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The Effects of Television Viewing on Romanticism and Relational
Closeness

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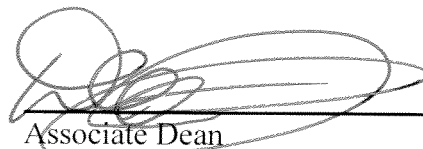
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THE EFFECTS OF TELEVISION VIEWING ON ROMANTICISM AND RELATIONAL

CLOSENESS

by

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The Effects of Television Viewing on Romanticism and Relational Closeness

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This study investigated the associations between television viewing, romanticism, and relational closeness. Participants included 205 adults who completed online questionnaires about their television, beliefs about romance, and various relational quality measures, including relational closeness. Structural analyses supported the hypothesized positive correlation between television viewing and romanticism, romanticism and relational closeness, and the mediated association of romanticism between television viewing and relational closeness. The hypothesized negative association between television viewing and relational closeness did not emerge. However, a direct, positive effect of cable viewing approached statistical significant (p=.057).

Lastly, the research question asked if different findings would emerge based upon the mode of television viewing. The overall pattern found cable was a statistically significant predictor of romanticism and relational closeness, both as a direct and indirect effect. All other modes of television (e.g. television using a digital video recorder and on-demand third parties) were non significant. One of the more important implications from this study is the finding on different modes of media. The results suggest that cable television produces the hypothesized cultivation effects, while more non-traditional forms of television viewing, such viewing from a digital video recorder and on-demand third parties that did not produce the same effect.

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Although individuals receive information about love and relationships from a variety of sources, perhaps no source is as simultaneously pervasive and subtle as mass entertainment media (Galician, 2009). Many films and television programs portray love as a fantasy-like story (Illouz, 1998), frequently involving adventure, excitement, or extraordinary circumstances as 'destiny' draws two people together. The development of this media-type love happens quickly with strong emotional responses from the individuals romantically involved (Illouz, 1998). However, in reality, this is often not the love people experience; love is challenging in many situations, as the mundane demands of real life may interfere with the development and maintenance of romantic relationships. Thus, there may exist a degree of disconnect between the portrayal of love in mass media and more realistic models, with idealistic portrayals of romantic love crossing many genres of programming (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli, & Shanahan, 2002).

This investigation employs cultivation theory as a framework for understanding outcomes of viewing romantic messages on television (Gerbner, Gross, Eleey, Fox, Jackson-Beeck, & Signorielli, 1976). Cultivation theory addresses how television viewing frequency influences how people see the world, with heavy viewing increasing the likelihood viewers will believe television accurately represents reality (Bryant, Carveth, & Brown, 1981). For example, and pertinent to this investigation, increased viewing of marriage-themed television and situation comedies may increase beliefs in romanticism, or a schema for how to behave toward a potential or actual romantic partner that emphasizes an ideal type of love for relationships (Lippman, Ward, Seabrook, 2014; Sprecher & Metts, 1989). Moreover, because previous research indicates that romanticism is positively associated with relational satisfaction and closeness (Sprecher &

Metts, 1989), viewing may increase these qualities of a relationship. This study evaluates this mediational claim, examining the extent to which romanticism explains why frequent TV viewing may be associated with increased romantic relationship closeness. Additionally, based on prior evidence (Adams, 2000), this investigation evaluates the extent to which different modes of television viewing alter these processes. Television viewing has changed since its emergence in the mid-20th century, moving away from set television schedules and basic network channels ("Evolution of Family TV Viewing", 2013). In the Internet age, television viewing has evolved to includes multiple devices, times, and ways of viewing. This variation of viewing could potentially alter how we are influenced by television and is worth further investigation.

Theoretical Perspective

Cultivation theory (Gerbner et al., 1976) contends that television meaningfully shapes viewers' perceptions of their social world. Throughout the nearly five decades of research using the theory, the effect of televised violence has received consistent and focused attention. In one early content analysis, Gerbner, Gross, Eleey, Fox, Jackson-Beeck, and Signorielli (1977) found the real world contains less violence than the amount of violent acts portrayed on television. Due to this misrepresentation of reality, heavy viewers of television may overestimate the amount of crime in society and see the real world through the values and experiences depicted on television. Since the initial cultivation research of the 1970s, cultivation theory has produced a prolific body of research, including a meta-analysis supporting the theory (Morgan & Shanahan, 1997) and a robust field of scholarship that continues strong to this day (for a review, see Romer, Jamieson, Bleakley, & Jamieson, 2014).

A key component of cultivation theory is its emphasis on how television influences viewers' perceptions of the world. To describe the association between television viewing and fear of violence, Gerbner et al. (1976) coined the term *mean world syndrome*, or the tendency of heavy television viewers to perceive the world as a dangerous place. Moreover, mean world syndrome is but one form of *mainstreaming*, or the extent to which heavy television viewers adopt a shared worldview based on televised messages (Bryant et al., 1981). Thus, cultivation theory is concerned not only with violence, but also with how television viewing shapes broader cognitive/schematic orientations. Indeed, besides cultivation theory's focus on violent television, researchers also have investigated heavy viewers' perception about other areas of life, including political orientations (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorielli, 1982), gender stereotypes (Gross & Jeffries-Fox, 1978), alienation (Morgan, 1986), views of older people (Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, & Morgan, 1980), perceptions of affluence (Fox & Philliber, 1978), and perceptions of illness (Robertson, Rossiter, & Gleason, 1979). These early studies were some of the first to extend cultivation theory beyond the viewer's beliefs about violence and crime, and demonstrate the theoretical tradition's commitment to a comprehensive understanding of cultivation effects.

Likewise, for many people, television may be a common source of information about marriage and relationships. Most individuals enter romantic relationships with preexisting beliefs about how relationships should function, including features that make them rewarding experiences and the rules and expectations that should guide themselves and their relational partner (Sprecher & Metts, 1999). One such orientation toward love focuses on an enduring emotional connection between two people, a set of beliefs Sprecher and Metts (1989) term *romanticism*. People with a high degree of romanticism may espouse a variety of views, such as the belief that true love can come before any dyadic interaction, there is one only true love, true

love can overcome anything, true love can be perfect, and partners should follow feelings instead of more rational considerations in the choice of a partner (Sprecher & Metts, 1989). Although some may consider such views to be unrealistic, some research suggests romanticism is a key component in initial attraction and coordinating the development of a relationship (Knee, 1998).

Some mass media research suggests that television portrays relationships in a manner consistent with romanticism, with television programs emphasizing themes of affection, commitment, caring, importance of the partner, frequent sexual activity, and open communication and trust early in the relationship (Johnson & Holmes, 2009). Various content analyses show that prime-time situation comedies and dramas, soap operas, and music videos have numerous references to dating and intimacy (Eggermont, 2004). Segrin and Nabi (2002) found that these programs represent romantic relationships in an idealistic (and, perhaps, unrealistic) fashion. Thus, whether consciously or not, television teaches viewers how to behave in a romantic relationship, and thus develop cognitive/schematic representations of romantic beliefs consistent with romanticism (Hefner & Wilson, 2013).

Television's emphasis on romanticism extends to portrayals of physical intimacy and gender roles in romantic relationships. For example, both Walsh-Childers and Brown (1993) and Ward (2002) found television programs portray gender stereotypical attitudes toward sex. Females are portrayed as passive and not sexually active or assertive, instead seeking to attract a man and establish a relationship. Conversely, males are seen as urgent and relentless, wanting to 'score' above all (Ward, 2002). Ferris, Smith, Greenburg, and Smith (2007) discovered similar messages about sex and gender roles in reality dating shows, with three central themes emerging from their content analysis: (a) dating is a game, (b) women are sex objects, and (c) men are sex driven. Zurbriggen and Morgan (2006) found similar results, such that reality dating show

viewership was positively correlated for both sexes with endorsement of a sexual double standard, as well as beliefs than men are sex-driven, appearance is important in dating, and dating is a game. Given these pervasive themes in television programming, it stands to reason that an increase in television viewing may alter how people think about their real-life romantic relationships (Signorielli, 1991). To the extent that such changes in thinking predict romantic relationship quality, understanding the extent to which television cultivates romantic relationship expectations warrants further study.

Further evidence suggests more frequent television viewing can generate altered dating attitudes and expectations. Eggermont (2004) found heavy television viewers believe television depicts the real world, and when watching romantically-themed television, heavy viewers believe the programs depict how their relationships should be in their own lives. In a more specific study, Ferris et al. (2007) found those who watched reality dating shows alter their dating attitudes, such that those perceiving the shows as realistic were more likely endorse the attitudes displayed within the programming (e.g., increased alcohol consumption and use of hot tubs early in the dating relationship). Relatedly, Lippman et al. (2014) assessed exposure to three romantic genres and found several relationship views may be altered due to heavy television viewing. Heavy exposure to romantic movies is associated with the belief of love overcoming obstacles to a relationship. Taken overall, then, research to date has been somewhat specialized and fragmented, but regardless of the area of television research, an overarching theme has emerged: Television viewing may alter beliefs about how people experience a relationship because television displays romanticized relationships instead of the challenges of reality.

In this study, I aim to amalgamate these diverse findings under the cultivation theory approach. To date, only a few studies have examined the association between viewing

romantically-themed television and general romantic relationship expectations, and most research focuses on the marital dyad or young adults not in a relationship, with little systematic application of cultivation theory (Eggermont, 2004; Lippman et al., 2014; Segrin & Nabi, 2002; Shapiro & Kroeger, 1991). Further understanding of media effects and romantic relationships could increase understanding about how television influences our lives not just individually, but also with our romantic partner. This study aims to address the weaknesses of prior research by applying cultivation theory to understand the effects of television not only on romantic relationship beliefs but, also, romantic relationship closeness.

Specifically, the extant research has identified a positive correlation between television viewing and endorsement of romanticized beliefs (e.g., Segrin & Nabi, 2002). Heavy exposure to romanticism, similar to heavy exposure to violence, may influence viewers to overestimate the amount of romance within the typical romantic relationship (Gerbner et al., 2002; Segrin & Nabi, 2002). Heavy exposure to romance-themed reality television increases belief in love at first sight, and programs with numerous references to romantic relationships may influence viewers to hold more romanticized views on marriage (Lippmann et al., 2014). Likewise, Haferkamp (1999) found frequent television viewing is associated with expectations of mindreading and sexual perfectionism in order for a relationship to succeed, and Holmes (2007) found greater consumption of romantically-themed media is associated with belief in soul mates. Taken overall, these studies highlight a global association between frequent television viewing and increased belief in romanticism from the viewer. Therefore:

H1: Television viewing frequency is positively associated with romanticism.

Beyond romanticism as a cognitive/schematic orientation toward romantic relationships, general television viewing may also influence the overall closeness of a specific romantic

relationship. Moreover, whereas television's impact on romanticism (and, in turn, closeness) may be positive, the direct effect of viewing on closeness may be negative. Previous research has discovered an inverse association between frequency of television viewing and quality of life generally (Sirgy et al., 1998), with more limited evidence indicating an inverse association with romantic relationship quality specifically. Shapiro and Kroeger (1991) examined popular romantic media, such as television, magazines, and movies, and the effect of their consumption on marriages, finding that married women who were exposed to popular romantic media were less satisfied in their romantic relationships. Similarly, Osborn (2012) found inverse zero-order associations between television viewing and several indices of romantic relationship quality. Given this prior evidence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Television viewing frequency is negatively associated with romantic relationship closeness.

In addition to this direct inverse effect of television viewing on relationship closeness, this investigation considers whether romanticism may serve as one mechanism, albeit indirect, by which television viewing may increase romantic relationship closeness. The logic of cultivation theory points toward such an effect, with television viewing cultivating a pro-romantic worldview that may, to some degree, foster increased romantic relationship quality. Indeed, evidence supports an association between romanticism and several positive relational outcomes (Athanasiou, Shaver, & Tavris, 1970). For example, romanticism is associated with the prosocial love styles of *eros* (erotic love) and *agape* (altruistic love) (Sprecher & Metts, 1999). Higher belief in romanticism is also associated with the tendency to love your partner and life more, experience more passionate love, and report a fewer number of dates before experiencing

love (Sprecher & Metts, 1989). These associations suggest that belief in romanticism may be associated with an increase of love for your partner and becoming closer with one another.

Although there exist many possible explanations for why romanticism is associated with closeness, social exchange theory may offer at least a partial explanation. The theory contends that individuals evaluate their romantic relationships based on their perceived benefits, or rewards, from the relationship in comparison to the perceived costs. To have relationship satisfaction, the perceived outcomes (i.e., rewards minus costs) of the relationship must exceed the expectations for the relationship, known as the *comparison level* (Osborn, 2012). The comparison level is determined by a person's past experiences in similar relationships, perception of the other's reward, and overall relationship expectations (Rusbult, 1980). Also, the perceived outcomes of the current relationship must also exceed the potential for alternative relationships, or the *comparison level of alternatives*. When partners meet or exceed the comparison level of alternatives, it stands to reason relational quality will increase because the partner has exceeded other potential relationship opportunities. Ruvolf and Veroff (1997) substantiate this claim, finding individuals who fulfill these relationship ideals predict higher quality marital relationships. In exceeding the comparison level of alternatives, partners see their relationship as more rewarding or an ideal love. All of these findings suggest that an increase in romanticism is associated with an increase of love and liking of a romantic partner. Thus, it stands to reason that romanticism could lead to increased relational closeness.

Other complementary theoretical perspectives also have contended that higher relationship quality is a result of belief in romanticism. To further understand relationship beliefs, Sprecher and Metts (1999) applied schema theory to their research on how relationship beliefs change over time. According to the theory, each partner in a romantic relationship

develops attitudes and values regarding the relationship and, over time, partners adapt their schema to the lived experience with the other (Fletcher & Thomas, 1996). In the existence of relationship schema, there is an association between the romantic beliefs a partner holds before the relationship and the development of relationship qualities over time (Sprecher & Metts, 1999). The more romanticized views that are developed can potentially increase romantic love and liking towards the partner with the potential to portray these beliefs in actions. As a result, these actions can influence the overall relationship quality and closeness of the relationship. Therefore, I predict:

> H3: Romanticism is positively associated with romantic relationship closeness.

To recap the argument thus far, I contend that television viewing produces an increase in romanticism that, in turn, produces closeness with one's current romantic partner. Figure 1 presents this hypothesized model, situating romanticism as a mediating construct between television viewing and relationship closeness. Although some previous scholarship has investigated this indirect effect, such studies have lacked robust tests of statistical mediation. For example, Shapiro and Kroeger (1991) examined media's effects on marriage relationships, finding those who strongly endorse romanticism in romantic relationships are more exposed to popular romantic media and have less relationship satisfaction. Zurbriggen, Ramsey, and Jaworski (2011) examined the extent to which partner objectification mediated the association between consumption of objectifying media and relationship satisfaction, finding an indirect effect that approached significance ($p = .08$); however, they tested the indirect effect using a Sobel test, which is not an ideal test of statistical mediation (Hayes, 2013), and thus the magnitude and direction of the identified effects are suspect. Therefore, I hypothesize:

H4: Romanticism mediates the association between television viewing frequency and
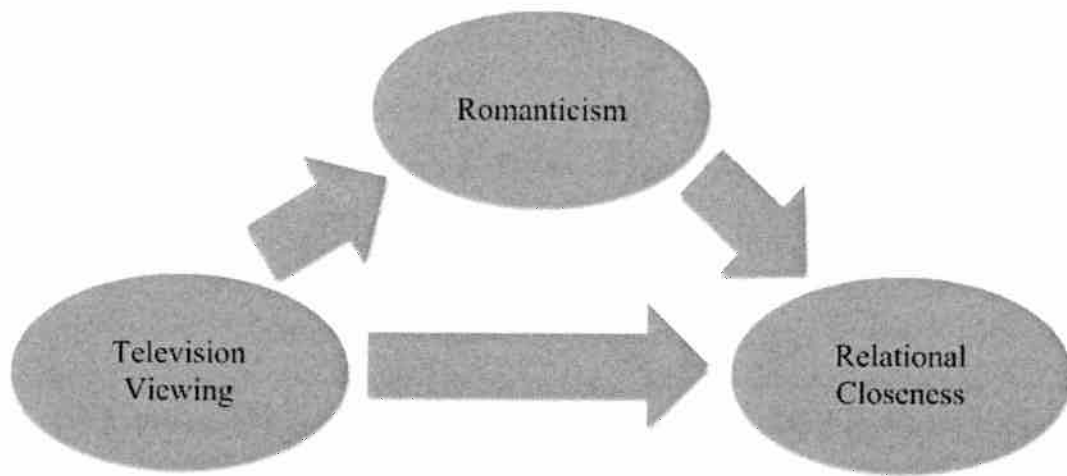
romantic relationship closeness.

Figure 1. *Hypothesized Structural Model Predicting Relationship Closeness*

Finally, as television and technology have progressed, so have viewing habits. In Morgan and Shanahan's (1997) meta-analysis and Potter's (2014) critical analysis, they both recognized Gerbner's work as an established theoretical paradigm, but there are still other areas cultivation researchers need to investigate, including the extent to which Gerbner's original boundary conditions of the theory function in today's technological environment. Original cultivation research focused on television viewing as a single activity that ignores the behavior of the viewer, the content the viewer is exposed to, and the context in which the viewer is watching the televisions (Cohen & Weimann, 2000). The expansion of cultivation research to include viewer's intentions, attitudes, and behavior is a potential new advancement for cultivation theory and worth further research.

Although many factors and affordances delineate traditional television broadcasts from Internet/on-demand viewing, the difference between passive and active television viewing may serve as a particularly important distinction (Adams, 2000). Passive television viewers decide what to watch on television with little to no concept of what is being shown; in other words, television viewing serves as an end unto itself, with the act of viewing more important than the content viewed. In contrast, active viewers make more purposeful decisions about what to watch based on their specific needs and gratifications. Adams (2000) found that viewers watch passively when they have time, but also watch actively, choosing specific programs, genres of shows, or time of a show. Viewers also choose shows based on the content of the show itself, but would not necessarily watch all shows of that specific genre (e.g., they may enjoy *The Big Bang Theory*, but avoid other sitcoms). The selection of the television show is linked to the content and the viewer's mood and desired mood of the moment.

The distinction between active and passive viewing may be particularly salient in the Internet age. Whereas viewing traditional broadcasts may be enacted passively (i.e., simply turning on the television and watching whatever is on), Internet viewing may be more active (e.g., purposefully selection among programs from the Netflix catalog). However, cultivation theory does not differentiate between these two types of viewing, and thus media effects may be much more complicated than originally brought forth from the initial research of cultivation and media effects. Today, television can be viewed on multiple platforms including cable television broadcasts, television recorded using a delayed playback, paid or free third party providers, network television sites, and on demand. When this is applied to viewing behaviors, further investigation is needed to understand if there is a difference between how television viewers consume content and how it affects beliefs in romanticism and relational closeness. It stands to reason there would be a change in the cultivation effect. For example, cultivation effects may be stronger when viewers receive programming passively rather than discriminating actively among shows, but little research has been done despite recent calls to explore the boundary conditions of the theory (Potter, 2014). Therefore, the following research question is proposed:

RQ1: How do different modes of television alter the relationships between romanticism and relational closeness?

Methods

Participants

Participants were recruited through communication courses at a medium-sized, private university in the southwestern United States and through Internet sites such as Facebook. The sample consisted of 205 participants, 44 males (21%) and 161 females (79%). The mean age of the participants was 27.15 (SD=12.96) ranging from 18 to 68 years. Most participants identified

themselves as Caucasian American (84.9%, $n=174$). Other participants were Hispanic American (6.8%, $n=14$), Asian American (3.9%, $n=8$), African American (3.4%, $n=7$), and Native American (0.4%, $n=1$).

Procedures

Participants were recruited via social media sites and through communication courses and then, after indicating informed consent, completed an online survey. All participants completed the survey on their own time, and all responses were anonymous. The students who were recruited were awarded minimal course credit (less than 2%) for their completion of the survey. Participants provided basic demographic information (age, sex, and ethnicity), and then completed measures assessing television viewing, romantic beliefs, and relationship satisfaction. The questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Measures

Television viewership. Participants' television viewing was assessed using the Shrum, Burroughs, and Rindfleisch (2005) television viewing scale. It includes 6 questions for which respondents indicated, in hours per week, how much time they watch television at certain times during the day (e.g., "Estimate how much time you spend watching television during the morning"). These measures were then summed to calculate the total number of hours watched per week. Then, participants further indicated the percentage of time spent viewing content from six sources. These included (a) cable television broadcasts and (b) television recorded using a digital video recorder (e.g., TiVo), as well as television on-demand from (c) paid third party providers (e.g., Netflix), (d) free third party providers (e.g., YouTube), (e) television network websites (e.g., NBC.com), and (f) directly from cable services (e.g., Verizon On Demand). These percentages were then multiplied by the total hours watched to yield estimates of the number of

hours participants watched each mode in a week. However, inspection of the data revealed that the means for television on-demand from cable providers ($M = 0.55$, $SD = 1.42$), network websites ($M = 0.25$, $SD = 0.68$), and free websites ($M = 0.44$, $SD = 1.15$) were low, with few participants reporting their use. Thus, only the three frequently used means of watching television were retained for further analysis (i.e., cable broadcasts, $M = 2.46$, $SD = 4.12$, recorded television, $M = 1.94$, $SD = 2.82$, and third party paid services, $M = 3.86$, $SD = 4.44$).

Romanticism. Romanticism was measured using Sprecher and Metts' (1989) Romantic Beliefs Scale. The scale consists of 15-items and assesses beliefs about romantic love on four dimensions: love finds a way (e.g., "If I love someone, I will find a way for us to be together regardless of the opposition to the relationship, physical distance between us or any other barrier"), one and only (e.g., "There will be only one real love for me."), idealization ("The relationship I will have with my 'true love' will be nearly perfect"), and love at first sight (e.g., "I am likely to fall in love almost immediately if I meet the right person"). Responses were indicated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree.* The total score across dimensions represents the participant's global amount of romantic idealization. Previous research has demonstrated reliability and validity for the romantic beliefs measure (Sprecher & Metts, 1999, $\alpha = .87$ for men and $\alpha = .88$ for women).

Relationship closeness. Relationship closeness was measured using Vangelisti and Caughlin's (1997) Closeness Scale. The scale consists of 7-items (e.g., "How important is your relationship with this person?"). Responses are indicated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) *not at all* to (7) *very much.* Previous research has demonstrated reliability and validity for the closeness measure (Ledbetter, 2009, $\alpha = .93$).

Data Analysis. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to address the study's hypotheses. The three modes of television viewing selected for analysis (i.e., cable television broadcasts, television recorded from a digital video recorder, and television on-demand from a paid third party provider) were indicated by single manifest indicators with error variance fixed to zero. Romanticism was indicated by parceling items by scale scores for each of the four dimensions identified by Sprecher and Metts (1989). Closeness was indicated by three parcels of items. Four common fit indices assessed model fit: (a) model chi-square, (b) the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), (c) the comparative fit index (CFI), and (d) the non-normed fit index (NNFI). Following Kline (2005), acceptable model fit is indicated by RMSEA values below .08 and CFI/NNFI values above .90.

Results

Prior to structural analyses, a confirmatory factor analysis evaluated the fit between the manifest indicators and their latent constructs. This model demonstrated acceptable fit, $\chi^2(53) = 81.01$, $RMSEA_{[90\% \, CI:.0.035-0.084]} = 0.05$, CFI $= 0.96$, NNFI $= .93$. Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and Pearson product-moment correlations among all manifest study variables, as well as the correlations among latent constructs in the confirmatory model. The final structural model included all paths in the confirmatory model, and therefore exhibited identical model fit.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Manifest and Latent Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Cable Television	2.46	4.12	--	0.06	-0.11	0.16*	0.10	-0.17*	0.18**
2. Digital Video Recorder	1.94	2.82	0.06	--	-0.24**	-0.12	0.00	0.10	0.23**
3. On-demand	3.86	4.44	-0.11	-0.24**	--	0.01	0.01	-0.10	-0.16
4. Romanticism	6.51	1.44	0.14*	-0.10	0.02	--	0.17*	-0.17	-0.15
5. Closeness	6.48	0.75	0.09	0.01	0.01	0.18*	--	0.26**	0.01
6. Sex	1.79	0.41	-0.17*	0.10	-0.10	-0.14	0.26**	--	0.02
7. Time in Relationship	6.35	9.92	0.18*	0.23**	-0.16**	-0.13	0.00	0.02	--

$* p < .05 \;\; ** p < .01$

Note. Means and standard deviations are for manifest variables. Correlation coefficients below the diagonal are for the manifest variables, and coefficients above the diagonal are for the latent constructs in the confirmatory model.

Table 2

Loadings, Residuals, and R^2 Values for each Indicator in the Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model for Romanticism and Relational Closeness

Indicator	Unstandardized Estimates		Standardized		
	Loading (SE)	Residual (SE)	Loading	Residual	R^2
Romanticism:					
Rom Parcel 1	0.79(0.07)	0.54(0.08)	0.73	0.46	0.54
Rom Parcel 2	1.06(0.11)	1.30(0.16)	0.68	0.54	0.46
Rom Parcel 3	1.11(0.09)	0.71(0.12)	0.80	0.37	0.63
Rom Parcel 4	0.51(0.07)	0.61(0.07)	0.54	0.71	0.30
Closeness:					
Close Parcel 1	0.67(0.04)	0.07(0.02)	0.93	0.13	0.87
Close Parcel 2	0.69(0.05)	0.18(0.02)	0.85	0.28	0.72
Close Parcel 3	0.84(0.06)	0.24(0.03)	0.87	0.25	0.75

H1 predicted that television viewing frequency would be positively associated with romanticism. Consistent with cultivation theory and as shown in Table 3, frequency of cable television viewing positively predicted romanticism. All other modes of television were found to be statistically non-significant predictors. H2 predicted an inverse association between television viewing and relational closeness. No significant inverse associations emerged, although the direct (positive) effect of cable viewing approached statistical significance (p =.057), as seen in Table 3. Thus, results did not support H2.

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Table 3

Summary of Direct Effects for Structural Model

Predictor	Romanticism (R^2 = .08)		Closeness (R^2 = .13)	
	$B_{[95\% \text{ CI}]}$ (β)	SE	$B_{[95\% \text{ CI}]}$ (β)	SE
Cable Broadcasts	$0.17_{[0.003:0.06]}$ (.16)*	0.08	$0.15_{[-0.002:0.04]}$ (.14)	0.08
Digital Video Recorder	$-0.10_{[-0.07:0.02]}$ (-.09)	0.08	$0.004_{[-0.04:0.03]}$ (0.004)	0.08
On-demand	$-0.01_{[-0.03:0.02]}$ (-.01)	0.08	$0.05_{[-0.01:0.03]}$ (.05)	0.08
Biological Sex	$-0.12_{[-0.54:0.05]}$ (-0.11)	0.08	$0.35_{[0.30:0.76]}$ (0.32)**	0.08
Time in Relationship	$-0.15_{[-0.03:0.001]}$ (-0.14)	0.08	$0.02_{[-0.01:0.01]}$ (0.02)	0.08
Romanticism	—	—	$0.21_{[0.04:0.31]}$ (0.20)*	0.08

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

H3 predicted a positive association between romanticism and relational closeness. Consistent with previous research (Sprecher & Metts, 1999), romanticism positively predicted closeness, and thus H3 was supported. Lastly, H4 predicted romanticism would mediate the association between television viewing and relational closeness. Following Hayes (2013), all indirect and total effects for the television viewing variables were evaluated via nonparametric bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples (with replacement). Table 4 presents the results of these tests. The only significant indirect effect was between cable, romanticism, and relational closeness, such that cable viewing produced an indirect and positive effect on relational closeness. All other modes of television viewing (i.e., television recorded from a digital video recorder and on-demand from paid third-party providers) were found to be statistically nonsignificant. Similar to the indirect effect result, cable also produced the only statistically significant total effect on closeness. All other modes of television viewing produced nonsignificant findings.

RQ1 asked if different findings would emerge for different modes of television viewing. As shown in Table 4, cable was the only indicator to produce statistically significant results in predicting a direct effect on relational closeness. All other direct and indirect effects were found to be statistically non-significant. Thus, these findings answer RQ1 affirmatively. Based on the above results, the overall pattern found cable was a statistically significant predictor of romanticism and relational closeness, both as a direct and indirect effect. All other modes of television were not significant in this overall pattern.

Table 4

Summary of Indirect Effects for Structural Model Predicting Relational Closeness

Path	$B_{[95\% \text{ CI}]}$ (β)	SE
Cable $\rightarrow$ Romanticism $\rightarrow$ Closeness	$0.04_{[0.002:0.11]}$ $(1.41)^*$	0.02
Digital Video Recorder $\rightarrow$ Romanticism $\rightarrow$ Closeness	$-0.02_{[-0.09:0.02]}$ (-0.77)	0.02
On-demand $\rightarrow$ Romanticism $\rightarrow$ Closeness	$-0.01_{[-0.05:0.03]}$ (-0.31)	0.02
Cable: Total Effect of Closeness	$0.18_{[0.04:0.31]}$ $(2.51)^*$	0.08
Digital Video Recorder: Total Effect on Closeness	$-0.03_{[-0.19:0.11]}$ (-0.36)	0.07
On-demand: Total Effect on Closeness	$0.05_{[-0.09:0.18]}$ (0.77)	0.07

* $p < .05$

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to test the extent to which television viewing across different modes predicts romanticism and, in turn, whether romanticism mediates the association between television viewing and relational closeness. Overall, the results partially supported the theoretical rationale advanced in this report. The results identified one indirect path and one direct path for cable television viewing only. First, television viewing is positively associated with romanticism and, second, romanticism predicted a positive association with relational closeness, although initially argued as a negative association. Second, for the direct path, cable television viewing approached significance as a positive predictor of relational closeness. Theoretically, these results support some, but not all, of the observations reported in the extant literature (Eggermont, 2004; Lippman et al., 2014; Segrin & Nabi, 2002; Shapiro & Kroeger, 1991) and helps expand cultivation theory to other aspects of television viewing. The subsequent section will elaborate on the theoretical and practical implications of these results.

The first hypothesis examined the association between television viewing and romanticism. Following cultivation theory (Gerbner et al., 2002) and previous analyses of romantic narratives on television (Segrin & Nabi, 2002), television viewing is positively associated with romanticism. Unlike previous research with little theoretical background in cultivation (e.g., Eggermont, 2004; Shapiro and Kroeger, 1991) these results are firmly grounded in theory and can provide potential theoretical advancement. Cultivation theory should no longer focus solely on effects from violence and perceptions about other real world problems, but should also be applied to how television influences the romantic beliefs of viewers. The findings reported here suggest that television is an influence in how individuals develop preexisting beliefs about how relationships should function (Sprecher & Metts, 1999). It stands to reason this

concept could also be applied to other commonly held beliefs (e.g., patriotism). Future research might also identify how television viewers' beliefs influence their behavior toward their relationships with themselves and others. This research could generate a better understanding of television's effect on the person as a whole.

Serving as an additional understanding of these results, uses and gratifications theory could provide further insight into the positive association between television viewing and romanticism. Uses and gratifications is another theory within mass communication suggesting how media affects people and what others do with media. The overarching premise of the theory states that people seek the media they use to gratify their needs (Rubin, 2009). More specifically, the *uniform-effects model,* or the view that a media message affects viewers the same way, provides a more expository explanation. The results suggest that viewers watching television are going to be affected by romanticism in the same way. Future research should investigate the difference between this effect and cultivation effects and discover if there is a broader concept that identifies with both cultivation and uses and gratifications theories.

The second hypothesis predicted a negative association between television viewing and relational closeness, as indicated by previous research (Osborn, 2012; Shaprio & Kroeger, 1991). However, results suggested the opposite effect. Although no significant inverse associations emerged, a direct positive association of cable viewing approached significance (p=.057). The effect may be significant if there was a larger sample size and a more even distribution of males to females. Even though the data does not support H2, it is worth considering why the findings here contradict other reports. First, the previous research found these effects only with those who were married (Osborn, 2012; Shapiro & Kroeger, 1991). Those in this sample are a combination between married and non-married couples. There could be a difference between these types of

couples in their lifestyle and also how they view media, especially since the non-married couples tend to be younger in age. Second, previous research found effects in women; therefore, there could be different between males and females and how they perceive television viewing. Future research should investigate if there is truly a difference between married and non-married couples' television viewing habits, and given that the sample was not evenly distributed by sex, an examination of male and female viewing habits should also be explored.

Although argued there was connection between quality and closeness, perhaps there is a differentiating factor that correlates television viewing with negative relationship quality and positive relationship closeness. This link could be social desirability. Television often portrays couples, families, or friends gathering around the television set as a way to spend time with each other. However, in these scenes, very rarely are viewers talking with one another and improving the quality of their relationships. Kubey (2009) found within the family context, heavy and light viewers reported the same level of affection, whereas heavy viewers felt more disconnected overall than light viewers. This research exemplifies the difference between heavy and light viewers' relational quality and closeness. Following Kubey (2009), heavy viewers may have negative relational quality but positive relational closeness, and light viewers would have both positive relational quality and closeness. Consistent with cultivation effects, heavy viewers may think television is a way to become closer to one another, but do not communicate or attempt to improve the quality of the relationship outside of television viewing. Viewers are focused on the quantity spent towards the relationship, not the quality.

It is also possible the television medium is no longer used to obtain information about rules or expectations of a relationship (Sprecher & Metts, 1999), but rather more as a social act to spend time together as a couple. Closeness is driven by the attempt to associate and engage in

self-expansion and the partners making an effort to be together (Aron & Aron, 1986; Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991). This line of reasoning is supported by uses and gratification theory. In the typology of uses and gratifications, Rubin (1981) posits eight motivations for why people watch television, including companionship and social interaction. Both of these motivations focus on connecting with others and feeling close. Based on the results, viewers are potentially more motivated to watch television for a connection with others, or closeness, than to obtain information or watching television to pass time. Future research should examine if motivations have changed for viewers as television viewing has changed and also if motivations change over time for the individual and a couple.

The third hypothesis predicted romanticism is positively associated with relational closeness. The results support this hypothesis, and this finding supports and expands previous research from the social exchange and schema theory perspectives (Rusbult, 1980; Sprecher & Metts, 1999). All of these findings suggest that an increase in romanticism is associated with an increase of love and liking toward a romantic partner. This finding illustrates the importance of having romance within a romantic relationship, instead of feeling close to your partner based solely on physical attractiveness or material needs. Perhaps further research could investigate other factors that influence relational closeness to develop a further understanding of what helps partners feel close to one another in addition to the ideal of romanticism. Moreover, future research could also assess how these beliefs are linked to behavior if at all. A belief in romanticism could increase the amount and quality of loving messages and actions toward a relational partner that then helps the couple feel closer to one another.

On the other hand, expectations could be too high or unrealistic. From a social exchange perspective, if expectations are too high, the partners in the relationship could perceive the costs

out weigh the benefits. When the costs exceed the benefits of the relationship, it is likely the relationship will deteriorate. Additionally, when romanticism is too high within an individual, they may set expectations too high and believe no other partner meets their standards. Therefore, individuals may be unhappy and dissatisfied with their romantic life since they have no partner. Future research should evaluate when relationships expectations are too high and the effect it has on both the couple and the individual. There may also be an explanation based on age, time in the relationship, or other factors; thus, potential moderators should also be examined.

The fourth and final hypothesis predicted romanticism is the mediator between television viewing frequency and relational closeness. Bootstrapping analyses identified one significant indirect effect between cable, romanticism, and relational closeness. Cable also produced the only significant total effect on closeness. All other modes of television viewing produced nonsignificant findings. Since cable is the only mode of television that produced significant results, this suggests that there may be a difference between the cable medium and other analyzed media (i.e., television recorded from a digital video recorder or on-demand from paid third party providers). In comparison to the other studies that examined romanticism as a mediator (Shapiro & Kroeger, 1991; Zurbriggen et al., 2011), these findings assess mediation through using robust tests of mediation. It is, however, worth noting that this is cross-sectional data, and although mediational tests of cross-sectional data are acceptable when evaluating theoretically-causal processes (Hayes, 2013), a longitudinal research study could provide more robust support for the temporal order of these associations.

Lastly, the research question assessed how different modes of television would alter the relationships between romanticism and relational closeness. Of the three modes of television analyzed (cable television broadcasts, television recorded from a digital video recorder, and from

paid third party services), cable was the only significant predictor of romanticism and relational closeness, both as a direct and indirect effect. These results have several implications. The nonsignificant findings for recorded television and third party services suggest that there is something different when viewing cable versus other sources. Original cultivation research is focused on television viewing as a single activity, and it ignores the content, context and the behavior of the viewer (Cohen & Weimann, 2000). Television viewing is moving away from passive viewing and more towards active viewership ("Evolution of Family TV Viewing," 2012). Recorded television and third party paid services are focused on the viewer and what they want to watch; they are involved in choosing their content. For example, Zurbriggen and Morgan (2006) found viewing reality dating programs is positively correlated with endorsement of a sexual double standard, beliefs that men are sex-driven, appearance is important in dating, and dating is a game. However, this finding is mediated through viewer involvement and suggests that more active viewers see this type of television as entertainment and passive viewers see this as reality.

From the uses and gratifications perspective, these results are also supported. In contrast to cultivation theory's emphasis on straight-line effects, uses and gratifications theory posits that media influence people differently and viewers seek different purposes to gratify needs. This is directly in line with passive and active viewing. Those who passively watch television are affected differently and are potentially using television for different purposes compared to active viewers. Using the typology Rubin (1981) suggested, passive viewers may be using television as a way to pass the time or escape from the pressure of day-to-day life. In contrast, active viewers may be using television for social interaction, information, or excitement. Uses and gratifications suggest there may be a different in how viewers absorb media. Researchers should investigate

this further to provide a clearer understanding of media usage from both a uses and gratifications and cultivation perspective.

Overall, both theoretical perspectives suggest there is a difference between passive and active television viewing. When watching cable television, viewers' involvement may be passive, and thus they devote little thought to choosing what to watch, instead watching for the sake of watching; and therefore, they are not thinking about the effects of watching cable programing can have on beliefs and attitudes (Adams, 2000). When choosing television more actively via Internet-based options, viewers are potentially more cognitively aware of the content within the television show and more likely to challenge the message and its influence. Active viewers are potentially more aware that what they view is not necessarily reality. This concept pushes cultivation theory into research areas and is worth further research. Additional research should also be conducted to examine if these effects are only short term as discussed in Potter (2014) or if there is a potential these effects are long term. These implications substantiate the importance of expanding cultivation research to new boundaries and further our understanding of mass media effects (Potter, 2014).

To summarize thus far, cultivation theory provides a clear framework for understanding these results and implications. This study has extended cultivation research beyond its original focus on violence, and into additional areas like romanticism. Additionally, these results suggest there may be a difference between how you watch television, dependent upon the viewer's choice of media. Passive viewers are likely to watch more cable television broadcasts, while active viewers are likely to watch more television recorded from a digital video recorder or on-demand from paid third party providers. Further research is needed to understand these

differences and if there may be any moderators for these effects such as genre, biological sex differences, or watching with others or alone.

In addition to the theoretical implications, this study also tentatively offers some practical implications. First, the overarching results of this study suggest that television may be a factor in how romantic partners develop romantic beliefs and closeness between the two partners. Increased awareness of television effects on attitudes and beliefs about romantic relationships is important to understanding yourself and your partner. Couples specifically need to understand each other's expectations when developing and maintaining a relationship and should have conversations about what is being viewed in the media. (Shaprio & Kroeger, 1991). In light of previous literature (Osborn, 2012; Segrin & Nabi, 2002), viewers should be cautioned about the positive effects of television viewing on romanticism and relational closeness. Watching television may help increase relational closeness, but only in certain situations. It is suggested that taking a more active role in watching television and make deliberate television choices could help individuals be more mindful of the content viewed (Adams, 2000). This strategy attempts to prevent media influence, and in watching programs vyou choose, there is a potential for more enjoyment and productivity. Finally, results indicated watching more television could potentially increase relational closeness. This suggests that watching television or sharing other activities could bring couples increased relational closeness. Overall, our results support other research indicating that cultivation effects do still have an influence on others and should continue to be studied (Morgan & Shanahan, 1997; Potter, 2014).

As with every study, it is important to consider the limitations of the research design when interpreting the results. First, this data is cross-sectional in nature, and therefore, the results cannot assess causation strongly. However, Hayes (2013) stated "we should not let the

limitations of our data collection efforts constrain the tools we bring to the task of trying to understand what our data might be telling us about the processes we are studying" (p. 17). Although these results provide further understanding for cultivation theory, cross-sectional data is a longstanding limitation of this type of research. Readers should interpret these results with caution. Second, this study's sample consists largely of women, Caucasians, and college students. A more diverse sample may provide further information regarding the effects of television across sexes and between age groups, socioeconomic statuses, and ethnicities. Future research should attempt to examine a more diverse sample in order to generalize these findings to other populations. Lastly, our effect sizes are considered to be small within social scientific research (Potter, 2014). However, Morgan and Shanahan (1997) argue that despite the small effect sizes of cultivation studies, results should not be treated as trivial. I hope these results will serve as a basis for more theoretically-guided research into other relevant cultivation and media studies.

Although cultivation effects have been extensively investigated, research continues as television expands to new modes of viewing. I hope these results will serve as step towards further theoretical understanding. Overall, television, like any form of communication, is best studied from a theoretical standpoint, using cultivation or another related media theory. The outcome of heavy television viewing is still worth further study, especially due to evolving viewing habits (Adams, 2000). As technology continues to evolve, it stands to reason television viewing will continue to change as well. Further understanding of this progression may assist in a better understanding of television effects as a whole. Moreover, viewers are not only watching by themselves, but also with others. These viewing habits potentially alter beliefs about how they

feel towards those relationships. Future investigations may potentially aid, or even improve, how romantic partners use television or media as a whole.

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Appendix A- Survey Measures

PLEASE NOTE: Responding to this survey affirms that you have read, understand, and agree to the terms of the consent form.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION
Directions: In the following spaces, please indicate the most appropriate response to each question. If there is a separate set of directions, please read those directions carefully and answer each question according to the directions for that section of the questionnaire.

What is your sex?
- Male
- Female

What is your age? _____

What is your highest level of education?
1. Have not completed high school
2. High school diploma or equivalent
3. Some college
4. Associate's degree (A.A., A.S., etc.)
5. Bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S., etc.)
6. Master's degree (M.A., M.S., M.B.A., etc.)
7. Doctoral degree (Ph.D., M.D., J.D., Ed.D., etc.):
8. Other (please specify): _____

What is your ethnicity or race?
1. Caucasian American
2. African American
3. Hispanic American
4. Native American
5. Asian American
6. Other (please specify): _____

Have you ever been divorced?
1. Yes
2. No

Measures of Television Viewership
Below, we will ask you a series of questions about your television viewing.

We realize that people today watch television programming in a variety of ways. For this survey, please think about your television viewing OVERALL – what you watch broadcast on TV, on-demand on the web, through a tablet, through your phone, on TiVo or DVR, etc. In other words, don't just think about what you watch on a television set, but about your viewing of television programming overall.

Shrum (2011)- Television Viewing Scale (likert scale 1 to 7)

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

I watch less television than most people I know.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often watch television on the weekend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I spend time watching television almost every day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One of the first things I do in the evening is turn on the television.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I hardly ever watch television.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have to admit, I watch a lot of television.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Shrum (1998)- Television Viewing Measures
Estimate how much time you spend watching television in each of these four time periods during the weekdays: (Participants will respond by indicating hours per week.)
i.   Morning
ii.   Afternoon
iii.   Prime Time
iv.   Late Night
Estimate how much time you spend watching television:
i.   Saturday
ii.   Sunday

Potter and Chang (1990)- Television Genre Measures
Estimate how many hours a week you watch programs in the following categories: (Participants will respond by indicating hours per week.)
i. Soap operas (Ex. Days of Our Lives, One Life to Live)
ii. Reality Shows (Ex. The Bachelor, The Voice)
iii. News (Ex. NBC Nightly News, CNN)
iv. Drama (Ex. Grey's Anatomy, The Walking Dead)
v. Comedy/Sitcoms (Ex. The Big Bang Theory, Modern Family)
vi. Action/Adventure (Ex. Survivor Man, Game of Thrones)
vii. Movies on Television (Ex. Sharknado, Never Been Kissed)
viii. Sports (Ex. Games for National Football League, Sports Center)
ix. Talk Shows (Ex. The Tonight Show with Jimmy Fallon, Conan)
x. Game Shows (Ex. Family Feud, Jeopardy)
xi. Children's programming (Ex. Dora the Explorer, Jake and the Neverland Pirates)
xii. Cartoons not aimed at children (Ex. Family Guy, South Park)
xiii. Other

Measure of Shared Viewing (created by researchers for this study)
Thinking about your television viewing as a whole, please indicate what percentage of the time is spent viewing with these different groups of people: (Participants will respond using slider bars, such that the bars must total to 100% across categories.)
i. Viewing with your romantic partner only.
ii. Viewing with other people, but not with your romantic partner present.
iii. Viewing with other people, and with your romantic partner present.
iv. Viewing alone.

Measure of TV Source (created by researchers for this study)
Thinking about your television viewing as a whole, please indicate what percentage of the time is spent viewing televised content from each of the following sources: (Participants will respond using slider bars, such that the bars must total to 100% across categories.)
i. Cable television broadcasts. (Ex. NBC, ESPN)
ii. Television recorded using a delayed playback device (Ex. TiVo, DVR)
iii. Television on-demand from a cable provider (e.g., Verizon On Demand)
iv. Television on-demand from a paid third party provider (e.g., Netflix, Amazon Prime, Hulu)
v. Television on-demand from a network website (e.g., NBC.com, CBS.com)
vi. Television on-demand from a free website (e.g., YouTube)
vii. Other

Spencer and Metts (1989)- Romantic Beliefs Scale (likert scale 1 to 7)

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

I need to know someone for a period of time before I fall in love with him or her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I were in love with someone, I would commit myself to him or her even if my parents and friends disapproved of the relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Once I experience "true love," I could never experience it again, to the same degree, with another person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe that to be truly in love is to be in love forever.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I love someone, I know I can make the relationship work, despite any obstacles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I find my "true love" I will probably know it soon after we meet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I'm sure that every new thing I learn about the person I choose for a long-term commitment will please me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The relationship I will have with my "true love" will be nearly perfect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I love someone, I will find a way for us to be together regardless of the opposition to the relationship, physical distance between us or any other barrier.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There will be only one real love for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If a relationship I have was meant to be, any obstacle (e.g. lack of money, physical distance, career conflicts) can be overcome.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am likely to fall in love almost immediately if I meet the right person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I expect that in my relationship, romantic love will really last; it won't fade with time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The person I love will make a perfect romantic partner; for example, he/she will be completely accepting, loving, and understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe if another person and I love each other we can overcome any differences and problems that may arise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

INFORMATION ABOUT THE ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIP:

Are you currently in a romantic relationship?
- Yes
- No

[Note: If the participant indicates "no," they will skip to the end of the survey.]

How would you best describe your relationship with this person? (Circle one.)

1	Dating casually	5	In a long-term domestic partnership
2	Dating seriously	6	Separated
3	Engaged to be married	7	Other (please specify): _____
4	Married		

Have you currently or previously cohabitated (in other words, lived in the same residence) with this person?
- i.   Yes, currently
- ii.   Yes, previously
- iii.   No, we have never cohabitated

What is the sex of this person?
- Male
- Female

How old is this person? _____

For how long have you known this person? _____

For how long have you been in a romantic relationship with this person? _____

Generally, would you consider this to be a local or long-distance relationship?
- Local
- Long-distance

Thinking about your relationship as a whole, about what percentage of time are you geographically separated from each other?

[The electronic survey will include response options ranging from 0% to 100%, in 5% intervals.]

Approximately how many miles away does this person live (enter 0 if you share a residence)? _____

CLOSENESS MEASURE (VANGELISTI & CAUGHLIN, 1997):
Directions: Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your relationship using the scale below.

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

How close are you to this person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How often do you talk about personal things with this person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How satisfied are you with your relationship with this person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How important is your relationship with this person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How much do you like this person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How important is this person's opinion to you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How much do you enjoy spending time with this person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

COMMITMENT MEASURE (RUSBULT, MARTZ, & AGNEW, 1998):

Directions: Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your friendship using the scale below.

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

I want our relationship to last for a very long time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I am committed to maintaining our relationship.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I would not feel very upset if our relationship were to end in the near future.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I feel very attached to our relationship---very strongly linked to this person.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I want our relationship to last forever.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I am oriented toward the long-term future of our relationship.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

IOS CLOSENESS SCALE (ARON, ARON, & SMOLLAN, 1992):

Directions: Please select the picture below which best describes your relationship. In the diagrams below, you are "self" and the other person is "other."
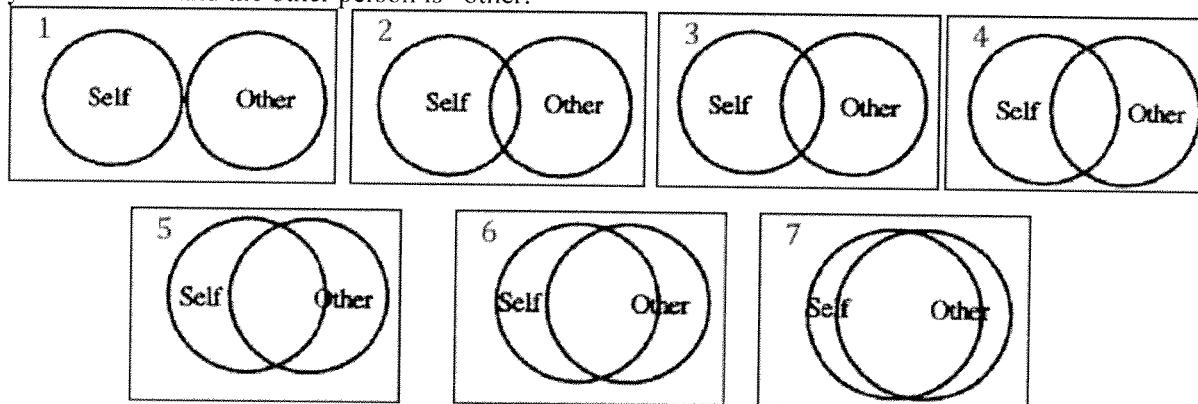
PARNTER INTERFERENCE MEASURE (SOLOMON & KNOBLOCH, 2001):

<u>Directions:</u> Please mark your response to the questions below.

Strongly Disagree					Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

	1	2	3	4	5	6
My partner interferes with the plans I make.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My partner interferes with my plans to attend parties and other social events.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My partner interferes with the amount of time I spend with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My partner interferes with how much time I devote to my school work or work tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My partner interferes with the things I need to do each day.	1	2	3	4	5	6

RELATIONAL TURBULENCE (KNOBLOCH, 2007):

Strongly Disagree					Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

At the present time, this relationship is…						
Turbulent	1	2	3	4	5	6
Chaotic	1	2	3	4	5	6
In turmoil	1	2	3	4	5	6
Tumultuous	1	2	3	4	5	6
Hectic	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frenzied	1	2	3	4	5	6
Overwhelming	1	2	3	4	5	6
Stressful	1	2	3	4	5	6

RELATIONAL UNCERTAINTY MEASURE (KNOBLOCH & SOLOMON, 1999):

Directions: We would like you to rate how certain you are about the degree of involvement that you have in your relationship at this time. Please note, we are not asking you to rate how much involvement there is in your relationship, but rather how certain you are about whatever degree of involvement you perceive. It might help if you first consider how much of each form of involvement is present in your relationship, and then evaluate how certain you are about that perception. Please indicate your responses using the scale below.

Completely or almost completely uncertain	Mostly uncertain	Slightly more uncertain than certain	Slightly more certain than uncertain	Mostly certain	Completely or almost completely certain
1	2	3	4	5	6

How certain are you about...

What you can or cannot say to each other in this relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The boundaries for appropriate and/or inappropriate behavior in this relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The norms for this relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How you can or cannot behave around your partner?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whether or not you and your partner feel the same way about each other?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How you and your partner view this relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whether or not your partner likes you as much as you like him or her?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The current status of this relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The definition of this relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How you and your friend would describe this relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The state of the relationship at this time?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whether or not this is a romantic or platonic relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whether or not you and your partner will stay together?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The future of the relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Whether or not this relationship will end soon?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Where this relationship is going?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Relational Maintenance Measure (STAFFORD & CANARY, 1991):

Directions: The following items concern things people might do to maintain their relationships. Please indicate the extent to which each of the following describes behaviors that you currently use to maintain your relationship.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	SD			N			SA
I attempt to make our interactions very enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I encourage him/her to disclose his/her thoughts and feelings to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am cooperative in the way I handle disagreements between us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I stress my commitment to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to spend time with our same friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I help equally with tasks that need to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I simply tell him/her how I feel about our relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I try to build up his/her self-esteem, including giving him/her compliments, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ask how his/her day has gone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I seek to discuss the quality of our relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I share in the joint responsibilities that face us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I am very nice, courteous and polite when we talk.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I imply that our relationship has a future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I act cheerful and positive when with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I focus on common friends and affiliations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not criticize him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I disclose what I need or want from our relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do my fair share of the work we have to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I try to be friendly, fun and interesting with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I show my love for him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am patient and forgiving of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I show that I am willing to do things with his/her friends or family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I remind him/her about relationship decisions we made in the past.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I present myself as cheerful and optimistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to have periodic talks about our relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I show myself to be faithful to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I include our friends or family in our activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I perform the responsibilities he/she expects from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not shirk my duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7