 (171, 70)	3.44	2.93	1, 239	12.924	8.893	**.00**
Avoidance	241 (171, 70)	2.34	2.37	1, 239	.044	.041	.84
Loneliness	241 (171, 70)	35.42	36.40	1, 239	48.169	.546	.46
Intimacy	185 (132, 54)	6.07	6.11	1, 184	.070	.060	.81
Relationship Satisfaction	185 (132, 54)	29.40	29.13	1, 183	2.732	.136	.71
Egalitarianism	241 (171, 70)	117.00	112.51	1, 239	999.402	11.555	**.00**

Note. Significant at the p<0.05 level.

T-tests showed that: (1) the UOD subscale score for women of 94.68 (*SD* =

15.01) was significantly higher that the subscale score for men's reported willingness to

engage in uninhibited self-disclosures 89.93 (*SD* = 14.82), $t(239) = 2.29$, $p > .05$; (2) the

Anxiety mean score for women of 3.44 (SD = 1.25) was significantly higher that the

Anxiety mean score for men 2.93 (SD = 1.08), $t(239)$ = 2.98, p > .05; and the SRES score

for women of 117.00 (SD = 7.90) was significantly higher that the SRES score for men

112.51 (SD = 12.07), $t(239)$ = 3.40, p > .05. There were no significant differences

between men and women's levels of intimate risk-taking, avoidance, loneliness, intimacy,

or relationship satisfaction.

As can be seen in Table 5, significant differences emerged among the three levels

of relationship status in many of the variables of interest.

Table 5
Comparison of Means by Current Relationship Status

	Group 1 Mean (married/partnered)	Group 2 Mean (dating)	Group 3 Mean (single/alone)	df	Mean Square	F	*p*
Authenticity IRT	86.28	76.88	72.25	2, 238	4383.88	29.64	**.00**
Authenticity UOD	97.44	91.64	85.61	2, 238	2819.97	13.70	**.00**
Anxiety	2.92	3.61	3.80	2, 238	18.99	14.03	**.00**
Avoidance	1.92	2.66	3.00	2, 238	26.24	30.04	**.00**
Loneliness	33.09	37.29	39.91	2, 238	1000.90	12.46	**.00**
Intimacy	6.28	5.69	n/a	2, 183	7.95	7.26	**.00**
Relationship Satisfaction	30.33	27.24	n/a	2, 183	208.95	11.63	**.00**
Egalitarianism	116.43	115.46	114.30	2, 238	89.77	.99	.37

Note. Significant at the p<0.05 level.

Many significant differences according to level of relationship status emerged,

including: Authenticity IRT, $F(2, 238)$ = 29.64, p < .05; Authenticity UOD, $F(2, 238)$ =

13.70, p < .05; Avoidance, $F(2, 238)$ = 30.04, p < .05; Anxiety, $F(2, 238)$ = 14.03, p <

.05; Relationship Satisfaction $F(2, 182)$ = 11.63, p < .05; Intimacy, $F(2, 183)$ = 7.26, p <

.05; and Loneliness, $F(2, 238)$ = 12.46, p < .05. Post hoc tests (Hochberg's GT2

adjustment) showed that: Group 3 (single/alone) had a significantly lower unacceptability of deception score (85.61) than Groups 1 (married/partnered; 97.44) and 2 (dating; 91.64); Group 1 had a significantly higher intimate risk-taking score (86.27) than Groups 2 (76.88) or 3 (72.25); Group 1 also scored significantly lower on Avoidance (1.92) and Anxiety (2.91) than Groups 2 (2.65 and 3.64, respectively) or 3 (3.00 and 3.80, respectively). Unsurprisingly, Group 1 also scored significantly lower on Loneliness (33.09) than Groups 2 (37.29) or 3 (39.91).

Because only two levels of participants in relationships (married/partnered and dating) took the Relationship Satisfaction and Intimacy measures, t-tests were performed to explore differences and showed that: (1) Group 1 (married/partnered) reported significantly higher levels of relationship satisfaction (30.33; $SD = 3.70$) than Group 2 (dating) (27.24; $SD = 5.23$), $t(183) = 4.59$, $p > .05$; and (2) Group 1 (married/partnered) reported significantly higher levels of intimacy (6.27; $SD = 1.01$) than Group 2 (dating) (5.69; $SD = 1.13$), $t(183) = 3.53$, $p > .05$.

Although some interesting trends in the data emerged (e.g., both Anxiety and Loneliness appear to decrease with age), no significant differences emerged among the participants in regards to age and parents' marital/divorce status. This series of ANOVAs and post hoc tests showed that significant differences emerged only in regards to the demographic variables of sex and current relationship status.

Analyses of hypotheses and research questions

Research Question 1: Will the two-factor solution for the Authenticity in Relationships Scale hold in the population used for the present study?

As discussed previously, Lopez and Rice's (2006) Authenticity in Relationships Scale initially contained 37-items, included only participants who indicated they were involved in romantic relationships, and resulted in a two-factor solution that shrunk the measure to 24 items. The 37 items initially presented by Lopez and Rice had good face validity, yet several of the items the present study's author deemed most interesting and potentially relevant to an exploration of authenticity in adult romantic relationships did not load on either of Lopez and Rice's final two-factor solution, and thus, were not retained in their final version of the measure.

To review briefly, Lopez and Rice performed several factor analyses to refine their measure. Their initial factor analysis yielded two factors that collectively accounted for approximately 42% of the inter-item variance (Factor 1 eigenvalue = 12.95, 35%; Factor 2 eigenvalue = 2.61, 7%). After dropping items with low loadings and testing a shorter version of the measure with a new sample, the authors reported a final two factor solution with coefficients ranging from .53 to .80 for the 13-item Factor 1, and from .46 to .75 for the 11-item Factor 2. Lopez and Rice examined the items that loaded uniquely on each of the two factors and determined that Factor 1 items appeared to tap a willingness to engage in and accept deceptive and inaccurate self- and partner representations (e.g., "Sometimes I find myself trying to impress my partner into believing something about me that isn't really true."). The authors labeled this factor *Unacceptability of Deception*, or UOD. By contrast, they noted that items which loaded uniquely on Factor 2 appeared to capture dispositions toward uninhibited, intimate self-disclosure and risk taking with one's partner ("I share my deepest thoughts with my partner even if there's a chance that he or she won't understand them."); they labeled this

factor *Intimate Risk Taking*, or IRT. Lopez and Rice noted that the correlation between

the two factors in this initial factor analysis was .59. Subsequently, Lopez and Rice used

only UOD and IRT subscale scores in all analyses which followed the measure

development portion of their study.

The present study utilized data from all 241 participants—those involved in

dating or marital relationships and those not involved in romantic relationships—in the

exploratory factor analyses reported here. An exploratory factor analysis using a principle

axis analysis and an oblique rotation with the Promax procedure was performed to

explore whether Lopez and Rice's two-factor solution would hold in the adult population

used in the present study. This analysis did not constrain the number of factors items

could fall into and resulted in eight factors with eigenvalues ranging from 1.04 to 11.33.

However, an examination of the factor loadings showed that 35 of the items loaded

highest on the first factor and the two remaining items loaded on Factors 2 and 3; no

items loaded highest on Factors 4 through 8. This pattern of factor loadings, shown in

Table 6, suggested that an alternative solution to Lopez and Rice's two factors might

better explain the data in this sample.

Table 6
Factor Loading of AIRS Items

AIRS Items	Factors							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. I am totally myself when I am with my partner.	.744	-.236	-.178	-.147	.016	-.132	-.097	.021
2. I share my deepest thoughts with my partner even if there's a chance that he/she won't understand them.	.711	-.183	-.321	.036	.063	-.194	.074	-.031
3. I hesitate to say things to my partner when he or she may not want to hear them.	.374	.165	-.298	.038	.103	.100	-.053	-.007
4. When talking with my partner about serious matters in our relationship, I feel like I'm not being who I really am.	.484	.039	-.118	-.038	.061	.094	.014	.130

5. I answer my partner's questions about me honestly and fully.	.610	-.064	.037	.058	-.056	.028	-.100	.071
6. I disclose my deepest feelings to my partner even if there's a chance that he/she may not share them.	.742	-.139	-.184	.102	.069	-.193	-.105	-.007
7. When I am hurt by something my partner said, I will let him or her know about it.	.666	-.190	-.095	-.030	.037	-.078	.147	-.163
8. There are times when I feel like I'm being a "fake" with my partner.	.646	.129	-.021	-.042	.069	-.107	-.084	-.077
9. I would rather have my partner leave me than not know who I really am.	.217	-.030	.107	.164	-.055	.304	.047	.067
10. I openly share my thoughts and feelings about other people to my partner.	.536	-.171	-.107	.112	-.191	.172	.360	.054
11. I consistently tell my partner the real reasons and motivations behind doing the things that I do.	.532	-.286	-.087	.066	-.028	.078	.105	-.034
12. I'd rather my partner have a positive view of me than a completely accurate one.	.452	.184	.283	.181	.335	-.209	-.008	.189
13. My life is an "open book" for my partner to read.	.677	-.151	-.064	.111	-.056	-.112	-.014	.015
14. I am basically the same person with my partner as I am with other people I care about.	.593	-.216	-.065	-.247	-.036	.032	-.172	-.017
15. I'm careful how I talk with my partner about my relationships with other people.	.397	.330	-.116	.095	.226	.184	.356	.180
16. I'm willing to tell a "white lie" about myself if it will keep my partner happy.	.462	.367	.126	.182	.098	-.037	-.146	-.015
17. It is necessary for me that my partner knows me as I know myself.	.437	-.178	.024	.143	.078	-.027	-.026	-.170
18. I avoid raising certain topics for discussion with my partner.	.495	.363	-.153	.168	.059	.213	-.050	-.091
19. I purposefully hide my true feelings about some things in order to avoid upsetting my partner.	.561	.360	-.197	-.006	-.001	.093	.007	-.356
20. If my partner has a positive but inaccurate understanding of me, I correct it, even if this action may lower his or her opinion of me.	.505	-.187	.188	.292	.033	-.152	-.066	.115
21. Sometimes I find myself trying to impress my partner into believing something about me that isn't really true.	.545	.191	.214	-.058	.068	-.046	-.158	.002
22. If my partner knew the real me, he or she would probably be surprised and disappointed.	.638	-.089	.234	-.409	.068	.119	.093	-.085
23. I would rather be the person my partner wants me to be than who I really am.	.590	-.025	.433	-.222	.055	.117	.069	.012

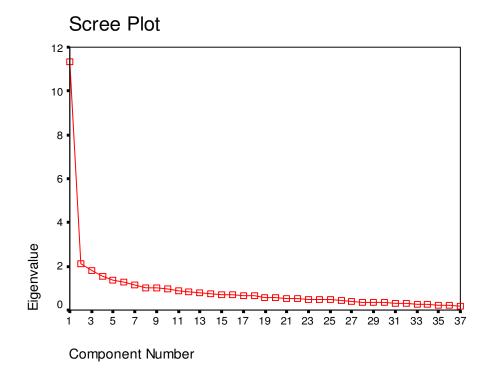| Item								
24. There are no topics that are "off limits" between my partner and me.	.574	.053	-.085	.182	-.208	.234	-.233	.151
25. I would rather upset my partner than be someone who I am not.	.474	-.198	.278	.268	-.156	.225	-.180	-.021
26. To avoid conflict in our relationship, I will sometimes tell my partner what I think he or she wants to hear even if it's not true.	.520	.237	.060	.049	.231	.060	-.047	-.092
27. I suspect that what my partner likes best about me is not really part of who I am.	.485	-.057	.135	-.310	.061	.170	.040	.039
28. I feel free to reveal the most intimate parts of myself to my partner.	.750	-.148	-.140	.144	-.012	-.054	.074	.129
29. Sometimes I feel like I am two different people one when I am with partner, and another when I am by myself.	.679	-.062	.106	-.263	.032	.077	-.152	.002
30. There are times I find myself calculating the risks of expressing my true feelings to my partner.	.534	.312	-.275	-.182	-.094	-.036	.001	.138
31. There are certain things about my partner I'd rather not know much about.	.426	.270	.167	-.024	-.216	-.259	.176	.078
32. If I knew my partner's true feelings about some things, I'd probably be disappointed or hurt.	.529	.270	-.133	-.334	-.249	-.117	-.007	.137
33. I expect that my partner will always tell me the truth before trying to protect my feelings.	.386	-.116	.011	.036	-.136	.097	-.086	.057
34. I'd rather think the best of my partner than to know the whole truth about him or her.	.422	.087	.429	-.007	-.134	-.125	.142	-.023
35. I will confront my partner if I suspect that he or she is not being completely open with me.	.534	-.224	.084	.132	-.009	-.033	.183	-.126
36. I'd rather my partner keep certain thoughts and feelings to him/herself if this will help us avoid an argument.	.358	.283	.188	.180	-.287	-.105	.089	-.195
37. I expect that my partner will first consider my feelings before telling me things that I might find hurtful.	.055	-.214	.034	-.027	.363	.051	.066	.001

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
a 8 factors extracted. 17 iterations required.

Costello and Osbourne (2005) noted that although retaining factors with eigenvalues over 1.0 is the default in most statistical software packages, it is among the least accurate methods for selecting the numbers of factors to retain. They suggest examining a scree test plot of the data. Additionally, Field (2005) concurs that despite

Kaiser's (1960) early recommendation that factors with eigenvalues over 1.0 should be

retained, the scree plot should be consulted to determine the number of factors ultimately

retained. For the present study, the scree plot (see Figure 1)—in line with the high

loadings on Factor 1 found in the initial factor analysis—suggested a one factor solution.

Figure 1: Scree Plot of AIRS Factor Solution

Factor 1 accounted for 30.62% of the variance (initial eigenvalue of 11.33;

remaining eigenvalues were 2.12 or less) in AIRS data. A careful examination of the

items shows that a main concept in all of the items in Factor 1 is the valuing of self-

revelation to relationship partners—whether the participant is asked about revealing

themselves or their partners revealing to them. The content areas of the two items that did

not load highest on Factor 1 differ slightly from this self-revelation theme. Specifically,

Item 9's content (which loaded strongest on Factor 6) is an extreme statement about

willingness to lose the relationship entirely and although it is linked to one partner's

understanding of the other, it does not refer to self-revelation by the other. And Item 37's content (which loaded strongest on Factor 5) appears to be about the assumption that a partner will take one's feelings into account when communicating. This item seems to be more about one partner's consideration of the other's feelings than whether or not self-revelation will or will not occur.

Stevens (1992) produced a table of critical sample size values for assessing factor loadings and noted that for sample sizes of 200 participants, loadings of .364 and higher should be considered significant. This rule suggests that Item 36 (which loaded on Factor 1 at. 358) should be dropped as well; this item is about what the participant prefers his or her partner to do in terms of truth- telling in the relationship.

Although Lopez and Rice argued for a two-factor solution made up of the 24 items they chose to retain, it cannot be ignored that both the initial scree plot and the factor analysis suggest that a one-factor solution is best for the participants in the present study. So to account for the exploratory nature of the present study—and the relative newness of the exploration of the construct authenticity—the 34 AIRS items that loaded above .364 on Factor 1 will be used as the measure of authenticity in all analyses that follow.

A correlation matrix showing the relationships between authenticity (as measured by the one-factor solution and labeled "AUTH") and the variables of interest can be seen in Table 7. This correlation matrix reveals a similar pattern of relationships to those found among the variables of interest and Lopez and Rice's two factors (as shown in Table 3), and will be explored in more detail in the hypotheses that follow.

Table 7
Bivariate Correlation of Variables of Interest

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. AUTH	1.00						
2. ANX	-.43**	1.00					
3. AVOID	-.72**	.34**	1.00				
4. LONE	-.40**	.50**	.37**	1.00			
5. INT	.44**	-.27**	-.41**	-.34**	1.00		
6. RAS	.57**	-.35**	-.54**	-.54**	.57**	1.00	
7. SRES	.33**	-.13*	-.19**	-.13*	.06	.17*	1.00

Note. Correlations significant at the p<0.05 level are indicated by * and correlations significant at the p<0.01 level are indicated by **.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive relationship between authenticity and relationship satisfaction such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report high levels of relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1 was supported by the data. The Pearson's correlation between participants' authenticity and higher levels of relationship satisfaction was .57 (p<.01), as shown in Table 7.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a negative relationship between authenticity and attachment anxiety such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report low levels of attachment anxiety.

Hypothesis 2 was supported by the data. The Pearson's correlation between participants' authenticity and lower levels of attachment anxiety was -.43 (p<.01), as shown in Table 7.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a negative relationship between authenticity and attachment avoidance such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report low levels of attachment avoidance.

Hypothesis 3 was supported by the data. The Pearson's correlation between participants' authenticity and lower levels of attachment avoidance was -.72 (p<.01), as shown in Table 7.

Hypothesis 4: There will be a positive relationship between authenticity and egalitarianism such that participants who report high levels of authenticity will report high levels of egalitarianism.

Hypothesis 4 was supported by the data. The Pearson's correlation between participants' authenticity and higher levels of egalitarianism was .33 (p<.01), as shown in Table 7.

Research Question 1: Among attachment style (Avoidance and Anxiety), egalitarianism, loneliness, intimacy, and relationship satisfaction, what significantly predicts authenticity in romantic relationships?

Multiple regression was used to identify predictors of authenticity in romantic relationships, and included data from the 185 participants who indicated they were in either dating or marital/partner relationships. The outcome value was the 34-item one-factor authenticity measure and the predictor variables were: ECRS Avoidance subscale score mean; ECRS Anxiety subscale score mean; RAS total score; Intimacy mean score; Loneliness total score; and Egalitarianism total score (see Table 8).

Table 8

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Factor 1 AUTH (N = 185)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Constant	159.42	30.30	
Avoidance	-18.62	2.10	-.52*
Anxiety	-3.05	1.64	-.10
Relationship Satisfaction	1.52	.53	.19*
Intimacy	2.77	1.92	.08
Loneliness	.09	.23	.02
Egalitarianism	.64	.18	.17*

Note. R^2 = .60; *p < .05.

Overall, 60% of the variance of authenticity was explained by the model entered

(R^2 = .60), $F(6, 184)$ = 45.06. Three of the six predictors were significant: Avoidance (β =

−.52, t = −8.85, p = .000); Relationship Satisfaction (β = .19, t = 2.84, p = .005); and

Egalitarianism (β = .17, t = 3.48, p = .001). Other predictors did not account for

significantly more variance: Anxiety (β = -.10, t = −1.86, p = .064); Intimacy (β = .08, t =

1.44, p = .152); and Loneliness (β = .02, t = .40, p = .688).

Additional Analyses

As noted above, preliminary analyses using Lopez and Rice's two-factor solution

indicated significant differences among the variables of interest when compared

according to the demographic variables sex and relationship status. These findings

provided partial support for Lopez and Rice's (2006) findings which indicated significant

differences between men and women, as well as Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon's

(1994) research which suggested that desire for authenticity seems to grow as

relationships lengthen in duration. However, because the exploratory factor analysis

performed for Hypothesis 1 suggested that a 34-item one-factor solution was more

appropriate for this sample that the two subscales recommended by Lopez and Rice,

additional analyses reanalyzed the data to explore for differences in authenticity

according to sex and current relationship status. (To reiterate the findings of the earlier factor analysis, Factor 1 items relate to level of self-revelation.)

An independent samples t test of differences between men's mean score of 237.21($SD = 32.03$) and women's mean score of 242.70 ($SD = 38.26$) on Factor 1 items supported the null; no significant differences existed between men's and women's self-reported scores of authentic self-revelation in this sample, $t(239) = 1.06$, $p > .05$. However, significant differences did hold among the three levels of current relationship status. As can be seen in Table 9, a one-way ANOVA tested differences between married participants' (n=126) mean score of 255.29, dating participants' (n=59) mean score of 233.63, and single/alone participants' (n=56) mean score of 217.05 with a Hochberg's GT2 post-hoc adjustment to control for the difference in sample sizes, $F(2, 240) = 27.94$, $p < .05$.

Table 9
Comparison of Factor 1 AUTH Means by Current Relationship Status

Current Relationship Status	Comparison Groups	Mean Difference	*SE*	*p*
Married/Partnered	Dating	21.67*	5.22	.000
	Single/Alone	38.24*	5.31	.000
Dating	Married/Partnered	-21.67*	5.22	.000
	Single/Alone	16.57*	6.17	.023
Single/Alone	Married/Partnered	-38.24	5.31	.000
	Dating	-16.57	6.17	.023

Note. Significant at the p< .05 level.

Since such striking and consistent differences of means of Factor 1 emerged amongst participants depending on their current relationship status, three additional analyses explicitly explored authentic self-revelation (as measured by the 34 items in Factor 1) and its predictors according to the three levels of participant relationship status.

The first regression explored Factor 1 authenticity scores for married/partnered participants as the outcome variable, and the predictor variables were: ECRS Avoidance subscale score mean; ECRS Anxiety subscale score mean; RAS total score; Intimacy mean score; Loneliness total score; and Egalitarianism total score (see Table 10).

Table 10

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Factor 1 AUTH in Married/Partnered Participants (N = 126)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Constant	150.85	40.77	
Avoidance	-17.12	3.08	-.44*
Anxiety	-3.28	2.24	-.11
Relationship Satisfaction	1.29	.82	.14
Intimacy	4.43	2.55	.13
Loneliness	-.07	.31	-.21
Egalitarianism	.71	.25	.19*

Note. $R^2 = .52$; *$p < .05$.

Overall, the results showed that 52% of the variance of Factor 1 was explained by the model entered ($R^2 = .519$), $F(6, 125) = 21.43$, $p = .000$. Two of the six predictors were significant: Avoidance ($β = −.44$, $t = −5.57$, $p = .000$); and Egalitarianism ($β = .19$, $t = 2.85$, $p = .005$). The variables which did not account for significant variance included: Anxiety ($β = -.11$, $t = -1.47$, $p = .15$); Relationship Satisfaction ($β = .12$, $t = 1.58$, $p = .12$, Intimacy ($β = .13$, $t = 1.74$, $p = .085$), and Loneliness ($β = -.02$, $t = -.21$, $p = .833$).

The next regression explored Factor 1 authenticity scores for dating participants as the outcome variable, and, again, the predictor variables were: ECRS Avoidance subscale score mean; ECRS Anxiety subscale score mean; RAS total score; Intimacy mean score; Loneliness total score; and Egalitarianism total score (see Table 11).

Table 11

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Factor 1 AUTH in Dating Participants (N = 59)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Constant	179.62	49.28	
Avoidance	-20.00	2.96	-.61*
Anxiety	-3.98	2.71	-.14
Relationship Satisfaction	1.92	.68	.30*
Intimacy	-.84	3.20	-.03
Loneliness	.36	.35	.10
Egalitarianism	.53	.28	.16

*Note. R^2 = .67; *p < .05.*

Overall, the results showed that 68% of the variance of Factor 1 was explained by the model entered (R^2 = .676), $F(6, 57)$ = 17.75, p = .000. Two of the six predictors were significant: Avoidance (β = -.61, t = -6.77, p = .00); and Relationship Satisfaction (β = .30, t = 2.81, p = .01). The variables which did not account for significant variance included: Anxiety (β = -.14, t = -1.47, p = .15); Intimacy (β = -.03, t = -.26, p = .80); Loneliness (β = .10, t = 1.03, p = .31); and Egalitarianism (β = .16, t = 1.87, p = .07).

The third and final regression explored Factor 1 authenticity scores for single/alone participants as the outcome variable. Since single/alone participants did not take intimacy or relationship satisfaction measures, the predictor variables included: ECRS Avoidance subscale score mean; ECRS Anxiety subscale score mean; Loneliness total score; and Egalitarianism total score (see Table 12).

Table 12

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Factor 1 AUTH in Single/Alone Participants (N = 56)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Constant	202.20	43.65	
Avoidance	-16.32	3.39	-.52*
Anxiety	-5.78	3.09	-.23
Loneliness	-.25	.43	-.07
Egalitarianism	.84	.33	.28*

*Note. R^2 = .45; *p < .05.*

Overall, the results showed that 45% of the variance of Factor 1 was explained by the model entered ($R^2 = .445$), $F(4, 55) = 10.22$, $p = .000$. Two of the four predictors were significant: Avoidance ($\beta = -.52$, $t = -4.81$, $p = .00$); and Egalitarianism ($\beta = .28$, $t = 2.56$, $p = .01$). The variables which did not account for significant variance included: Anxiety ($\beta = -.23$, $t = -1.87$, $p = .07$); and Loneliness ($\beta = -.07$, $t = -.59$, $p = .56$).

Chapter Five: Discussion

This chapter presents an overview and discussion of the results of the hypotheses, research questions, and additional analyses from the present study. Limitations of the current study are addressed, followed by the implications of the findings, with particular attention given to implications for future research and practice.

Preliminary analyses, hypotheses, and research questions

This discussion of results begins with a review of the exploratory factor analysis and relationships found among variables depending on factor structure, including the preliminary analyses and related correlation hypotheses. It then moves to a discussion of findings related to sex differences and gender role attitudes, and explores findings related to demographic differences and subsequent regression analyses.

AIRS factor structure. Research Question 1 was intended to explore the factor structure of all 37 original items of the AIRS in the present study's sample of 25-38 year old heterosexuals. As shown in the Results section, the best solution for this sample (as indicated by the factor analysis and the scree plot) appeared to be a 34-item one-factor solution rather than the two-factor, 24-item solution suggested by Lopez and Rice. The 34 items in this one-factor solution appeared to tap participants' general willingness to reveal their true selves to their relationship partners. Although some of the preliminary analyses explored relationships among variables using Lopez and Rice's two-factor solution, the one-factor solution appeared to be such a strong fit for the present study's sample that all subsequent analyses used this new one-factor solution to explore primary and predictive relationships among variables.

The results of the factor analysis performed for the present study suggests that other researchers considering using the AIRS instrument also should consider carefully their population of interest when determining which factor structure to base their scores on. Lopez and Rice's two-factor solution clearly was not robust enough to hold in a post-college population, which suggests that authenticity—as defined by the items in the AIRS measure—may be unifactorial in other populations as well.

Correlation analyses. In general, the results of the current study suggested important associations between variables that have been described in the literature as being related to self (e.g., authenticity, attachment style, egalitarianism) and variables that have been described as being related to perceptions about and assessment of the quality of relationships with others (e.g., intimacy, relationship satisfaction, loneliness). In particular, preliminary analyses using Lopez and Rice's two-factor solution showed positive correlations between authenticity and participants' perceptions of relational intimacy, their reports of relationship satisfaction, and levels of egalitarianism. Negative correlations emerged between authenticity and participants' self-reported levels of attachment avoidance, attachment anxiety, and loneliness. Additionally, positive associations emerged between the two attachment variables—anxiety and avoidance— and loneliness, while negative associations emerged between the attachment variables and authenticity, participants' perceptions of intimacy, their relationship satisfaction, and self-reported levels of egalitarianism.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 explicitly set out to explore the relationships among variables initially explored by Lopez and Rice, but used the 34-item one-factor solution recommended for use with this sample by the factor analysis. In each case, the

relationships found using the one-factor solution mirrored those found using the Lopez and Rice's two factors, suggesting a strong pattern of relationships among the variables. In particular, there was support for the postulation that authenticity has strong positive links with relationship satisfaction and strong negative links with attachment anxiety and avoidance. These findings support Lopez and Rice's—as well as Leak and Cooney's (2001)—assertions of the strong links between attachment style and authenticity, and also suggest that of the two elements of attachment, avoidance may have a stronger relationship to authenticity than anxiety.

In addition to exploring some established relationships further, the present study also sought to introduce the variables intimacy, loneliness, and egalitarianism to assess their predictive values in regards to authenticity. In terms of the first two of these three, the moderate positive relationship between intimacy and authenticity (r=.44) suggests that the variables share some elements but are still quite distinct, while the similarly moderate negative relationship between loneliness and authenticity (r=-.40) suggests that although more authentic people tend to experience lower levels of loneliness, other unmeasured factors likely contribute significantly to the experience of loneliness. Interestingly, the significant relationship between intimacy and loneliness (r=-.34) suggests that the two variables may be linked in interesting ways with each other and with authenticity. While behaving authentically sometimes leads to an experience of closeness—or intimacy and togetherness—some expressions of authenticity seem to lead to more distance in relationships—and a greater experience of loneliness. Important questions remain about the relationships among authenticity, intimacy, and loneliness, and a model that explores these variables' interactions with each other is needed.

The variable egalitarianism was introduced to answer Lopez and Rice's call for more exploration of the relationships between gender role beliefs and the expression of authentic self, and to explore possible contributors that might help explain the sex differences Lopez and Rice found in their study. Egalitarianism had relatively weak relationships with all variables in the study save for authenticity—a low-to-moderate correlation (r=.33) that suggested the greater authenticity and more egalitarian beliefs about men's and women's roles go together. However, the SRES, an instrument meant to assess attitudes—may not provide enough information to assess (or even suggest) participants' actual gendered behavior; other measures such as the Gender Role Conflict Scale (O'Neil, 1986) may have better captured the specific beliefs and behaviors men and women can be socialized to engage in.

Demographic differences. No differences emerged among the variables of interest according to age, race, or parents' marital status. As noted above, although Lopez and Rice found significant differences between men and women on both subscales and suggested that women were significantly more authentic than men, when the 34-item one-factor solution was used as the measure of authenticity in the present study, differences between the sexes disappeared. Although Lopez and Rice (2006), Deci and Ryan (2000, 2004), and Neff and Suizzo (2006) reported main effects for gender such that women reported being significantly more authentic in their relationships than men, the results of the present study suggest that biological sex did not contribute to authenticity in this sample.

However, other interesting differences did emerge among several variables according to sex and current relationship status. Specifically, women reported higher

levels of attachment anxiety than men, and higher levels of egalitarianism than men. And among the three levels of current relationship status, differences emerged in regards to authenticity, attachment avoidance and anxiety, relationship satisfaction, intimacy, and loneliness. Specifically, single participants reported being significantly less authentic than dating or partnered participants. Married/partnered participants reported being significantly more authentic than dating or single participants, and reported experiencing significantly lower levels of attachment avoidance and anxiety than the other two groups. Additionally, married/partnered participants reported being significantly less lonely than dating and single participants. And among all participants who indicated current involvement in a romantic relationship, married/partnered participants reported both significantly higher levels of relationship satisfaction and greater levels of intimacy than dating participants.

Regressions. Research Question 1 explored the predictive power of the variables of interest in terms of authenticity. Specifically, the results showed that among participants in romantic relationships, attachment avoidance, relationship satisfaction, and egalitarianism predicted authenticity while anxiety, loneliness, and intimacy did not. In this regression, participants with low avoidance, high relationship satisfaction, and with less traditional, more liberal gender role attitudes, reported greater authenticity in their relationships.

To further explore the differences among participants according to current relationship status, three regressions were performed to explore whether different variables predicted authenticity depending on whether participants were single, dating, or in marital/partner relationships. Two of the groups shared predictors: for

married/partnered participants and single participants, attachment avoidance and egalitarianism (self variables) predicted authenticity. For dating participants, attachment avoidance (a self variable) and relationship satisfaction (a relationship assessment variable) predicted authenticity. Clearly, attachment avoidance played an important role across groups, and its importance to the expression of authentic self—apart from its attachment counterpart anxiety—should be more explicitly studied. However, it also is interesting to note that the two groups defined by their status of being in relationships (married/partnered and dating participants) did not share predictors of authenticity, while the two opposing groups (married/partnered and single/alone participants) did. Although married/partnered participants and single participants shared avoidance and egalitarianism as predictors of authenticity, it is important to note that for married/partnered participants, measures of intimacy and relationship satisfaction also were included in the regression model, but were not significant as predictors. That intimacy and relationship satisfaction were not significant predictors above and beyond egalitarianism for these two groups suggests that attitudes about gender role norms played an important role in whether participants reported expressing themselves authentically in their romantic relationships. Little is known about how differences among people's ways of behaving authentically may occur in patterned, gendered ways, or what kind of influence gender norms may exert, but these results give support for their importance as a variable worthy of consideration.

Regarding differences in relationship type, the consistent differences among partnered and unpartnered participants in the present study supports Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon's (1994) suggestion that what people want, and are willing to give, to

their partners may change over time and as relationships deepen. Specifically, they postulated that as one matures and self-concepts become stable, self-verifying evaluations by others tend to be viewed as a testament to one's own authenticity, while nonverifying evaluations are associated with feelings of wariness and discomfort, regardless of whether those evaluations contain positive or negative content. The authors' own research found that relationship type and depth of commitment level seems to influence whether people would rather "be known" by, or simply "adored" by, their partners. The results of the present study support that assertion and suggest that becoming involved in long term relationships may increase people's desire to be seen accurately and to portray themselves in a more truthful, self-revealing way, and that this may relate to the levels of intimacy experienced in relationships.

This theory may partially explain why, for dating participants, relationship satisfaction was an important predictor of authenticity in that, in the absence of marriage or intentional, committed partnership (where greater authenticity seems to occur with more frequency), feeling satisfied by one's dating relationship may relate to other variables not addressed in the present study such as feeling accepted "as is," feeling valued, or feeling safe to be one's self. Although dating participants were significantly less authentic than married/partnered participants, their scores were still relatively high and may reflect being at the beginning of relationships that will deepen into greater authenticity over time. Another consideration regarding the differences of authenticity predictors among the three relationship status groups is that avoidance and egalitarianism are both self variables, while relationship satisfaction is a relationship assessment variable that involves assessment of both the relational partner and the interaction

between the two partners. Along these lines, one's focus on one's partner may be more relevant and intensified during dating—a time of heightened attention to and evaluation of the other. Meanwhile, over long term partnerships, one's level of self-awareness may become more central once the partner has "passed" the evaluation stage and been chosen. Once in long term relationships, as the focus on other-awareness and need to evaluate the other decreases, one's self-awareness may increase, and perhaps might return to levels closer to those of single people.

Another interesting question generated by the present study is the primacy of attachment avoidance as a predictor of authenticity and the seemingly lesser importance of anxiety. One possibility is that because attachment anxiety relates to one's fears of being abandoned and the desire to be close to partners, it may drive people to engage in certain types of authenticity more frequently. Avoidance, meanwhile, relates to discomfort with closeness and a desire to stay distant from partners, so its relationship to revealing one's deepest self may be more direct and clear cut. It will be important to explore both of these variables in greater depth, and to understand the different kinds of authentic revelations people make about themselves, as well as understanding more about their motivations for doing so.

Limitations of the study

An important limitation of the current study that must not be understated was the use of an internet sample. As noted by Kraut et al. (2004) and Mathy, Kerr, and Haydin (2003), researchers who choose to use internet samples face important challenges including, but not limited to the following: (1) Issues of data quality – interestingly, internet users are more likely to be white, young, and to have children; (2) Internet users

may be psychologically, demographically, and socially different than non-users; (3) There are no current means for truly randomizing samples, as with telephone digit randomization used in more traditional survey methodology; (4) Response rates are generally lower for online surveys than mail surveys and telephone surveys, and tend to have substantially higher dropout and non-completion rates; (5) It is more difficult to ensure informed consent, a thorough understanding of instructions, and to do effective debriefings online; (6) Internet researchers have no control over the environment in which participants take measures (e.g., are surveys taken at home or at work, first thing in the morning or late at night, in one sitting or over a span of several hours); (7) The anonymous nature of the internet may make people feel more comfortable about engaging in "deviant" behaviors less reflective of their actual behavior; (8) The anonymous nature of the internet may encourage purposeful data damaging behavior; (9) There is a risk of hacking into network computers and systems and the risk of less secure data storage; (10) Easy access to so many participants might encourage poorly qualified researchers to post spurious findings online and "pollute" future potential data resources.

Specific to the current study, the use of the snowball technique certainly limits how broadly the results can be generalized to the larger U.S. population. Ultimately, every participant who took the survey can be linked back to one White, female, socially liberal, middle-class doctoral student researcher in her 30s. Although efforts were made to solicit participation from people in religious, attitudinal, political, racial, and age groups different from the researcher's own demographic descriptors, it might be assumed that many of the people who ultimately participated in the study hold advanced degrees,

are from middle or upper-middle class socioeconomic backgrounds, and hold liberal political views that might influence their relational behavior and beliefs significantly.

Additionally, the very nature of the questions asked in the current study may draw on participation by people who want to believe they are authentic. This leads to a larger question related to the construct of authenticity: Are people able to tell the truth about how good they are at telling the truth? This leads to the related issue of social desirability—a construct not assessed in this study. Many of the participants in the current study scored in moderate-to-high ranges in terms of authenticity, relationship satisfaction, egalitarianism, and intimacy, and lower in terms of avoidance, anxiety, and loneliness. Participants in this study should not be generalized to the larger population because it is impossible to know if they are doing as well as they reported they are doing; a related issue is that nothing is known about participants who dropped out, why they chose not to complete the survey, or how they might compare to those who completed the study. Although self-report research conducted via the internet is highly convenient and gives researchers access to participants they might not otherwise be able to include in studies, as has been noted, it is rife with limitations.

Additionally, as Berscheid (1999) noted in her seminal article on relational research, despite psychological researchers' predilection for studying individuals, relationships may be best studied dyadically, and in context—not in the vacuum created by one person's perceptions. She noted that collecting data on only one partner's strengths, vulnerabilities, and attitudes limits researchers' ability to examine interactions between partners and the discrepancies or parallels between their perspectives on the relationship; this also prevents researchers from fully understanding the impact of

environmental stressors and supports on relationships. In this vein, ideally, the measures in the current study would have been administered to both partners of romantic couples to assess intimacy, authenticity, relationship satisfaction, and to get a more "realistic" assessment of what is occurring in the relationship by including both perspectives. Because the current study asked only one partner to report on perceptions of self and the relationship, there is no way to know how accurately participants' perspectives of their relationships—or of themselves—were.

A related limitation of the present study is the newness of the construct of authenticity, and that its operational definition and assessment may be founded on an unnecessarily restrictive focus on verbal forms of expression. This construct might benefit from careful and more inclusive consideration of non-verbal behaviors that should be included in its definition. It will be important for researchers and theorists to grapple with understanding how people express themselves authentically using more than words.

Additionally, researchers should consider the cultural roots of authenticity and consider its implications as it is currently defined by Harter and others. Authenticity may be a largely Western ideal not held by more collective cultures that value interdependent, less self-centered constructs. Exploring and theorizing about authenticity through a socio-cultural lens may help distill its more essential elements and help researchers develop new definitions that delineate differences between awareness of one's "truth" as it occurs through and apart from connections with others. The current study was limited by its Western approach to defining the term, and by its heavily Western, White, American, middle-class, female, predominantly married sample.

Implications for research

Indeed, for researchers to more fully understand what facilitates and inhibits authenticity in romantic relationships, they first must generate a more inclusive operational definition that accounts for the communication of truths in multiple ways, and openly acknowledge the cultural limitations of the definitions that are developed. Perhaps a next step in elucidating this further might be qualitative work focused on understanding the full scope of how people across cultures define authentic expression in their relationships, and how silence, actions, deeds, and purposeful decisions to not share information verbally might be used to communicate important authentic truths about self and relationship. Researchers then should consider exploring how authentic behavior performed by one partner is viewed by both partners in relationship dyads, particularly in terms of how verbal and non-verbal behaviors might be perceived differently, how these behaviors contribute to other variables such as intimacy and loneliness, and how authenticity is experienced and expressed differently across cultures.

Additionally, researchers need to explore how to measure authenticity when people experience several true, but conflicting, feelings at once as experiences are processed internally (e.g., "I am hurt that he gave me such harsh feedback. I hate that he thinks those things about me," versus, "I asked him for feedback and he is still learning how to give it. He really seems to be trying hard to learn how to communicate difficult things."). If authenticity's current working definition is the outward expression of inner experiencing, this suggests that people must have awareness of many internal thoughts and feelings at once, and that they need to select which among them is *most true*. More

needs to be known about how people prioritize multiple inner experiences and how this relates to what ultimately is expressed to others.

In addition to deepening our understanding of the construct authenticity, researchers should continue to explore the significance of its relationships with beliefs about gender role norms and attachment style. Specifically, researchers should examine whether and how strict adherence to gender role norms influences people to hide or reveal themselves in patterned, gendered ways. Are gender differences real? Do they disappear if we don't use words as the only measure of authenticity? What might be revealed if researchers used a different measure of adherence to gender role norms, a broader scope of authenticity, and a more diverse sample that includes people who are more conforming to gender role norms? Along these lines, what data might emerge in a sample of participants with a broader spectrum of attachment styles? Future research should examine the different roles attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety play in the process of self-revelation, and how these might be influenced by adherence to gender role norms. And certainly, studies of all kinds of relationships in all sorts of cultures are needed, including bisexual and homosexual romantic couples, relationships at varying levels of commitment and length, and non-sexual relationships that occur in families, workplaces, friendships, and among acquaintances.

Researchers also should continue to explore the associations among authenticity, intimacy, and loneliness. Important questions include: (1) What is the impact of certain types of authenticity (e.g., positive versus negative feedback, personal revelations about one's past that might "turn off" one's partner) on intimacy? (2) How might timing, content, and style of being authentic influence the outcome in terms of intimacy and

loneliness? (3) Does having different motivations for expressing oneself authentically lead to different outcomes? For example, if a person's authentic behavior is driven by his desire to be true to himself, does that lead to a different intimacy outcome than when he tells the truth about himself because he fears he will be left by his partner if he doesn't "open up"?

Finally, an essential question facing authenticity researchers is the issue of what comes first—the authenticity, or the relationship? Many questions exist about the directionality of authenticity and relationship type. Do more authentic people end up in long term romantic relationships, or do people who end up in long term relationships become more authentic over time? And is deepening authenticity a partial result of being in a long term relationship, or is it more related to aging and becoming more comfortable with and accepting of one's self, regardless of whether one is in a relationship or not?

Implications for practice

The results of the current study suggest that practitioners interested in helping clients increase their awareness and expression of authentic self should consider exploring their clients' gender role beliefs. Specifically, therapists should work with clients to understand how conformity to sex-role rules and gendered expectations may restrict both awareness and expression of authentic self. Additionally, as relationship level seemed to be an important factor in participants' authentic self-expression, therapists may wish to explore the different needs and problems of people in various stages of romantic relationships. They might consider working with clients to understand how the fear of relationship loss influences one's own awareness of authentic self. Therapists can highlight for clients the challenges inherent in knowing one's authentic

self versus expressing one's authentic self in ways that increase the likelihood of satisfying relationships with self and others. Therapists may also want to help clients explore the many different motivations for knowing and expressing authentic self, and may choose to help clients explore their family and relational history in terms of truth-telling, secret-keeping, and self-silencing.

Therapists should consider helping clients understand how their attachment style influences their current relationships, and might help clients understand the strong relationship between avoidance and authenticity. They might work with clients to explore how people who tend toward having anxious or avoidant styles behave differently in terms of authenticity. For example, it might be helpful for anxious clients to understand that while they may be more authentic than avoidant people, they may have conflicting or problematic reasons for doing so, and may be more driven by fear of loss than a genuine valuing of authentic self. Therapists can help clients to become aware of their internal truths, to learn to express those truths in adaptive ways, and to value authentic self apart from relational outcomes.

Conclusion

The results of the current study found important links between authenticity and attachment style, relationship satisfaction, intimacy, loneliness, and egalitarianism. Specifically highlighted were important differences between types of attachment style and authenticity. While it appears that avoidant people may struggle more to be authentic in their relationships than anxious people, authentic anxious people still may face significant struggles related to their reasons for being authentic, and may not always engage in authenticity for the "right" reasons (e.g., having an accurate awareness and

acceptance of their interpersonal needs; having a healthy understanding of what kinds of needs can be met by others and what needs they must attend to themselves; expressing themselves appropriately). Additionally, the current study gives strong support for the importance of gender role beliefs in the expression of authentic self, and suggests that the relationship between adherence to gender role norms and authenticity should be explored in various kinds of relational situations. Findings also suggested significant differences in authenticity, relationship satisfaction, intimacy, and loneliness depending on relationship type, and confirm theories that postulate that people's behavior changes depending on the context of their relationships and environments.

Additionally, the current study suggested that Lopez & Rice's two-factor solution may not be the best solution, and suggested that a one-factor solution based on items related to self-revelation may be the strongest for adult samples. Along these lines, the results of the present study highlighted the need for more comprehensive definition of the construct of authenticity, and proposed research geared toward understanding the multitude of ways people express themselves to each other.

Knowledge of one's authentic self and the ability to engage in genuine self-expression are concepts that predate modern psychological science and have informed many of its theories of human development and interaction. Authenticity is a construct that deserves greater empirical attention, both in terms of understanding the early childhood experiences that contribute to it, as well as learning how to help adults value, attend to, and intentionally use their authentic inner experiences to shape their lives and relationships.

Appendix A

Recruitment Email

Are you a heterosexual man or woman between the ages of 25-38? If so, you can complete an online survey and enter to win $50 in cash or iTunes music!

Researchers at the University of Maryland are conducting a study about heterosexual romantic relationships. If you are a straight man or women between the ages of 25 and 38, please consider participating in this study, which takes about 30 minutes to complete. Answers are completely confidential.

If you are interested in helping with this research, please visit the following link:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=QNKXFzYl56M3lisUbX9OUg_3d_3d

Your participation in this survey will assist researchers interested in understanding more about what people reveal to each other in their romantic relationships. It may also prove interesting for you as your reflect on some of your answers to the questions. Your participation will be greatly appreciated. Thanks so much for your time.

One final request -- whether or not you decide to participate in the survey, please consider passing this email along to others who might.

Thank you!

- Vanessa

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Vanessa L. Downing, M.A.
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Appendix B
Demographic Form

Instructions: Please provide the following information about yourself.

How old are you today?
    ___25   ___30   ___35
    ___26   ___31   ___36
    ___27   ___32   ___37
    ___28   ___33   ___38
    ___29   ___34

Sex:
    ___Female
    ___Male

What is your race/ethnicity:
    ___African-American/Black
    ___Asian-American/Pacific Islander
    ___Asian-Indian/Pakistani
    ___Biracial/multiracial
    ___Hispanic/Latino(a)
    ___Middle Eastern/Arab
    ___Native American/Native Alaskan
    ___White/European American
    ___Foreign National (please specify):_____
    ___Other (please specify):_____
    ___Please specify your country of citizenship if not a US citizen

Religion:
    ___Agnostic
    ___Atheist
    ___Buddhist
    ___Catholic
    ___Christian – other
    ___Hindu
    ___Jewish
    ___Mormon
    ___Muslim
    ___Taoist
    ___Other (please specify):_____

Political stance:

    ___very conservative

    ___somewhat conservative

    ___"middle of the road"

    ___somewhat liberal

    ___very liberal

    ___not politically minded

    ___other (please specify): _____

What region of the United States do you currently live in?

    ___Southwest

    ___West

    ___Midwest

    ___Northeast

    ___Mid-Atlantic

    ___South/Southeast

    ___Alaska

    ___Hawaii

    ___outside the US (please specify)

Did your parents:

    ___stay married

    ___separate

    ___divorce

    ___remarry

    ___never marry

If your parents separated or divorced, how old were you when this occurred?

    ___not applicable

    ___0-4

    ___5-9

    ___10-14

    ___15-19

    ___20 or older

How many previous relationships have you had that you would define as "serious"?

    ___0

    ___1

    ___2

    ___3

    ___4

    ___5

    ___more than 5

Have you ever been divorced?

   ___yes

   ___no

   ___If so, how many times?

Please answer this question by selecting the option that most captures how this statement represents you:

"Being in a lasting, committed romantic relationship is a goal of mine."

   ___not at all like me

   ___somewhat like me

   ___very much like me

"I'd rather date a lot of people casually than get serious with just one person."

   ___not at all like me

   ___somewhat like me

   ___very much like me

Are you currently involved in a romantic/intimate relationship?

   ___yes, I am married

   ___yes, I am in a committed partner relationship, but not legally married

   ___yes, I am in a monogamous dating relationship

   ___yes, I am in non-monogamous dating relationship(s) with one, or more, people

   ___no, I am not currently involved in a dating or marital relationship

How long has your current relationship been going on for?

   ___months

   ___years

(Note: Answering "yes" in any form to the above question about current relationship status directed participants to the Relationship Assessment Scale and the Intimacy assessment. After these participants answered questions about their satisfaction and assessment of intimacy in their current relationship, they were directed to the rest of the survey, which began with the Authenticity in Relationships Scale. If participants answered "no" to this question, they bypassed the measures of intimacy and relationship satisfaction and were sent directly to Authenticity in Relationships Scale.)

Appendix C
Informed Consent Statement

Project Title	*Gender Role Conformity, Attachment Style, Relationship Satisfaction, and the Expression of Authentic Self in Romantic Relationships*
Why is this research being done?	This is a research project being conducted by Ruth Fassinger, PhD and Vanessa L. Downing at the University of Maryland, College Park. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you are a heterosexual man or woman between the ages of 25 and 38. The purpose of this research project is to understand more about what people reveal to each other in their romantic relationships.

What will I be asked to do?	The procedures involve you filling out a survey online. It should take you about 30 minutes to complete the survey. This survey will ask you questions about your feelings about the way you tend to behave in romantic relationships and in life more generally. Examples of the kinds of statements you will be asked how much you agree with include:
	  "I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner."
	  "My life is an 'open book' for my partner to read."

What about confidentiality?	The confidentiality of your responses will be closely protected and the survey does not ask for any identifying information. However, due to the public nature of the internet, absolute confidentiality cannot be guaranteed. The possibility of someone intercepting your data is highly unlikely, although theoretically possible. If you do not exit or close your internet browser when you have completed your survey it is possible that another person using your computer at a later time could view your responses. It is therefore important that you exit your browser after you have submitted your survey. At the end of the survey, you will be given the opportunity to enter a drawing to win either $50 or a $50 iTunes giftcard. Participation in this drawing is totally voluntary and optional; although you must enter an email address to participate in the drawing, you do not need to enter your email address to participate in the survey. At the end of completing this survey, you'll be given an email address to send your online contact information to if you chose to enter the lottery. Email addresses entered for participation in the lottery will be kept in the researcher's password-protected computer, will never be connected with your answers, and will be destroyed immediately following the drawing.
What are the risks of this research?	Although this survey study utilizes no manipulation or deception, you should be aware that, although unlikely, your participation in this survey could elicit negative emotions (e.g., memories of negative experiences in relationships).
What are the benefits of this research?	The research is not designed to help you personally, but to help the investigator learn more about the experiences of men and women in romantic relationships. Completion of the questionnaires included in this study may provide you an opportunity for reflection on your personal style in romantic relationships. You will also be contributing to research on an important topic.
Do I have to be in this research? **May I stop participating at any time?**	Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will

	not be penalized in any way. However, only people who complete the survey will be given the option to enter their email address to participate in the drawing.
What if I have questions?	This research is being conducted by Ruth Fassinger, PhD and Vanessa L. Downing at the University of Maryland, College Park. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Ruth Fassinger at: 3214 Benjamin Building, College Park, MD 20742, or at 301-314-2873 or rfassing@umd.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research subject or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact: **Institutional Review Board Office, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, 20742; (e-mail) irb@deans.umd.edu; (telephone) 301-405-0678.** This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.
Statement of Age of Subject and Consent	*Clicking "I accept" indicates that: you are at least 18 years of age; the research has been explained to you; your questions have been fully answered; and you freely and voluntarily choose to participate in this research project.* ○ **I Accept** ○ **I Do Not Accept**

Appendix D
Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

The following statements concern how you feel about your CURRENT relationship. Respond to each statement by selecting the number that most represents your feelings about your relationship. (Five-point Likert scale.)

1. How well does your partner meet your needs?
    (Anchors: 1 = not at all/poor; 2 = all the time/excellent)

2. In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?
    (Anchors: 1 = not at all satisfied; 2 = very satisfied)

3. How good is your relationship compared to most?
    (Anchors: 1 = poor/worse than most; 2 = excellent/better than most)

4. How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?
    (Anchors: 1 = very frequently; 2 = never)

5. To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?
    (Anchors: 1 = not at all; 2 = very much)

6. How much do you love your partner?
    (Anchors: 1 = not at all; 2 = very much)

7. How many problems are there in your relationship?
    (Anchors: 1 = many problems; 2 = no problems)

Appendix E
Intimacy Assessment

The following statements concern how you feel about your CURRENT relationship. Respond to each statement by selecting the number that most represents your feelings about your relationship.

Strongly Disagree			Neutral/Mixed			Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. We want to spend time together.
2. S/he shows that s/he loves me.
3. We're honest with each other.
4. We can accept each other's criticism of our faults and mistakes.
5. We like each other.
6. We respect each other.
7. Our lives are better because of each other.
8. We enjoy the relationship.
9. S/he cares about the way I feel.
10. We feel like we're a unit.
11. There's a great amount of unselfishness in our relationship.
12. S/he always thinks of my best interest.
13. I'm lucky to have him/her in my life.
14. S/he always makes me feel better.
15. S/he is important to me.
16. We love each other.
17. I'm sure of this relationship.

Appendix F
Authenticity in Relationships Scale (AIRS)

Below are several statements that deal with how people may experience being in relationships with romantic partners. Using the scale beneath each item, select the number from 1 (not at all descriptive of me) to 9 (very descriptive of me) that best describes your experience of being in romantic relationships, whether you are in one now or not.

Not at all   Somewhat   Very
Descriptive   Descriptive Descriptive

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

1. I am totally myself when I am with my partner
2. I share my deepest thoughts with my partner even if there's a chance that he/she won't understand them
3. I hesitate saying things to my partner when he or she may not want to hear them
4. When talking with my partner about serious matters in our relationship, I feel like I'm not being who I really am
5. I answer my partner's questions about me honestly and fully
6. I disclose my deepest feelings to my partner even if there's a chance that he/she may not share them
7. When I am hurt by something my partner said, I will let him or her know about it
8. There are times when I feel like I'm being a "fake" with my partner
9. I would rather have my partner leave me than not know who I really am
10. I openly share my thoughts and feelings about other people to my partner
11. I consistently tell my partner the real reasons and motivations behind doing the things that I do
12. I'd rather my partner have a positive view of me than a completely accurate one
13. My life is an "open book" for my partner to read
14. I am basically the same person with my partner as I am with other people I care about
15. I'm careful how I talk with my partner about my relationships with other people
16. I'm willing to tell a "white lie" about myself if it will keep my partner happy
17. It is necessary for me that my partner know me as I know myself
18. I avoid raising certain topics for discussion with my partner
19. I purposefully hide my true feelings about some things in order to avoid upsetting my partner
20. If my partner has a positive but inaccurate understanding of me, I correct it, even if this action may lower his or her opinion of me
21. Sometimes I find myself trying to impress my partner into believing something about me that isn't really true
22. If my partner knew the real me, he or she would probably be surprised and disappointed
23. I would rather be the person my partner wants me to be than who I really am

24. There are no topics that are "off limits" between my partner and me
25. I would rather upset my partner than be someone who I am not
26. To avoid conflict in our relationship, I will sometimes tell my partner what I think he or she wants to hear even if it's not true
27. I suspect that what my partner likes best about me is not really part of who I am
28. I feel free to reveal the most intimate parts of myself to my partner
29. Sometimes I feel like I am two different people one when I am with partner, and another when I am by myself
30. There are times I find myself calculating the risks of expressing my true feelings to my partner
31. There are certain things about my partner I'd rather not know much about
32. If I knew my partner's true feelings about some things, I'd probably be disappointed or hurt
33. I expect that my partner will always tell me the truth before trying to protect my feelings
34. I'd rather think the best of my partner than to know the whole truth about him or her
35. I will confront my partner if I suspect that he or she is not being completely open with me
36. I'd rather my partner keep certain thoughts and feelings to him/herself if this will help us avoid an argument
37. I expect that my partner will first consider my feelings before telling me things that I might find hurtful

Appendix G
Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECRS)

The following statements concern how you feel in romantic relationships. We are interested in how you generally experience relationships, not just in what is happening in a current relationship. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Please select the number that best shows how much you agree or disagree with each item.

1……………2……………3……………4……………5……………6……………7
Strongly   Neutral/mixed   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

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 won't 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 H
Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale – Short Form KK

The following statements concern beliefs about appropriate roles for men and women in different situations. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

1. Women should have as much right as men to go to a bar alone.
2. Clubs for students in nursing should admit only women.
3. Industrial training schools ought to admit more qualified females.
4. Women ought to have the same chances as men to be leaders at work.
5. Keeping track of a child's activities should be mostly the mother's task.
6. Things work out best in a marriage if the husband stays away from housekeeping tasks.
7. Both the husband's and the wife's earnings should be controlled by the husband.
8. A woman should not be President of the United States.
9. Women should feel as free to "drop in" on a male friend as vice versa.
10. Males should be given first choice to take course that train people as school principles.
11. When both husband and wife work outside the home, housework should be equally shared.
12. Women can handle job pressures as well as men can.
13. Male managers are more valuable to a business than female managers.
14. A woman should have as much right to ask a man for a date as a man has to ask a woman for a date.
15. The father, rather than the mother, should give teenage children permission to use the family car.
16. Sons and daughters ought to have an equal chance for higher education.
17. A marriage will be more successful if the husband's needs are considered first.
18. Fathers are better able than mothers to decide the amount of a child's allowance.
19. The mother should be in charge of getting children to after-school activities.
20. A person should be more polite to a woman than to a man.
21. Women should feel as free as men to express their honest opinion.
22. Fathers are not as able to care for their sick children as mothers are.
23. An applicant's sex should be important in job screening.
24. Wives are better able than husbands to send thank you notes for gifts.
25. Choice of college is not as important for women as for men.

Appendix I
UCLA Loneliness Scale

The following statements describe how people sometimes feel. For each statement, please indicate how often you feel the way described.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1	2	3	4

1. How often do you feel that you are "in tune" with the people around you?
2. How often do you feel that you lack companionship?
3. How often do you feel that there is no one you can turn to?
4. How often do you feel alone?
5. How often do you feel part of a group of friends?
6. How often do you feel that you have a lot in common with the people around you?
7. How often do you feel that you are no longer close to anyone?
8. How often do you feel that your interests and ideas are not shared by those around you?
9. How often do you feel outgoing and friendly?
10. How often do you feel close to people?
11. How often do you feel left out?
12. How often do you feel that your relationships with others are not meaningful?
13. How often do you feel that no one really knows you well?
14. How often do you feel isolated from others?
15. How often do you feel you can find companionship when you want it?
16. How often do you feel that there are people who really understand you?
17. How often do you feel shy?
18. How often do you feel that people are around you but not with you?

Appendix J
Lottery Entry and Debriefing

Thank you very much for participating in this study! To enter the lottery for $50 cash or a $50 iTunes gift card, send an empty email to surveycompleted@gmail.com. Once the survey has been officially closed, winners will be selected at random and notified directly.

About the study:
Prior research has suggested that romantic relationships provide people with opportunities to reveal their authentic thoughts and feelings to partners that other sorts of relationships may not, and that romantic relationships tend to be more satisfying when partners are authentic with each other. Some researchers have suggested that how much people reveal to their romantic partners depends on personal characteristics they bring into every relationship, while others have suggested that it is the type of relationship (dating vs. being married, etc.) that influences how much people reveal to each other. Also, some researchers have suggested that there may be important differences in how much men and women tend to reveal about themselves to their partners, although very little is known about what kinds of differences occur between men and women and why those differences may occur.

Every person and every relationship is different. This project will help explicate what kinds of differences occur between men and women, and whether there are certain types of people for whom being authentic is more or less difficult, as well as helping us understand if being authentic actually does lead to having more satisfying relationships. The purpose of the study is to explore how men and women behave similarly or differently so we can better understand the role of expressing oneself authentically in romantic relationships.

Please be assured that your responses will be held in strict confidentiality. Under no circumstances will this be violated.

Due to the fact that many individuals have not yet participated in this study, we must ask you not to discuss this study with anyone. This is crucial to maintaining the study's validity.

If you would like additional information on maintaining a healthy relationship with your partner, please visit http://www.apa.org/topics/. If you are interested in locating a psychologist to discuss any of the concerns that may have arisen for you while completing this questionnaire, please visit http://helping.apa.org/ or call 1-800-964-2000.

Please contact us if you have any questions or concerns about your participation in this study. We are appreciative of your time and effort in assisting us with this important study.

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