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# The Positive and Negative Effects of Jealousy on Relationship Quality: A Meta-Analysis

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THE POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF JEALOUSY ON RELATIONSHIP  
QUALITY: A META-ANALYSIS

By

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requirements for the degree of

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## Table of Contents

Abstract.....	v
Introduction.....	1
Method.....	13
Results.....	17
Discussion.....	21
References.....	29
Footnotes.....	34
Table 1.....	35
Table 2.....	40
Figure 1.....	41
Figure 2.....	42
Vita.....	43

## List of Tables and Figures

Table 1.....	35
Table 2.....	40
Figure 1.....	41
Figure 2.....	42

## Abstract

Several theories have been posited regarding the role of jealousy on romantic relationships. However, they differ in terms of predictions which when confirmed has resulted in conflicting results. One way to sort out mixed results is to conduct a meta-analysis. Thus, the current investigations conformed to a meta-analysis of studies wherein the association between jealousy and relationship quality had been examined. In the present investigation jealousy had a negative relationship with relationship quality. Type of jealousy experienced moderated the effect on relationships, with anxious jealousy having a stronger negative relationship. Future directions for research in the field of jealousy and relationships are addressed.

## The Positive and Negative Effects of Jealousy on Relationship Quality: A Meta-analysis

“Love sees sharply, hatred sees even more sharp, but jealousy sees the sharpest for it is love and hate at the same time” Arab Proverb

As this Arab proverb suggests, jealousy can be viewed in positive and negative terms. Without jealousy, a person stands to lose her or his investment in the relationship to an extra-relationship threat. The expression of jealousy then, can have a positive connotation because it serves to protect the relationship. Although jealousy has some positive connotations, extreme jealousy can communicate to partners that a lack of trust exists in the relationship (Barelds & Dijkstra, 2006). As we would expect, long-lasting relationships are built on trust (Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998), but when jealousy becomes a persistent pattern in a relationship, it erodes a foundation of trust that is essential to a successful, rewarding relationship.

No consensus exists among researchers whether to encourage or discourage jealous behaviors for the sake of the relationship. Barelds and Barelds-Dijkstra (2007) found that individuals who felt more anxiously jealous reported lower relationship quality. Jealousy leads the non-jealous partner to feel mistrusted and controlled (Barelds & Barelds-Dijkstra). Also, jealousy can create abusive relationships in which one partner attempts to stop any extra-relationship activity using verbal or physical aggression (Hilberman & Munson, 1978). For example, Daly and Wilson (1988) showed that sexual jealousy is the primary motive for spousal violence and homicide. Alternatively, jealousy might signal to partner's affection for each other and evidence that the relationship is valued enough to protect. Sheets, Fredendall, and Claypool (1997) showed that jealousy is positive when it acts as a “barometer” of our confidence in our partners' romantic commitment.

Different types of jealousy are defined based on their cause and effect. Buunk (1997) defines reactive jealousy as a response to intimate and sexual behaviors a partner may engage in with someone else. Buunk also defines possessive jealousy as behaviors an individual engages in to prevent their partner from intimate contact with a third person. Similarly, anxious jealousy is characterized by obsessions and suspicions about potential behaviors that are harmful to a relationship (Buunk, 1997). Reactive, possessive, and anxious jealousies are defined within Buunk's jealousy theory. Pfeiffer and Wong (1989), in their multidimensional jealousy theory describe cognitive and emotional jealousies as different ways one experiences jealousy. Cognitive jealousy refers to the cognitions, thoughts, and worries one experiences during a jealousy expression. Emotional jealousy refers to the experience of a perceived threat to a valued relationship. Types of jealousy are predicted to be both negative and positive for relationship quality.

In the current review, I evaluated the negative and positive effects that jealousy has on the quality of a relationship. After reviewing the literature on jealousy, it became clear that jealousy has directional effects under circumstances important to relationship commitment. I also examined the interaction between commitment and jealousy on relationship quality and demonstrated how jealousy influences relationship quality in positive and negative ways.

#### *Jealousy as Negative for Relationship Quality*

*Major theories.* Most people describe jealousy as a negative experience and have negative reactions toward people who consistently display jealous behaviors. Buunk (1997) observed that both men and women characterize others who display jealous



behaviors as “neurotic, socially anxious, rigid, and hostile” (p1001). Neuroticism, anxiety, and hostility can influence the response of jealousy. For example, Miller and Maner (2009) showed that high levels of dispositional jealousy moderate sex differences in response to sexual versus emotional infidelity. Males with high levels of dispositional jealousy are more likely to respond with high jealousy to sexual infidelity than are males with low dispositional jealousy. As personality characteristics are relatively stable, other factors likely change an individual’s jealousy response over time.

Possessive and anxious jealousies likely serve some dispositional drive within the individual rather than serving the needs of the relationship. Buunk (1991) explains that jealousy responses can occur as a result of an imagined relationship threat. Possessive and anxious jealousy arises from suspicions that may have no evidence supporting them. If jealousy is based on an unsubstantiated and thus only imagined threat, the jealousy behaviors cannot stop any concrete threats to the relationship. Jealousy responses based only on imaginary threats, therefore, become delusional and problematic.

The multidimensional jealousy theory focuses on the experience, either cognitive or emotional, that effects relationships. Pfeiffer and Wong (1989) define cognitive jealousy as an individual’s “paranoid worries and suspicions” of his or her partner’s infidelity (p.183). Emotional jealousy may occur distinctly from cognitive jealousy and is expressed due to a perceived threat. When the threat is not real, a negative outcome for the relationship is predicted (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989). Andersen, Eloy, Guerrero, and Spitzberg (1995) found that cognitive jealousy has a stronger negative relationship with relational satisfaction. In addition, communication regarding jealousy increases satisfaction more than a jealousy experience alone.

*Negative outcomes.* Results from studies on dating couples support negative theories of jealousy. Theiss and Solomon (2006) found evidence that participants who express cognitive jealousy rate their relationships low on intimacy. Expressing cognitive jealousy was moderately related to also self-reporting relationship uncertainty. This is distinctly differentiated from emotional jealousy, the expression of which associated with the expression of increased intimacy and not related to uncertainty. Yela (2000) found contradictory evidence for emotional jealousy, high scores on emotional jealousy were related to lower scores on loving and sexual satisfaction for women. As well, higher scores on sexual jealousy were associated with lower scores on loving satisfaction for men.

Married relationships also show negative effects from jealousy. Pazak (1998) operationalized jealousy as a type of possessiveness and intrusiveness into their partner's life. Pazak found that higher levels of jealousy resulted in lower scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976) for both genders. It is clear that this description of jealousy could not have a positive effect on satisfaction. Shrestha (1985) found that alcoholic men are more likely to be jealous than alcoholic women. This difference also led to an association where men reporting sexual jealousy reported having low marital stability and sexual satisfaction. This result is tempered by the clinical population used in this study. Jealousy is often measured explicitly as a negative experience for couples.

Possessive jealousy may change its effects depending on the mode of expression and the function served by the jealousy. A person may use possessive jealousy to control one's partner obsessively (Barelds & Barelds-Dijkstra, 2007). There exists a hypothesized continuum between reactive and possessive jealousy, with reactive jealousy

increasing relationship quality and possessive jealousy decreasing relationship quality (Barelds & Barelds-Dijkstra). Also, cognitive and emotional jealousies produce negative outcomes for relationships.

*Jealousy as Positive for Relationship Quality*

*Major theories.* Parrot (1991) explains that jealousy is an emotion experienced when a person is threatened by the loss of an important relationship with another person to a “rival.” The loss may be feared, actual and present, or as a part of the past. The prototypical cases of jealousy involve romantic relationships because the aspects of one’s self that are threatened are central and significant (Parrot). Jealousy places stress upon the interpretation and appraisal of a variety of threats by partners. The two most important factors that increase the likelihood of jealousy are a person outside the relationship challenging an aspect of the self-concept or threatening relationship rewards.

In a romantic relationship, a rival threatens a relationship only when he or she excels on dimensions that are highly important for an individual within the relationship. Schmitt (1988) suggests that one must decide to reduce the threat of the rival by derogating them or by acknowledging one’s own valuable characteristics. Schmitt found that people who score high on jealousy evaluated their rivals negatively on dimensions that they considered to be important to their partners. This evidence suggests that jealousy should be positive when a rival is at least equally as attractive as oneself (Schmitt, 1988). If a rival is observed to have characteristics similar to one, then the partner could consider ending the relationship. Derogating this potential rival on comparable dimensions allows the jealous partner to secure the attention of his or her

partner. Jealousy, therefore, would discourage a partner from attending to the rival and reduce the probability that the partner would leave the relationship.

Evolutionary psychologists (Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Daly, Wilson & Weghorst, 1982) have posited that jealousy is prevalent based on its functional mechanism. One of the primary goals of investing in an opposite sex relationship is to produce offspring. If a cooperative relationship does not exist between the two parents, the probability of passing on genes is lowered. Although losing investment in a relationship may represent different losses for each sex, ultimately, jealousy in women and men protects these relationship investments. If one's mate is not faithful, one risks loss of investment and loss of reproductive rewards (Buss, 2000). From an evolutionary perspective, if someone is not jealous when his or her partner engages in extra-relationship sexual behavior, he or she stands to lose any or all investment. According to Buss and Shackelford (1997), mate retention is a common adaptive problem. They found 19 mate retention tactics that partners employ in different frequencies depending on self, partner, and relationship characteristics. Men tend to use jealousy induction when they were in longer relationships (Buss & Shackelford). Jealousy induction may serve as a form of mate retention whereby the partner inducing the jealous reaction views it in a positive way. The absence of jealousy in this case would indicate a lack of investment from mates. Perhaps, the other partner's need for security in their investment can cause the expression of feelings of jealousy.

*Positive outcomes.* Results from research with dating couples support Schmitt's (1988) and evolutionary theories. Massar, Buunk, and Dechesne (2009) tested if rival evaluation, which leads to jealousy, is an unconscious process. They found that higher

self-reports of jealousy were associated with reports of higher relationship satisfaction for men primed and unprimed with socially dominant rivals. In a longitudinal study on dating couples, Mathes (1986) showed that participants reporting jealousy remained in successful relationships that resulted in either marriage or engagement seven years later. In his study, Mathes is one of the few researchers that show longitudinal effects of jealousy. Finally, Mathes and Severa (1981) found that higher scores on self-report jealousy was positively related to higher reports of romantic love and liking in their test of the Interpersonal Jealousy scale. Males and females showed similar effects in this study.

Jealousy also has positive effects on married relationships. Nadler and Dotan (1992) found that women who reported jealousy also reported higher relationship quality. The effect for males was positive, but not significant. The authors explain this difference based on the notion that males tend to cope with relationship threats by avoiding their partner instead of displaying feelings. Hansen (1983) used hypothetical jealousy producing events to measure sexual and emotional jealousy. Larger reactions towards jealousy producing events predicted higher scores on marital happiness and the future of marriage, which are subscales of the DAS. If jealousy is defined as a protective reaction, then it will have a positive effect on dating and married relationships.

In summary, negative jealousies relate to individual differences that predispose rigid and anxious behavior. Possessive and anxious jealousies are forms that express themselves as purely negative and cause relationship deterioration. When expressed for reasons of maintaining an investment, jealousy serves to protect the relationship, a positive outcome. Also, when maintaining a positive self-esteem and evaluation,

jealousy may have a positive effect on relationships. It is possible that jealousy has both positive and negative effects depending on relationship characteristics.

### *Jealousy over Time*

Over the course of a relationship, jealousy may have both positive and negative effects. To determine which valence will prevail, it is necessary to know the state of the relationship. Over time, many factors change that affect the jealousy reaction and how jealousy is perceived by partners. Partners may feel increasingly stable within their relationships, with some time periods increasing arousability and uncertainty more than others.

As a relationship develops and changes over time, three factors affect jealousy expression: commitment, insecurity, and arousability. Bringle (1991) theorized that commitment, insecurity, and arousability are necessary for a jealous response to occur; with increased intensity and frequency of investment, more jealousy would occur. Bringle (1991) states in his transactional model of jealousy, that perception of events is a constructive process in which an individual's perceptual expectancies combine with sensory information from the social environment to construct a final perception. As levels of commitment, insecurity, and arousability change, perception of threatening behaviors will also change.

Commitment is a function of the person, relationship, and situation that must always be evaluated by each partner. "Other things being equal, the greater the commitment, the greater the emotional reaction to jealousy-evoking events" (Bringle, 1991, p. 105). Without some level of investment, an individual has nothing to lose if their partner defects from the relationship. Over time, investment in the relationship

increases and commitment to one's romantic partner increases; therefore jealousy would increase as a response to the potential loss of this investment.

People who have invested more in their relationships may become more insecure about potential threats to their investment. Insecurity may be heightened by predisposing factors, changes in the relationship, or situational events. For example, Salovey and Rothman (1991; also see Schmitt, 1988) found that rivals who rank high on relevant domains were perceived as more of a threat to relationships. For example, a highly attractive person will feel more threatened by a highly attractive rival as compared to a highly intelligent rival. The rival's attractiveness is more threatening to people who view attractiveness as being an important domain upon which their relationships are based. Some rivals may not warrant a jealous reaction because they do not threaten an integral part of one's self-esteem or the relationship.

If a person is insecure in their relationship, they will also tend to show high levels of arousability. Marelich, Gaines, and Banzet (2003) provided evidence that people who had high levels of arousal also showed high levels of jealousy. The transactional model indicates that a predisposition to arousal will heighten the intensity of emotional reactions from the initial appraisal (Bringle, 1991). Although people may have some kind of pre-event arousal, this tendency should remain as a stable individual difference in addition to any specific event characteristics that increase arousability. As commitment has shown to be the most important factor that changes the reaction to jealousy over the course of a relationship, it must be examined further.

*Potential Moderators*

*Commitment.* Level of commitment in a relationship is central to the effects of jealousy and the experience of relationship quality. Two researchers have cited commitment as a changing factor that can predict stability and certainty in intimate relationships. With his transactional model of jealousy, Bringle (1991) cites commitment as a predictor that changes over time. Increased commitment requires more jealousy responses to protect the higher level of investment. Rusbult (1980) also cites, in her investment model, commitment as central to relationship quality. Because relationships change over time, it is important to determine the potential for these changes to moderate the effect of jealousy on relationship quality. Connecting these two theories allows prediction of the way commitment moderates the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality.

Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow (1986) define commitment as the tendency to maintain a relationship and feel psychologically attached to it. The transactional model focuses on commitment as the factor that changes over time and situation, which changes the ways jealousy is expressed. The investment model (Rusbult, 1980) and interdependence theory (Kelley, 1979) differentiate satisfaction, positivity of affect to one's relationship, and commitment (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow). Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow (1986) in their investment model of relationships, explain that commitment is affected by three factors. Commitment is stronger when a relationship is satisfying. Second, without quality alternatives to the current relationship, one remains satisfied in the relationship. Finally, commitment increases with the amount of intrinsic or extrinsic



investment. Thus, commitment is affected by relationship satisfaction, quality alternatives, and investment.

According to the investment model, jealousy should interact with the level of dependence and quality of alternatives to the current relationship. Based on interdependence theory, jealousy should covary with degree of dependence on and commitment to a relationship (Kelley, 1979). An individual, who is highly dependent, or highly invested, should be more sensitive to threats to their relationship from a third party. Buunk (1995) found that people who were emotionally dependent on their partners expressed more jealousy. Because those who are highly committed are more dependent on the relationship and have more invested in the relationship, threats to the relationship might be misperceived and result in an increase of reactive jealousy. An individual, who has low dependence, and low investment, would be less apt to express jealousy. Rusbult and Buunk (1993) explain that couples have either explicit or implicit agreements about their extradyadic involvements. These agreements increase commitment and levels of correspondence in a relationship. In situations where there is a discrepancy or disagreement about these norms, jealousy may arise.

Uncertainty and jealousy are related in that they both stem from a difference between partner expectations and norms for the relationship. The investment model also predicts that with increases in investment, commitment will also increase. Low levels of commitment are related to sensitivity to high levels of uncertainty (Arriga, Slaughterbeck, Capezza, & Hmurovic, 2007). Arriga et al. established that participants with less commitment were more vulnerable to negative information about their partner. Uncertainty does not affect relationship satisfaction in relationships with high

commitment (Arriga et al., 2007). Differing levels of commitment produce different reasons for jealousy.

Commitment, thus, has a moderating effect on jealousy and relationship quality. Commitment has an integral role in relationship quality and maintenance during the length of the relationship. Jealousy is affected by the uncertainty produced by different levels of investment in a relationship. Early in a relationship when there is low investment and high uncertainty, jealousy expression protects the relationship. As the relationship progresses, commitment increases and uncertainty decreases. At moderate levels of commitment, expressions of jealousy may be more possessive in nature and have a harmful effect on relationships. As the proportion of these components change over time, jealousy will continue to have an effect on relationship quality.

*Types of jealousy.* Reactive jealousy differs from anxious jealousy because it is a response to a credible threat. Buunk (1997) defines reactive jealousy as a response to intimate and sexual behaviors a partner may engage in with someone else. These behaviors such as flirting, dancing, and kissing would provoke a negative reaction in an individual in an exclusive relationship. Exhibiting reactive jealousy serves to increase relationship quality unlike anxious and possessive jealousies.

The effects of such anxious and possessive jealousies on relationship satisfaction have been established in the literature. Barelds and Dijkstra (2006) found people who self-report feeling anxiously and possessively jealous also have self-reported lower relationship satisfaction than those who report other jealousies. Similarly, Barelds and Barelds-Dijkstra (2007) found that people in serious intimate relationships who report being anxiously jealous also report low relationship adjustment and people who show

reactive jealousy towards their partners have higher relationship adjustment. These types of jealousy result in worry and control of a partner's contact between members of the opposite sex (Buunk, 1997). Thus, they are predicted to have a strong negative association with relationship quality.

### *Hypotheses*

My first hypothesis is overall, jealousy will have a negative effect on relationship quality. My second hypothesis is commitment level moderates jealousy's effects on relationship quality. Jealousy has a positive effect on relationship quality when commitment levels are low. When investment levels are low, jealousy expression shows a partner interest in possible future investment in the relationship. Jealousy has a negative effect on relationship quality when commitment levels are moderate. At a moderate commitment level, jealousy shows insecurity within the relationship. Jealousy has no effect on relationship quality when commitment levels are high. A high level of commitment serves to protect the relationship from the effects of jealousy. Third, as a test of the transactional model component, amount of jealousy should increase as level of commitment increases. Finally, type of jealousy will moderate the effect on relationship quality. Reactive jealousy will have a positive effect on relationship quality. Possessive and anxious jealousies were expected to have a stronger negative effect on relationship quality.

### Method

#### *Document Retrieval*

To locate articles addressing jealousy and relationship quality, the following strategies were used. First, a thorough search of the literature using *PsychINFO* with the

key terms including jealous(y), relationship quality, quality of relationships, commitment, investment model, sexual jealousy, relationship adjustment, relationship dissatisfaction and relationship satisfaction was conducted. Documents met the criteria for retrieval if their title and abstract suggested that the investigators assessed jealousy and relationship satisfaction simultaneously. This step resulted in 118 articles. Second, the reference sections of articles identified as studying jealousy and relationship quality were examined for additional citations. Footnote chasing resulted in 218 additional articles. Third, I used citation indexing to locate articles that have cited key articles in the field of jealousy and relationship quality (Bringle, 1991; Rusbult, 1983; White, 1981). This step resulted in 31 additional articles. Fourth, I browsed the table of contents of two important journals in the field: *Close Relationships* and the *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*. This step resulted in 24 articles. Thus, the combination of these search practices resulted in a total of 319 articles.

#### *Criteria for Inclusion*

For this meta-analysis, a research study was included only if it expressed a quantifiable relationship between romantic jealousy and relationship quality. The types of jealousy not included were jealousy between friends, family members, or co-workers. Based on the mutual expectation of exclusivity between romantic partners, a level of jealousy different from jealousy in other relationships should exist. These other relationships were not included to focus on only intimate relationships.

Measures of jealousy included were Sexual Jealousy Scale, Pfeiffer and Wong Cognitive Jealousy Scale, Bringle Self-Report Jealousy Scale I & II, and similar scales. Measures of relationship quality included scores on the DAS (Spanier, 1976), the

Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, 1988), and similar scales. One measure of relationship quality that was not included was duration of relationship. Length of relationship alone does not predict a certain level of relationship quality. Several relationships exist of long duration with low relationship quality and the opposite can also be true. Commitment measures identified in these studies were similar to those commonly used in Rusbult's (1980) investment model.

The total number of articles that met all inclusion criteria in the meta-analysis was 16. The earliest article that fits these criteria was published in 1981. Articles included in the meta-analysis are indicated by an asterisk in the reference section.

### *Coding*

For each study, the type of jealousy and type of relationship quality measure was coded. Study characteristics such as gender of sample, sex of primary author, year of publication, publication outlet, sample description, sample age, type of relationships, length of relationship, and sample size were coded. Sample description was coded in categories of college students, community sample, and other. Sample age was coded with age ranges and mean age. Types of relationship included in samples were coded as acquaintances, friends, casually dating, seriously dating, engaged, married, cohabitating, and mixed samples. When provided, the length of relationship for participants was coded as a range in months and mean length in months. If a commitment measure was collected, the type and score was coded. The most commonly used measure of commitment was a variation of the Rusbult Investment Model Scale (Rusbult, 1983). Commitment was generally measured in a range of scores from 1 (not at all committed) to 9 (completely committed).

*Computation of Effect Size*

The effect size based on Pearson correlations from each sample was coded. Higher scores of jealousy should be associated with lower relationship quality, and lower scores of jealousy should be associated with higher quality. Any measure of effect size that had an opposite orientation was recoded to reflect the appropriate direction of the effect. I used the Rosenthal and Rubin (1986) method to combine effect sizes. Each overall effect size represents a relationship between jealousy and relationship quality. Pearson correlation coefficients were subsequently transformed by means of Fisher's transformation to  $z$  values on which all subsequent analyses were performed. Each effect is weighted by the inverse of the variance to compute a combined effect (Rosenthal & Rubin). The combined effects are converted back to the correlation coefficient for ease of interpretation.

When a result reported in a primary study was not reported as a correlation coefficient, the value of the statistic representing the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality will be converted and represented a correlation coefficient ( $r$ ; Rosenthal & Rubin, 1986). For example, on rare occasions, researchers compared high versus low jealousy groups on relationship quality and evaluated the effect of jealousy on relationship quality by computing a  $t$ -test between group means. In this circumstance,  $t$ -test values was converted by using formulas provided by Cooper and Hedges (1994) to determine the  $r$  value associated with this effect.

Moderation analyses on commitment, type of relationship, length of relationship, type of jealousy, and type of relationship quality were conducted. Articles that included a measure of commitment were used to test the moderation of commitment on the

relationship between jealousy and relationship quality. At low levels of commitment, jealousy should have a positive relationship with relationship quality. At moderate levels of commitment, jealousy would have a negative relationship on relationship quality. At high levels of commitment, jealousy should have no relationship with relationship quality. Type of relationship would have a similar effect. Longer, more serious relationships should be related to level of commitment and relationship quality. As relationship length increases, commitment and relationship quality should also increase.

### Results

I used a random effects model when combining effect sizes<sup>1</sup>. Random effects partitions total variance into two components, within-study variance and between-studies variance ( $\tau^2$ ). In the random effects model, the inverse of this combined variance serves as the weight for each study, creating a more balanced relative weighting among effects as compared to fixed-effects models. In the current meta-analysis, the estimate of the between-studies variance ( $\tau^2$ ) is .07. This amount of between-studies variance represents eighty two percent of the total variance among effects. The amount of between-studies variance is similar to the variance cited by Richard, Bond, and Stokes-Zoota (2003) of .15.

The sixteen selected articles included a total sample of 54 effects and 2768 participants<sup>2</sup>. The range of effects was -.64 to .77. The results of the meta-analysis are located in Table 1. The average effect size expressed in  $r$  estimated for the overall relationship between jealousy and relationship quality was negative,  $M_r = -.07$ , which did not differ significantly from a value of zero ( $Z = 1.75$ , *ns*). The 95% confidence interval was computed for the mean effect size (CI = .01, -.15). The overall effect was much

smaller than a meta-analysis by Karney and Bradbury (1995) on marital quality. They found that spouses who treat one another well are satisfied with their marriages with an overall correlation of .29. All correlations coded are shown in a forest plot in Figure 1<sup>3</sup>.

#### *Moderator Analyses*

*Type of relationship.* I predicted that the type of relationship, varying in commitment from dating relationships to married relationships, would moderate the correlation between jealousy and relationship quality. In less-committed relationships, jealousy communicates fear about losing investments; therefore, relationship quality should be positively affected by jealousy. In more-committed relationships, jealousy communicates a lack of trust; therefore, relationship quality should be negatively affected by jealousy (Rusbult et al, 1986). To test this hypothesis, I grouped type of relationship into two categories: less serious relationships, including dating ( $n = 16$ ), and more serious relationships, including cohabitating and married ( $n = 35$ ). The results did not indicate that the level of relationship (i.e., dating vs. married/cohabitating) moderated the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality ( $Q_B(1) = 2.08$ ). The mean effect size for dating relationships was small,  $Mr = .02$  ( $Q_W(15) = 16.83$ ,  $CI = -.11, .15$ ,  $Z = .30$ ,  $ns$ ). The mean effect size for married and cohabitating relationships was slightly larger but not significant,  $Mr = -.10$  ( $CI = -.19, .01$ ,  $Z = -2.22$ ,  $ns$ ). Although there was no overall difference in the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality, jealousy had a more negative effect on relationship quality.

*Length of relationship.* A continuous measure of relationship type is mean length of relationship. Gaertner and Foshee (1999) found that relationship duration was associated with commitment level in dating relationships. Over time commitment level



to the relationship and to the partner increases. As relationship length increases, jealousy should have an increasingly negative relationship with quality of relationship. The average mean length of relationship ( $n = 47$ ) was 144.50 months, and the range of values in relationship length for this sample of studies was from 9.90 months to 288.00 months. Mean length of relationship did not moderate the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality (standardized beta coefficient =  $-.03$ , *ns*).

*Type of jealousy.* Theoretical distinctions between reactive, possessive, and anxious jealousy indicate differential effects of these types of jealousy on relationship quality. I predicted reactive jealousy would positively moderate the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality and for possessive and anxious jealousies to have negative moderating relationships. Reactive jealousy is operationalized as how one would respond if their partner engaged in intimate behaviors with a third person (Buunk, 1997). Possessive jealousy, or preventative, occurs when one goes to considerable efforts to prevent their partner from having intimate contact with a third person. Anxious jealousy involves obsessions and suspicions about a partner's potential behavior (Buunk). Only effects estimating the relationship between these measures of jealousy (reactive, possessive, and anxious) and relationship quality ( $n = 23$ ) served as the set of appropriate effects in this analysis. Type of jealousy significantly moderated the association between jealousy and relationship quality ( $Q_B(2) = 12.42$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The most negative overall effect size was for anxious jealousy ( $k = 7$ ) which was significant ( $Mr = -.33$ ,  $CI = -.51, -.13$ ,  $Z = 3.42$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The overall effect size for reactive jealousy ( $k = 7$ ) was not significant but in the predicted direction ( $Mr = .15$ ,  $CI = -.04, .34$ ,  $Z = 1.56$ , *ns*). The

overall effect size for possessive jealousy ( $k = 9$ ) was not significant ( $Mr = -.07$ ,  $CI = -.24, .10$ ,  $Z = .80$ ,  $ns$ ).

In another type of jealousy moderator analysis I tested the difference between reactive, anxious, and general jealousies. Many experimenters measure jealousy without indicating the type. I compared reactive and anxious jealousies as well based on their importance to my hypotheses. Type of jealousy significantly moderated the association between jealousy and relationship quality ( $Q_B(2) = 10.67$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The overall effect size for anxious jealousy ( $k = 7$ ) was significant ( $Mr = -.34$ ,  $CI = -.57, -.11$ ,  $Z = 2.83$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The overall effect size for reactive jealousy ( $k = 7$ ) was not significant ( $Mr = .16$ ,  $CI = -.07, .39$ ,  $Z = 1.33$ ,  $ns$ ). The overall effect size for general jealousy ( $k = 13$ ) was not significant ( $Mr = .08$ ,  $CI = -.10, .26$ ,  $Z = .90$ ,  $ns$ ).

*Type of relationship quality.* I predicted no difference between the effects of jealousy and type of relationship quality. Two of the most frequently used measures were used to compare types, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) and the Relational Interaction Satisfaction Scale (Buunk, 1990). These scales were used in only measuring married or cohabitating couples. Type of relationship quality did not significantly moderate the association between jealousy and relationship quality ( $Q_B(1) = .44$ ,  $ns$ ). The overall effect size for the DAS ( $k = 9$ ) was not significant ( $Mr = -.17$ ,  $CI = -.04, .06$ ,  $Z = 1.42$ ,  $ns$ ). The overall effect size for the RISS ( $k = 18$ ) was not significant ( $Mr = -.08$ ,  $CI = -.24, .08$ ,  $Z = 1.00$ ,  $ns$ ).

#### *Alternative Explanations*

I tested publication bias as a possible alternative explanation for results. Correlation coefficients are plotted by sample size in the funnel plot seen in Figure 2.

Based on the range of values for  $r$  it is unlikely that publication bias can explain these results. Although the current meta-analysis contains no unpublished works, variability in published effects exists at the lower range of effect sizes, indicating that unpublished works likely would show similar results. I also calculated the fail safe  $n$  for the overall  $Mr$  in this analysis which was 643. This number indicates that there would need to exist more than 643 unpublished, or otherwise unretrieved studies that found, on average, no effect of jealousy on relationship quality. Those effects would reduce the overall effect to nonsignificance at the .05 level.

### Discussion

The meta-analysis of jealousy's effect on relationship quality revealed a small, negative effect size with a  $Mr = -.07$ . Although this effect was small, it supported the hypothesis that jealousy has a negative impact on relationship quality. As an individual's jealousy increases one unit, that individual's relationship quality decreases .07. This small effect size may represent the median score of a substantially variable distribution of effects from positive to negative.

This large variation suggested moderator analyses. As commitment level increases during relationships, reactions of jealousy increase in order to protect investment in the relationship. Type of relationship (dating vs. married) and length of relationship served as proxies for relationship commitment in lieu of the specific measurement of commitment in the sampled studies. Commitment as measured by type of relationship and length of relationship did not moderate the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality. It is possible the lack of a reliable measure of commitment influenced this result.

Several authors (Andersen et al., 1995; Barelds & Dijkstra, 2006; Buunk, 1991) indicated their contradictory jealousy results were due to types of jealousy measured. The corresponding expressions and consequences to relationship satisfaction caused different effects. Buunk (1991) developed a measure of jealousy that distinguished between reactive, possessive, and anxious jealousies. Many researchers in the sampled studies use this measure in investigating jealousy. According to Buunk, reactive jealousy has a positive affect on relationship quality. Buunk also predicted possessive and anxious jealousies negatively affect relationship quality. In the current review, anxious jealousy had a moderate, negative association with relationship quality.

#### *Theoretical Conclusions*

The overall effect and the type of jealousy moderator analyses support Buunk's (1991) theory that certain jealousies more negatively affect relationships than do other types. During the moderator analyses, I also found a nonsignificant positive relationship between reactive jealousy and relationship quality. Extrapolating this result to other types of jealousy, it is possible that other types of jealousy might produce significant positive outcomes for relationships. For example, Pfeiffer and Wong (1989) found that cognitive and behavioral jealousies have a negative relationship with love, but emotional jealousy has a positive relationship with love. Unfortunately, these differences were not supported in subsequent research (Andersen et al., 1995; Guerrero & Eloy, 1992).

As to other types of jealousy and their potential positive correlation with relationship quality, these measures were not adequately represented to allow for comparisons across groups of studies investigating different types of jealousy. When comparing general jealousy with reactive and anxious jealousies, there was a

nonsignificant positive effect. I believe this is due to the lack of theoretical operationalization of the general jealousy methods. Jealousy's role in relationships was not the central focus of many experiments. In these experiments, researchers used a measure that did not specify theoretical background for a type of jealousy. In this meta-analysis, three studies used measures specific to their study and found positive relationships between jealousy and relationship satisfaction (Hansen, 1983; Massar et al., 2009; Nadler & Dotan, 1992). Without a reliable method of comparing such measures and larger samples of general measures, I hesitate to disqualify theories that suggest jealousy as positive for relationships.

In the transactional model of jealousy, Bringle (1991) also suggests a change in factors that produce jealousy over the course of a relationship: commitment, insecurity, and arousability. The sample of studies included in the present meta-analysis did not consistently contain clear measures of commitment, making the comparison feasible through proxy measures only. Insecurity and arousability were not the focus of this review, but they often were absent from measures included in studies on jealousy.

In the current meta-analysis, the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality was not moderated by measures of commitment. Although these moderator analyses were not significant, they were in the predicted direction. The range of the mean length of relationships in the sampled studies might not be sufficient to illustrate the effect. Length of relationship was not reported in many studies that included dating couples, restricting the range to relationships longer than nine months in many cases. Also, the parameters for dating relationships were less clear than married. "Dating" often

included such categories as casually dating and seriously dating. Without adequate sampled studies with these differences, it is difficult to tease out moderator effects.

Several measures to assess relationship quality were included in the current review. Although there are several different concepts, evidence suggests a high degree of correlation between relationship quality, satisfaction, stability, commitment, and sexual satisfaction. Weigel and Ballard-Reisch (2002) found that behavioral indicators of commitment are related to relationship satisfaction and continuance. In a longitudinal study, Yeh, Lorenz, Wickrama, Conger, and Elder (2006) demonstrated the consistency and association of marital quality, stability, and sexual satisfaction. They also found that marital quality changes the relationship between sexual satisfaction and marital instability. A meta-analysis on the investment model components, the association between commitment and satisfaction, was significantly stronger than with alternatives or investments (Le & Agnew, 2003). The major finding was that “commitment may be the most important construct in investigating relational processes” (Le & Agnew, 2003, p. 52). They cite commitment level as related to accommodation, perspective taking, and derogation of alternatives. These findings provide evidence for our use of a wide range of conceptualizations of relationship quality and suggest future focus on commitment in relationships.

### *Limitations*

There were four major limitations that I include as qualifications for the results. First, although there are hundreds of studies investigating jealousy as primary variable, few researchers directly test the relationship between jealousy and relationship quality. Jealousy does not exclusively affect the individual, but the partner toward whom the

individual expresses this jealousy. For this reason, jealousy should be investigated within the context of couples. Barelds and Barelds-Dijkstra (2007) was the only study from the sample that compared couples' scores on jealousy and relationship adjustment measures. They found a high degree of correspondence between partners' scores on both measures across three samples. It is possible that jealousy in the individual creates jealousy in their partner. For reactive jealousy, this created a positive effect on one's partner's relationship quality. More data on couples' experience and expression of jealousy would be informative.

Second, in four studies the researcher combined the effects of cohabitating and married couples for their effects. There is conflicting evidence on the difference between the commitment level and satisfaction of cohabitating and married partners. Bouchard (2006) showed that two years after completing a measure of dyadic adjustment, cohabitating couples were more likely to have ended their relationships, even despite their current relationship satisfaction, than married couples. In addition, Stanley, Whitton, and Markman (2004) found married participants reported higher levels of satisfaction than cohabitating participants. Inconsistently, Moore, McCabe, and Brink (2001) established that married participants reported lower levels of relationship adjustment than dating and cohabitating couples. The authors suggest this result is due to a higher degree of commitment within married couples, thus married couples are continuing in poorer quality relationships. These results suggest relationship quality should be measured in each member of a couple to gain new insight into the quality and commitment association with types of relationships.

Third, commitment is often discussed as correlated with relationship quality and thus not measured as a separate concept. In her investment model, Rusbult (1980) suggests a reciprocal relationship between quality of relationship and commitment in intimate relationships. Rusbult et al. (1998) states that although commitment and satisfaction are positively correlated, they represent independent constructs and should be measured as such. Unfortunately, I did not include studies measuring dating and married couples in the same experiment as to compare effects. However, Mathes (1986) measured subjects' jealousy score and their relationship status, and then measured their relationship status seven years later. Those with higher jealousy scores were significantly more likely to have successful relationships. This longitudinal effect suggests that jealousy results in continued love and commitment in relationships.

Finally, I collected no unpublished effects and could not adequately test the file drawer effect. These results did not produce the typical one sided funnel that appears for effects in meta-analyses that demonstrate publication bias. There were several instances in experiments where relevant measures were used, but the association was not reported between jealousy and relationship quality. Unpublished studies and effects from studies including the data from these effects but not reporting them will provide a more comprehensive estimate of the effect. Based on the range of values in the current sample, unpublished effects will likely further support the present findings. Moderation analyses between unpublished and published effects will aid in resolving publication bias.

#### *Future Directions*

Buunk's (1991) can explain the findings of this study with the different types of jealousy described in his jealousy theory. Buunk conceptualizes jealousy as two different



concepts with two different outcomes for the people that experience them. Reactive jealousy produces positive effects on relationships whereas anxious and possessive jealousies produce negative effects. Buunk's theory is important because in it he acknowledges the differing effects of jealousy on relationships in ways that other theories do not. Other theorists predict a negative relationship between jealousy and relationship quality. Pfeiffer and Wong (1989) demonstrated that emotional, cognitive, and behavioral jealousies are associated with decreased relationship satisfaction. However, Pfeiffer and Wong's explanation of these results is less clear because they used cognitive, emotional, and behavioral jealousies intended to describe specific experiences of jealousy rather than to explain types of jealousy (Barelds & Barelds-Dijkstra, 2007; Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989).

Theories about positive effects of jealousy on relationship quality were not well tested in this study. Evolutionary theories and measures of sexual jealousy were not frequently compared with relationship quality. Second, the domain relevance hypothesis suggests that jealousy should increase relationship quality if a relationship is being threatened. Researchers of evolutionary theories and domain relevance suggest different potentially positive motives for expressing jealousy (Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Parrot, 1991). Future investigations of these jealousy theories should measure motivation for jealousy as well as the changing motivation for jealousy over time and over relationship context.

Because of the variability in effects of jealousy on relationship quality, there are many avenues for future research. The field of jealousy research has traditionally focused on the factors that cause jealousy reactions. I suggest, based on this review,

future research investigate the consequences of jealousy within relationships. Negative results such as partner mistrust and increase of jealousy-provoking behavior have not been investigated as products of jealousy. Possible positive results are increase in relationship maintenance behaviors and increase in communication about the relationship. Because these measures were not addressed in many of the studies included in this meta-analysis, it is likely that other moderating variables exist and could be identified. Variables that show the most promise in moderating the association between jealousy and relationship quality are specific measures of commitment, past relationship experience, and partner communication styles.

Finally, transactional or longitudinal jealousy measures are absent from research on relationships. Many theorists have indicated the transaction occurring between couples over time in relationships changes on a daily basis (Bringle, 1991; Rusbult et al, 1998). Transactions between partners include varying feelings of jealousy, insecurity, investment, trust, and relationship maintenance. Measuring relationship interactions without longitudinal measures ignores progress within relationships over time. The models also specify the interdependence of experiences between the partners (Wieselquist, Rusbult, Foster & Agnew, 1999). Measuring one partner in the relationship ignores the depth of interactions occurring between couples and within each individual. Future research should measure couple interactions over time for both partners on many factors.

The results from the present meta-analysis indicates a negative association between jealousy on relationship quality, although the association is small and between-study variability was common. The association between jealousy and relationship quality

may change in direction based on the type of jealousy expressed. Anxious and possessive jealousy were negatively correlated with relationship quality whereas reactive jealousy had a positive association. The current empirical findings in this field coupled with future longitudinal research and research involving data collection from both members of a dating or married pair would allow jealousy researchers to more clearly understand the dynamic associations among relationship variables such as commitment and relationship quality.

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## Footnotes

<sup>1</sup>I computed a random effects model based on the range of  $r$  values that is large (-.64, .77). Also, the fixed effects  $Q$ -between value is large ( $Q = 76.45$ ). Additionally, between-study variance accounts for 83% of the total variance in effects.

<sup>2</sup>Due to the high variability within the same study, averaging over these effects would be misleading. The high variability within studies was due to jealousy measures and gender.

<sup>3</sup>The effect of .77 was determined to be an outlier and was removed from all moderator analyses. Compared to my other effects it was extreme in its value. Also, the  $z$ -score of this correlation is 3.16. Removing this effect from the overall analysis did not change the effect, but in moderators with smaller samples it could potentially skew the results.



Table 1

Summary of study characteristics and effects.

Study <sup>a</sup>	Gender <sup>b</sup>	Sample Type <sup>c</sup>	Sample Characteristics <sup>d</sup>	<i>M</i> Length of Relationship (Mos.)	Jealousy Measure <sup>e</sup>	Relationship Quality Measure <sup>f</sup>	Sample Size	Effect Size	Confidence Interval	
									Low	High
Andersen et al (1995)	B	UC	D & M	115.2		H	346			
1. emotional					PE			-0.26	-0.65	0.24
2. cognitive					PC			-0.41	-0.74	0.08
Barelds & Barelds-Dijkstra (2007)	B	C	M & C							
1. reactive, relational, e2				288	BR	RISS	264	0.23	-0.27	0.64
2. reactive, maudsley, e1				264	BR	MMQ	392	0.19	-0.31	0.61
3. reactive, specific, e3				264	BR	M	1266	0.13	-0.36	0.56
4. possessive, relational, e2				288	BP	RISS	264	0.12	-0.38	0.56
5. possessive, maudsley, e1				264	BP	MMQ	392	0.11	-0.38	0.55
6. anxious, maudsley, e1				264	BA	MMQ	392	0.02	-0.46	0.49
7. possessive, specific, e3				264	BP	M	1266	-0.01	-0.47	0.46
8. anxious, specific, e3				264	BA	M	1266	-0.32	-0.68	0.17
9. anxious, relational, e2				288	BA	RISS	264	-0.51	-0.79	-0.05

Table 1 (continued)

Study <sup>a</sup>	Gender <sup>b</sup>	Sample Type <sup>c</sup>	Sample Characteristics <sup>d</sup>	<i>M</i> Length of Relationship (Mos.)	Jealousy Measure <sup>e</sup>	Relationship Quality Measure <sup>f</sup>	Sample Size	Effect Size	Confidence Interval	
									Low	High
Barelds & Dijkstra (2006)		C	M & C			RISS				
1. reactive, m, ht	M			222	BR		70	0.34	-0.20	0.72
2. reactive, f, ht	F			212	BR		70	0.31	-0.23	0.70
3. possessive, m, ht	M			222	BP		70	0.05	-0.47	0.54
4. possessive, f, hm	F			80.4	BP		79	0.00	-0.50	0.50
5. possessive, f, ht	F			212	BP		70	-0.01	-0.51	0.50
6. reactive, f, hm	F			80.4	BR		79	-0.03	-0.52	0.48
7. reactive, m, hm	M			134.4	BR		76	-0.12	-0.59	0.41
8. anxious, f, hm	F			80.4	BA		79	-0.16	-0.61	0.37
9. possessive, m, hm	M			134.4	BP		76	-0.20	-0.64	0.34
10. anxious, m, ht	M			222	BA		70	-0.26	-0.68	0.28
11. anxious, f, ht	F			212	BA		70	-0.35	-0.73	0.19
12. anxious, m, hm	M			134.4	BA		76	-0.63	-0.86	-0.19
Barnett et al (1995)	M	C	M & C	-	W	LMAT	180	-0.44	-0.76	0.05

Table 1 (continued)

Study <sup>a</sup>	Gender <sup>b</sup>	Sample Type <sup>c</sup>	Sample Characteristics <sup>d</sup>	<i>M</i> Length of Relationship (Mos.)	Jealousy Measure <sup>e</sup>	Relationship Quality Measure <sup>f</sup>	Sample Size	Effect Size	Confidence Interval	
									Low	High
Guerrero & Eloy (1992)	B	UC	M	134.4		DAS	66			
1. emotional					PE			-0.31	-0.71	0.23
2. behavioral					PB			-0.43	-0.77	0.10
3. cognitive					PC			-0.64	-0.87	-0.20
Hansen (1983)	M	C	M	128.4			49			
1. sexual, future					HS	DAS-FOM		0.42	-0.14	0.77
2. emotional, future					HE	DAS-FOM		0.28	-0.28	0.70
3. sexual, happiness					HS	DAS-MH		0.03	-0.50	0.54
4. emotional, happiness					HE	DAS-MH		0.02	-0.50	0.54
Knobloch et al (2001)	B	U	CD & D	17.98		R	132			
1. emotional					PE			0.00	-0.49	0.49
2. cognitive					PC			-0.24	-0.65	0.28

Table 1 (continued)

Study <sup>a</sup>	Gender <sup>b</sup>	Sample Type <sup>c</sup>	Sample Characteristics <sup>d</sup>	<i>M</i> Length of Relationship (Mos.)	Jealousy Measure <sup>e</sup>	Relationship Quality Measure <sup>f</sup>	Sample Size	Effect Size	Confidence Interval	
									Low	High
Massar et al (2009)		U	D	-		RISS				
1. m, specific 1	M				M		15	0.77	0.26	0.94
2. m, specific 2	M				M		15	0.29	-0.43	0.78
3. f, specific 1	F				M		21	0.00	-0.59	0.59
4. f, specific 2	F				M		21	-0.13	-0.67	0.50
Mathes (1986)	B	U	CD & D	9.9	I	M	40	0.32	-0.26	0.73
Mathes & Severa (1981)		U	CD, D, M		I		79			
1. m, specific 1	M					M		0.47	-0.04	0.79
2. f, specific 1	F					M		0.41	-0.11	0.76
3. m, specific 2	M					M		0.28	-0.26	0.68
4. f, specific 2	F					M		0.15	-0.38	0.60
McIntosh & Tate (1990)	B	U	CD & D	-	J	M	185	-0.16	-0.59	0.35
Nadler & Dotan (1992)		C	M	-	M	M				
1. f	F						76	0.23	-0.31	0.66
2. m	M						70	0.12	-0.41	0.59

Table 1 (continued)

Study <sup>a</sup>	Gender <sup>b</sup>	Sample Type <sup>c</sup>	Sample Characteristics <sup>d</sup>	M Length of Relationship (Mos.)	Jealousy Measure <sup>e</sup>	Relationship Quality Measure <sup>f</sup>	Sample Size	Effect Size	Confidence Interval	
									Low	High
Pazak (1998)		UC	M	188.64	CIFA	DAS				
1. m	M						33	-0.30	-0.73	0.30
2. f	F						52	-0.39	-0.76	0.16
Shrestha et al (1985)	M	C	M & C	180	SJ		74			
1. specific 1						M		-0.34	-0.72	0.20
2. specific 2						M		-0.43	-0.77	0.09
Theiss & Solomon (2006)	B	U	A, F, CD, D	13.82		R & M	295			
1. emotional					PE			0.12	-0.37	0.56
2. cognitive					PC			-0.48	-0.78	-0.01
Yela (2000)	B	U	CD & D	36			206			
1. sexual, loving, m					SJ	LS		-0.13	-0.57	0.37
2. emotional, sexual sat, f					EJ	SS		-0.16	-0.59	0.34
3. emotional, loving, f					EJ	LS		-0.22	-0.63	0.29

Note: Dashes indicate information that was unavailable or not reported. Mean length of relationship is reported in months.

<sup>a</sup>Study: emotional = emotional jealousy, cognitive = cognitive jealousy, possessive = possessive jealousy, anxious = anxious jealousy, m = male, f = female, both = males & females, maudslay = Maudsley Marital Questionnaire, relational = Relational Interaction Satisfaction Scale, specific = measure specific to study, sexual = sexual jealousy, behavioral = behavioral jealousy, loving = Loving satisfaction, sexual sat = Sexual satisfaction, happiness = Dyadic Adjustment Scale marital happiness, future = Dyadic Adjustment Scale future of marriage, e1 = experiment 1, e2 = experiment 2, e3 = experiment 3, hm = homosexual participants, ht = heterosexual participants.

<sup>b</sup>Gender: M = male, F = female, B = male and female

<sup>c</sup>Sample Type: U = undergraduate college students, C = community sample, UC = undergraduates & community.

<sup>d</sup>Sample Characteristics: A = acquaintances, F = friends, CD = casually dating, D = serious dating, E = engaged, M = married, C = cohabitating.

<sup>e</sup>Jealousy Measure: BR = Buunk's Reactive Jealousy Scale, BA = Buunk's Anxious Jealousy Scale, BP = Buunk's Possessive Jealousy Scale, CIFA = California Inventory for Family Assessment, HS = Hansen's Jealousy Producing Events Sexual, HE = Hansen's Jealousy Producing Events Emotional, J = Jealousy Coping Scale, I = Interpersonal Jealousy Scale, PC = Pfeiffer & Wong's Jealousy Scale Cognitive, PE = Pfeiffer & Wong's Jealousy Scale Emotional, PB = Pfeiffer and Wong's Jealousy Scale Behavioral, M = measure specific to study, SJ = sexual jealousy, W = White's Chronic Jealousy Scale

<sup>f</sup>Relationship Quality Measure: DAS = Dyadic Adjustment Scale, DAS-FOM = Dyadic Adjustment Scale future of marriage subscale, DAS-MH = Dyadic Adjustment Scale marital happiness subscale, H = Hendrick's Relationship Assessment Scale, R = Rubin's Love scale, M = measure specific to study, L = loving satisfaction, SS = Sexual satisfaction, MMQ = Maudsley Marital Questionnaire, RISS = Relational Interaction Satisfaction Scale, LMAT = Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Tests.

Table 2

Moderator analyses for jealousy and relationship quality.

Moderator	<i>k</i>	Standardized beta	<i>Q<sub>B</sub></i>	<i>Mr</i>	Confidence Interval		<i>z</i>
					Low	High	
Type of Relationship			2.08				
Dating	16			0.02	-0.11	0.15	0.30
Cohabiting or Married	35			-0.10	-0.19	0.01	-2.22
Length of Relationship	47	-0.03					
Type of Jealousy			12.42**				
Reactive	7			0.16	-0.07	0.39	1.33
Possessive	9			-0.07	-0.24	0.10	0.80
Anxious	7			-0.33	-0.51	-0.13	3.42**
General	13			0.08	-0.10	0.26	0.90
Type of Relationship Quality			0.44				
DAS	9			-0.17	-0.04	0.06	1.42
RISS	18			-0.08	-0.24	0.08	1.00

\*\*Value significant at  $p < .01$ .

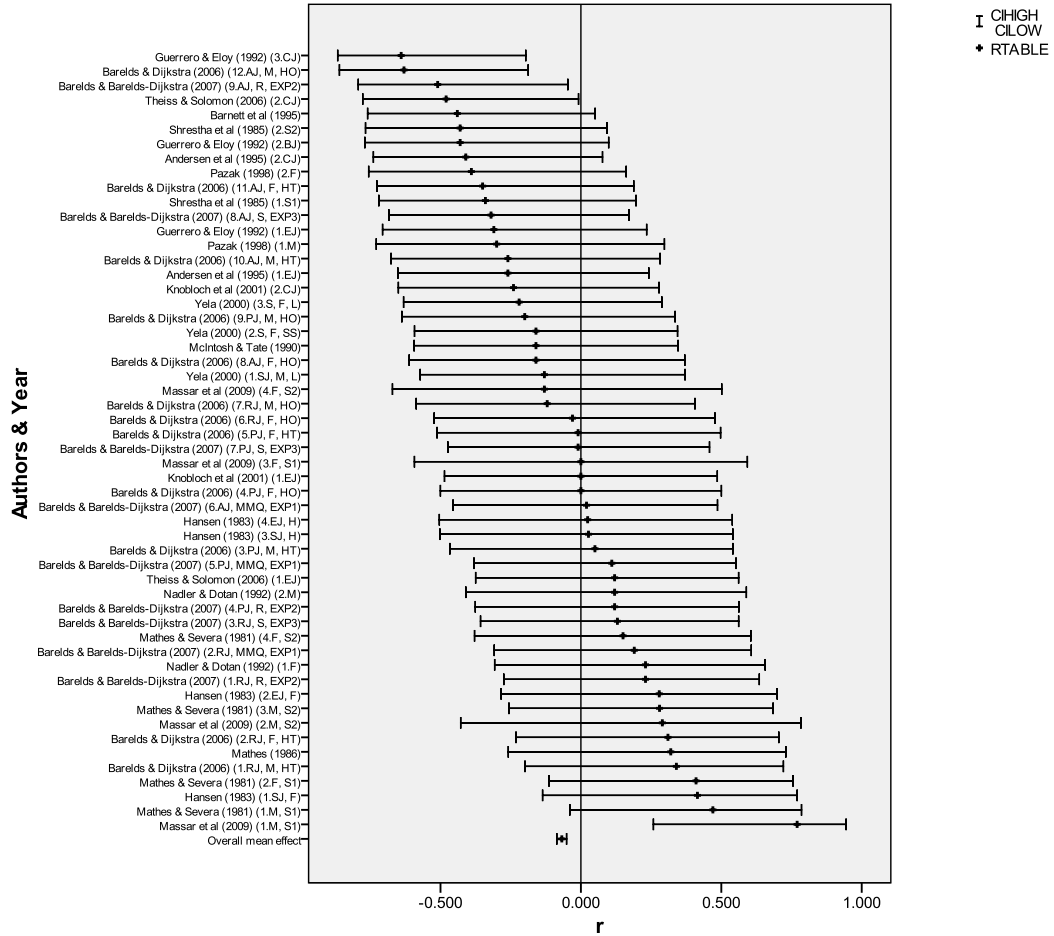


Figure 1. Forest plot of Pearson correlation coefficients and confidence intervals of the effect of jealousy on relationship quality. Plot includes overall mean effect size.

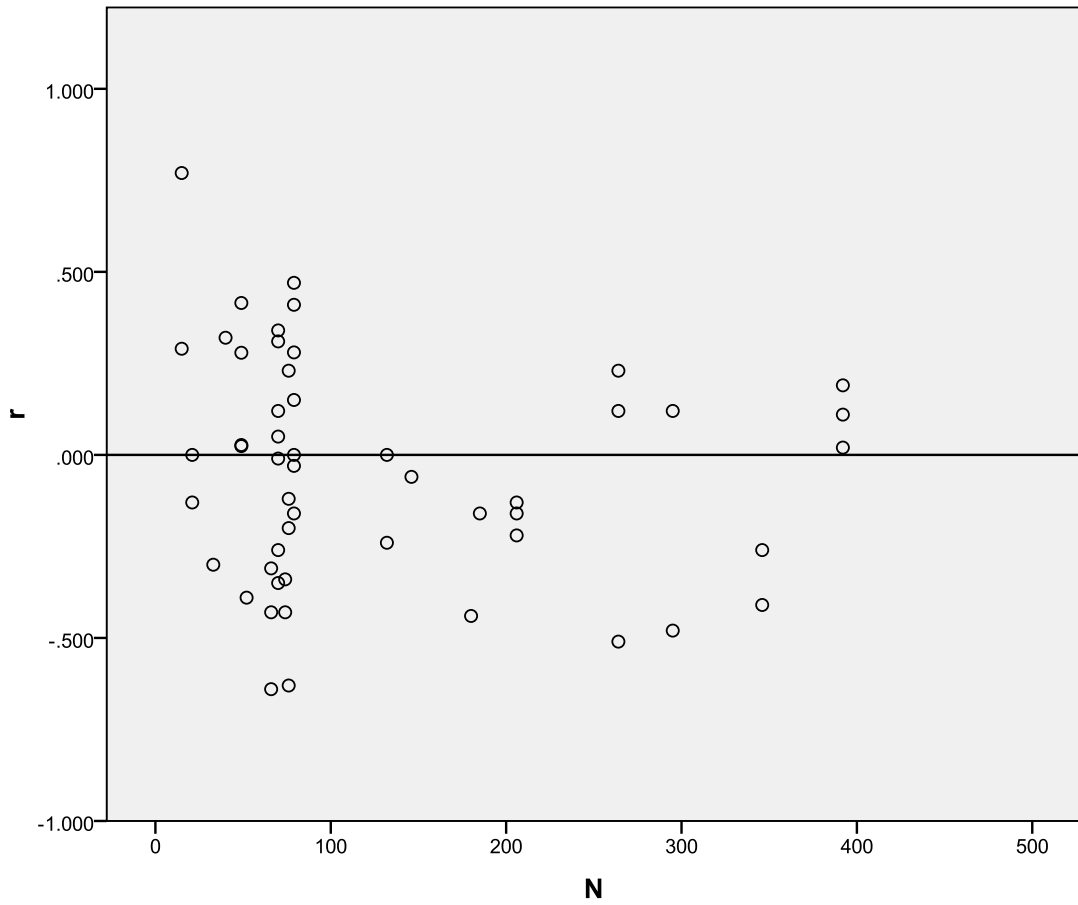


Figure 2. Funnel plot of studies evaluating the association between jealousy and relationship quality.



## Vita

Melissa Ann Newberry was born She was raised in Ashburn, VA. Then she attended James Madison University in Harrisonburg, VA, where she received her Bachelors of Science in Psychology in 2007. Subsequently, she worked as a child care supervisor for one year in Sterling, VA. Then she attended The University of North Florida, where she received her Masters of Arts in General Psychology in 2010.