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THE IMPACT OF ADULT ATTACHMENT STYLES ON INTIMACY  
AND COMMITMENT IN LEBANESE MALE AND FEMALE YOUNG  
ADULTS

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I, Alain Gholam,

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE  
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THE IMPACT OF ADULT ATTACHMENT STYLES ON INTIMACY  
AND COMMITMENT IN ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ADULTS  
AND FEMALE YOUNG  
ADULTS

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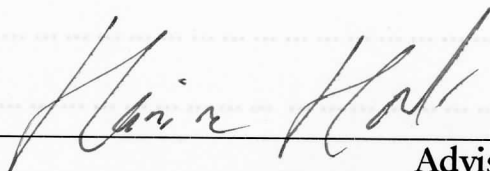
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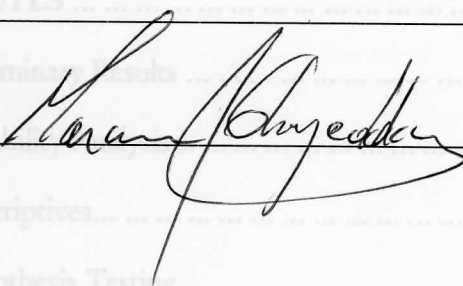
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## ABSTRACT

### INTRODUCTION

A study was conducted to test five hypotheses which investigated the effect of adult attachment styles on intimacy and commitment in young Lebanese adults. The Adult Attachment Scale and the Sternberg's Love Triangular Scale were administered to a convenient sample of 133 students (69 females and 64 males) enrolled at the American University of Beirut and Haigazian University. A correlation analyses showed that secure individuals tend to show high levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships and avoidant individuals tend to show low levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships. However, the results did not confirm the fourth hypothesis which stated that anxious individuals show high levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships. Moreover, results confirmed that females, in general, are more intimate and committed than males. Implications of the results were discussed and directions for future research were proposed.

## INTRODUCTION

“Attachment behaviour is held to characterize human beings from the cradle to the grave.”

Bowlby, John.

### *Statement of the Problem*

Attachment theory is the joint work of John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991; Bretherton, 1992). John Bowlby formulated the basic tenets of the theory by drawing on concepts from ethology, cybernetics, information processing, developmental psychology, and psychoanalysis, which revolutionized our thinking about a child's tie to the mother and its disruption through separation, deprivation, and bereavement (Bretherton, 1992). Mary Ainsworth's innovative methodology not only made it possible to test some of Bowlby's ideas empirically but also helped expand the theory itself and is responsible for some of the new directions it is now taking (Bretherton, 1992). Bowlby, who first applied this idea to the infant-caregiver bond, was inspired by Lorenz's (1952) studies of imprinting in baby geese, therefore believed that the human baby, like the young of most animal species, is equipped with a set of built-in behaviours that helps keep the parent nearby, thus increasing the chances that the infant will be protected from danger (Pendry, 1998).

Bowlby (1973) developed the theory of attachment to explain the nature of a child's ties to his/her parents in regards to biological function and to account for the unstable behavioural responses observed in infants exposed to separations from significant attachment figures such as the mother (Matsuoka, Uji, Hiramura, Chen, Shikai, Kishida, & Kitamura, 2006). According

to attachment theory, the quality of interaction with significant others in times of need shapes interaction goals, relation cognitions, and interpersonal behaviour (Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz, 2006). The quality of early attachment relationships is thus rooted in the degree to which the infant has come to rely on the attachment figure as a source of security (Ainsworth et al, 1978; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Based on her laboratory work, Ainsworth was able to identify three main patterns of attachment in infants: secure, avoidant, and anxious. According to Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991), children classified as securely attached welcome their caretaker's return after a separation and, if distressed, seek proximity and are readily comforted; infants classified as anxious-resistant show ambivalent behaviour toward caregivers and an inability to be comforted on reunion; and finally infants classified as avoidant avoid proximity or interactions with the caretaker on reunion. Childhood attachment does not fade away, rather it shapes our lives as adults and continues to be a crucial element through out the life span.

Research concerning Bowlby's theory of attachment has gone in several directions, examining (1) the relation between childhood attachment experiences and parenting behaviour, and intergenerational transmission of attachment patterns, (2) the impact of childhood attachment experiences on adult relationships, and the role of attachment in adult-adult relationships, and (3) the role of working models or representations of attachment in influencing thoughts, feelings, and behaviour in the two domains of adult functioning: parenting and romantic relationships (Crowell & Treboux, 1995).

The attachment theory was explicitly formulated as a lifespan theory and, in recent years, has been applied to the study of adult romantic relationships, where each partner is thought to be both attached to and, when needed, available to provide care for the other (Shaver, Belsky, & Brennan, 2000). Over the past 10 to 15 years, attachment theory has generated two largely

independent lines of research based on different conceptualization and assessments of adult attachment (Shaver, Belsky, & Brennan, 2000).

Shaver and Mikulincer (2002), argue that the first line of research concerning attachment theory was begun by developmental psychologists who used observational techniques to study child-parent relationships, and was subsequently extended by developmentalists and clinicians who used interviews to study parent's "state of mind with respect to attachment". Shaver and Mikulincer (2002) suggest that the second line of research on adult attachment was initiated in the mid-1980's by social psychologists who applied Bowlby and Ainsworth's ideas to the study of romantic relationships. They noticed parallels between Ainsworth's three infant quality of attachment types- secure, avoidant, and anxious- and patterns of behaviour and feelings in adolescent and adult romantic relationships. For instance, securely attached individuals, compared with insecure individuals, are more likely to have long, stable, and satisfying relationships characterized by high involvement, trust, intimacy, warmth, support, and cohesion (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Mikulincer & Florian, 1999; Simpson, 1990; Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz, 2006).

On the other hand, highly avoidant individuals tend to have relatively less stable relationships characterized by fear of intimacy and low levels of emotional involvement, trust, cohesion, and satisfaction (Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Mikulincer & Florian, 1999; Shaver & Brennan, 1992; Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz, 2006).

Highly anxious individual's relationships, in contrast, tend to be organized around hyperactivation of the attachment system, manifested in obsessive and passionate romantic feelings; clinging, intrusive, and controlling patterns of relational behaviours; strong desire for merger with the partner; worries about rejection and abandonment; and bouts of jealousy and

anger (Collins & Read, 1990; Hatfield et al. 1989; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Mikulincer, Orbach, & Iavnieli, 1998; Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz, 2006).

In the present study, the three conclusions were studied on a Lebanese sample. More specifically, the following hypotheses were made: 1- individuals who score high on secure attachment style will report high levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships, 2- individuals who score high on avoidant attachment style will report low levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships, and 3- individuals who score high on anxious attachment style will report high levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships.

Concerning research on interpersonal relationships, psychologists have focused on how men and women differ in their relationships. Many researchers have identified small to moderate differences in the social behaviour of men and women (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997). Cross and Madson (1997) proposed that one basic and sweeping difference is that women have interdependent self-schemas, whereas men have mainly independent ones. Many empirical findings can be explained on the basis that women generally seek to form intimate connections with other people, whereas men prefer separateness and independence (Baumesiter & Sommer, 1997). It is well acknowledged that men and women need to love and be loved at the same time, however there is a difference in the way they perceive intimacy and commitment. In the Lebanese culture, more research is needed in order to assure whether such gender differences exist. Therefore in the present study, the following hypothesis was made regarding gender differences: concerning relationship outcomes, females will score higher on intimacy and commitment than males.

In conclusion, more research is needed in the Lebanese Culture not only to examine the importance of attachment in a child's world, but also to observe the ways an attachment style

can affect a person's psychological well-being. Since no previous research was conducted in our culture, I think the following study served as an attempt to realize the manner in which an adult's attachment style can influence intimacy and commitment in interpersonal relationships.

### *Purpose of the Study*

The purpose of the following study is to assess and appraise the extent to which attachment styles influences intimacy and commitment in heterosexual relationships, and to establish the variations, if any, between and within gender groups. Therefore, the present study will tackle the following questions:

- 1). What are the different attachment styles in the Lebanese sample?
- 2). How do attachment styles affect intimacy and commitment in heterosexual relationships?

### *Hypotheses*

Based on the purpose of the study mentioned above and on the findings that will be reported in the study's literature, the following hypotheses were made:

Hypothesis (1): In general, the sample will score high on the secure attachment style.

Hypothesis (2): Individuals who score high on secure attachment will report high levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships.

Hypothesis (3): Individuals who score high on avoidant attachment will report low levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships.

Hypothesis (4): Individuals who score high on anxious attachment will report high levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships.

Hypothesis (5): Concerning relationship outcomes, females will score higher on intimacy and commitment than males.



### *Significance of the Study*

As was previously stated, the main purpose of the present study is to observe the effects of attachment styles on intimacy and commitment in heterosexual relationships. Therefore, the study will tend to focus on the magnitude of attachment styles in our lives, which will lead to the awareness of certain issues concerning the effects of nurturing and upbringing on the individual.

Attachment theory tends to focus on the role of the primary caregiver. When we mention the word 'primary caregiver', we usually imagine the role of the mother. The acknowledgment of attachment theory may help mothers become sensitive and available to their offspring's needs. Attachment theory will help mothers recognize the importance of surrounding their children with love, tender, acceptance and warmth. Unfortunately, today we encounter some children who are stuck with unresponsive, highly controlling, and abusive mothers. So how could we expect such children not to face emotional and psychological difficulties as adults?

By appreciating the importance of attachment theory, fathers will join the spotlight and will not be left out without any responsibilities or duties. Fathers will definitely participate in the upbringing of their offspring. They will spend more time with their children and help them explore the world around them. In my point of view, this is of great importance to the Lebanese society, where the father till the present time, is perceived as the male role model of the house where he was no other jobs to offer except supporting his family financially.

In addition, when parents get well-versed about attachment theory, they will realize the different ways in which attachment helps a child. Parents will be aware of the fact that attachment helps the child attain full intellectual potential, sort out what he or she perceives,

think logically, develop a conscience, become self-reliant, cope with stress and frustration, handle fear and worry, develop future relationships, and reduce stress (Fahlberg, 1988, p.13).

Moreover, and what's really important, is that attachment theory will help partners engaged in a romantic relationship come to understand one another. Lovers will come to comprehend that it is because of the attachment style that has influenced their partner's life; their partners are either preoccupied with relationships and seek extreme intimacy and commitment, or they maintain distance in relationships and do not desire intimacy and commitment. Therefore, attachment theory will help lovers get a glance into the nature of the problems experienced in their romantic relationships.

Moreover, looking at gender differences will help answer some of the most crucial questions about whether or not attachment styles affect males and females differently in the present sample (Lebanese sample).

### *The Nature of the Study*

The present study will be quantitative in nature. It will rely on self-report measures and will use the correlational research methods. A sample of 64 males and 69 females, enrolled at the American University of Beirut and Haigazian University, were asked to fill out a questionnaire which will include three scales: attachment style, intimacy in relationship, and commitment in relationships. Attachment style will be regressed and correlated with intimacy and commitment in relationships in order to examine the variations between the variables.

### *Definition of Terms*

#### **Attachment**

Attachment is the strong emotional bond that develops between two people; developmentally, the bond between children and their primary caregivers (Passer & Smith, 2007).

#### **Attachment Behaviours**

Attachment behaviours are “the collection of instinctive behaviours of one person toward another that bring out or maintain proximity and caregiving, such as the smile of the young infant; behaviours that reflect an attachment” (Bee, 1999; p. 513).

#### **Strange Situation**

The Strange Situation is a series of eight episodes used by Mary Ainsworth and others in studies of attachment. The child is observed with the mother, with a stranger, when left alone, and when reunited with both stranger and mother (Bee, 1999; p. 524).

#### **Secure Attachment**

According to Ainsworth's Strange Situation, secure children readily separate from the caregiver and easily become absorbed in exploration; when threatened or frightened, secure children actively seek contact and are readily consoled, and do not avoid or resist contact if mother initiates it. When reunited with mother after absence, secure children greet her positively, or are easily soothed if upset. Clearly they prefer mother to stranger (Bee, 1999; p. 191).

As adults, securely attached individuals are more likely to have long, stable and satisfying relationships characterized by high involvement, trust, intimacy, warmth, support, and cohesion (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

#### **Avoidant Attachment**

According to Ainsworth's Strange Situation, avoidant children avoid contact with mother, especially at reunion after an absence. They do not resist mother's efforts to make contact, but

do not seek much contact. They show no preference for mother over the stranger (Bee, 1999; p. 191).

As adults, avoidant individuals tend to have relatively less stable relationships characterized by fear of intimacy and low levels of emotional involvement, trust, cohesion, and satisfaction (Collins & Read, 1990).

### **Anxious Attachment**

According to Ainsworth's Strange Situation, anxious children show little exploration and are wary of the stranger. They are greatly upset when separated from mother, but not reassured by mother's return or her efforts at comforting. They both seek and avoid contact at different times. They may show anger toward mother at reunion, and resist both comfort from and contact with stranger (Bee, 1999; p. 191).

As adults, anxious individual's relationships tend to be organized around hyperactivation of the attachment system, manifested in obsessive and passionate romantic feelings; clinging, intrusive, and controlling patterns of relational behaviours; strong desire for merger with the partner; worries about rejection and abandonment; and bouts of jealousy and anger (Collins & Read, 1990).

### **Love**

When it comes to romantic relationships, many psychologists identify two kinds of love: passionate and companionate love. The first involves intense emotion, arousal, and yearning for the partner while the second involves affection and deep caring about the partner's well-being (Hatfield, 1988).

### **Intimacy**

Intimacy involves closeness, sharing, and valuing one's partner (Passer & Smith, 2007).

**Commitment**

Commitment represents a decision to remain in the relationship (Passer & Smith, 2007).

*Limitations*

Even if the study hereby will support the hypotheses concerning the effects of attachment style on intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships, nevertheless it will contain some methodological errors.

First, the study's major problem is the sampling procedure. Usually, random selection of participants provides assurances that the sample is representative of the population from which it was drawn. Since our sample is convenient sampling (and not random sampling or representative sampling), we can't generalize the results obtained back to the population. The sample should have also been obtained from the lower campus of AUB. Therefore, some doubts are to be made concerning the external validity of the following study. In addition, the sample is drawn from a specific Lebanese population (AUB and Haigazian Students). Therefore the results cannot be generalized to the Lebanese population.

Third, the measures used in the following study are referred to as 'self-report measures', which tend to alter the results of the study. The participants could have possibly engaged in positive self-presentations, and/or followed a fixed criteria in answering the questionnaire, and/or answered the questions in a fast manner for the sake of answering and handing back the questionnaire. We should also not forget that the participant's current state of mind and mood could influence the way he/she deals with the questionnaire's instructions.

Forth, many students that answer the following questionnaire have been enrolled in introductory psychology courses; therefore they have a clear idea about the different types of

attachments and the way they can be measured. This could lead to biasing in answering the questionnaire items, due to the participant sophistication effect.

Finally, we should have made a cross-cultural investigation that differentiates between the attachment styles of students living abroad and those living in Lebanon, and then compare their level of intimacy and commitment in their love relationships.

Recent attempts to understand adult's interpersonal relationships from an attachment perspective have been greatly influenced by Bowlby's theory of attachment and loss. Attachment theory is among the most wide, comprehensive theories in psychology today, for it offers a biosocial, lifespan account of how relationships influence, sometimes permanently, the persons involved in them (Rholes and Simpson, 2004). Early studies revealed the nature of attachment and the way it can be attained (Fenney & Noller, 1996). They tried to answer such questions as what is secure attachment? How can securely attached children be different than those who are insecurely attached? What are the outcomes of secure attachment? How does secure attachment guide a person's life? How can it affect a person's thoughts, relationships, and future goals?

Although Bowlby had a substantial body of related work behind him, it was not until around his fiftieth year, in a series of papers published between 1958 and 1963, that he began to formulate the main outlines of Attachment theory (Holmes, 1993). According to Holmes (1993), Attachment theory is in essence a spatial theory: when I am close to my loved one I feel good, when I am far away I am anxious, sad or lonely. Bowlby explored the process in which infants became emotionally attached to their mothers and became distressed and fearful when separated from them (Fenney & Noller, 1996). Attachment refers to seeking and maintaining proximity to another individual (McAdams, 2002). It is an active affectionate reciprocal, enduring relationship between two people (Papalia & Olds, 1995). Bowlby also

## CHAPTER I

### ATTACHMENT: AN OVERVIEW

#### *A. Attachment Theory and Attachment Styles*

Recent attempts to understand adult's interpersonal relationships from an attachment perspective have been greatly influenced by Bowlby's theory of attachment and loss.

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referred to the term affectional bond in order to stress on the relatively long enduring tie in which the partner is important as a unique individual and is interchangeable with none other.

In an affectional bond there is a desire to maintain closeness to the partner (Bee, 1999).

In this passage, Bowlby (1988) underscores the evolutionary significance of deep affectional bonds:

It is... more than likely that a human being's powerful propensity to make these deep and long-term relationships is the result of a strong gene determined bias to do so, a bias that has been selected during the course of evolution. Within this frame of reference a child's strong propensity to attach himself to his mother and his father, or to whomever else may be caring for him, can be understood as having the function of reducing the risk of his coming to harm. For to stay in close proximity to, or in easy communication with, someone likely to protect you is the best of all possible insurance policies. Similarly a parent's concern to care for his or her offspring plainly has the function of contributing to the child's survival. That success in the maintenance of these long-term relationships should usually bring satisfaction and contentment, and that failure should bring frustration, anxiety, and sometimes despair are, on this reading, the prizes and penalties selected during evolution to guide us in our activities. (p.81)

Given strong parallels between human attachment behaviour and similar attachment behaviour shown by nonhuman primate species, Bowlby (1973) hypothesizes that attachment behaviour is adaptive, having evolved through a process of natural selection: That is, attachment behaviour offers infants a survival advantage, protecting them from danger by keeping them close to the primary caregiver (Feeney & Noller, 1996). Bowlby sees the attachment system as one of several interlocking behavioural systems, including exploration,



caregiving, and sexual mating, designed to ensure survival and procreation (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

Bowlby (1973) discusses the issue of individual differences in attachment (p. 235):

1. When an individual is confident that an attachment figure is available whenever he or she desires it, that person is much less prone to either intense or chronic fear than an individual who, for any reason, has no such confidence.
2. Confidence in the variability of attachment figures, or lack of such confidence, is built up slowly during the years of immaturity (infancy, childhood, and adolescence); whatever expectations are developed during those years tend to persist relatively unchanged throughout the rest of life.
3. The varied expectations of the accessibility and responsiveness of attachment figures that individuals develop during the years of immaturity are tolerably accurate reflections of the experiences those individuals have actually had.

Figure 1. The basic features of the attachment system according to Hazan and Shaver.

Feeney & Noller (1996) tend to explain the way the above system functions:

When children feel secure and confident in the caregiver, they are likely to be more sociable and less inhibited and to engage in more play and exploration. When children feel insecure and lack of confidence in the caregiver, they are likely to respond either with fear and anxiety or with defensiveness. Responding with fear and anxiety leads to such behaviours as crying and clinging, whereas responding with defensiveness leads to avoidance of close contact with the attachment figure (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

Attachment doesn't appear directly in an infant's life. It develops through a number of stages in the first years of the child's life. It usually begins with a vague orientation to social

The following figure shows the basic features of the attachment system (Hazan & Shaver, 1994):

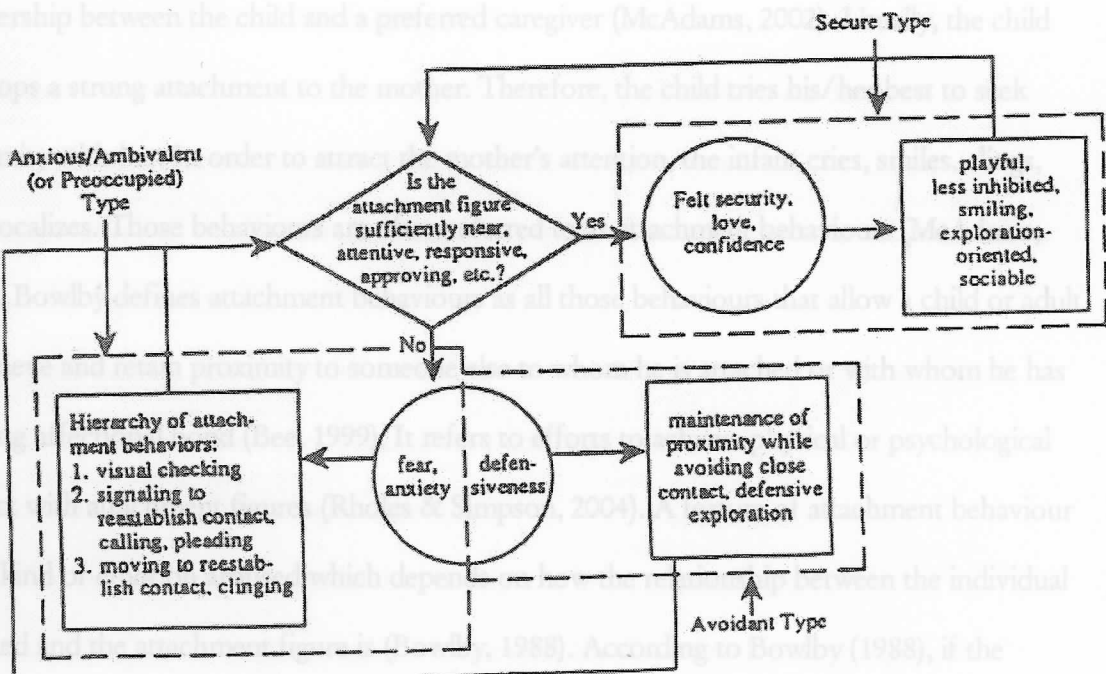


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Attachment doesn't appear directly in an infant's life. It develops through a number of stages in the first years of the child's life. It usually begins with a vague orientation to social

stimulus, develops through a phase of increased sociality (infants tend to smile to different people and show different attachment behaviours), and finally ends as an affectional partnership between the child and a preferred caregiver (McAdams, 2002). Usually, the child develops a strong attachment to the mother. Therefore, the child tries his/her best to seek proximity with her. In order to attract the mother’s attention, the infant cries, smiles, clings, and vocalizes. Those behaviours are often referred to as attachment behaviours (McAdams, 2002). Bowlby defines attachment behaviours as all those behaviours that allow a child or adult to achieve and retain proximity to someone else to whom he is attached or with whom he has a strong affectional bond (Bee, 1999). It refers to efforts to achieve physical or psychological contact with attachment figures (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). A feature of attachment behaviour is the kind of emotion aroused which depends on how the relationship between the individual attached and the attachment figure is (Bowlby, 1988). According to Bowlby (1988), if the relationship goes well, there is joy and a sense of security and if the relationship is threatened, there is jealousy, anxiety, and anger, and finally if the relationship is broken there is grief and depression.

Usually, towards the end of first year of life, infants begin to undergo stranger and separation anxiety. They start to show fear and distress in the face of unfamiliar events or objects and specially when confronted with strangers (McAdams, 2002).

At certain times, separation from one’s attachment figure may take place. How does the experience of the separation affect the infant? The infant will undergo a process known as mourning which is the adjustment to the perceived loss of the caregiver (McAdams, 2002). In mourning the infant undergoes several stages of anger, protest, despair, sadness, and finally detachment (McAdams, 2002).

1	Mother and baby	30 sec	Observer introduces mother and baby experimental room and then leaves
2	Mother and baby	3 min	Mother is non participant while baby

After undergoing the process of mourning the child is fully ready to build up a set of expectations (about the nature of relationships with people around him) which form what known as the working model (McAdams, 2002).

The internal working model of attachment relationships includes such elements as the child's confidence that the attachment figure will be available or reliable, the child's expectation of rebuff or affection, and the child's sense of assurance that the other is really a safe base for exploration (Bee, 1999).

The main interest now is the difference between secure and insecure attachment bond. How will an insecure attachment bond effect a child's experiences? How will a securely attached bond foster a child's experience?

The first detailed studies of individual differences in attachment were conducted by Ainsworth (1951), who was thoroughly familiar with Bowlby's developing thoughts on attachment, but was not convinced that his ideas about ethology were useful to her own work on the development of infant-mother relationships (Goldberg, 2000; Ainsworth and Marvin, 1995). She made use of naturalistic observation of mother-infant interactions in Uganda and Baltimore, Maryland. Each of these projects involved intensive longitudinal data collection obtained during a series of home visits.

To measure the security of the child's attachment, Ainsworth devised a procedure called the Strange Situation (Bee, 1999). It involved a series of eight episodes in a laboratory setting. The following table summarizes the Strange Situation procedure:

Episode Number	Person's Present	Duration	Brief Explanation
1	mother, baby, and observer	30 sec	Observer introduces mother and baby experimental room and then leaves
2	Mother and baby	3mins	Mother is non participant while baby

			explores. If necessary play is stimulated after 2 minutes
3	Stranger, mother, and baby	3mins	Stranger enters. Min1: stranger silent Min2: stranger converses with mother. Min3: stranger approaches baby. After 3mins, mother leaves unobtrusively.
4	Stranger and baby	3mins or less <sup>a</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup> separation episode. Stranger's behaviour is geared to that of baby
5	Mother and baby	3mins or more <sup>b</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup> reunion episode. Mother greets and comforts baby, then tries to settle baby again in play.
6	Baby	3mins or less <sup>a</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup> separation episode
7	Stranger and baby	3mins or less <sup>a</sup>	Continuation of 2 <sup>nd</sup> separation. Stranger enters and gears behaviour to that of baby
8	Mother and baby	mins	2 <sup>nd</sup> reunion episode. Mother enters, greets baby, then picks baby up. Meanwhile, stranger leaves unobtrusively.

Figure 2. The Strange Situation procedure described by Ainsworth.

<sup>a</sup>Episode is curtailed if the baby is distressed

<sup>b</sup>Episode is prolonged if more time is required for the baby to become re involved in play

Source: Vasta, Haith, & Miller, 1999; pp 466

The aim of the Strange Situation is to elicit individual differences in coping with the stress of separation (Holmes, 1993). According to Holmes (1993), initially three, and later four, major patterns of response have been identified:

1 **Secure attachment ('B')**: These infants are usually distressed by the separation. On re-union they greet their parent, receive comfort if required, and then return to excited or contented play.

2 **Insecure- avoidant ('A')**: These children show few overt signs of distress on separation, and ignore their mother on re-union, especially on the second occasion when presumably the stress is greater. They remain watchful of her and inhibited in their play.

3 *Insecure-ambivalent (insecure-resistant) ('C')*: They are highly distressed by separation and cannot easily be pacified on reunion. They seek contact, but then resist by kicking, turning away, squirming or batting away offered toys. They continue to alternate between anger and clinging to the mother, and their exploratory play is inhibited.

4 *Insecure-disorganised ('D')*: This small group has recently been demarcated. They show a diverse range of confused behaviours including freezing, or stereotyped movements, when reunited with their parents.

In Ainsworth's original middle class Baltimore sample the proportions were 'B' (secure) 66 percent, 'A' (avoidant) 20 percent, and 'C' (ambivalent) 12 percent, and 'D' had not been identified at that stage (Holmes, 1993). Since her original publication, the Strange Situation has been used in well over thirty different studies (Holmes, 1993; Ijzendoorn and Kroonenberg, 1988), and is generally accepted as a reliable and valid instrument.

The Strange Situation helped us identify the nature of attachment, however there was a number of questions concerning its results.

The Strange Situation is strange, and also artificial (Papalia & Olds, 1995). It sets up a series of eight 3-minute staged episodes, asks mothers not to initiate interaction, exposes children to repeated comings and goings of adults, and expects the children to pay attention to them (Papalia & Olds, 1995). Susan Goldberg (2000) discusses three limitations of the Strange Situation. First, Goldberg argues that the Strange Situation was designed for 12 to 18 months-olds, and although it has been used with some success in older children, it is not well suited to assessing changes in the attachment system over a wide age range. Second, Goldberg (2000) stated that according to researchers (Ainsworth et al., 1978) the Strange Situation could not be readministered within a narrow age range because infants remembered their previous

experiences and were highly distressed and upset on repetition, therefore we can't readily evaluate the test-retest reliability of this procedure for assessing attachment. Third, Goldberg argues that the data yielded by the Strange Situation are categorical and thus qualitative rather than quantitative, which leads the investigators using the Strange Situation to be confronted with serious limitations in the types of data analysis that they can use.

The patterns of infant behaviour that define those three styles are systematically related to the amount of interaction between mother and infant and to mother's sensitivity and responsiveness to the infant's needs and signals (McAdams, 2002).

Helen Bee (1999), showed cross cultural comparisons of secure and insecure attachment and the percentage of each attachment type. For example, in West Germany, 3 studies were made which revealed the following results: 56.6% secure, 35.3% avoidant, and 8.1% ambivalent. In Great Britain one study was made and revealed the following results: 75% secure, 22.2% avoidant, and 2.8% ambivalent. In Israel two studies were made and revealed the following results: 64.4% secure, 6.8% avoidant, and 28.8% ambivalent. In the United States eighteen studies were made and revealed the following: 64.8% secure, 21.3% avoidant, and 14.1% ambivalent.

### *B. Attachment in Adulthood*

McAdams (2002) states that attachment theory describes an affectional relationship between two persons through which one person provides support, protection, and a secure base for the other.

In recent years psychologists have extended attachment theory into adulthood, and examined the way it can predict love in interpersonal relationships.



Hazan and Shaver (1987) suggested that working attachment models may influence the ways in which adults engage each other in romantic love (McAdams, 2002). They identified three attachment styles.

According to Hazan and Shaver, adults with a secure attachment style find it relatively easy to get close to others and are comfortable depending on others and having others depend on them. They describe their most important love experiences as happy, friendly, and trusting (McAdams, 2002).

On the contrary, adults with avoidant attachment style tend to find it relatively difficult to get close to others and are not comfortable depending on other people or having other people depend on them. They are characterized by a fear of intimacy (McAdams, 2002).

Finally, adults with anxious ambivalent styles worry that their partners do not love them and will eventually abandon them.

The following table summarizes the forced-choice measure of attachment style according to Hazan and Shaver (1987):

<i>Which of the following paragraphs best describes your feelings about being emotionally close to other people? Place a checkmark in front of the one paragraph that best describes you.</i>	
<input type="checkbox"/> I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them and having them depend on me. I don't often worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me. (secure)	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone gets too close, and often, love partners want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being. (avoidant)	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me or won't want to stay with me. I want to merge completely with another person, and this desire sometimes scares people away. (ambivalent)	<input type="checkbox"/>

Figure 3. First Attachment Style measure used by Hazan and Shaver.

Source: McAdams, 2002; pp. 107



At the time that researchers were assessing the utility of the three-group measure and its various derivatives, theoretical and empirical work was presented proposing a four-group model of adult attachment, which was based on Bowlby's (1969, 1973) contention that attachment patterns reflect working models of the self and the attachment figure (Feeney & Noller, 1996). According to Bartholomew (1990), models of the self can be dichotomized as either positive (the self is seen as worthy of love and attention) or negative (the self is seen as unworthy); similarly, models of the attachment figure can be positive (the other is seen as available and caring) or negative (the other is seen as rejecting, distant, or uncaring) (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

Bartholomew (1990) proposes that the working model of self (positive, negative) can be combined with the working model of other to define four adult attachment styles.

The following table represents the four-group model of adult attachment (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; p.227):

		MODEL OF SELF (Dependence)	
		Positive (Low)	Negative (High)
MODEL OF OTHER (Avoidance)	Positive (Low)	CELL I SECURE Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy	CELL II PREOCCUPIED Preoccupied with relationships
	Negative (High)	CELL IV DISMISSING Dismissing of intimacy Counter-dependent	CELL III FEARFUL Fearful of intimacy Socially avoidant

Figure 4. Four-group Model of adult attachment by Bartholomew and Horowitz.

Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991) provide in their research an explanation of the four cells that make up the model of attachment presented in the table above:

Cell I indicates a sense of worthiness (lovability) plus an expectation that other people are generally accepting and responsive. It is labelled *secure*.

Cell II indicates a sense of unworthiness (unlovability) combined with a positive evaluation of others. This combination of characteristics would lead the person to strive for self-acceptance by gaining the acceptance of others. This pattern corresponds to Hazan and Shaver’s ambivalent group, and is referred to as *preoccupied*.

Cell III indicates a sense of unworthiness (unlovability) combined with an expectation that others will be negatively disposed (untrustworthy and rejecting). By avoiding close involvement with others, this style enables people to protect themselves against anticipated rejection by others. This style may correspond in part to the avoidant style described in Hazan and Shaver (1987). It is therefore labelled *fearful-avoidant*.

Finally, Cell IV indicates a sense of love-worthiness combined with a negative disposition toward other people. Such people protect themselves against disappointment by avoiding close relationships and maintaining a sense of independence and invulnerability. This style corresponds to the detached or dismissing of attachment attitude described by Main et al. (1985), so it is labelled *dismissive-avoidant*.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) developed prototypical descriptions of the four attachment styles, similar in form to the three attachment descriptions used by Hazan and Shaver (1987) (Feeney & Noller, 1996). The descriptions are presented in the table below:

<b>Secure:</b> It is relatively easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don’t worry about being alone or having others not accept me.
<b>Dismissing:</b> I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me.
<b>Preoccupied:</b> I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don’t value me as much as I value them.

**Fearful:** I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely or to depend on them. I sometimes worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.

Figure 5. Prototypical descriptions of the four attachment styles.

Source: Feeney & Noller, 1996; pp. 53

### C. Assessment of Attachment

Assessing attachment became a great concern to researchers, especially developmental psychologists who were interested in showing infant's attachment style and the way it guides their future lives. Although, the emergence of the current dominant methodology was somewhat serendipitous, it arose in the context of naturalistic study of the development of infant-mother relationships and reflected a consensus that, regardless of the theoretical framework adopted, the formation of a special relationship with a primary caregiver is consolidated by the end of the infant's first year of life and is a major developmental milestone (Goldberg, 2000).

After considering the limitations of the Strange Situation, which was used to assess the attachment style of infants, researchers worked on formulating new techniques in order to develop methods of discovering an infant's attachment style.

The first **Attachment Q-sort** consisted of 100 items reflecting 7 clusters of behaviour: those characterizing the attachment system (does not stay closer to adult in unfamiliar environment), affectivity (predominant mood is happy), social interaction (laughs easily with observer), object manipulation (prefers animate toys), independence/dependency (is independent with adult), social perceptiveness (is aware of social environment) and endurance/resiliency (becomes bored quickly) (Goldberg, 2000). Goldberg (2000) explains the procedures of the Attachment Q-sort: "The Attachment Q-sort have been used widely with both mothers and trained observers. When mothers are the sorters, they are first familiarized with the items and then observe their child for a set period of time (1 week) before actually

sorting the cards. Usually, they are assisted by a trained researcher. For observers, one or more prolonged home visits (2-4 hours each) are made before attempting to characterize a child's behaviour. Although Q-sorts can be scored in a variety of ways, the common procedure for the Attachment Q-sort is based on criterion sorts made by expert judges. To develop these, experienced attachment researchers sorted the items to correspond to the ideal secure, dependent and sociable child as well as for social desirability. The item sorts of mothers or observers are compared to the criterion sorts by comparing the informant's card placements with those of the criterion group. Thus, a child can be scored from -1 to +1 for security, indicating the correlation between mother/observer card placements and the criterion sort for security." (p. 29)

Goldberg (2000) explains some limitations concerning the Attachment Q-sort. She argues that the Attachment Q-sort, like the Strange Situation, is a labour-intensive procedure, for in studies where observers complete the sort, they have spent 4-10 hours on home observations in order to do so, and in studies where mothers complete the sort, research staff invest considerable time in training mothers in observation and sorting. Another limitation concerning the Attachment Q-sort is that although it might eventually include criterion sorts for the prototypic avoidant and resistant infant, at present it does not do so. It is conceptually possible to develop a criterion sort for organization/disorganization, but this would be extremely difficult using current information, because there is no simple description of disorganized behaviour (Goldberg, 2000).

The **Adult Attachment Interview** which was designed by George, Kaplan, and Main to tap subject's memories of their childhood relationships with parents, together with current evaluations of these early experiences and their effects on adult personality (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

Holmes (1993) explains the way the Adult Attachment Interview is used to assess an individual's attachment style: the subject is asked to choose five adjectives which best describe the relationship with each parent during childhood, and to illustrate these with specific memories; for example to describe what the subject did when was upset in childhood or to which parent the subject felt closer and why.

The interviews are audiotaped and then rated along eight scales: loving relationship with mother; loving relationship with father; role reversal with parents; quality of recall; anger with parents; idealisation of relationships; derogation of relationships; and coherence of narrative (Holmes, 1993).

Interview transcripts are used to identify three attachment patterns: secure (marked by ease and objectivity in discussing attachment episodes and by the valuing of attachment experiences), dismissing (marked by difficulty in recalling specific attachment experiences and by the devaluing of attachment relationships), and preoccupied (marked by confused and incoherent accounts of attachment relationships) (Feeny & Noller, 1996).

Goldberg (2000) explains the manner in which adults with secure, dismissing, and preoccupied attachment styles dealt with the interview:

*Secure adults* value intimate relationships and acknowledge the effects of those relationships. Whether the specific experiences that they report are happy or troubled, they not only provide confirming detailed memories, but demonstrate an ability to reflect on those experiences with an understanding of both their own behaviour and that of their parents. Thus the secure adult might say that he or she felt rejected because 'my mother was always too busy for me', but will also say 'I don't think my mother realized how much I missed her when she was at work. Now I realize how hard she had to work just to keep food on the table.'

is, many of the measures were brief and involved very simple response alternatives (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

*Dismissing adults* usually have little to say about the attachment experiences of their childhood, and they provide relatively short transcripts. Their ability to recount specific incidents is limited, and they often assert that they cannot remember relevant information. They minimize the effects of important relationships in their lives. Thus a dismissing adult may describe his or her relationships with a parent as loving, but be unable to remember specific events to illustrate this and/or later describes distinctly unloving behaviour.

*Preoccupied adults* become so entangled in the details of early experiences that they are unable to provide an overview. They are still engaged in angry struggles with their parents over old issues. As a result, they provide extremely long, vivid but wandering narratives, and they often fail to answer the question they were asked. For example, when asked for 'five words to describe your relationship with your mother' the preoccupied adult may launch into a detailed description of an event but be unable to give a word or short phrase to convey the sense of what they have just described.

Like the Strange Situation, the AAI yields classifications and it therefore has the same limitations for data analysis as any classificatory system, yet it provides a rich and detailed picture of the 'state of mind' of the individual being interviewed, and despite its labour-intensive demands has immense appeal to clinicians because of the 'face validity' of its content (Goldberg, 2000).

Hazan and Shaver's (1987) studies of adult attachment provided the impetus for what soon became a growing field of research (Feeney & Noller, 1996). They created a table describing the three attachment patterns, and individuals were asked to choose the attachment pattern that best describes them. Hazan and Shaver (1987) present a number of limitations of their initial empirical study. Because of the constraints on data collections, many of the measures were brief and involved very simple response alternatives (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

In his study, Simpson (1990), suggested that Hazan and Shaver's attachment measure included many unfortunate psychometric properties. According to Simpson, people classify themselves as belonging to one of three mutually exclusive attachment categories without indicating the extent to which the chosen category characterizes them. Therefore, individual difference variability that exists within each category cannot be assessed. Second, Simpson believed that this categorical classification method assessed an individual's standing on only one attachment style despite the fact that some adults may be best characterized as a blend of two or more styles. Third, this method of classification placed severe limits on the types of statistical analysis that can be conducted (Simpson, 1990). Fourth, this method does not allow one to determine the internal reliability of each style (Simpson, 1990).



## CHAPTER II

### ATTACHMENT AND LOVE RELATIONSHIPS

#### *A. Attraction: A first step in a relationship*

People have varied significant relationships in their lives, but social psychologists have mainly concentrated on adult friends, dating partners, lovers and married couples (Feeney & Noller, 1996). These intimate relationships involve three main components: 1- feelings of attachment, affection and love; 2- fulfilment of psychological needs; and 3- interdependence between partners, each of whom has a meaningful influence on the other (Brehm, Fein, & Kasson, 2002).

Physical attractiveness is somewhat hard to define. Some people claim that it's simply chemistry that attracts them to someone else. Others specifically describe a certain figure, or eye color or ankle width that draws them to another person and casts a spell of attraction around them. However, different people are drawn to different others and come to define physical attractiveness in quite diverse and different terms.

People experience interpersonal attractions regularly throughout their lifetime. Many perspectives developed concerning the reasons why people are drawn to specific others. According to one perspective, which is known as the rewarding perspective (Byrne & Clore, 1970), people are attracted to others with whom a relationship is rewarding. People want to be with other people who make them feel good about themselves and secure. The rewards can be either direct rewards, which are easily observed such as attention, support, and money, or indirect rewards, which are not directly observed such as the good feeling to be with someone who is funny, charming, witty, and smart...



A second perspective is the evolutionary perspective (Buss, 1999; Shmitt, 1993). This perspective is pretty recent and states that “humans exhibit patterns of attraction and mate selection that favor the conception, birth and survival of their offspring.” Regarding men, the choice of women is highly selective since women are biologically limited and can only bring a certain number of offsprings into the world. On the other hand, men can father an unlimited number of offsprings and are encouraged to “spread their seed” and inseminate many women. This is why men seek young women with good physical traits and health, which reflects reproductive fertility.

Social psychologists have determined many factors that affect and influence physical attraction among people, however, the study of factors that influence people’s attraction to others is a major and continuing preoccupation in social psychology. Researchers have identified a number of variables related to physical attraction however three remain the most prominent and reliable. These three are: the environment, similarity, and physical attractiveness (Bernstein, 2003, p 672-673).

The first factor, the environment, plays a major role in the developing of interpersonal attraction. One predictor of whether two people will actually become a couple is physical proximity. It is more likely for you to develop a physical attraction towards someone who is in your circle of acquaintances or who is close to you in space and time. Another phenomenon is the “mere exposure effect”. According to this view, liking of a person will increase the more you see him/her. This explains why you develop closer friendships with next-door neighbors than with people living two blocks away from you. What is really intriguing about the mere exposure effect is that people do not even have to be aware of their prior exposures for this effect to take place (Brehm, 2002, p 306). According to Brehm (2002), there are limitations to this exposure effect. The first one is that if you initially dislike a person, repeated exposure may

make the situation worse and might eventually make you hate that person to a much higher degree.

Another limitation lies in the sheer frequency of exposure. Sometimes, the more you are exposed to something such as a music video or TV commercial, the quicker you get sick of it. Another predictor within the environmental factor is the circumstances under which people meet. Different circumstances can influence different motives and can either influence physical attraction negatively or positively. For instance, if you meet someone while accepting a reward, you are more likely to form an attraction than when you are being humiliated by a superior at work (Brehm, 2002). According to Dutton and Aron (1974), sexual attractions occur with increased frequency during states of strong emotion. In their study, it was proved that people showed higher signs of physical attraction towards an attractive woman under circumstances of high anxiety than people who were in low-anxiety situations or circumstances. This study was carried out on an experimental bridge, which had the tendency to tilt and sway back and forth, and whose handrails were very low. Below the bridge was a 230-foot drop to rocks and shallow waters. An attractive woman would approach the male passer-bys and ask them to fill in a questionnaire. After the completion of the questionnaire, the woman would hand the individual her number telling him to call her for more information concerning the research.

This procedure was also done on a control bridge which was steady and well built and which stood over a small, shallow river. It stood firm and wide. Results showed that more males from the experimental bridge contacted the female researcher than those from the control bridge (2/16 from control bridge while 9/18 from experimental bridge). The results of these studies would seem to provide a basis of support for an emotion-sexual attraction link (Dutton & Aron 1974). Therefore, circumstances under which people meet play a significant role in the developing of attractions.

The second factor influencing physical attraction is similarity. According to research, we like others who are similar to us in certain aspects such as age, religions, and smoking habits, interests... "We like people with similar views of the world since we expect such people to think highly of us" (Condon & Crano, 1988). Studies have consistently demonstrated a positive association between attitude similarity and attraction. This renders the similarity-attraction link one of the most dependable research findings in social psychology although different researchers explain this link differently. According to Byrne and Clore (1970), agreement with another provides a person with consensual validation for his or her own beliefs and helps to satisfy "a learned drive to be logical, to interpret the environment correctly, and to function effectively in understanding and predicting events." (Byrne & Clore 1970, p 118). This drive was known as the "effectance drive". In general, this interpretation of the similarity-attraction link considers that when this drive is satisfied, attachment and attraction will result towards the source of satisfaction.

Another interpretation of the similarity-attraction link is known as "inferred evaluation" and suggests that the association is mediated by the perceiver's inference of positive evaluation by the agreeing other. People assume that a person that agrees with them on a certain aspect will also come to like them. This is because people are reinforced by those who like them. This reinforcement can take many forms such as food or sex. It seems reasonable to assume that people attempt to use the best possible information available to them when judging others as a way of understanding the differential importance of antecedents of interpersonal attraction. According to Condon & Crano (1988), similarity is considered a strong predictor of attraction because it "serves as an indirect indicator of the probability of a mutually dyadic relationship" (p 795). This conclusion allows for the possibility that individual subjective responses to attitude similarity are motivated by a variety of needs and that the similarity-attraction effect

can best be explained by a conditioned expectation of “mutual need gratification based on reciprocal liking, where the particular needs to be gratified are determined by the persons involved in the interaction.” (Condon & Crano, 1988, p 796).

In another study, James Curran and Stephan Lippold (1975) further investigated the effects of physical attraction and attitude similarity on attraction. Researchers have demonstrated that both attitude similarity and physical attractiveness are significantly related to attraction toward a “bogus” stranger. According to studies, the degree of attitude similarity shared by two dating partners was significantly related to their attraction toward each other (Curran & Lippold, 1975). It was also concluded that more likings occur on first date between physically attractive couples than physically unattractive couples “since the results were still significantly related to interpersonal attraction when partners were similar in physical attractiveness.” (p 534).

The third factor that influences physical attraction is physical attractiveness. Physical attractiveness is the first thing we usually notice in a person. Before approaching an individual and conversing with him/her, it is the physique of that person that either draws us closer towards him/her or pushes us away. According to Berscheid & Reis (1998), physical characteristics are important during initial stages of a relationship. As the relationship progresses and develops into marriage, the importance of physical attractiveness fades slowly out. However, contrary to this view, Bernard Murstein and Patricia Christy (1976) believe that physical attractiveness continues to be an important consideration throughout much of marriage. Consequently, they predict that strains that tend to occur in marriages are caused when one member’s physical attractiveness diminishes at a more rapid rate than that of the other (Murstein & Christy, 1976). The dilemma here was whether physical attractiveness was as important in marriages as it was in dating couples. Cavior and Boblett (1972) argue that a man in his quest for sexual satisfaction may take a woman less attractive than himself if he cannot immediately find a

more attractive one. However, since marriage has much more importance, individuals will hesitate to marry individuals beneath them in attractiveness.

Moreover, their studies proved this hypothesis through the resulting correlation of 0.73 between married couples' attractiveness and only 0.19 between dating couples. Going back to Murstein and Christy, physical attractiveness seems to play a significant role in marriage adjustment. Correlations indicate that the more physically attractive a married couple is, the more adjusted their marriage remains. Murstein further noted that if one member of the couple likes the other, he or she would perceive the other as attractive regardless of his true traits. However, marriage-adjustment is not simply based on whether the partners view each other as attractive or not. The strength of the link between marriage adjustment and physical attractiveness depends on how important physical attractiveness is considered in the individual's evaluation of his marriage (Murstein & Christy, 1976).

Another point that also falls within the scope of physical attractiveness as being a factor that influences physical attraction is the proposition of the matching hypothesis, which is "the notion that people are more likely to form long-term relationships with those who are similar to themselves in physical attractiveness." (Bernstein, 2003, p 672). Murstein supported this proposition through his development of the stimulus-value-role theory of marital choice. (Murstein, 1972). The stimulus-value-role theory holds that individuals tend to choose marital partners of comparable physical attractiveness to them. This happens when one has to attain a relationship since one fears rejection and failure. If one is assured of the relationship, rejection is unlikely so the similarity hypothesis doesn't apply. When one is assured of a date, the individual focuses on what rewards the other can offer. Immediate rejection is negligible. This theory, as proposed by Bernard Murstein, tends to prove that "equality of physical attractiveness tends to influence marital choice" (Murstein 1972, p 12).

We may say that physical attractiveness plays a major role in our lives, not only in forming interpersonal relationships with others but also in the ways others come to perceive us.

### *B. Love: An Essential Component in a Relationship*

When asked to describe love, many people tend to talk about intimacy, trust, passion, commitment, understanding, jealousy, joy, sadness, bonding, and affection. One could recognize the clear differences in the ways that love has been defined, however, a general agreement was accepted concerning the definition of love: first, most theorists characterize love as a multifaceted construct with multiple meanings, diverse targets, and varied expressions (Rempel & Burris, 2005). Indeed, even when characterized as an adaptive, evolved bond, love is regarded as a manifestation of multiple motivational systems, which leads to the conclusion that love is a construct that appears in varied forms (Rempel & Burris, 2005).

Johnson (2001) has offered four additional points on which most students of love will agree: first, love has an object (love is something that moves out from us toward something, typically someone else); second, we value that which we love (love has something to do with the process of valuing the love object); third, the lover is drawn or inclined toward the love object (there is a motivational component to love); and finally, there is an affective component to love (the lover must feel something for or with the love object) (Rempel & Burris, 2005). According to Hatfield (1988), when it comes to romantic relationships, many psychologists identify two basic types of love: passionate and companionate love. Passionate love involves intense emotion, arousal, and yearning for the partner, while companionate love involves affection and deep caring about the partner's well-being (Passer & Smith, 2007). Sternberg is well remembered for his 'Triangular Theory of Love'. According to Sternberg, there are eight basic subtypes of love (seven forms of love and an eighth combination that results in non love); and all can be derived from the

presence or absence of three components (Brem, Kassin, & Fein, 2002). The three components are: intimacy, passion, and commitment.

Intimacy involves closeness, sharing, and valuing one's partner (Passer & Smith, 2007). Sternberg and Grajek (1984) cluster-analysed data from the loving and liking scales of Rubin (1970) and a close-relationships scale of Levinger, Rands and Talaber (1977), as a result of which they identified 10 clusters in intimacy: (a) desire to promote the welfare of the loved one; (b) experienced happiness with the loved one; (c) high regard for the loved one; (d) being able to count on the loved one in times of need; (e) mutual understanding with the loved one; (f) sharing of one's self and one's possessions with the loved one; (g) receipt of emotional support from the loved one; (h) giving of emotional support to the loved one; (i) intimate communication with the loved one; and (j) valuing of the loved one in one's life (Sternberg, 1997).

Erikson was known for his theory of psychosocial development which states that every individual passes through eight stages of life. In order for the individual to be living healthy life, he/she has to resolve the psychosocial issue of each stage. Erickson's stage model suggests that once an adult has arrived at some tentative answers to the question of "Who am I" he or she is then psychosocially ready to begin the sixth chapter of life, intimacy versus isolation (McAdams, 2002). The following passage represents the definition that Erikson provided for intimacy (Erikson, 1963):

"Thus, the young adult, emerging from the search for and the insistence on identity, is eager and willing to fuse his identity with that of others. He is ready for intimacy, that is, the capacity to commit himself to concrete affiliations and partnerships and to develop the ethical strength to abide by such commitments, even though they may call for significant sacrifices and compromises. Body and ego must now be masters of the



organ modes and of the nuclear conflicts, in order to be able to face the fear of ego loss in situations which call for self-abandon: in the solidarity of close affiliations, in orgasms, and sexual union, in close friendships and in physical combat, in experiences of inspiration by teachers and of intuition from the recesses of the self. The avoidance of such experiences because of a fear of ego loss may lead to a deep sense of isolation and consequent fear of self-absorption.” (p. 263-264)

Orlofsky, Marcia, and Lesser (1973) devised a semistructured interview designed to determine the quality of intimacy in a person’s life; and based on the respondent’s answers to questions about dating, friendships, and interpersonal commitments, he or she may be classified as showing one of four intimacy statuses (McAdams, 2002).

The following table represents the four intimacy statuses in studies on college students:

Intimate	The person works at developing mutual personal relationships and has several close friends with whom he or she discusses personal matters. He or she is involved in a committed love relationship with a member of the opposite sex. This sexual relationship is mutually satisfactory, usually involving intercourse. The person is able to express both angry and affectionate feelings in the relationship. The person is generally interested in others.
Preintimate	The person has dated members of the opposite sex but is not involved in a committed love relationship. He or she is aware of the possibilities of relating intimately with a member of the opposite sex. The person has close friendships. The person has respect for the integrity of others, openness, responsibility, and mutuality. He or she feels conflicted about commitment, and love relationships may tend to be ambivalent.
Stereotyped	The person ranges from the moderately constricted and immature type of individual who has yet to go beyond superficial dating relationships to the playboy/playgirl type. Generally he or she has several friends; however, these relationships lack significant depth. He or she may date regularly but generally does not get involved.
Isolate	The isolated person lacks enduring personal relationships. Though he or she may have a few peer acquaintances seen infrequently, he or she rarely initiates



	social contact and rarely dates members of the opposite sex. The anxiety accompanying close personal contact forces the person to withdraw into isolation. The person tends to be anxious and immature and generally lacking in assertiveness and social skills. The isolated individual may present him or herself as bitter and mistrustful or smug and self-satisfied.
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Figure 6. Four intimacy statuses in studies on college students.  
Source: Orlosky, Marcia, & Lesser (1973); McAdams (2002), pp. 573

Passion refers to feelings of physical attraction and sexual desire (Passer & Smith, 2007). The passion component includes within its purview those sources of motivational and other forms of arousal that lead to the experience of passion in a loving relationship (Sternberg, 1997).

According to Sternberg (1997), in a loving relationship, sexual needs may well predominate in this experience, however, other needs, such as those for self-esteem, succorance, nurturance, affiliation, dominance, submission, and self-actualization may also contribute to the experiencing of passion.

Commitment represents a decision to remain in the relationship (Passer & Smith, 2007). The two aspects of the decision/commitment component do not necessarily go together, in that one can decide to love someone without being committed to the love in the long-term, or one can be committed to a relationship without acknowledging that one loves the other person in the relationship (Sternberg, 1997).

Based on these three components of love, eight possible types of love come into focus, creating a classification system for the various kinds of love relationships (Sternberg, 1986, 1988; Diessner, Frost, & Smith, 2004). It is important to realize that these kinds of love are in fact, limiting cases: no relationship is likely to be a pure case of any of them (Sternberg, 1997). A 'liking' type of love is intimacy without passion or commitment; 'infatuation' is passion without intimacy or commitment; 'empty love' is commitment without passion or intimacy; 'romantic love' is a combination of intimacy and passion without commitment; 'companionate love' results

from intimacy combined with commitment but without passion; ‘fatuous love’ is the combination of passion and commitment but lacking intimacy; ‘consummate love’ comes from all three components being active in the relationship; and ‘non love’ is when all three components are absent (Diessner, Frost, & Smith, 2004). The following figure represents Sternberg’s Love Triangle (Passer & Smith, 2007; p. 638):

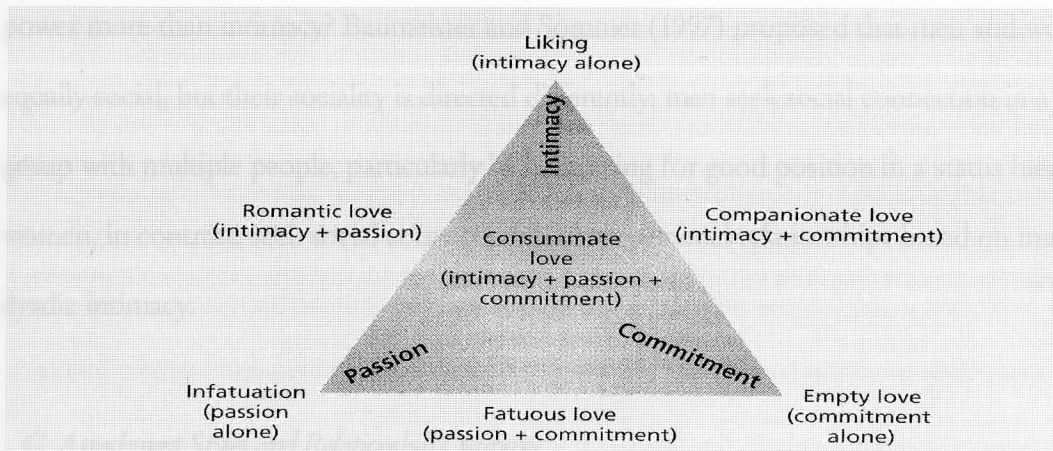


Figure 7. Sternberg’s Love Triangle.

One of the more well known social/personality theories of love is that of Lee (1977), who proposed a more complex taxonomy by referring to primary and secondary love styles (Heaven et al, 2004). Lee believed that love is not a single thing at all, but rather, an entity needing to be understood in terms of people’s individual ‘styles’ of loving, which include six such styles: (a) *eros*, the love style characterized by the search for a beloved whose physical presentation of self embodies an image already held in the mind of the lover; (b) *ludus*, which is Ovid’s term for playful or game like love; (c) *storge*, a style based on slowly developing affection and companionship; (d) *mania*, a love style characterized by obsession, jealousy, and great emotional intensity; (e) *agape*, which is altruistic love in which the lover views it as his or her duty to love without expectation of reciprocation, and (f) *pragma*, a practical style involving conscious consideration of the demographic characteristics of the loved one (Sternberg, 1997). Primary

love styles include: eros, ludus, and storge, while secondary love styles include: mania, pragma, and agape (Heaven et al, 2004).

Gender differences in intimacy and commitment were examined by researchers. They have tried to support analysis to questions such as: Are men more intimate and committed than males? What makes females intimate and committed? Are males concerned with status and power more than intimacy? Baumeister and Sommer (1997) proposed that men and women are equally social, but their sociality is directed differently: men seek social connection in a broad group with multiple people, particularly by competing for good position in a status hierarchy; women, in contrast, seek social connection in close personal relationships based on mutual, dyadic intimacy.

### *C. Attachment Styles and Relationship Outcomes*

Recent studies suggest that a person's overall attachment style is crucial in predicting love related behaviour. Secure attachment style were associated with greater relationship interdependence, trust, commitment, and satisfaction.

Shaver and Hazan proposed that the primary love styles (discussed in the previous section) are reducible to the three major attachment styles. Therefore, according to the following analysis, secure attachment corresponds to a combination of eros and agape while avoidant attachment corresponds to ludus, and anxious attachment corresponds to mania.

Thus, love in interpersonal relationships can be viewed as an attachment process, a process of becoming emotionally attached to an adult romantic partner in somewhat the same way that an infant becomes emotionally bonded to its primary caregiver (Bursik & Stackert, 2002).

Initial empirical support for the attachment perspective on romantic love consisted of two questionnaire based studies of adult samples: They attempted to investigate the association

between attachment style and aspects of childhood and adult relationships (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

For these studies, Hazan and Shaver developed a self report measure of adult attachment style. Subjects were asked to choose the paragraph most descriptive of their feelings in close relationships. In the following measure, secure subjects were described as being able to get closer to other people and as being able to depend on others, while avoidant subjects were described as being unable to get closer to other people and as having some difficulty in depending on people around them.

The above measure was used in two studies of adult samples. The first sample was large consisting of respondents to a love quiz (628 subjects). The second was a sample of undergraduate students (456 subjects). Both subjects completed measures that tapped general attitudes to close relationships. The results were as follows: Secure subjects believed that romantic love lasts and doesn't fade with time. Their most important romantic relationships were described as happy, friendly, and trusting. They emphasized being able to accept and support their partner despite the partner's faults (Bursik & Stackert, 2002). Avoidant subjects believed that romantic love rarely lasts and that it loses intensity with time. Their most important love experiences were marked by fear of intimacy and by difficulty in accepting their love partners. Anxious subjects reported that it is easy to fall in love, however real love is rare. Their most important love relationships were characterized by obsession and jealousy, and great sexual attraction (Bursik & Stackert, 2002).

Hazan and Shaver present a number of limitations of their initial empirical study. Because of the constraints on data collections, many of the measures were brief and involved very simple response alternatives (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

The next studies of adult attachments made some attempts to address the limitations done by Hazan and Shaver (discussed in details in the previous chapter), therefore create improvements in measurement techniques and conceptualization. Levy and Davis (1988) assessed the relationship between measures of attachment style and the six love styles described by Lee. They used rating scales to assess each from those of Hazan and Shaver. The results were nearly the same, explaining that secure attachment was positively correlated with eros and agape and was negatively correlated with ludus.

Many studies were conducted in order to assess the validity of the triangular theory of love, which was proposed by Sternberg. In one study, Arthur Aron and Lori Westbay (1996) asked people to rate 68 prototypical features of love and found out that all the various features fell into three categories: passion (gazing at the other, euphoria, butterflies in the stomach), intimacy (feeling free to talk about anything, supportive, understanding), and commitment (devotion, putting the other first, long lasting) (Brehm, Kassin, Fein, 2002).

In a second study, Sternberg (1997) asked people to indicate what they see as important in different kinds of relationships and found that the results were consistent with the theory: ideal lover scored high on all three components, friend scored high on intimacy and commitment but low on passion, and sibling scored high on commitment but low in intimacy and passion (Brehm, Kassin, & Fein, 2002).

In a study by Simpson (1990), two different hypotheses concerning attachment and romantic relationships were investigated. The first hypotheses concerned the nature of the relationship and the second hypothesis concerned emotions experienced within the relationship. One hundred and forty four dating couples (144 men and 144 women), participated in Simpson's study. Attachment style was measured by having both members rate

13 sentences contained within the Hazan and Shaver (1987) adult attachment measure on a Likert-type scales (Simpson, 1990).

The three Hazan and Shaver (1987) attachment vignettes were decomposed into 13 individual sentences, each of which was responded to on a 7 point Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) (Simpson, 1990). To control for acquiescence response biases, 3 sentences were worded in a negative direction; and slight alternations in wording designed to reduce item reduced difficulty were made for two sentences (Simpson, 1990). Participants rated the following items according to how they typically felt toward romantic partners in general: (a) I find it relatively easy to get close to others, (b) I'm not very comfortable having to depend on other people, (c) I'm comfortable having others depend on me, (d) I rarely worry about being abandoned by others, (e) I don't like people getting too close to me, (f) I'm somewhat uncomfortable being too close to others, (g) I find it difficult to trust others completely, (h) I'm nervous whenever anyone gets too close to me, (i) Others often want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being, (j) Others often are reluctant to get as close as I would like, (k) I often worry that my partners don't really love me, (l) I rarely worry about my partner(s) leaving me, and (m) I often to merge completely with others, and this desire sometimes scares them away" (Simpson, 1990). Items a-e were taken from Hazan and Shaver's secure vignette description; items f-i and items j-m were taken from the avoidant and anxious/ambivalent vignettes, respectively (Simpson, 1990).

According to Simpson's results, people who showed avoidant and anxious attachment styles reported being involved in a relationship that is characterized by less interdependence, trust, commitment, and satisfaction. Highly avoidant people reported their relationship was somewhat less interdependent and committed than did highly anxious people, whereas highly anxious people reported their relationship contained less trust (Simpson, 1990). The following

results coincide with previous research such as the ones of Hazan & Shaver (1987), Feeney & Noller (1990), and Collins & Read (1990) which were discussed earlier.

According to Mikulincer and Erev (1991, p.275), attachment styles are important for individuals in shaping their beliefs and attitudes toward (close) relationships and enabling them to expect and explain partner's behaviour and relationship outcome (Heaven, DaSilva, Carey & Holen, 2004). Mikulincer and Erev's (1991) studies coincide with previous findings mentioned above, for they found that secure types valued intimacy and were generally satisfied with their relationship, as was their partner; avoidant types were found to express less intimacy and also has less desire for intimacy and passion; and anxious individuals desired an intimate and passionate relationship, but were less able to realize that ideal.

Many psychologists kept on investigating studies about attachment and its significant impact on the human life. Simpson, Rholes, and Neliga (1992) went much deeper into the study of the effect of attachment in interpersonal relationships. They videotaped dating couples as they sat in a waiting room before participating in an activity that provokes anxiety feelings (McAdams, 2002). Their experiment yielded the following results: (1) avoidant men and women expressed less helping and support behaviour with their partners, (2) secure men and women expressed more helping and support behaviour with their partners, (3) in times of anxiety, secure people are more active and effective in providing their romantic partners with a secure base of comfort, encouragement, and support, compared with people who have avoidant styles of attachment (McAdams, 2002).



Therefore, the aim of the following study is to prove the existence of a relationship between attachment styles and the level of intimacy and commitment in love relationships among a sample of Lebanese students.

#### A. Pilot Studies

Based on the findings reported above in the study's literature (Chapters I and II), I hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis (1): In general, the sample will score high on the secure attachment style.

Hypothesis (2): Individuals who score high on secure attachment will report high levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships.

Hypothesis (3): Individuals who score high on avoidant attachment will report low levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships.

Hypothesis (4): Individuals who score high on anxious attachment will report high levels of intimacy as well as commitment in their relationships.

Hypothesis (5): Concerning relationship outcomes, females will score higher on intimacy and commitment than males.



### CHAPTER III

## METHODOLOGY

#### *A. Pilot Studies*

A pilot study was carried out in Haigazian University. The aim of the pilot study was to assess the reliabilities of the scales used, the time it takes students filling in the questionnaire, as well as any difficulty or misunderstanding that may arise as students complete the questionnaire. In addition, a pilot study was necessary to ensure that the scales chosen were appropriate to be administered to the population, which includes Lebanese College students.

The questionnaire was administered to 15 participants from Haigazian University. After completing the questionnaire, the students were asked to give in their feedback concerning the items used in the scales. The students agreed that the questionnaire didn't include any vague items and that the instructions were clear enough.

All the scales were subjected to reliability analysis. The reliabilities for the AAS (Adult Attachment Scale) were very low; the attachment scale yielded an alpha coefficient of .38, the avoidant scale yielded an alpha coefficient of .41, and the anxious scale yielded an alpha coefficient of .37. The SLC (Sternberg's Love Scale) yielded high reliabilities; the commitment scale yielded an alpha of .91 and the intimacy scale yielded an alpha of 0.89 .

The questionnaires were observed, and it was discovered that five participants left a number of items unanswered (items from the anxious scale and the avoidant scale). A decision was taken to conduct a second pilot study for the AAS. Under each scale, a new set of instructions were added in order to make sure that students don't leave any item unanswered. Fifteen students from Haigazian University filled in the questionnaire. Again, the students were asked

to give in their feedback concerning the items of the scales. The students didn't face any difficulties with the scales' items. A reliability analysis was conducted for the AAS. The reliabilities increased; the secure attachment scale yielded an alpha coefficient of .47, the avoidant scale yielded an alpha coefficient of .59, and the anxious scale yielded an alpha coefficient of .45. Since the reliabilities increased, a decision was taken to use the scales in the main study.

### *B. Participants*

The final sample of the present study included students from two Lebanese universities the American University of Beirut (AUB) and Haigazian University (HU). It comprised of 133 students (Males  $N = 64$ , Females  $N = 69$ ) from various religious orientations (Muslim  $N = 56$ , Christian  $N = 59$ , and Druze  $N = 18$ ). Their ages ranged between 18 and 30, with an average age of 21.

### *C. Instruments*

The following study used a survey based methodology which included a sample of Haigazian and AUB students. The questionnaire contains two main scales: The Adult Attachment Scale (AAS) and the Sternberg's Triangular Love Scale (STLS). The AAS includes three subscales and the STLS includes two subscales. The survey also included a cover page and a demographic sheet.

#### 1- Adult Attachment Scale (AAS)

The AAS (Collins & Read, 1990) was produced by transforming Hazan and Shaver's three description into a series of 21 items measured on a Likert - type scale. Each item was rated by the participant on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 being "Not at all me" and 5 being "Extremely me").

The scale includes three subscales: avoidant attachment scale, secure attachment scale, and anxious attachment scale. The items that represent the secure attachment scale are the following: 3, 4, 7, 13, 14, 17; the items that represent the avoidant attachment scale are the following: 1, 2, 5, 15, 16, 18; and the items that represent the anxious scale are: 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12. The scale usually has a strong reliability: .71 for the secure attachment scale, .81 for the avoidant attachment scale, and .75 for the anxious attachment scale (Shaver, Belsky, & Brennan, 2000).

2- Sternberg's Triangular Love Scale (STLS)

The STLS (Sternberg, 1986) was produced by Robert Sternberg. It contains 45 items measured on a Likert – type scale. Each item was rated by the participant on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 being ‘Not at all me and 5 being “Extremely me”).

The scale includes three subscales: intimacy scale, commitment scale, and the passionate scale. Each subscale includes 15 items. However, in the present study, only two subscales were used (intimacy scale and commitment scale), and the passionate scale was disregarded (due to the purpose of the study). Items 1 to 15 represent the intimacy scale and items 16 to 30 represent the commitment scale. The scale usually has a strong reliability: .93 for the commitment scale and .90 for the intimacy scale (Yela, 2006).

*D. Procedure*

At Haigazian University, the researcher’s advisor volunteered to help her colleague in distributing the set of questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed at the end of each class, making sure that each student participated voluntarily.

The distribution of the questionnaire at the American University of Beirut was done through convenient sampling. Undergraduate and graduate AUB students around the campus were asked to fill in the questionnaire. The sample included friends and students from the upper campus of the AUB. It was most of the time around the Green oval, College Hall, and the AUB library. Whenever a questionnaire had to be distributed, it was removed from a white envelope, given to the participant, and then fit into a brown envelope in order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. In addition, my advisor's sister volunteered to distribute a number of questionnaires to her class which compromised of 40 students.

The questionnaire (see Appendix A) contained a page which included general idea about the purpose of the study (in order to avoid biases in certain items of the questionnaire), the basic instructions, and an email address (in case the participants have any questions about the results of the project).

## 2. Normality assumptions

The assumption of normality was tested using the Komogorov-Smirnov test and was found to be violated for all the variables:

Age,  $D(133) = .16, p < .05$   
 Avoidance,  $D(133) = .13, p < .05$   
 Secure,  $D(133) = .10, p < .05$   
 Anxious,  $D(133) = .22, p < .05$

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

#### *A. Preliminary Analysis*

Prior to analysis, the variables: age, gender, university, religion, secure, avoidance, anxious, intimacy, and commitment were examined for accuracy of data entry and missing values.

There were no missing values or any data misentry.

#### *1. Outliers*

Four cases were identified as univariate outliers: three subjects (27, 76 and 79) were extremely old compared to other participants and had extremely high z scores:

$|z \text{ score}| > 3.29$  on the age variable and subject 15 had a high z score:  $|z \text{ score}| > 3.29$  on the intimacy variable.

Multivariate outlier analysis using Mahalanobis distance indicated the presence of three multivariate outliers (cases 27, 76, and 79) with mahalanobis distances greater than  $\chi^2(7) = 24.322$  at  $p < .001$ .

Since the following cases: 27, 76 and 79 were identified as univariate and multivariate outliers, they were deleted from further analysis.

#### *2. Normality assumptions*

The assumption of normality was tested using the Komogorov-Smirnov test and was found to be violated for all the variables:

Age,  $D(133) = .16, p < .05$

Avoidance,  $D(133) = .13, p < .05$

Secure,  $D(133) = .10, p < .05$

Anxious,  $D(133) = .22, p < .05$

Intimacy,  $D(133) = .09, p < .05$

Commitment,  $D(133) = .10, p < .05$

Table 1  
*Tests of normality*

Tests of Normality <sup>a</sup>						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Age	.163	133	.000	.919	133	.000
Avoidance	.131	133	.000	.921	133	.000
Secure	.096	133	.004	.957	133	.000
Anxious	.223	133	.000	.815	133	.000
Intimacy	.087	133	.015	.965	133	.002
Commitment	.101	133	.002	.969	133	.004

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

B. Reliability Analysis

The Adult Attachment Scale’s subscales and Sternberg’s Love Triangle’s subscales were examined for reliability.

Cronbach alpha coefficients were relatively high for all the scales, and they were all above .7 indicating that all scales had displayed good internal consistency.

Table 2  
*Reliabilities of the scales used in the following study and in previous studies*

Subscale	Cronbach a in the following study	Cronbach a in previous studies
Avoidance	.75	.81
Secure	.75	.71
Anxious	.80	.75
Intimacy	.93	.90
Commitment	.93	.93

C. Descriptives

1. Sample Descriptives

Participants from AUB (American University of Beirut) and HU (Haigazian University) were recruited through convenient sampling. A sample of 133 students participated from various religions with their ages ranging from 18 to 30 ( $M = 21.49, SD = 2.31$ ). Table 3 provides the sample descriptive statistics.

Table 3  
Sample Descriptive Statistics

		Frequency	Percentage
Participants' Religion	Christian	59	44.4
	Muslim	56	42.1
	Other	18	13.5
University	AUB	67	50.4
	HU	66	49.6
Gender	Female	69	51.9
	Male	64	48.1

2. Scale Descriptives

The means and standard deviations for all the variables are listed in Table 4.

Table 4  
Scale Descriptives

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Avoidant	133	2.83	.81
Secure	133	3.02	.80
Anxious	133	2.46	.84
Intimacy	133	3.84	.70
Commitment	133	3.68	.79

Note: avoidance, secure, anxious, intimacy, and commitment were scored on a scale from 0 to 5 with higher scores meaning greater endorsement of the variables.

The mean of the secure dimension was around the midpoint indicating that, on average, the sample had a moderate to high secure adult attachment style ( $M=3.02, SD=.80$ ). The average person seemed to be moderately avoidant ( $M=2.83, SD=.81$ ), or anxious ( $M=2.46, SD=.84$ ). However, the sample means on avoidant and anxious attachment dimensions were above the

midpoint indicating that more than 50% of the participants scored lower than the average person on the avoidance and anxious attachment dimension. Thus, the sample tended to be moderate to high on the secure dimension and few subjects tended to be high on the anxious or avoidance dimensions.

The means of intimacy ( $M=3.84, SD=.74$ ) and commitment ( $M=3.68, SD=.79$ ) were below the midpoint indicating that the sample experienced moderate to high intimacy and commitment in their relationships and that few subjects were lower on these variables than the average person.

D. Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis (1)

Hypothesis (1) predicted that in general, the sample will rate higher on secure attachment than on avoidant and anxious attachment. In order to test the hypothesis, the means of the three attachment styles were compared.

Table 5  
Mean of the three attachment styles

	N	?
Avoidant	133	2.83
Secure	133	3.02
Anxious	133	2.46

The mean of the secure dimension was around the midpoint indicating that, on average, the sample had a moderate to high secure adult attachment style ( $M=3.02, SD=.80$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis (1) is accepted.

Hypotheses (2, 3, and 4):

The following hypotheses predicted the following: 1) individuals who score high on secure attachment will report high levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships



(Hypothesis 2), 2) individuals who score high on avoidant attachment will report low levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships (Hypothesis 3), and 3) Individuals who score high on anxious attachment will report high levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships.

In order to test the above hypotheses, a two-tailed test of bivariate correlations among the variables gender, intimacy, commitment, avoidance, secure, and anxious was performed.

Table6  
Correlations among attachment styles , intimacy, and commitment

		Gender	Avoidance	Secure	Anxious	Intimacy	Commitment
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	.328(**)	-.256(**)	.048	-.429(**)	-.417(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.003	.584	.000	.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Avoidance	Pearson Correlation	.328(**)	1	-.334(**)	-.263(**)	-.408(**)	-.379(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.002	.000	.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Secure	Pearson Correlation	-.256(**)	-.334(**)	1	-.272(**)	.438(**)	.280(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000		.002	.000	.001
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Anxious	Pearson Correlation	.048	-.263(**)	-.272(**)	1	-.043	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.584	.002	.002		.620	.789
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Intimacy	Pearson Correlation	-.429(**)	-.408(**)	.438(**)	-.043	1	.745(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.620		.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Commitment	Pearson Correlation	-.417(**)	-.379(**)	.280(**)	.023	.745(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.789	.000	
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133

As displayed in Table 6, an inspection of the correlation matrix revealed that no correlation exceeded .80. The attachment dimensions were not equally related to each of the dependent variables intimacy and commitment.

While anxious was not significantly correlated with intimacy ( $r = -.04$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $> .05$ ) or commitment ( $r = .02$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $> .05$ ), avoidance and secure dimensions were significantly correlated with intimacy and commitment.

Avoidant attachment dimension had a significant moderate to large negative correlation with intimacy ( $r = -.41$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $< .05$ ) and commitment ( $r = -.38$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $< .001$ ) indicating that a subject high on avoidance tends to be less intimate and committed in relationships. The secure attachment dimension had a significant moderate to large positive correlation with intimacy ( $r = .44$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $< .05$ ) and small to moderate positive relationship with commitment ( $r = .28$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $< .05$ ). This implies that those who revealed themselves as securely attached tend to be more intimate and committed in interpersonal relationships.

Therefore, we tend to accept Hypotheses (2) and (3) and refute Hypothesis (4).

Hypothesis (5):

The following hypothesis predicted that females, in general (regardless of their attachment styles) will score higher on intimacy and commitment than males.

An Independent Samples Test was performed to test if females score higher on intimacy and commitment than males.

Table 7 shows the group statistics (The Independent Samples Test is shown in Appendix G).

Table 7  
*Attachment styles, intimacy, and commitment among males and females*

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Avoidance	females	69	2.5725	.57981	.06980
	male	64	3.1042	.93553	.11694
Secure	females	69	3.2150	.85468	.10289
	male	64	2.8047	.68914	.08614
Anxious	females	69	2.4251	.80416	.09681
	male	64	2.5052	.87940	.10992
Intimacy	females	69	4.1275	.51179	.06161
	male	64	3.5260	.75098	.09387
Commitment	females	69	3.9952	.73869	.08893
	male	64	3.3417	.69236	.08655

Females were significantly higher on commitment level ( $M=4.00$ ,  $SD=0.74$ ) than males ( $M=3.34$ ,  $SD=0.69$ ),  $t(131)=5.25, p<0.05$ .

Females were significantly higher on intimacy level ( $M=4.13$ ,  $SD=0.51$ ) than males ( $M=3.53$ ,  $SD=0.75$ ),  $t(110.05)=5.36, p<0.05$ .

Therefore, Hypothesis (5) is accepted.

A. Sample's Attachment Style

Given the descriptions of the secure, avoidant, and anxious styles, it was predicted that the participants will score high on secure attachment style. The results shown in Chapter (IV) tend to support Hypothesis (1) which stated that the sample in general will rate higher on secure attachment than on avoidant and anxious attachment ( $X=3.02$ , compared to  $X=2.83$  for avoidant attachment and  $X=2.46$  for anxious attachment). These results are similar to those of Hazan & Shaver (1987).

Possible explanations for such an outcome include: sample size and the instrument used for the assessment of attachment styles. The sample of participants was drawn from a specific

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

The purpose of the following study was to assess and appraise the extent to which attachment styles influences intimacy and commitment in heterosexual relationships. Based on the main purpose of the study, it was hypothesized that individuals who score high on secure attachment tend to show high levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships. It was also hypothesized that individuals who score high on avoidant attachment tend to show low levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships and that individuals who score high on anxious attachment tend to show high levels of intimacy and commitment in their relationships. Females, in general (regardless of their attachment style), were predicted to show higher levels of intimacy and commitment than males.

#### *A. Sample's Attachment Style*

Given the descriptions of the secure, avoidant, and anxious styles, it was predicted that the participants will score high on secure attachment style. The results shown in Chapter (IV) tend to support Hypothesis (1) which stated that the sample in general will rate higher on secure attachment than on avoidant and anxious attachment ( $X=3.02$ , compared to  $X=2.83$  for avoidant attachment and  $X=2.46$  for anxious attachment). These results are similar to those of Hazan & Shaver (1987).

Possible explanations for such an outcome include: sample size and the instrument used for the assessment of attachment styles. The sample of participants was drawn from a specific

Lebanese sub-culture (students from the American University of Beirut and Haigazian University).

The Adult Attachment Scale scored the avoidance, anxious, and secure attachment styles on a scale from 1 to 5 with higher scores meaning greater endorsement of the variables. The scale didn't include any items that were reverse coded.. Therefore, some participants could have possibly scored high on the following items, engaging in what is known as positive self-presentation.

### *B. Gender Differences in Intimacy and Commitment*

Hypothesis (5) predicted that in general, females will score higher on intimacy and commitment than males. The results displayed in Chapter (IV) tend to support the hypothesis mentioned above. Therefore, females are more likely to show the following characteristics in their interpersonal relationships: they are actively supportive of their partner's well-being, they are able to count on their partner in time of need, they are willing to share themselves and their possessions with their partner, they have confidence in the stability of their relationships with their partner, they expect their love for their partner to last for the rest of their life, they will always have a strong responsibility for their partner, and they view their relationship with their partner as a good decision and permanent.

No one can deny the fact that men and women need to love and be loved at the same time. They both place great emphasis on the importance of interpersonal relationships, however there is a difference in the way they perceive intimacy and commitment. A woman is mostly satisfied when she feels that she is attached to her lover. She wants to merge completely with her partner, and therefore, give and receive emotional support, feel that her lover understands her, count on her lover's in times of need, and have a warm relationship with him. Men are

usually satisfied when they feel that they are between separated and attached. They want to merge in a relationship, feel close to their partner, and give emotional support. Yet, they want to set boundaries in between in order to feel a sense of separateness. They don't want to feel 100% attached.

Many researchers have identified the ways in which men and women identify with intimacy and commitment. Cross and Madson (1997) proposed that one basic and sweeping difference is that women have interdependent self-schemas, whereas men have mainly independent ones. They portrayed the self-construal patterns among men in a way that suggests that men are fundamentally less social beings than women, as if social bonds and interactions are more important to women than men (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997). However, men and women are equally social and care equally how they relate to others, but within different spheres: women mainly orient toward and invest in a small number of close relationships, whereas men orient toward and invest in a larger sphere of social relationships (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997).

They went on to explain that men, like women, are powerfully and deeply driven by the need to belong-only that men tend to understand and realize this need within the context of a broad sphere of social relations (unlike women). Baumeister and Sommer (1997) gave the following explanation: "Whereas the female view focuses narrowly on a small number of intimate dyadic bonds, the male view embraces a broader social structure with a larger number of people. This larger number of people entails that the male orientation cannot pursue intimacy as effectively as the female approach. As a partial replacement for intimacy, the male quest for belongingness may emphasize hierarchies of status and power. Indeed, status and power structures may be almost inevitable issues in larger groups, which cannot avoid certain problems of social organization that such hierarchies may solve" (p. 39).

In addition, the male participants of the following study were university students whose ages ranged between 18 and 30. Therefore, they are still pursuing their degrees in order to start their career life. At this point, those subjects are still exploring and experiencing what it is like to be in a love relationship. Hence, it is normal for such participants not to score high on such items: I view my relationship as permanent, I expect my love for her to last for the rest of my life, I have confidence in the stability of my relationship with her, I cannot imagine ending my relationship with her, and I plan to continue my relationship with her.

### *C. Attachment Styles and Relationship Outcomes*

Three hypotheses were predicted concerning the effect of attachment styles on interpersonal relationships. The first hypothesis predicted that secure individuals will score high on intimacy and commitment while the second hypothesis predicted that avoidant individuals will score low on intimacy and commitment. The results displayed in Chapter (IV) support the following two hypotheses which were previously tested by Hazen & Shaver (1987), Simpson (1990), and Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz (2006). The third hypothesis predicted that anxious individuals will score high on intimacy and commitment. However, the results displayed in Chapter (IV) do not support the following hypothesis.

Individuals who scored high on the secure subscale also scored high on the intimacy and commitment scale. It is normal for individuals who find themselves comfortable depending on others, are not nervous when anyone gets too close, and find it relatively easy to get close to others to have a comfortable relationship with their partners, trust their partners, give emotional support to their partners, count on their partners in times of need, have a warm relationship with their partners, have confidence in the stability of their relationships, and be certain of their love for their partners.

Individuals who scored high on the avoidant subscale scored low on the intimacy and commitment scale. It is predictable for individuals who find it difficult to trust others completely, are completely uncomfortable being close to others, are uncomfortable having others depend on them, and believe that people are never there when they need them to feel that they can't trust their partners, they don't value their partners greatly in their lives, they don't have a comfortable relationship, they don't expect their love for their partners to last for the rest of life, and not to be certain of their love for their partners.

Individuals who scored high on the anxious attachment style were predicted to score high on intimacy and commitment. However, the results did not support previous studies conducted by Hazan & Shaver (1987), Simpson (1990), and Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz (2006). The predicted connection between anxious attachment style and the mentioned variables might have failed to hold true due to sample size and nature. Probably the analysis was affected by the moderate sample size of 133 participants. Had the sample size been larger, we would have gotten stronger and more significant results. The results shown in empirical literature were all derived from Western cultures. Probably the Adult Attachment Scale, more precisely the Anxious subscale, was culturally sensitive and therefore did not yield the same results.

The correlation matrix showed that the secure attachment dimension had a moderate positive correlation with intimacy ( $r=.44$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $<.05$ ). It is necessary to think about the possible explanations for not obtaining a larger coefficient of ( $r$ ). It is important to consider the developmental stage of the study's sample. Therefore, it is essential to consider Erik Erikson's stages of psychosocial development. According to Erikson, each individual has eight stages to resolve. He believed that the ways in which people resolve these issues shape their personalities and social relationships. Positive resolution of an issue provides the



foundation for characteristics such as trust, autonomy, initiative, and industry. But, if the crisis is not resolved positively, according to Erikson, the person will be psychologically troubled and cope less effectively with later crises (Bernstein, Clarke-Stewart, Penner, & Roy, 2003).

The study's sample are facing the sixth of Erickson's eight crisis- intimacy versus isolation. According to Erikson a healthy resolution of the following crisis leads to the following achievements: sense of identity, developed during adolescence, enables young adults to fuse their identity with that of others, young adults resolve conflicting demands of intimacy, competitiveness, and distance, and develop an ethical sense; and they are ready to enter into a loving heterosexual relationship with the ultimate aim of providing a nurturing environment for children (Papalia & Olds, 1995). Probably, some of the participants in the following study did not resolve the previous stage, that of identity versus role confusion. Therefore, in that case, the individual is still confused about who he really is and what he wants out of life. Hence, since some people are still resolving the issue of identity versus role confusion, they can't move to the next stage, that is intimacy versus isolation.

A young adult who doesn't have a strong identity is not ready to fuse it with that of another person. The following explains the possible reasons why the secure attachment dimension obtained a moderate positive correlation with intimacy.

The correlation matrix revealed interesting results concerning the relationship between avoidance attachment style and anxious attachment style. According to the correlation matrix, the less avoidant the person is, the more anxious he/she is. The following results tend to support the theory behind the nature of anxiety. Anxiety responses have four components: (1) a *subjective emotional* component, including feelings of tension and apprehension; (2) a *cognitive* component, including worrisome thoughts and a sense of inability to cope; (3) *physiological responses*, including increased heart rate and blood pressure, muscle tension and rapid breathing,

and (4) *behavioural responses* such as avoidance of certain situations and impaired task performance (Passer & Smith, 2007). This means that if a person feels anxious in a certain situation, he/she will avoid the situation in order to escape the feeling of anxiety. Therefore, one could conclude that if a person feels anxious whenever he/she has to be intimate and committed in a relationship, he/she will avoid intimacy and commitment in relationships in order not to feel anxious. One could also conclude that the less the individual avoids intimacy and commitment in a relationship, the more he/she will feel anxious.

#### *D. Recommendations for Future Studies*

In order to avoid some methodological errors that erupt in every study design, future studies must make sure to select their participants using random sampling. Therefore, they will have a better representative sample, will generalize the results obtained to the population, and will avoid the problem of inadequate data.

The researchers must also try their best to give a bogus rationale of the questionnaire or mislead the participants in order to minimize as much as possible the effects of positive self presentations and participant sophistication effect.

Since the hypotheses concerning the effect of adult attachment styles on the levels of intimacy and commitment in interpersonal relationships were derived from studies done in the West, one might doubt if such hypotheses are accepted in our Arab world. However, after reading the literature, no one can deny the fact that such relationships exist, even in the Lebanese culture. Therefore, it is highly recommended to test again for such hypotheses and make some alterations. It is strongly recommended that researchers try to answer some questions:

Does age have any affect on intimacy and commitment? That is, as a person grows older, will he/she still exhibit high levels of intimacy and commitment?

Does SES affect adult attachment styles? If yes, to what extent?

Are there any gender differences in attachment styles? If yes, to what extent?

Researchers must also consider sub-culture differences within the Lebanese population. That is, they should make a comparison between the middle-high SES and low-middle SES and compare the different results. Also, researchers must perform a cross-cultural study where they compare attachment styles and relationship outcomes in the Arab world and the West.

#### *E. Conclusion*

The findings of the following study tend to support the existence of a relationship between attachment styles and adult relationships. The results confirm the characteristics of the secure and avoidant attachment styles, but not the anxious attachment styles.

The following study will help mothers and fathers recognize the importance of surrounding their children with love, tender, acceptance, and warmth. Parents will be aware of the fact that attachment helps the child attain full intellectual potential and develop future relationships. Moreover, and what's really important, is that attachment theory will help partners engaged in a romantic relationship come to understand one another.

Since Attachment theory helps us understand differences in the way people relate to one another, it definitely provides useful insights for individual or couple therapy. As a therapist it is important to understand the type of attachment styles of the couple and the dynamics brought by the interaction of these styles in order to plan effective interventions. Therefore, the primary goal of a therapist working from an attachment perspective will be to help the couple develop a more secure attachment to the partner. This is accomplished by helping each

partner become more secure in their individual attachment style, by helping the couple share positive emotions and feelings about each other, and by helping them create healthy and empathetic communication skills.

Finally, the following study will help individuals recognize the importance of developing insight into how their childhood experiences influenced their perceptions of self and others particularly as it relates to their intimate relationship.

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APPENDIX A

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It is very important that you read the instructions carefully, and fill in the questionnaire accordingly. There are no right or wrong answers.

All the answers you will provide will be kept confidential, and will be independently used in the statistical analyses of this study.

If you have any questions about the results of this project, please e-mail to: [alaingholam@gmail.com](mailto:alaingholam@gmail.com)

Thank you for your cooperation!!

APPENDIX A

Attachment and Relationships

General Information:

The present questionnaire is part of a study investigating attachment, parenting styles and relationships.

This questionnaire is anonymous. All answers will be kept **confidential** and won't be disclosed in part or in full to any third party.

Please do not leave any identifying mark on any section of this questionnaire.

Questionnaire Information:

The questionnaire is made up of 2 main sections. Each section is accompanied by a set of instructions.

It is very important that you read the instructions carefully, and fill in the questionnaire accordingly. There are no right or wrong answers.

All the answers you will provide will be kept **confidential**, and will be independently used in the statistical analyses of this study.

If you have any questions about the results of this project, please e-mail to: [alaingholam@gmail.com](mailto:alaingholam@gmail.com)

Thank you for your cooperation!!

SECTION (1):

Next to each statement, circle the letter that best describes the way you feel about yourself.  
Use the key below:

Not at all me	Slightly me	Moderately me	Very me	Extremely me	
1	2	3	4	5	
1. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others	1	2	3	4	5
2. People are never there when you need them	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am comfortable depending on others	1	2	3	4	5
4. I know that others will be there when I need them	1	2	3	4	5
5. I find it difficult to trust others completely	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them	1	2	3	4	5
7. I do not often worry about being abandoned	1	2	3	4	5
8. I often worry my partner does not really love me	1	2	3	4	5
9. I find it others are reluctant to get as close as I would like	1	2	3	4	5
10. I often worry my partner will not want to stay with me	1	2	3	4	5
11. I want to merge completely with another person	1	2	3	4	5
12. My desire to merge sometimes scares people away	1	2	3	4	5
13. I find it relatively easy to get close to others	1	2	3	4	5
14. I do not often worry about someone getting close to me	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am nervous when anyone gets too close	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am comfortable having others depend on me	1	2	3	4	5
18. Often, love partners want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being	1	2	3	4	5

25. I am certain of my love for \_\_\_\_\_  
relationship with \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_.

SECTION (2):

Fill in the blank spaces with the name of the person you love. If you are not currently in a relationship then think of a person whom you used to love or currently care about. Use the key below:

Not at all me	Slightly me	Moderately me	Very me	Extremely me
1	2	3	4	5

1. I am actively supportive of _____'s well being.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have a warm relationship with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am able to count on _____ in times of need.	1	2	3	4	5
4. _____ is able to count on me in times of need.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am willing to share myself and my possessions with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I receive considerable emotional support from _____.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I give considerable emotional support to _____.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I communicate well with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I value _____ greatly in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel close to _____.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I have a comfortable relationship with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I feel that I really understand _____.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel that _____ understands me.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel that I can really trust _____.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I share deeply personal information about myself with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I know that I care about _____.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am committed to maintaining my relationship with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Because of my commitment to _____, I would not let other people come between us.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I have confidence in the stability of my relationship with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I could not let anything get in the way of my commitment to _____.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I expect my love for _____ to last for the rest of my life.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I will always have a strong responsibility for _____.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I view my commitment to _____ as a solid one.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I cannot imagine ending my relationship with _____.	1	2	3	4	5

25. I am certain of my love for _____.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I view my relationship with _____ as permanent.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I view my relationship with _____ as a good decision.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I feel a sense of responsibility toward _____.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I plan to continue in my relationship with _____.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Even when _____ is hard to deal with, I remain committed to our relationship.	1	2	3	4	5

Demographic and Background Information:

1. Gender:    A. Male            B. Female

2. Age: \_\_\_\_\_

3. Religion: \_\_\_\_\_

4. University: \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX B

Frequency Table

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	females	69	51.9	51.9	51.9
	male	64	48.1	48.1	100.0
	Total	133	100.0	100.0	

Religion

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Christian	59	44.4	44.4	44.4
	Muslim	56	42.1	42.1	86.5
	Other	18	13.5	13.5	100.0
	Total	133	100.0	100.0	

University

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	HU	66	49.6	49.6	49.6
	AUB	67	50.4	50.4	100.0
	Total	133	100.0	100.0	



APPENDIX C

Descriptives

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Age	Mean		21.4887	.20014
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	21.0928	
		Upper Bound	21.8846	
	5% Trimmed Mean		21.3513	
	Median		21.0000	
	Variance		5.328	
	Std. Deviation		2.30814	
	Minimum		18.00	
	Maximum		30.00	
	Range		12.00	
	Interquartile Range		3.00	
	Skewness	Lower Bound	.940	.210
		Upper Bound	.772	.417
	Kurtosis		.772	.417
Avoidance	Mean		2.8283	.07055
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.6888	
		Upper Bound	2.9679	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.7977	
	Median		2.6667	
	Variance		.662	
	Std. Deviation		.81364	
	Minimum		1.50	
	Maximum		4.67	
	Range		3.17	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness	Lower Bound	.775	.210
		Upper Bound	-.068	.417
	Kurtosis		-.068	.417
Secure	Mean		3.0175	.06966
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.8798	
		Upper Bound	3.1553	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.0010	
	Median		3.0000	

Anxious	Variance		.645	
	Std. Deviation		.80331	
	Minimum		1.67	
	Maximum		4.67	
	Range		3.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.17	
	Skewness		.315	.210
	Kurtosis		-.768	.417
	Mean		2.4637	.07275
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.3198	
		Upper Bound	2.6076	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.3985	
	Median		2.1667	
	Variance		.704	
Intimacy	Std. Deviation		.83896	
	Minimum		1.50	
	Maximum		4.67	
	Range		3.17	
	Interquartile Range		.83	
	Skewness		1.427	.210
	Kurtosis		1.185	.417
	Mean		3.8381	.06101
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.7174	
		Upper Bound	3.9588	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.8518	
	Median		3.9333	
	Variance		.495	
	Std. Deviation		.70364	
	Minimum		1.47	
Commitment	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		3.53	
	Interquartile Range		1.10	
	Skewness		-.398	.210
	Kurtosis		-.345	.417
	Mean		3.6807	.06813
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.5459	
		Upper Bound	3.8155	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.7040	
	Median		3.8000	
	Variance		.617	
	Std. Deviation		.78569	
	Minimum		1.27	

Maximum	5.00	
Range	3.73	
Interquartile Range	1.20	
Skewness	-.355	.210
Kurtosis	-.385	.417

Avoidance Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.793	8

Secure Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.783	8

Anxious Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.808	6

Intimacy Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.827	15

Commitment Sub-scale

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.851	16

APPENDIX D  
Reliabilities Table

Avoidance Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.753	6

Secure Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.753	6

Anxious Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.806	6

Intimacy Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.927	15

Commitment Sub-scale:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.931	15

		Gender	Avoidance	Anxiety	Intimacy	Commitment
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	.288(**)	.388(**)	.048	-.417(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.584	.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133
Avoidance	Pearson Correlation	.328(**)	1	-.334(**)	-.408(**)	-.378(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133
Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	.288(**)	-.334(**)	1	-.272(**)	.388(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.001
	N	133	133	133	133	133
Intimacy	Pearson Correlation	.048	-.408(**)	-.272(**)	1	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.584	.000	.002		.788
	N	133	133	133	133	133
Commitment	Pearson Correlation	-.417(**)	-.378(**)	.388(**)	.023	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.788	
	N	133	133	133	133	133

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX E

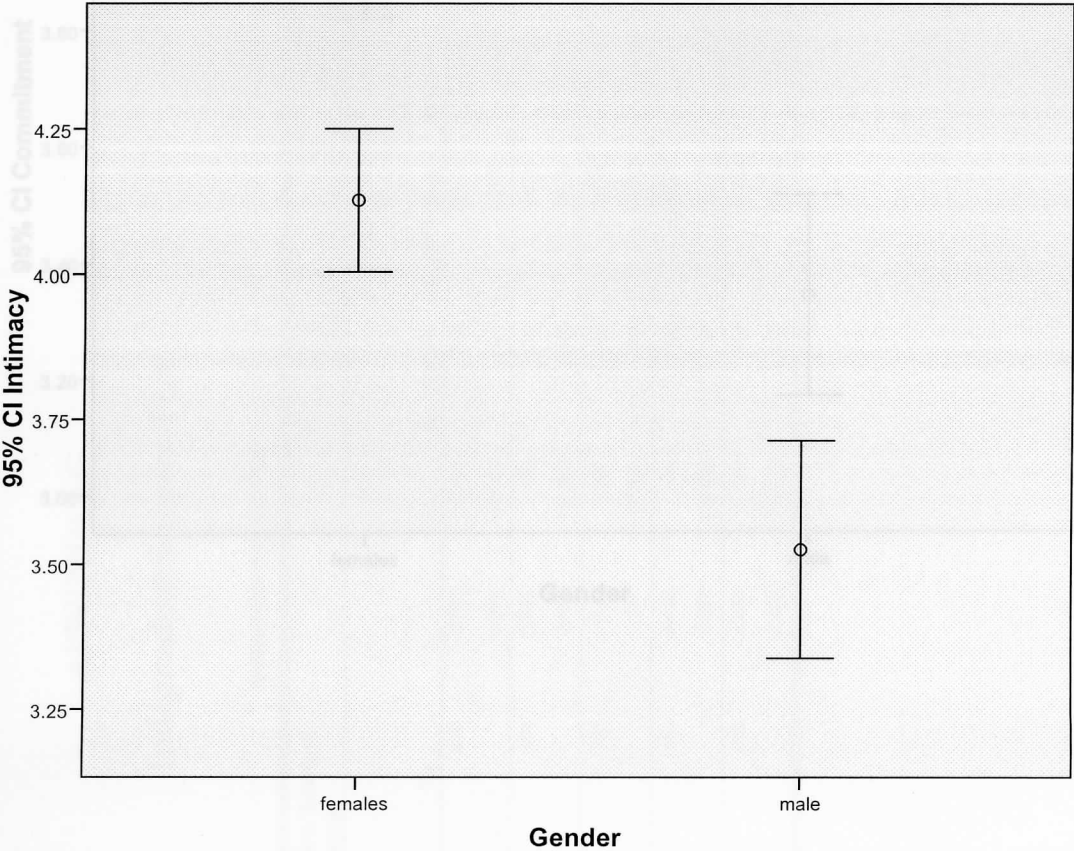
Correlation Matrix

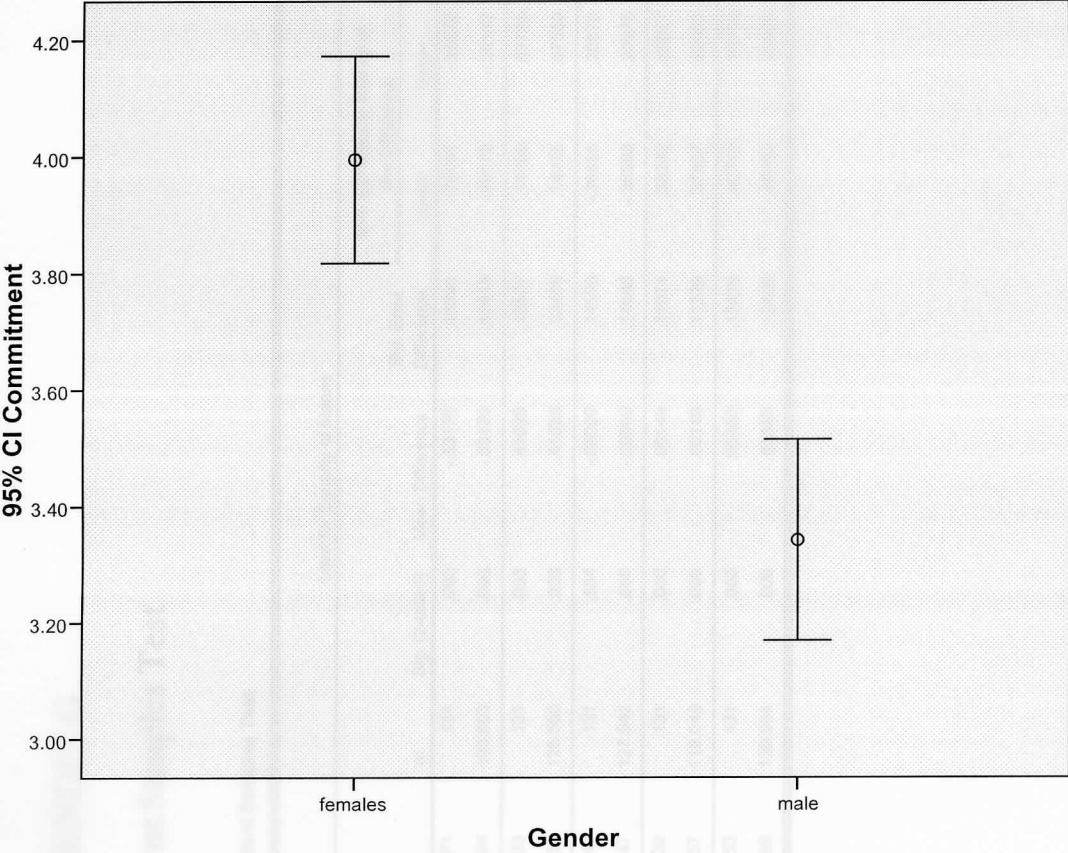
Correlations							
		Gender	Avoidance	Secure	Anxious	Intimacy	Commitment
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	.328(**)	-.256(**)	.048	-.429(**)	-.417(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.003	.584	.000	.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Avoidance	Pearson Correlation	.328(**)	1	-.334(**)	-.263(**)	-.408(**)	-.379(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.002	.000	.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Secure	Pearson Correlation	-.256(**)	-.334(**)	1	-.272(**)	.438(**)	.280(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000		.002	.000	.001
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Anxious	Pearson Correlation	.048	-.263(**)	-.272(**)	1	-.043	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.584	.002	.002		.620	.789
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Intimacy	Pearson Correlation	-.429(**)	-.408(**)	.438(**)	-.043	1	.745(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.620		.000
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133
Commitment	Pearson Correlation	-.417(**)	-.379(**)	.280(**)	.023	.745(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.789	.000	
	N	133	133	133	133	133	133

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX F

Error Bar Graphs







APPENDIX G

Independent Samples Test

Independent Samples Test

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means									
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
								Lower	Upper		
Avoidance	14.478	.000	-3.971	131	.000	-.53170	.13391	-.79661	-.26679		
			-3.904	103.693	.000	-.53170	.13619	-.80178	-.26163		
Secure	1.955	.164	3.033	131	.003	.41029	.13527	.14269	.67789		
			3.058	128.560	.003	.41029	.13419	.14478	.67580		
Anxious	1.776	.185	-.549	131	.584	-.08009	.14598	-.36888	.20870		
			-.547	127.542	.586	-.08009	.14648	-.36993	.20975		
Intimacy	12.582	.001	5.432	131	.000	.60149	.11074	.38242	.82057		
			5.357	110.049	.000	.60149	.11229	.37897	.82402		
Commitment	.177	.675	5.253	131	.000	.65350	.12439	.40742	.89958		
			5.266	130.984	.000	.65350	.12409	.40802	.89898		