

DOĐUŐ UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

MASTER OF ARTS IN CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

**WOMEN FROM VENUS, MEN FROM MARS?
THE INFLUENCE OF SEXUAL ORIENTATION, GENDER ROLES
AND RELATIONSHIP EXPERIENCES ON
EVOLVED SEX DIFFERENCES IN ROMANTIC JEALOUSY**

Graduation Thesis

Yađmur Güzde YERLİKAYA

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Thesis Advisor:

Assist. Prof. Hasan G. Bahçekapılı

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PREFACE

This thesis is submitted for the degree of Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology at the Dođuş University. The research described herein was conducted under the supervision of Assist. Prof. Hasan G. Bahekapılı between May 2014 and May 2015. This study is an original, unpublished, and independent work by the author.

This work aims to explore how the evolutionary predicted sex differences in jealousy would emerge in Turkey. In addition to examining the evolutionary model, this study also aims to investigate the possible effects of several variables such as sexual orientation, relationship status, relationship experience, previous infidelity experience, being unfaithful, gender roles and perspectives on sex differences in jealousy.

Istanbul, May 2015

Yađmur Gzde YERLİKAYA

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all, I would like to offer my greatest appreciation and gracious thanks to my dear supervisor Assist. Prof. Hasan Bahçekapılı. He is the wisest man I have ever known, and without his support, friendship, patience, and especially understanding, it would be a very boring duty to me. Thanks to him, I made this job with pleasure. He is very precious for me and I feel so lucky to have this chance to know him and work with him.

If I survived on this journey, the only reason was the wonderful supports coming from my precious friends, literally angels, Bahar Erol, Dilara Alcan and Merve Yılmaz. Without them, it definitely would be impossible to finish this study. And also without them, life would be really boring, I can see this clearly now. I did not realize before how lucky I am to have them. Thanks life.

My family, my father, my mother, and my beautiful sister, always supported me, in every steps of my life. There is no word to explain how I love them and how thankful I am to them not only for this long journey, for everything. I'm really lucky since my birth and I literally had a wonderful life, thanks to them.

If I succeed in this graduate program, all my professors from my graduate programs have a role in this success. I want to offer my thanks to all my professors from Doğuş University. Namely, I thank Assist. Prof. Ekin Eremsoy, Assist. Prof. Gülin Güneri, Assist. Prof. Ahmet Tosun, Prof. Falih Köksal and Assoc. Prof. Aylin İlden Koçkar who provided me with the background to complete my thesis.

I would like to thank each members of my thesis committee. I thank Assist. Prof. Engin Arık and Prof. Falih Köksal for their advices, supports and feedbacks.

Meanwhile, I want to thank to an old friend who gave me this idea and then gave me the worst pain of my life. I suffered, and now I am better and stronger after this offending life lesson. Thanks to you, I will never forget that.

Finally, I dedicate this work to my dearest professor, Prof. Nuri Bilgin.

Rest in peace good person. You were unique.

ABSTRACT

Jealousy is one of the most interesting issues when it comes to romantic relationships. Many arguments which suggest some fundamental differences among men and women about romantic jealousy exist. The most ambitious prediction about sex differences in jealousy comes from an evolutionary perspective. Accordingly, men are more upset over a mate's sexual infidelity, because men face the risk of unwittingly investing in genetically unrelated offspring in this case. Women, on the other hand, are more upset over a mate's emotional infidelity, because women face the risk of men going away with his resources in this case (Buss et al., 1992). These threats are loss for reproductive fitness; therefore jealousy has evolved as sex-specific. From this point of view, evolutionary psychologists found the predicted sex differences using empirical methods (e.g. Sagarin, 2012b). Yet this prediction has not been supported by every researcher (e.g. Harris, 2003a), and some of them suggested alternative social factors which could influence sex differences in jealousy. The aim of the present study was to explore how the predicted sex differences in jealousy would emerge in Turkey and also, to investigate the possible effects of several variables such as sexual orientation, relationship status, relationship experience, previous infidelity experience, being unfaithful, gender roles and perspectives on sex differences in jealousy. The sample of the study consisted of 213 heterosexual men, 296 heterosexual women, 50 homosexual men, 31 homosexual women, and 40 others (e.g. bisexuals, asexuals, etc.) with an average age of 27.33. Participants completed a set of questionnaires including the questionnaire which comprises hypothetical infidelity dilemma (Buss et al., 1992), Bem Sex Role Inventory, Gender Roles Attitudes Scale and various related demographic questions. According to the results, 89.6% of women reported greater distress over their partner's emotional infidelity predominantly; whereas men were almost equally distressed by the two types of infidelity. Gay men were more distressed over emotional infidelity compared to heterosexual men. On the other hand, other variables (e.g. relationship status, infidelity experience, gender roles) generally did not moderate the decisions of infidelity type. The results are discussed in relation to the evolutionary hypothesis and the alternative social perspectives.

Key words: Sex differences in jealousy, evolutionary psychology, homosexuals, gender roles, romantic relationships, jealousy.

ÖZET

Romantik ilişkilerde kıskançlık, oldukça ilginç bir konudur. Uzun yıllardır kadın ve erkek için kıskançlığı ortaya çıkarıcı farklı değişkenler tartışılmaktadır. Önemli iddialardan biri evrimsel bakış açısından gelir. Buna göre, kadınlar duygusal sadakatsizliği, erkekler ise cinsel sadakatsizliği daha rahatsız edici bulurlar. Çünkü kadınlar için başkasına aşık olan partner kaynaklarıyla birlikte gidecektir, ve erkekler için de başkasıyla yatan partner çocuğun kendinden olup olmadığı şüphesini arttıracaktır; ve bu riskler evrimin gerektirdiği üreme başarısını ketleyici niteliktedir. Evrimsel psikologlar bu iddiayı çok kez sınımış ve beklenen cinsiyet farkını yakalamışlardır. Ancak bu iddiaya karşı çıkan birçok başka araştırmacının da varlığı söz konusudur ki onlar çeşitli sosyal değişkenlerin kıskançlık üzerine etkili olduğunu ileri sürmektedirler. Buradan yola çıkarak bu araştırmanın amacı, Türkiye'de kıskançlık üzerine cinsiyet farklarını sınamanın yanında, bu farka etkisi olabilecek cinsel yönelim, ilişki durumu, ilişki deneyimi, aldatma ve aldatılma deneyimi, cinsiyet rolleri gibi başka değişkenleri de incelemektir. Araştırmanın örneklemi 213 heteroseksüel erkek, 296 heteroseksüel kadın, 50 homoseksüel erkek, 31 homoseksüel kadın ve diğer 40 kişiden (örn. biseksüel, aseksüel) oluşmaktadır. Katılımcıların yaş ortalaması 27.33'tür. Araştırmanın soru anketi hipotetik sadakatsizlik ölçeği, Bem Cinsiyet Rollerini Envanteri (BSRI), Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rollerini Envanteri (GRAS) ve çeşitli demografik bilgileri sorgulayan giriş kısmından oluşmaktadır. Anket çoğunlukla internet üzerinden doldurulmuştur. Sonuçlarda, kadınların %89.6'sının duygusal sadakatsizlikten rahatsız olduğu; erkeklerinse iki sadakatsizlik türünden hemen hemen eşit derecede rahatsız olduğu gözlenmiştir. Homoseksüel erkekler, heteroseksüel erkeklerden anlamlı şekilde daha fazla duygusal sadakatsizlikten rahatsızlık duymuşlardır. İlişki durumu, aldatılma deneyimi gibi incelenen diğer değişkenler ise, sadakatsizlik seçimleri üzerinde çok fazla bir etki yaratmamıştır. Sonuç olarak bulgular, ne evrimsel ne de sosyal açıklamaları koşulsuz derecede destekler nitelikte değildir. Detaylar tartışma bölümünde sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: kıskançlıkta cinsiyet farklılıkları, evrimsel teori, eşcinseller, cinsiyet rolleri, romantik ilişkiler, kıskançlık.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CSB: Content Specific Beliefs

CSB1: First item of CSB

CSB2: Second item of CSB

CSB3: Third item of CSB

CSB4: Fourth item of CSB

CSP: Content Specific Perspectives

CSP1: First item of CSP

CSP2: second item of CSP

CSP3: Third item of CSP

CSP4: Fourth item of CSP

BSRI: Bem Sex Role Inventory

GRAS: Gender Role Attitudes Inventory

1. INTRODUCTION

Jealousy is one of the most interesting and intriguing issue when it comes to romantic relationships. On daily life, some say jealousy is the shadow of love, while other say jealousy is some kind of proof of being in love. Sometimes people think that either being or not being jealous depends on characteristics or even horoscope traits.

In terms of the scientific view; jealousy is a complex human emotion which may involve varying degrees of anger, anxiety, and sadness. It is usually provoked by perceived threat to a dyadic relationship (Daly & Wilson, 1983 cited in Sheets & Wolfe, 2001). It is hard to say that one sex is more jealous than the other, according to some researches, men and women express jealousy in very different ways (Buss, 2000; Fisher, 1992). Women, for example, are more likely to cry, self-blame themselves, make themselves more attractive, try to make their partners jealous (Pines, 2003), or ignore their jealous feelings for salvage the relationship (Fisher, 1992; Pines, 2003). Men, on the other hand, are more likely to express their jealous feelings by becoming angry (Pines, 2003), and terminate the relationship in order to maintain their self-esteem and pride (Fisher, 1992; Shackelford, Buss, & Bennet, 2002).

Beside expressing jealousy, both men and women experience romantic jealousy in the first place. The main point is the existence of many arguments which suggest some fundamental differences among men and women about romantic jealousy.

1.1. Evolutionary Perspective and Jealousy: Evolved Sex-Specific Mechanism

In his Parental Investment Theory, Trivers (1972) emphasized different parental roles for male and female species with internal fertilization and gestation. Females get pregnant, give birth and pay close attention to their children. They also become physically vulnerable with them. Males, on the other hand, are obliged to look after females and their children by providing food, safe accommodation, and protection. In this case, females are vulnerable to desertion, whereas males are always vulnerable to cuckoldry (Trivers, 1972). From this point of view, evolutionary psychologists have been examining the 'jealousy conflict' for many years.

Humans as most of all species have the inherent urge to reproduction for maintaining their genus. In order to fulfill this urge, convenient mate selection and then mate retention must be ensured. Threats to mate retention come from two sources: The first is rivals, who dare to allure the mate either for sex or for a long-term relationship. The second is the mate's infidelity, which might be a short-term sexual infidelity or a long-term defection from the relationship. Both threats seem to be quite disruptive either for the relationship or for the reproduction, so it can be said that these threats are adaptive problems. Hence evolutionary psychologists have hypothesized that, because of its cognitive/emotional complex and behavioral output of tactics of mate protection, jealousy is an adaptation for mate retention (Buss, 2008). In other words, jealousy is an innate mechanism acquired through millions of years that is supposed to protect humans from reproductive threats.

Considering what is evolutionarily advantageous for both sexes, men tend to increase sexual variety by having more sex with different persons and being more likely to cheat in order to spread their genes more (Buss, 2000). On the other side, women are more likely to be selective about having sex because of the need of acquiring convenient sources. For this reason, getting pregnant by somebody who can't provide adequate resources has severe consequences for both the woman and her offspring (Barash & Lipton, 2001 cited in Buss, 2008).

According to the theory of evolved sex differences in jealousy (Buss, Larsen, Westen, & Semmelroth, 1992; Daly, Wilson, & Weghorst, 1982; Symons, 1979 cited in Buss et al., 1992); men are more upset over a mate's sexual infidelity (having sexual relationship with someone else) than emotional infidelity (falling in love with someone else), while women are more upset over a mate's emotional infidelity than sexual infidelity. Evolutionary psychologists explain this difference on the basis of the need for reproductive fitness. In other words, males can never be certain about the children are their own, so there is always a risk that they might be cuckolded. If this risk actually happen, then male would invest -provide his resources and care- in another male's offspring, and it would be a big loss for him and for reproductive fitness. Thus, males can be sensitive and anxious about sexual infidelity. Females, on the other hand, are always sure that the children are their own and they invest heavily in reproduction by being pregnant, giving birth and paying close attention to the baby for a long time. By reason of this high parental investment, a female

enhances her reproductive fitness by having a long-term mate who will always support her with his investments. In this case, emotional infidelity means mate going away with his resources, so it seems to be more upsetting to a female.

The exploration and testing of this sex difference empirically began with Buss et al. in 1992. They created brief scenarios which are asking participants to imagine their partner's infidelity and made them choose only one option with a forced-choice paradigm. The famous dilemma, which have been using in most of the relevant research, asked about whether the participant found the emotional or the sexual infidelity more distressing. As a result of Buss and his colleagues' study, men (60%) were significantly more distressed by sexual infidelity than women (17%), whereas women (83%) were significantly more distressed by emotional infidelity than men (40%). In the same study, they also measured participants' physiological activities (electro-dermal activity, pulse rate, muscle tension) while imagining sexual infidelity versus emotional infidelity. Similar sex differences were found; men showed greater physiological activity while imagining sexual infidelity compared to emotional infidelity, and women showed increased physiological activity while imagining emotional infidelity compared to sexual infidelity (Buss et al., 1992).

Potential sex differences were then examined cross-culturally among participants from Germany, the Netherlands, the United States (Buunk, Angleitner, Oubaid & Buss, 1996), China (Geary, Rumsey, Bow-Thomas, & Hoard, 1995), Korea, Japan (Buss et al., 1999), Sweden (Wiederman & Kendall, 1999), Austria (Voracek, 2001), England, Romania (Brase, Caprar, & Voracek, 2004), Brazil (DeSouza, Verderane, Taire, & Otta, 2006), Spain, Chile (Fernandez, Vera-Villaruel, Sierra, & Zubeidat, 2007), Ireland (Whitty & Quigley, 2008), Norway (Kennair, Nordeide, Andreassen, Stronen, & Pallesen, 2011) and the Himba of Namibia (Scelza, 2014). According to findings, evolutionary psychological model was supported, although the magnitude of the sex differences in jealousy differed across cultures. Men in all cultures reported more distress to sexual infidelity, while women reported more distress to emotional infidelity. Across a multitude of studies, significant sex differences were found as similar, even if some of the researchers were strongly arguing the findings in different ways (e.g., Brase, Adair, & Monk, 2014; Burchell & Ward 2011; Cramer, Abraham, Johnson, & Manning-Ryan, 2001; Cramer, Lipinski, Meteer, & Houska, 2008; DeSteno & Salovey, 1996; DeSteno, Bartlett, Braverman, &

Salovey, 2002; Edlund, Heider, Scherer, Farc, & Sagarin, 2006; Fenigstein & Peltz, 2002; Frederick & Fales, 2014; Fussell & Stollery, 2012; Gaulin, Silverman, Phillips, & Reiber, 1997; Goldenberg et al., 2003; Harris & Christenfeld, 1996; Demirtaş, 2004; Harris, 2002; Harris, 2003a; Harris, 2003b; Hupka & Bank, 1996; Lishner, Nguyen, Stocks, & Zillmer, 2008; Michalski, Shackelford, & Salmon, 2007; Murphy, Vallacher, Shackelford, Bjorklund, & Yunger, 2006; Penke & Asendorph, 2008; Pietrzak, Laird, Stevens, & Thompson, 2002; Sabini & Green, 2004; Sagarin, Becker, Guadagno, Nicastle, & Millevoi, 2003; Sagarin, Becker, Guadagno, Wilkinson, Nicastle, 2012a; Sagarin et al., 2012b; Schützwohl, 2004; Schützwohl, 2006; Schützwohl, 2008; Schützwohl & Koch, 2004; Shackelford et al., 2002; Shackelford, Voracek, Schmitt, Buss, Weekes-Shackelford, & Michalski, 2004; Sheets & Wolfe, 2001; Strout, Laird, Shafe, & Thompson, 2005; Tagler, 2010; Takahashi, Matsuura, Yahata, Koeda, Suhara, & Okubo, 2006; Varga, Gee, & Munro, 2011; Ward & Voracek, 2004; Wiederman & Kendall, 1999; Zengel, Edlund, & Sagarin, 2013).

In order to support the evolutionary sex differences in jealousy with different aspects compared to forced-choice dilemma have been examining for years. For example; Shackelford et al. (2002) and Confer and Cloud (2011) found that men find it more difficult to forgive sexual infidelity than women and are more likely to terminate the relationship following sexual infidelity than emotional infidelity. Another study with cognitive designs showed that men preferentially process and have greater memory recall of cues to sexual infidelity, whereas women preferentially process and have greater memory recall of cues to emotional infidelity (Schützwohl & Koch, 2004).

Buss et al. (2000) stated that men especially distressed by rivals with more resources, while women especially distressed by threats from physically attractive rivals. Moreover, men who paired with physically attractive women and women who paired with more resource-endowed men exhibited more jealous mate-guarding (Buss & Shackelford, 1997). According to Gangestad and colleagues' (2002) research, men's jealous mate-guarding has increased near the time of their female partner's ovulation period in which women's sexual infidelity probability is increasing (Gangestad, Thornhill, & Garver, 2002).

Schützwohl (2004) measured the reaction times while participants were selecting the type of infidelity which would make them more upset. He found that men who select sexual infidelity reached their decision faster than men select emotional infidelity. On the other hand, women who select emotional infidelity reacted faster than women select sexual infidelity. His another study (2006) showed that when suspecting infidelity, men actively searched for cues about sexual infidelity and more occupied with thoughts about a mate's sexual infidelity; while women were prone to search for cues about emotional infidelity and more occupied with thoughts about a mate's emotional infidelity (Schützwohl, 2006). Furthermore, Schützwohl (2008) found that when imagining scenarios of emotional and sexual infidelity, more women feel relieved to know that emotional infidelity had not occurred even in the face of sexual infidelity; and more men feel relieved to know that sexual infidelity had not occurred even emotional infidelity happened.

1.2. Evolved Sex-Specific Mechanism: Not without Its Critics

DeSteno and Salovey (1996) proposed a "double-shot hypothesis" to explain Buss et al.'s (1992) evolutionary model of sex difference in jealousy. They asserted men are more upset than women by sexual infidelity because of the idea that if a woman having sex with someone else, she has also been emotionally attached with other person. Similarly, women are more upset than men about emotional infidelity since women believe that when a man is emotionally unfaithful, he must also be sexually unfaithful. Testing this hypothesis, they found that participants' beliefs about co-occurrence of emotional and sexual infidelity were significant predictors of which type of infidelity was chosen as more upsetting. In the same year, Harris and Christenfeld (1996) proposed the same idea as "two-for-one hypothesis" and supported Desteno and Salovey's (1996) research with their similar findings. They also suggested that the significance of sex difference occurs because of the substantial percentages of women being more distressed by emotional infidelity.

In response to "double-shot hypothesis", Buss et al. (1999) conducted many studies in the United States, Korea and Japan and tested their hypothesis by rendering the types of infidelity either mutually exclusive (only one of the infidelity types happened; e.g. a deep emotional but not sexual; sexual but not emotional) or combined (both infidelity types happened). Results indicated that sex differences still existed; men reported more distress

by sexual infidelity with no emotional involvement whereas women reported more distress by emotional infidelity with no sexual involvement. When Buss (2000) replicated this study with more adult participants, similar results were found as predicted by the evolutionary model.

Harris (2000) argued that Buss et al.'s (1992) physiological findings, which were strong supports for evolutionary explanation of sex differences in jealousy, had failed to show clear evidence. She suggested that men might have shown greater physiological reactivity while imagining sexual infidelity because of that men show comparably greater reactivity to sexual imagery than emotional imagery. She also emphasized that this physiological reactivity such as increased blood pressure, heart rate and sweating can occur as a result of variety of emotions like anger, fear, or even sexual excitement. In her results, men showed the same degree of increased physiological reactivity when they imagined their partner's sexual infidelity as they experienced when imagining themselves having sexual relationship. Moreover, women's physiological response elicited while imagining emotional infidelity was not significantly greater than while elicited while imagining sexual infidelity. Also, a recent study suggested that the sex differences in jealousy resulted from men's tendency to imagine sexual infidelity more vividly than women. However, when sexual infidelity was imagined in a laboratory using vivid infidelity scenarios and photographs to induce detailed imagery, no significant sex differences in jealousy were found (Kato, 2014a).

Further support for the evolutionary hypothesis was lent by Pietrzak et al. (2002), who measured the predicted sex differences using heart rate, electrodermal activity (skin conductance), electromyographic activity (brow corrugators contraction) and skin temperature as physiological measures. Another study also found the predicted sex differences using fMRI techniques, which measure neuropsychological activation. In the findings of this study, men and women showed different brain activation patterns in response to the two types of infidelity. Women showed more activation in the posterior superior temporal sulcus, while men showed more activation in the amygdala and hypothalamus than women (Takahashi et al., 2006).

While criticizing the evolutionary perspective, DeSteno et al. (2002) questioned the methodology of studies which had supported the sex differences in jealousy predicted by the evolutionary theory. In their study, results showed that sex differences in jealousy resulting from sexual versus emotional infidelity were observed only when using a forced-choice response format, but not observed in all other measures such as likert-scale, agree-disagree measure and check list. Furthermore, it was found that both men and women reported more distress in response to sexual jealousy when used the other measures. Harris (2003a) also reported that when continuous measures were used, the sex difference often did not emerge. Eventually, a number of studies indicated that when using independent rating scales to measure reactions to sexual and to emotional infidelity, significant sex differences were not detected (e.g., DeSteno & Salovey, 1996; DeSteno et al., 2002; DeSteno 2010; Green & Sabini, 2006; Harris, 2003a; Tagler 2010). Also, a recent meta-analysis supported this claim (Carpenter, 2012).

While testing jealousy whether evolved sex-specific mechanism or not, forced-choice format have been often using from the beginning because scale types tend to yield ceiling effects (i.e. all types of infidelity likely to be rated as extremely upsetting) (Brase et al., 2014; Buss et al., 1999; Edlund et al., 2006). As a support to the evolutionary model, another group of authors examined sex differences in jealousy using both forced-choice and continuous measures and stated that the predicted sex differences were found (e.g., Edlund et al., 2006; Edlund & Sagarin, 2009; Pietrzak et al., 2002; Sagarin et al., 2003). So, it was indicated that men find sexual infidelity more upsetting and women find emotional infidelity more upsetting. In addition, a recent meta-analysis of 45 such studies showed that sex differences in jealousy were not an artifact of response format (Sagarin et al., 2012b).

In their study, DeSteno et al. (2002) tested the theory of innate jealousy as claimed in evolutionary explanation. They reported that sex differences on the forced-choice measure disappeared under cognitions of cognitive constraint such as trying to remember a string of digits. Women tended to select sexual infidelity as more distressing compared to emotional one while making a choice under cognitive constraint. Yet in the control group, women selected emotional infidelity as more upsetting infidelity type. However, load condition did not influence men's choices.

In response to DeSteno et al. (2002), Sagarin (2005) reanalyzed their data finding evidence of a sex difference under cognitive constraint. According to results, DeSteno et al.'s cognitive load manipulation did not make the sex difference disappear. Rather, cognitive load decreased sex difference, but a significant sex difference remained under cognitive constraint.

Moreover, results from Harris's (2003a) meta-analysis of 32 samples revealed a moderate effect size for sex differences in jealousy as predicted by the evolutionary psychologists, when forced-choice questions were used. However, this effect size increased when samples of homosexual individuals and adults aged 26 years and more were excluded from the analysis.

It was frequently criticized that most of the participants were college students in many evolutionary supported studies. According to her meta-analysis's findings, Harris (2003a) concluded the prediction that student status would increase the size of the sex differences because young men tend to be more focused on sexuality than older men. Some studies also showed that when sample's mean age increased, evolutionary predicted sex difference disappeared (Harris, 2002; Sabini & Green, 2004). Likewise Harris's (2003a) findings, Carpenter (2012) found that sexual infidelity was more distressing than emotional infidelity in U.S. students in his recent meta-analysis. On the contrary, U.S. nonstudents and international samples of men were more likely to choose emotional infidelity as more upsetting than sexual infidelity.

However, another group of authors who examined sex differences in jealousy stated that the evolutionary predicted sex differences were reported among undergraduate students and working adults (Edlund et al., 2006). Groothof, Dijkstra, and Barelds (2009) also found the same results with Dutch college students and adults (mean age 48). The majority of men selecting sexual infidelity as more distressing and the majority of women selecting emotional infidelity pattern were also indicated in DeSteno & Salovey's (1996) study with a mean age of approximately 45 years adults, reported in Shackelford et al.'s (2004) study with a sample of retirement community residents (mean age 67), and Zengel et al.'s (2013) recent study also with participants whose ages were ranged from 18 to 93 (mean 47).

It should be noted that even in spite of meta-analysis of Sagarin (2012b) who was known for a supporter of evolutionary model, student vs. nonstudent samples issue was elusive. According to the findings of meta-analysis, analyses with student samples produced significantly larger effects than did studies with nonstudent samples. These larger effects in younger and student samples were similar with Harris's (2003a) findings. But a recent study with a sample of 63,894 participants revealed that there was no significant difference between younger and older participants' responses, and younger individuals were not notably more upset by sexual infidelity than individuals in contrast to Harris's (2003a) suggesting (Frederick & Fales, 2014).

Additionally, the important counter-view of Harris with the "social-cognitive theory" can take an important part of this literature. Harris's (2003a, 2003b) social-cognitive perspective of jealousy offers a prediction which was fundamentally different from the evolutionary theory of jealousy. She argued that jealousy as an evolved-mechanism is not focused on the differential adaptive value of the two types of infidelity. It is not beneficial for men to look for cues of sexual infidelity since such a cue would be already too late. In addition, sexual and emotional infidelity cues are usually inextricably intertwined and culture specific. So rather than a content-specific mechanism, a general mechanism would be more necessary for detecting infidelity.

According to the social-cognitive theory, when there is a rival who is potentially a threat for the relationship, the person evaluates the degree of the threat to the relationship and what he or she could do about it. Harris argued that interpretations of the partner's behavior are also a key part for arousal of jealousy. For example, partner's behavior can look like a flirting behavior in one's culture and it triggers jealousy automatically. She claimed that a general tendency to make evaluations about relationship threats can evolve easily for both men and women since it would provide an adaptive advantage. In conclusion, social-cognitive theory of Harris emphasizes the importance of interpretation and appraisal of a diverse assortment of threats in the elicitation of jealousy, thereby denying its evolutionary explanation and innate features (Harris, 2003a, 2003b).

In his recent meta-analysis, Carpenter (2012) supported the social-cognitive perspective of Harris. Results mostly showed that both men and women were more distressed to

emotional infidelity than sexual infidelity, when they forced to choose. For the continuous data, both genders showed that sexual infidelity would be more distressing; thus there were no consistent sex effects. Carpenter concluded that the data indicated consistent results with the social-cognitive prediction. He claimed that men and women are not different in terms of the infidelity they find more disturbing. Rather, men and women are disturbed to the extent that they think the infidelity threatens the future of their relationship.

To sum up, considering all of these various studies indicated that women viewing emotional infidelity is more distressing than men. This result revealed that the sex difference seems to exist in which type of infidelity is more upsetting for women. However, the pattern of men who report significantly more distress to sexual infidelity than women is not always found. Moreover, multiple within-sex analysis showed that men are either equally or sometimes more distressed by emotional infidelity than sexual infidelity (e.g., Buss et al., 1992; Buss et al., 1999; Buunk et al., 1996; Carpenter, 2012; Edlund et al., 2006; Fernandez et al., 2007; Green & Sabini, 2006; Harris, 2002; Harris, 2003a; Harris & Christenfeld, 1996; Hupka & Bank, 1996; Murphy et al., 2006; Penke & Asndorph, 2008; Sabini & Green, 2004; Schützwohl, 2008; Sheets & Wolfe, 2001; Ward & Voracek, 2004).

1.3. Sex Differences in Jealousy: Proximate Mediators

Regarding these inconsistent findings, more examination of sex differences in jealousy is needed by reconsidering possible mediators or moderators. A number of studies examine the effects of variables other than gender upon sexual and emotional jealousy. There are several important variables which have attracted considerable attention, such as sexual orientation, relationship status, relationship experience, previous infidelity experience, being unfaithful, gender roles and perspectives.

1.3.1. Sexual Orientation

Whereas sex differences in jealousy have been studied numerous times, only a few researchers have explored the influence of sexual orientation on which type of infidelity is viewed as more upsetting (Bailey, Gaulin, Agyei, & Gladue, 1994; DeSouza et al., 2006;

Dijkstra, Groothof, Poel, Laverman, Schrier, & Buunk, 2001; Frederick & Fales, 2014; Harris; 2002; Sagarin et al., 2012a; Scherer, Akers, & Kolbe, 2013; Sheets & Wolfe, 2001).

The first study that explored the effect of sexual orientation on infidelity views was published by Bailey et al. (1994). With a community sample of heterosexual, lesbian, and gay adults, they used Buss et al.'s (1992) forced-choice methodology to reveal the more upsetting infidelity types. According to the findings, heterosexual men were significantly more distressed by sexual infidelity than heterosexual women, lesbian women, and gay men. In addition, these latter three groups experienced similar levels of distress to emotional infidelity over sexual infidelity. Some other studies also indicated that heterosexual men are more upset by sexual infidelity than heterosexual women, lesbian women, and gay men, even though within-sex analyses showed heterosexual men rated emotional infidelity either equally or more upsetting than sexual infidelity (Harris, 2002; Harris, 2003a; Sheets & Wolfe, 2001).

In another study, Dijkstra and colleagues (2001) found that lesbians were significantly more distressed by sexual infidelity than gay men, and gay men were significantly more distressed by emotional infidelity than lesbian women. After these findings, they suggested that lesbian women tend to parallel heterosexual men by responding with significant amounts of distress to sexual infidelity, whereas gay men respond similarly to heterosexual women. DeSouza et al. (2006) also indicated that lesbians responded similarly to heterosexual men, while responses of gay men resembled heterosexual women when using continuous measures. Yet using forced-choice measures, they found that lesbian women and gay men showed similar levels of distress towards emotional infidelity.

In their previous research, Sagarin et al. (2003) found that when partners' infidelity occurred with same-sex individuals (as a bisexual relationship), sex differences disappeared. From this point of view, Sagarin and colleagues (2012a) suggested a model considering the homosexuality conflict. According to their reproductive threat-based model, the sexes will differ only when the jealous perceivers' reproductive outcomes are differentially at risk. So the reproductive threat-based model explain the absence of sex difference in jealousy between homosexual men and women as inevitable, because there were no risk of jeopardizing reproduction. Supportive of the model, their study's findings

indicated that lesbians and gay men showed no sex differences in jealousy, while heterosexual men and women showed the expected sex differences.

On the other side, the earlier mentioned DeSteno and Salovey's (1996) 'double-shot hypothesis' has also another claim about this homosexuality issue. The hypothesis suggests that gay men should perceive emotional infidelity as more upsetting just like heterosexual women, while lesbians should perceive sexual infidelity as more upsetting like heterosexual men. Accordingly, what matters is not the gender of the betrayed partner but the gender of the unfaithful partner (Sheets & Wolfe, 2001). Thus, gay men will be more distressed if their partner has an emotional relationship with a third party similar to heterosexual women. On the other hand, lesbians will be more distressed if their partner has a sexual relationship with a third party similar to heterosexual men. A recent meta-analysis conducted by Carpenter (2012) supported this prediction: The pattern of distress over infidelity in lesbians and gay men were reversed when compared to heterosexual women and men. He interpreted the results as the sex differences in infidelity occurred because of the gender-stereotypic assumptions about men and women, rather than a product of innate differences.

Finally, a recent study have done by Frederick and Fales (2014) with a large sample of 63.894 gay, lesbian, bisexual, and heterosexual participants. In their findings, heterosexual participants results were consistent with the evolutionary perspective, whereas gay men and lesbian women did not differ over infidelity types. They interpreted these findings as contradicting to the double-shot hypothesis. Accordingly, people who typically date women were not more upset by sexual infidelity than people who typically date men, and people who typically date men were not more upset by emotional infidelity.

1.3.2. Relationship Status

Jealousy studies looking at current relationship status yielded inconsistent findings. Some of them (Becker, Sagarin, Guadagno, Millevoi, & Nicastle, 2004; Burchell & Ward, 2011; Guadagno & Sagarin, 2010; Kato, 2014a; Voracek, 2001) reported that relationship status was a predictor of gender differences in jealousy, whereas some studies found the opposite results (Murphy et al., 2006; Zengel et al., 2013).

Becker et al. (2004), Guadagno and Sagarin (2010), and Voracek (2001) found that women in a current romantic relationship were more distressed over sexual infidelity than women not in a current romantic relationship. On the other hand, Burchell and Ward (2011), indicated that being in a relationship was a significant predictor of lower sexual jealousy score. Also, women who have a current relationship showed more distress on emotional infidelity. So, according to Burchell and Ward (2011) relationship status was a significant predictor for women only.

The research of Kato's (2014b) showed that men were more upset than women about sexual infidelity in a group of a sample whose participants were not in a committed relationship. But in the committed-relationship group of men, there was no significant sex difference in response to sexual infidelity. Thus, a significant interaction was found between sex and infidelity type in the no-committed-relationship group. This interaction was not observed in the committed- relationship sample.

Moreover, Becker et al.'s study (2004) which used Buss's infidelity scenarios revealed that participants who were not in a current relationship reported more difficulty on imagining aspects of infidelity than those who were in a current relationship.

It was claimed that women in committed relationship, compared to women who are not, would be more upset over sexual infidelity (e.g., Harris, 2000; Hupka & Bank, 1996). Similar with Kato's (2014a) study, the results revealed that women in committed relationship chose sexual infidelity to be more upsetting than women who were not in a relationship. In addition to this, the relationship status difference was not significant for men (Harris, 2000; Hupka & Bank, 1996). Also, Murphy et al. (2006) found that there was no sex difference between men who are currently in a serious romantic relationship and not in a romantic relationship.

Furthermore, Kato (2014a) reported that college students who were not in a committed sexual relationship replicated the evolutionary model (men are more distressed by sexual infidelity than emotional infidelity whereas women are more distressed by emotional infidelity than sexual infidelity), whereas the results for college students who were currently in committed sexual relationships did not indicate the same results. Besides,

women in a committed sexual relationship showed greater psycho-physiological reactions to sexual infidelity than emotional infidelity, whereas women who were not in a committed relationship demonstrate these greater psycho-physiological reactions to emotional infidelity than sexual infidelity.

In addition, among married people, the evolutionary hypothesis of jealousy has not been supported (e.g., Becker et al., 2004; Guadagno & Sagarin, 2010; Harris, 2000; Hupka & Bank, 1996; Voracek, 2001; Zengel et al., 2013). For example, in Voracek's (2001) study, adult participants (mean age approximately 32) who were in a relationship but not married (may be similar to college students) responded coherently with the evolutionary-predicted pattern of results, but there were not found sex differences among married participants.

However, according to a recent study with 537 married participants from Turkey, men were reported as more emotionally jealous than sexual infidelity (Kemer, Bulgan, & Yıldız, 2015).

1.3.3. Relationship Experience

A number of studies investigated the possible effect of past relationship experiences over sex differences in jealousy. Harris (2002) and Tagler (2010) claimed that relationship history was an important moderator of the participants' responses to given infidelity scenarios. Individuals who have a relationship experience might respond differently from others without such a history.

Buss et al. (1992) hypothesized that committed sexual relationship experience leads men to feel even greater upset over sexual infidelity whereas it causes to feel greater distress over emotional infidelity for women. In their study (1992, Study 3), men with more relationship experience showed larger evolutionary predicted sex differences as claimed but there was not found the effect of relationship experience for women.

On the other hand, according to the results of Harris's (2000) psycho-physiological study; women who experienced a committed sexual relationship showed a greater blood pressure while imagining mate's sexual infidelity, whereas women without such experience showed

greater increases in blood pressure while imagining their mate's emotional infidelity. In addition, sexual jealousy was analyzed as correlated with having a greater number of sexual relationships (Harris, 2003b).

In Murphy et al.'s (2006) study, past relationship experience was a significant predictor for distress over infidelity, but similar to Buss et al.'s (1992) findings this was valid primarily for men. Compared to men without experience of any past serious relationship, men with such experience of serious relationship were more distressed by sexual infidelity. Yet again, no significant differences were observed between women who had serious committed relationships in the past and women who had not.

1.3.4. Previous Infidelity Experience

The other factor which thought to be probably effective on sex differences in jealousy is the experience of previous infidelity. According to Tagler (2010), for participants who previously dealt with the distress of partner infidelity, it seemed quite plausible that reading an infidelity scenario would trigger memories and emotions of similar real experiences. Thereby, studies highlighted the impact of the infidelity experience on how respondents feel about even hypothetical scenarios by using a forced-choice paradigm.

Harris (2002) found that adults (mean age 37) who had experience of partner infidelity did not respond differently than participants who do not have infidelity experience. In addition, both men and women reported that they focused more on emotional aspect of imagined infidelity.

Sagarin and colleagues (2003) also investigated the effect of infidelity experience on jealousy by suggesting that infidelity experience did not moderate sex differences. They found similarly with the prediction of evolutionary model, regardless of previous infidelity experience. Additionally, men with infidelity experience were found as more distressed by sexual infidelity than men who had not infidelity experience.

In another study, Berman and Frazier (2005) demonstrated that only for individuals without infidelity experience reported sex differences in jealousy. No sex differences were

found among individuals with real infidelity experience. However, contrary to Harris's (2002) findings, both sexes who had experienced actual infidelity rated sexual infidelity as worse than emotional infidelity.

Similar to the suggestion of Sagarin and colleagues (2003), the expected sex differences in response to actual infidelity experiences using a sample of individuals (both undergraduates and working adults) were detected. As a result, men reported that they would be more upset by sexual infidelity than emotional infidelity, while women displayed the opposite pattern, regardless of infidelity experience (Edlung et al., 2006).

Varga et al. (2011) extended the work of Edlung et al. (2006) by using larger undergraduate sample and an older working adult sample (mean age 38). Their results were aligned with Berman and Frazier's (2005) study. Analyses replicated previous findings of expected sex difference according to evolutionary model with the participants without infidelity experience. However, results for participants who reported experience with actual infidelity demonstrated little support for the traditional evolutionary model, as there were no sex differences in which type of infidelity was reported to be more distressing.

Similarly, Tagler (2010) found sex differences in jealousy only among adults who had not previously experienced infidelity, but those with infidelity experience showed no sex differences. Rather, a slight majority of both men (57.4%) and women (56.8%) chose emotional infidelity as more distressing in the infidelity experienced group, like Harris's (2002) work. Tagler interpreted these findings as evidence against the evolutionary psychological theory.

In their study, Burchell and Ward (2011) suggested that previously being a victim of a sexual infidelity was a predictor for men only. It presumed a higher sexual jealousy score for men. Zandbergen & Brown (2015) also found that there was more intense jealousy ratings when infidelity occurred in a past relationship. Participants who experienced an infidelity in the past relationships reported significantly higher jealousy ratings.

Another unpublished study also examined whether sexual or emotional infidelity were more upsetting in a sample of undergraduates who reported experienced infidelity during

past week. According to results, no sex differences were found (Kimeldorf, 2009 cited in Varga, 2011).

Finally, in the study of real-life jealousy interrogations, actual infidelities captured on video through the reality program 'Cheaters' were examined. Interrogations, which came after the discovery of partner's infidelity, were investigated on the videos. Findings indicated that women grilled their partners more than men about the emotional aspects of the infidelity, and among the most common questions posed by women was: "Do you love her?". In contrast to women, men grilled their partners about the sexual aspects of infidelity, and among the most common interrogations was: "Did you have sex with him?" (Kuhle, 2011 cited in Buss, 2013).

1.3.5. Past Cheating Experience / Being Unfaithful

Although individuals may view unfaithfulness as unacceptable and highly damaging, a substantial number of participants also report that they had at least one extra-dating activity (Allen & Baucom, 2006; Sheppard et al., 1995 cited in Sharpe, Walters, & Goren, 2013). Very few published studies investigated the effects of cheating experience on sex differences in jealousy.

Sagarin and colleagues (2003) analyzed both infidelity and cheating experience. They found that infidelity experience influenced men's responses toward infidelity, sexual infidelity was more distressing for men who was cheated before. However, men with or without cheating experience did not appear as significantly different in their responses to sexual infidelity. Additionally, women who cheated in the past were significantly more distressed by sexual infidelity than women who did not have a history of cheating.

In a recent related study, participants were presented a story about a vignette character's infidelity and they were asked a series of questions evaluating how 'acceptable' or 'forgivable' of the character's behavior. According to findings, men with cheating experience were most accepting and forgiving of male cheating character and women with cheating experience were most accepting and forgiving of female cheating character. In other words, participants who have cheating experience expressed gender-biased

permissive attitudes toward infidelity. Yet, participants who had not a history of infidelity considered infidelity as generally unacceptable, regardless of character's gender (Sharpe et al., 2013).

1.3.6. Gender Roles and Traditional Views

As an alternative to the evolutionary model, the social-cognitive approach (Harris, 2003a) suggest that any sex differences in jealousy might occur as a result of proximal mediators, such as gender roles or some social beliefs. According to Ward and Voracek (2004), sex differences in human behavior are influenced by (a) socialization into masculine and feminine roles, and (b) the beliefs and schemas attached to these roles. Such claims led some researchers to investigate whether the findings of evolutionary model were affected by gender roles or learned beliefs about the traditional roles of men and women.

Hupka & Bank (1996) expected 'sex-typed' individuals to replicate evolutionary model's findings in comparison with 'non-sex-typed' individuals who are less affected by traditional gender norms in their study. They used BSRI to identify gender roles and created a questionnaire to reveal traditional perspectives (i.e., sexist) to the gender roles. In the BSRI results, contrary to their expectation, classifying the participants according to the sex-typed categories of BSRI, namely masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated, did not differentially affect the perception of which infidelity type was more distressing. Each BSRI group (over 60%) selected emotional infidelity as more upsetting. And in the created-questionnaire results, there were not found any interaction between 'traditional gender ideology' and selected infidelity types.

Another study asked participants to report which type of infidelity upset them more and to complete masculinity and femininity scales. Results showed that emergent sex difference was like evolutionary model, but this sex difference was partially mediated by both masculinity and femininity (Bohner & Wanke, 2004).

In his doctoral thesis, Demirtaş (2004) investigated romantic jealousy widely. He used Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to test if there was an interaction between sex differences in jealousy and gender roles, such as masculinity, femininity, androgyny and

undifferentiated. According to results, there was not found any significant interaction. Brase and colleagues (2014) also investigated possible interactions between sex differences in jealousy and gender roles which identified and measured by BSRI. They used Infidelity Dilemma Questionnaire from Buss et al. (1999) and BSRI. Yet again, the results showed a consistent sex difference which was not mediated by any other variables. There were no significant correlations between these measures.

Brase et al. (2014) also examined the possible relationship between sex differences in jealousy and traditional perspectives of gender roles. Similar to Hupka & Bank (1996), they couldn't find any correlation.

1.4. Present Study

Given the contradictory results in previous studies and the paucity of similar studies in Turkey, the aim of the present study was to explore how the predicted sex differences in jealousy would emerge in a Turkish sample.

In addition to examining the evolutionary model, this study also investigated the possible effects of several variables such as sexual orientation, relationship status, relationship experience, previous infidelity experience, being unfaithful, gender roles and perspectives on sex differences in jealousy.

Accordingly, the present study aimed to elucidate some critical questions as follows:

- Which infidelity type is chosen as more upsetting for Turkish women and men?
- Does sexual orientation have an effect on the decisions of choosing which infidelity type is more upsetting?
- Does relationship status or relationship duration affect on the decisions?
- Does being experienced in romantic relationships have an effect on the decisions?
- Does past infidelity experience or cheating experience have an effect on the decisions?
- Do gender roles or some gender-related beliefs have an effect on the decisions?

2. METHOD

2.1. Participants

The analyses were conducted with 630 (281 men and 349 women) Turkish individuals who were mostly living in urban cities in Turkey. Data were collected from the universities and via SurveyMonkey.com, a web-based survey platform. Participants' age ranged from 17 to 60 with an average of 27.33 years ($SD = 6.58$). Most of the participants belonged to middle (42.9%) and high (47.3%) economic status, and living in big cities (79.7%). College students (28.6%) and graduated (43.8%) individuals also predominated. Besides, many of the participants were Muslims (56.2%) and Deists (25.2%).

Thirty-nine percent of the sample was single, while remaining part was either married (20%), engaged (3.8%), or in a relationship (34.4%). In addition, almost half of the participants had previous infidelity experience (52.1%), and almost half of the sample had cheating experience (48.1%).

The sample comprises of 213 heterosexual men, 296 heterosexual women, 50 homosexual men, 31 homosexual women, 15 bisexual men, 21 bisexual women and, 4 others (3 asexuals and a transsexual). It should be noted that bisexual and other participants were excluded from the data, when examining the sample of homosexuals.

Detailed demographic information about participants is presented in Table 2.1.1., with in-group percentages.

Table 2.1 Distribution of the demographic and relational characteristics within the sample

	Heterosexual		Homosexual		Bisexual/Other*	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Count	47%	34%	5%	8%	4%	2%
Age [mean (<i>SD</i>)]	27.6 (7.3)	28.2 (5.8)	25.1 (4.1)	24.2 (5.7)	26.7 (6.4)	26.1 (6.2)
Income						
<i>Very high</i>	2.7%	5.2%	12.9%	2%	13.6%	11.1%
<i>High</i>	45.9%	39.4%	51.6%	36%	40.9%	38.9%
<i>Middle</i>	47.3%	49.3%	25.8%	58%	40.9%	38.9%
<i>Low</i>	3.7%	5.2%	9.7%	4%	4.5%	11.1%
<i>Very low</i>	.3%	.5%	-	-	-	-
Location						
<i>Metropolis</i>	83.1%	75.6%	74.2%	76%	90.9%	77.8%
<i>Urban</i>	9.8%	16.4%	16.1%	14%	9.1%	16.7%
<i>Suburban</i>	7.1%	8%	9.7%	10%	-	5.6%
Education						
<i>Primary school</i>	-	.9%	-	6%	-	5.6%
<i>High school</i>	7.4%	7%	12.9%	14%	4.5%	11.1%
<i>College student</i>	29.7%	22.5%	38.7%	36%	27.3%	44.4%
<i>Graduate</i>	42.9%	52.1%	41.9%	24%	36.4%	27.8%
<i>Student of master/doctoral</i>	11.5%	12.2%	3.2%	12%	22.7%	-
<i>Graduate from master/doctoral</i>	8.4%	5.2%	3.2%	8%	9.1%	11.1%
Religion						
<i>Atheist</i>	9.5%	16.9%	19.4%	16%	22.7%	16.7%
<i>Deist</i>	27.7%	19.2%	35.5%	34%	40.9%	27.8%
<i>Muslim</i>	62.5%	57.3%	45.2%	36%	27.3%	50%
<i>Other**</i>	2.4%	6.1%	-	14%	9.1%	5.6%
Marital Status						
<i>Single</i>	33.4%	40.8%	41.9%	56%	36.4%	66.7%
<i>In a relationship</i>	33.8%	31.9%	58.1%	38%	45.5%	11.1%
<i>Engaged</i>	4.7%	4.2%	-	2%	-	-
<i>Married</i>	24.7%	21.1%	-	4%	13.6%	16.7%
<i>Divorced/Widowed</i>	3.4%	1.9%	-	-	4.5%	5.6%
Infidelity Experience						
<i>Yes</i>	50.1%	47.4%	51.6%	60%	59.1%	61.1%
<i>No</i>	49.9%	52.6%	48.4%	40%	40.9%	38.9%
Cheating Experience						
<i>Yes</i>	40.2%	49.3%	45.2%	56%	68.2%	50%
<i>No</i>	59.8%	50.7%	54.8%	44%	31.8%	50%

* Asexual, transsexual and hesitant participants (5 individuals)

** Alevist, Agnostic and Christian participants (30 individuals)

2.2. Materials

In the study, after being given the consent form (See Appendix A), participants were asked to complete the questionnaire organizing by researchers (See Appendix B), which includes questions about demographic information and romantic relationship life, and also a question for hypothetical infidelity dilemma. Additionally, participants were asked to evaluate themselves according to Content Specific Beliefs (See Appendix C), Content Specific Perspectives (See Appendix D), Bem Sex Role Inventory (See Appendix E) and Gender Roles Attitude Scale (See Appendix F).

2.2.1. Demographic Information Questionnaire

In order to collect information related to various demographic characteristics and background information about the participants, Demographic Information Questionnaire included questions about gender, age, sexual orientation, income, location, education, religion, marital status.

After the demographic questions, participants were asked about their romantic relationship life, such as current relationship status, previous romantic relationship history, previous experience with actual infidelity, reactions to actual infidelity, previous cheating experience.

2.2.2. Hypothetical Infidelity Dilemma

Participants were asked the following (taken from Buss et al., 1992):

Please think of a serious committed romantic relationship that you have had in the past, that you currently have, or that you would like to have. Imagine that you discover that the person with whom you've been seriously involved became interested in someone else. What would distress or upset you more (*please circle only one*):

(A) Imagining your partner forming a deep emotional attachment to that person

(B) Imagining your partner enjoying passionate sexual intercourse with that other person

(p.252)

This forced-choice format has been used as jealousy type measure in studies worldwide (Harris 2003). Participants' view of which infidelity type is more upsetting, emotional (A) or sexual (B), came to the light through answering this dilemma.

2.2.3. Context Specific Beliefs (CSB)

In order to understand participants' beliefs toward genders' stereotypic behaviors and thoughts about relationships, researchers created a questionnaire as follows:

CSB1. His own sexuality is a major issue for a man. Being good at (having successful performance) sexual intercourse and being remembered with this performance is quite precious for a man. A man cannot bear on the idea of being inadequate in sexuality. Issue of sexuality can be assumed as related his masculinity.

CSB2. Love is a major issue for a woman. Issues similar to being loved, being emotionally attached and being possessed are quite precious for a woman. Woman seeks out and expects to get most of her partner's attention. Generally, women are emotional.

CSB3. Having sexual intercourse with someone does not necessarily to mean fall in love with that person for a man; whereas if a woman have sexual intercourse, it means she falls in love.

CSB4. If a woman falls in love with someone, it is not required to have sexual intercourse with that person; whereas if a man falls in love with someone, he will have sexual intercourse with that person.

Participants were asked to rate these statements from 1 to 6 according to their opinions. Scoring system were as 1 point for 'absolutely disagree', 2 points for 'disagree', 3 points for 'somewhat disagree', 4 points for 'somewhat agree', 5 points for 'agree', and 6 points for 'completely agree'.

2.2.4. Context Specific Perspectives (CSP)

In order to evaluate participants' perspectives toward genders' stereotypic behaviors and thoughts about relationships, researchers constructed a questionnaire as follows:

CSP1. It bothers me, if my partner had sexual intercourse with someone before.

CSP2. It bothers me, if my partner fell in love with someone before.

CSP3. Love, sympathy, being loved, and being attached with someone is quite important for me.

CSP4. Being satisfied with my sexual life is quite important for me.

Participants were asked to rate these statements from 1 to 6 according to their opinions. Scoring system was as 1 point for 'absolutely disagree', 2 points for 'disagree', 3 points for 'somewhat disagree', 4 points for 'somewhat agree', 5 points for 'agree', and 6 points for 'completely agree'.

2.2.5. Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)

The Bem Sex Role Inventory was developed by Bem (1974) to assess masculine, feminine and androgynous personality traits among men and women. The BSRI consists of sixty personality characteristics including 20 feminine, 20 masculine and 20 non-gender related characteristics. The masculinity and femininity scores indicate the extent to which a person endorses masculine and feminine personality traits.

Of the original 60 items in the BSRI, 40 items (20 for masculinity and 20 for femininity) appeared in this questionnaire (according to the Turkish version). Participants were asked to evaluate themselves on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true) to 7 (always or almost always true). Like Konrad and Harris (2002), 20 neutral items from the BSRI were excluded because this study was designed to assess perceived gender roles in terms of masculine and feminine adjectives. Besides, generally these 20 neutral items were not attached to the questionnaires and so analyses over many studies.

The scale was shown to possess high internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for two subscales; .86 for masculinity and at the range of .82 and .80 for femininity. Test-retest reliability scores of masculinity and femininity scales were found to be highly reliable, both of with the scores of .90 (Bem, 1974).

The Turkish adaptation of BSRI was done by Dökmen (1991) Psychometric properties of its Turkish version were also found satisfactory. The split-half reliability was reported as .77 for femininity and .71 for masculinity subscales. Like Bem (1974), Dökmen (1981) also found little correlation between two scales.

In the current study, participants rated the items (definitive adjectives) on a 7-point Likert scale; 1 for 'never defines me', 2 for 'usually not defines me', 3 for 'not so defines me', 4 for 'hesitative', 5 for 'sometimes defines me', 6 for 'usually defines me', and 7 for 'always defines me'. Internal consistency of the BSRI subscales were found to be reliable; .74 for femininity and .79 for masculinity in this study.

2.2.6. Gender Roles Attitudes Scale (GRAS)

Gender Roles Attitude Scale is a 38-items self-report scale which was developed for the purpose of determining university students' attitudes toward gender roles (Zeyneloğlu, 2008). GRAS consists of five dimensions in the form of 5-point Likert scale, namely egalitarian gender roles, female gender roles, marriage gender roles, traditional gender roles and male gender roles.

Participants rated the scale as 5 points for 'completely agree', 4 points for 'agree', 3 points for 'undecided', 2 points for 'disagree', and 1 point for 'absolutely disagree' in regard of students' sentences depending on their egalitarian attitudes toward gender roles. Conversely, sentences depending on traditional attitudes toward gender roles are rated as 1 point for 'completely agree', 2 points for 'agree', 3 points for 'undecided', 4 points for 'disagree', and 5 points for 'absolutely disagree'. While the possible highest score was 190; possible lowest score was 38 according to GRAS. The highest score obtained from scale reflected students' egalitarian attitudes toward gender roles, whereas the lowest score obtained from scale showed students' traditional attitudes toward gender roles.

Internal consistency of the GRAS total score was detected as .92. According to results, GRAS showed high reliability and validity to measure university students' attitudes towards gender roles (Zeyneloğlu & Terzioğlu, 2011). In this study, we found the Cronbach alpha's coefficient of the GRAS total score to be .93.

2.3. Procedure

First of all, the permission for the study was taken from the ethic committee in Doğuş University. Participants were informed of their rights and completed an informed consent either on paper or online in accordance with university IRB standards. After informed consent form was taken, participants completed the questionnaire.

The instruments were administrated to the participants either in the classroom settings or as online using the web-based survey platform www.surveymonkey.com. Responses were collected and saved anonymously. Each version of the administrations took approximately 10-15 minutes. They completed the survey in one session. Finally, participants were given an acknowledgement letter (See Appendix G) which explains the purpose of the study.

3. RESULTS

Because the dependent variable was categorical (forced-choice dilemma of two infidelity types), Chi-square tests were mainly conducted to assess which infidelity type was viewed as more upsetting to the participants and which other variables had effects on the decisions.

The results of the whole data showed that selecting partner's sexual involvement or emotional attachment as more upsetting was influenced by gender significantly, $\chi^2(1, N = 626) = 92.40, p < .001$. As seen in Figure 3.1, 89.6% of women reported greater distress over their partner's emotional infidelity; whereas only 10.4% of them chose sexual infidelity as more upsetting. Men, on the other hand, did not show greater difference as women, yet the sex difference was significant.

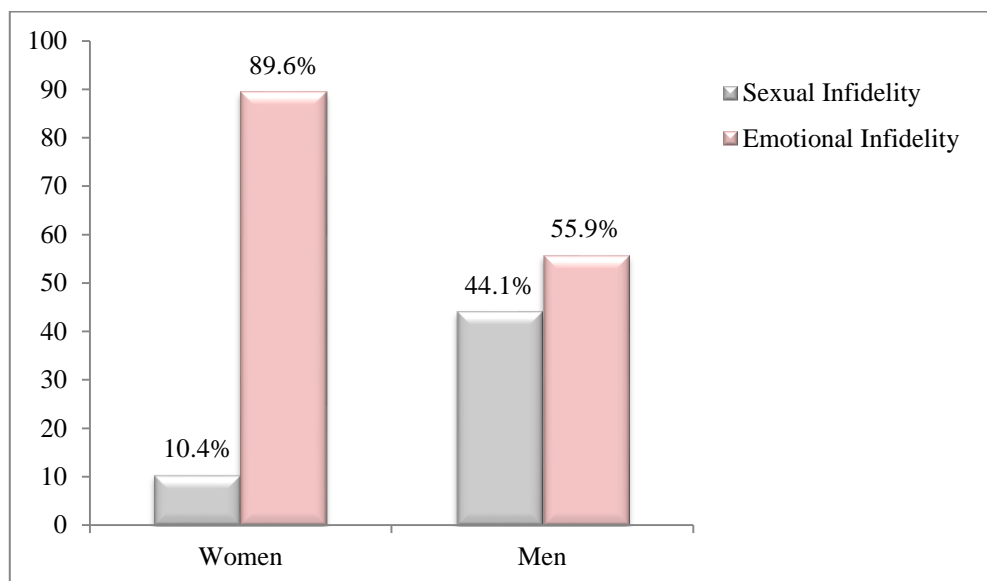


Figure 3.1 Percentages of participants' distress over sexual and emotional infidelity

When examining with the sample of heterosexual participants, observed difference did not change too much, $\chi^2(1, N = 505) = 103.89, p < .001$. As seen in Figure 3.2, women still were distressed by emotional infidelity mostly (90.4%); however, this time men were almost equally distressed by the two types of the infidelity (50.2% sexual vs. 49.8% emotional), but observed sex difference was still significant.

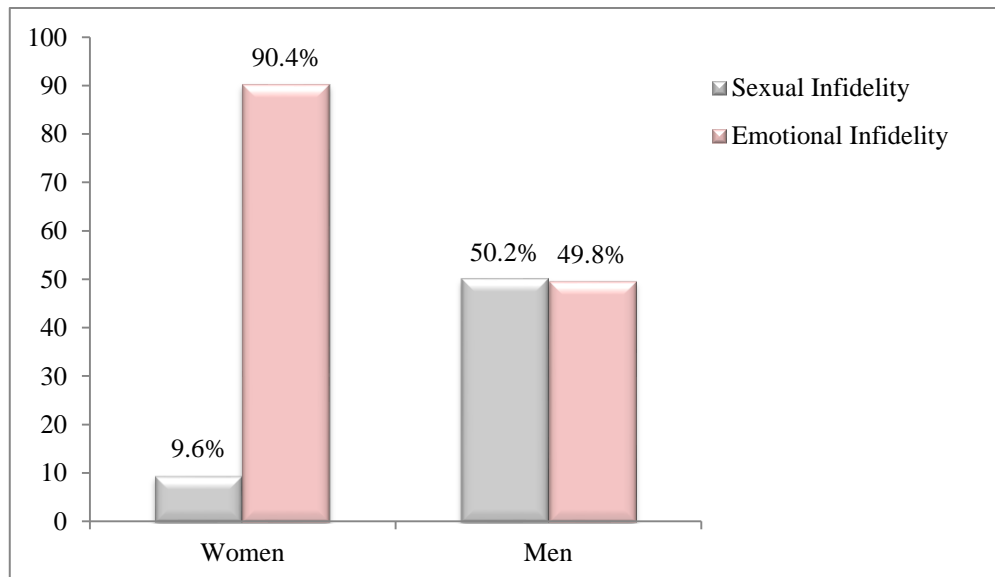


Figure 3.2 Percentages of heterosexual participants' distress over sexual and emotional infidelity

3.1. Age

In order to examine whether age had an effect on infidelity type decisions, participants were categorized in two groups according to their age; twenty-five and below, and twenty-six and above. For both of the categories, significant differences were observed, $\chi^2 (1, N = 275) = 26.80, p < .001$, $\chi^2 (1, N = 351) = 66.78, p < .001$, respectively. Interestingly, when examining the men in two groups with aged twenty-five and below and, aged twenty-six and above, the observed difference was found as significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 281) = 52.20, p = .02$. Younger men chose emotional infidelity as more upsetting (63.6%), whereas older men were equally distressed by the two types of infidelity. (see Figure 3.1.1)

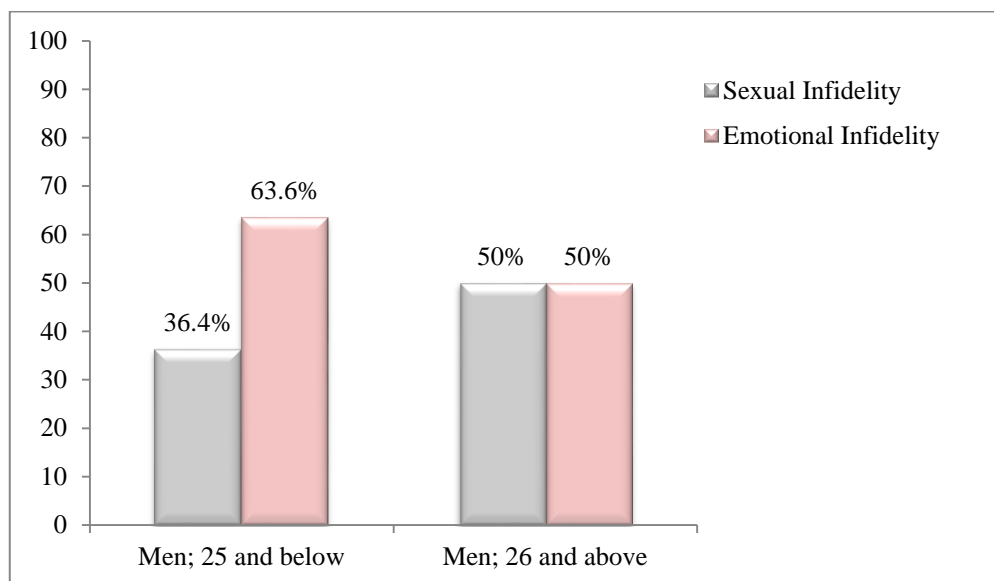


Figure 3.1.1 Percentages of men's distress over sexual and emotional infidelity according to age

3.2. Sexual Orientation

With the homosexual sample, selection of which infidelity type was more upsetting were not affected by gender $\chi^2 (1, N = 81) = 2.03, p = .15$. In this group, men also chose emotional infidelity (78%) as more upsetting than sexual infidelity (22%) like women. (see Figure 3.2.1)

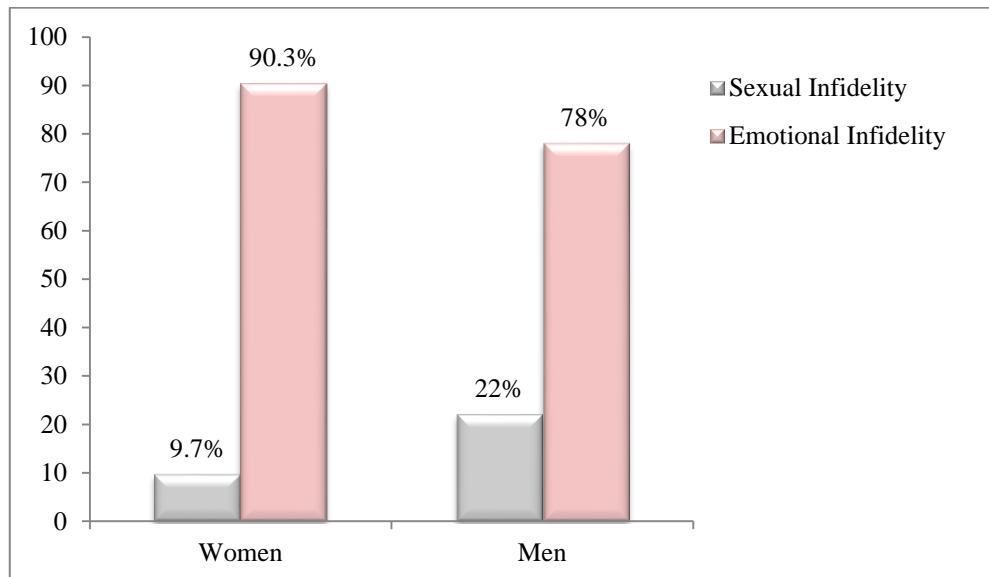


Figure 3.2.1 Percentages of homosexual participants' distress over sexual and emotional infidelity

When comparing the samples of heterosexual men and homosexual men, a significant difference was observed interestingly on the preference of which type of infidelity was more upsetting, $\chi^2 (1, N = 263) = 13.05, p < .001$. Accordingly, homosexual men were more likely to choose emotional infidelity as more distressing (78%), whereas heterosexual men were almost equally distressed by both of the infidelity types. (see Figure 3.2.2)

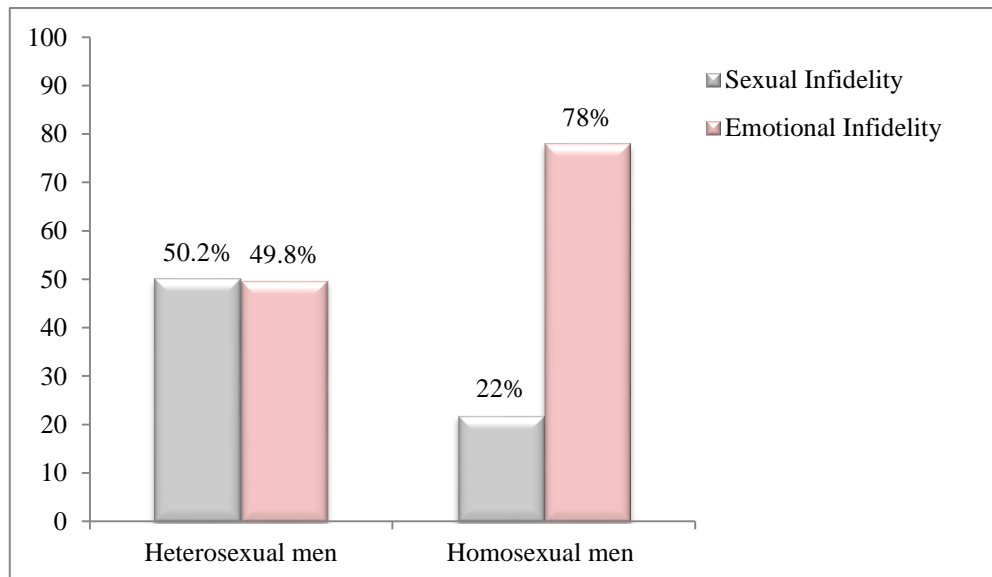


Figure 3.2.2 Percentages of heterosexual and homosexual men's distress over sexual and emotional infidelity

3.3. Relationship Status

Among married individuals, selection of the most upsetting infidelity type showed significant difference with respect to gender, $\chi^2(1, N = 125) = 32.41, p < .001$. As seen in Figure 3.3.1, women were mostly distressed by emotional infidelity (90.7%). However, married men tended to choose sexual infidelity as more upsetting (56% sexual vs. 44% emotional) in contrast to all above groups.

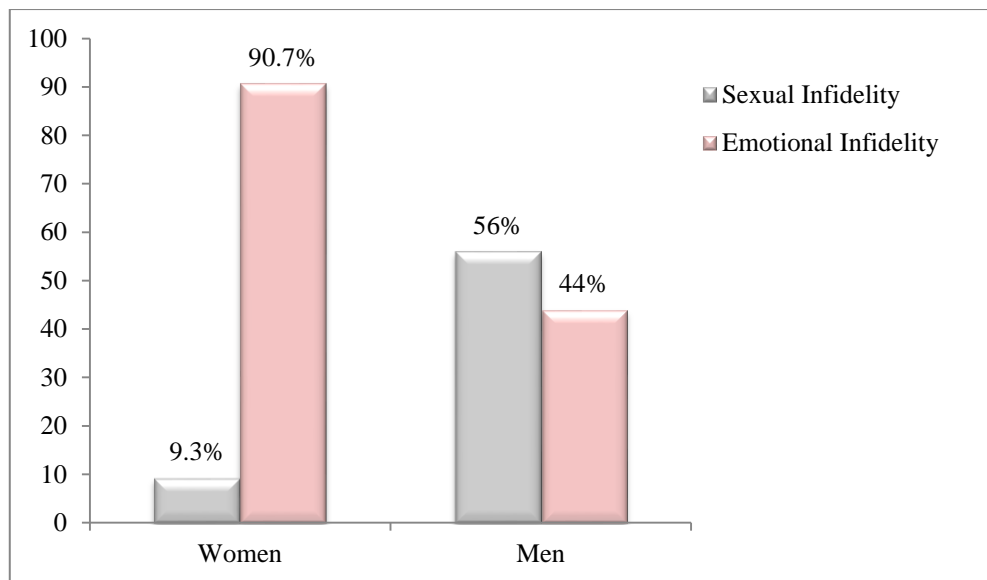


Figure 3.3.1 Percentages of married participants' distress over sexual and emotional infidelity

But when examining with the samples of married men and unmarried men, a significant difference was not observed, $\chi^2(1, N = 213) = 0.87, p = .35$. Considering the duration of marriage, a final analysis conducted with participants who have been married for more than one year. The results were just as similar with the entire married group and a significant difference was found, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 24.63, p < .001$.

In addition to married participants, there were other individuals who were engaged or were in a relationship. In regard to these groups, two different independent-samples t tests were conducted to evaluate whether there was an effect of relationship duration (in terms of months) on deciding which infidelity type is more upsetting for men and for women. The tests were not significant either for men, $t(147) = .72, p = .47$, or for women, $t(215) = -.02, p = .99$. As a result, relationship duration did not influence the decisions.

On the other hand, when investigating the samples of single men and men who had a committed relationship (i.e. married, engaged, or in a relationship), a significant difference was found, $\chi^2(1, N = 276) = 4.94, p = .03$. As seen in Figure 3.3.2, single men tended to choose emotional infidelity as more upsetting than sexual infidelity (63%), while men who had a committed relationship chose both infidelity types almost equally distressing.

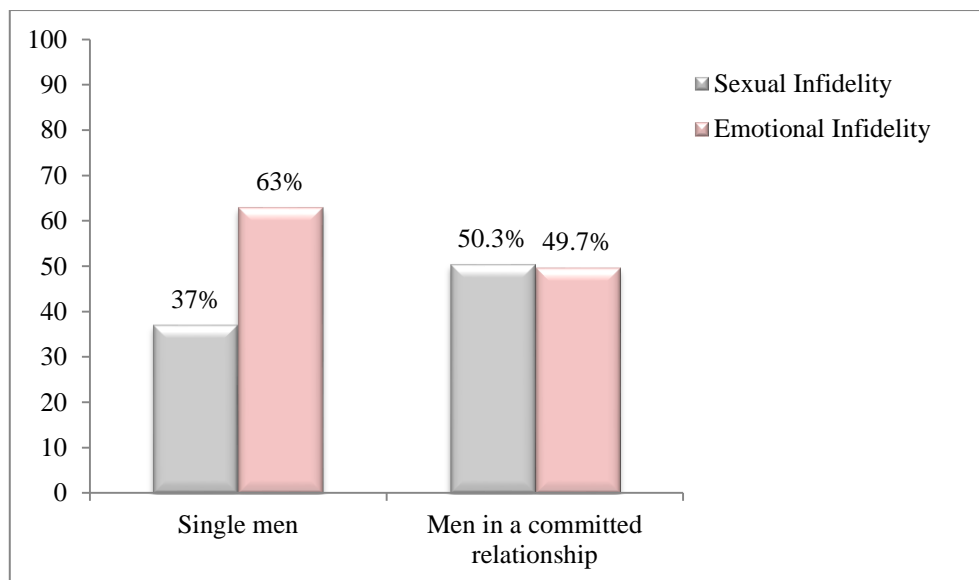


Figure 3.3.2 Percentages of men's distress over sexual and emotional infidelity according to relationship status

3.4. Relationship Experience

Chi-square tests were conducted to investigate the relationship experiences. Data from participants who had had more than one serious committed relationship were analyzed and the results were significant, $\chi^2(1, N = 336) = 49.84, p < .001$. According to the findings, women of this group (86.8%) viewed emotional infidelity as more upsetting than men (51.7%). (see Figure 3.4.1)

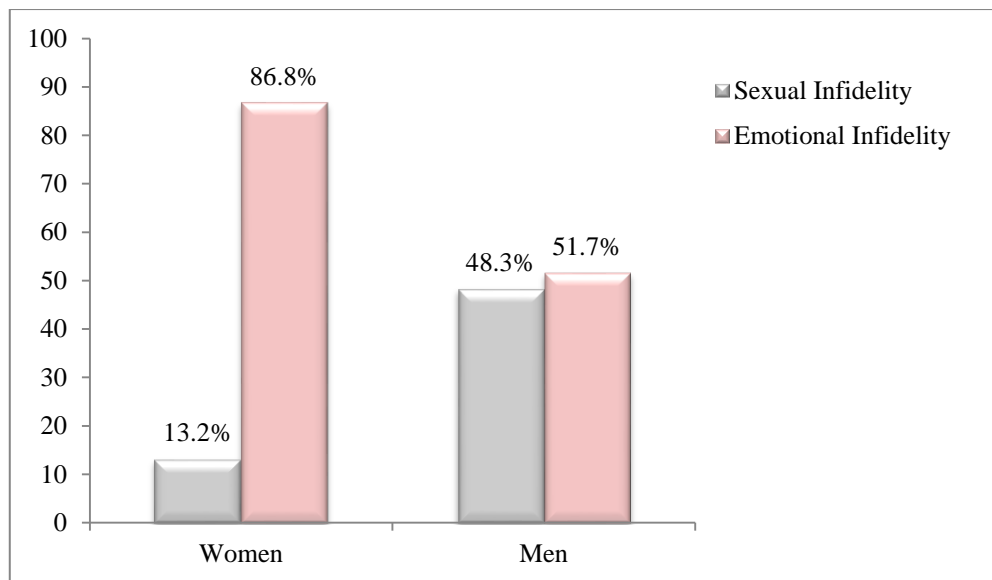


Figure 3.4.1 Percentages of participants' who had more than one relationship experience distress over sexual and emotional infidelity

Moreover, analyses were conducted with the group of participants who had had only one serious committed relationship and who had never had a committed relationship, and the results were similar with the more relationship experienced group, $\chi^2(1, N = 210) = 31.36, p < .001$, $\chi^2(1, N = 77) = 10.73, p = .001$, respectively.

Furthermore, a significant difference was observed on women, $\chi^2 (1, N = 340) = 7.27$, $p = .007$, but not on men, $\chi^2 (1, N = 279) = 2.64$, $p = .104$ when the numbers of committed relationship were divided in two groups for both gender as had one or never committed relationship and, had two or more committed relationships. According to the results, the selection of the sexual infidelity as more upsetting for women who had two or more committed relationship (13.2%) increased significantly when comparing with the women who had one or never committed relationship (4.6%). (see Figure 3.4.2)

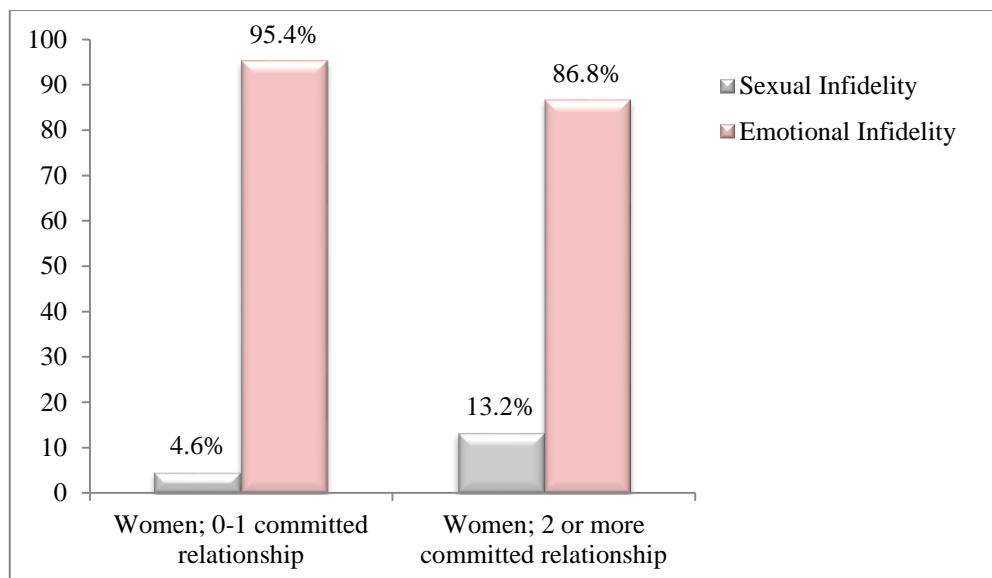


Figure 3.4.2 Percentages of women's distress over sexual and emotional infidelity according to number of previous committed relationships

3.5. Infidelity Experience and Cheating Experience

Participants who cheated before indicated usual findings on Chi-square test, $\chi^2 (1, N = 320) = 57.78, p < .001$. Women still were more distressed by emotional infidelity (90.5%), and men were not so differentiated by choosing the types of infidelity as more upsetting. (see Figure 3.5.1)

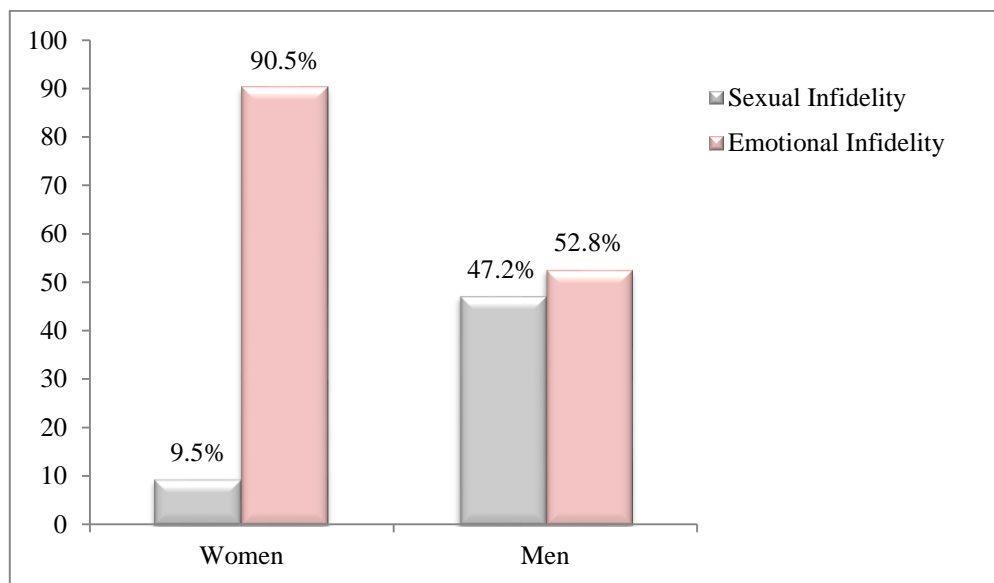


Figure 3.5.1 Percentages of participants' distress over sexual and emotional infidelity according to previous infidelity experience

Moreover, participants who never experienced infidelity also showed a similar significant difference like infidelity experienced group, $\chi^2 (1, N = 299) = 34.95, p < .001$. On the other hand, when examining the samples of infidelity experienced men and men who had not such experience, a significant difference was not observed in the selection of infidelity types, $\chi^2 (1, N = 279) = .88, p = .35$.

The condition of being experienced infidelity but specifically sexual one (partner's sex with another person) aroused curiosity, but according to results men with sexual betrayal experienced (62.7%) still were more upset by emotional infidelity as women (90.1%), $\chi^2 (1, N = 132) = 14.42, p < .001$, (see Figure 3.5.2)

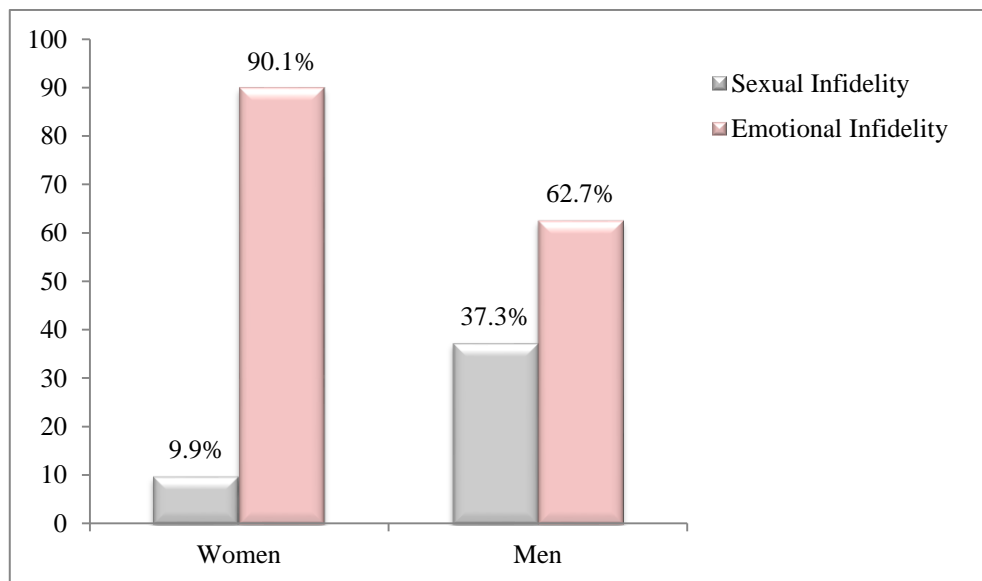


Figure 3.5.2 Percentage of participants' distress over sexual and emotional infidelity according to previous sexual infidelity experience

In addition, when examining with the samples of men with sexual infidelity experience, and men without sexual infidelity experience, a significant difference was not observed, $\chi^2 (1, N = 279) = .34, p = .56$.

Finally, in view of the participants who had cheating experience, a similar significant influence of gender on selecting which infidelity type is more upsetting was found, $\chi^2 (1, N = 290) = 34.27, p < .001$. Women were more distressed by emotional infidelity (85.1%), and men were distressed similarly by emotional infidelity and by sexual infidelity (emotional 46.5% vs. sexual 53.5%).

3.6. Gender Roles and Beliefs

3.6.1. BSRI

Participants' gender roles as measured with BSRI are presented in Table 3.6.1, as masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated, separately for gender and sexual orientation. As seen in the Table 3.6.1, percentages of the participants measured gender seemed to be similarly distributed, except the feminine column. In this group, homosexual women were lower and homosexual men were higher.

Table 3.6.1 Percentages of participants' gender roles as measured with BSRI

	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiated
<i>Heterosexual Women</i>	17.2%	27.4%	29.9%	25.5%
<i>Heterosexual Men</i>	33.3%	14.2%	21.3%	31.2%
<i>Homosexual Women</i>	29.6%	11.1%	33.3%	26.0%
<i>Homosexual Men</i>	23.3%	23.3%	23.3%	30.4%

We conducted a series of analyses to see whether gender role influenced distress decisions regarding different jealousy types. Only in the heterosexual men group, an interesting discrepancy emerged, $\chi^2(3, N = 183) = 8.00, p = .05$. Seemingly, emotional infidelity was observed (30%) as more upsetting than sexual infidelity (12.9%) for androgynous men, and this difference was more than other gender role groups (see Figure 3.6.1).

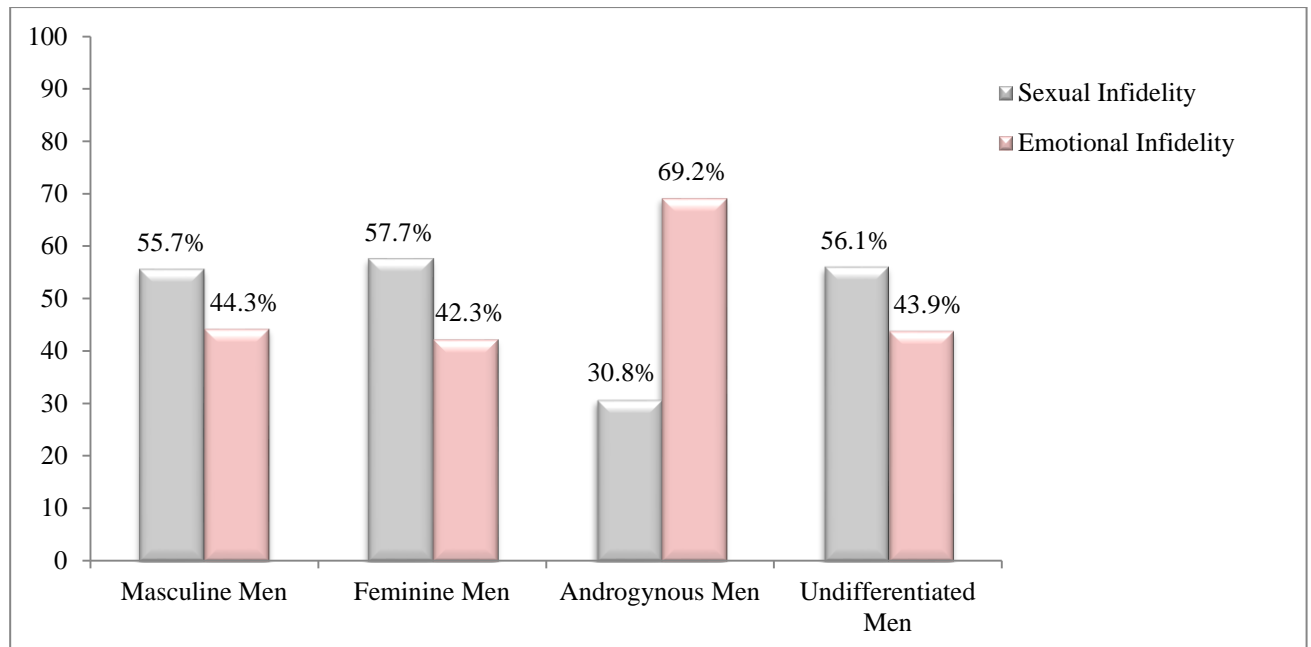


Figure 3.6.1 Percentage of men's distress over sexual and emotional infidelity according to the gender roles as measured by BSRI

In addition, when investigating the samples of androgynous men and the others (masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated men together), an expected significant difference was shown, $\chi^2(1, N = 183) = 8.00, p = .005$.

3.6.2. CSB & CSP

When analyzed the created context specific beliefs (CSB) and context specific perspectives (CSP) in which asked the participants to evaluate their thoughts, two items indicated significant mean differences according to independent-samples t tests. Considering the results, heterosexual men who valued/cared about CSB1 more were distressed by sexual infidelity ($M = 4.45$, $SD = 1.13$) than emotional infidelity ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 1.37$), $t(202) = 2.95$, $p = .004$. On the other side, women who valued/cared higher CSP2 were more distressed by emotional infidelity ($M = 3.09$, $SD = 1.60$) than sexual infidelity ($M = 2.43$, $SD = 1.43$), $t(283) = -2.08$, $p = .038$.

3.6.3. GRAS

Participants' egalitarian or traditional attitudes toward gender roles were measured with GRAS. According to the results, it can be said that almost whole participants were found as quite egalitarian.

Regarding gender, two different independent-samples t tests were conducted to evaluate whether there was an effect of being egalitarian on deciding which infidelity type is more upsetting. First test was not observed as significant for women, in other words, having egalitarian or traditional attitudes did not influence the decisions, $t(298) = -.12$, $p = .907$. However, the second test was shown as significant for men, $t(229) = -2.93$, $p = .004$. Accordingly, men who chose emotional infidelity as more upsetting had more egalitarian attitudes ($M = 160.47$, $SD = 19.66$) than men who chose sexual infidelity ($M = 152.32$, $SD = 22.51$).

4. DISCUSSION

In regard to total sample of this study, although there were significant sex differences, preferences of more upsetting infidelity type were in some ways consistent with the suggestions of the researchers who refused the evolutionary explanation of sex differences in jealousy (e.g. Harris, 2002; Harris 2003a; Sabini & Green, 2004; Carpenter, 2012).

Overall, women in this study were more distressed by the partner's emotional attachment to another person like in many previous studies (e.g. Buss et al., 1992; Buss et al., 1999; Harris, 2003a; Sagarin et al., 2012). Men, on the other hand, were almost equally distressed by the partner's sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity, and in some conditions, although not always significant, men reported emotional infidelity as more upsetting. This pattern in men, namely, choosing emotional infidelity as more upsetting or men choosing both of the infidelity types as equally upsetting, was demonstrated also by a number of other studies, with the within-sex analyses (e.g. Carpenter, 2012; Green & Sabini, 2006; Harris, 2002; Harris, 2003a; Harris & Christenfeld, 1996; Sabini & Green, 2004; Sheets & Wolfe, 2001).

On the basis of the relevant literature, there was no study which resulted in a sex difference where men selected emotional infidelity more than women. Women mostly did tend to choose partner's emotional infidelity as more distressing; whereas men's choices varied from study to study. Hence, it should be taken into consideration that the usual sex difference mostly arises because of women's lopsided preference.

Considering the similar findings with women selecting emotional infidelity as more upsetting just as the present study, inconsistent results from men's preferences about upsetting infidelity type aroused curiosity. Thus, men mostly were taken into account in the analyses of this study.

4.1. Age

The samples in previous studies investigating sex differences in jealousy were often criticized. Owing to advantageous for the academician researchers, many studies were conducted predominantly with the samples of college students. Because of college students' young ages, they were mostly assumed to be inexperienced about romantic relationships by the critics.

In order to test this claim in the current study, participants including students and adults were categorized into two groups according to their age; twenty-five and below, and twenty-six and above. According to the results, men aged twenty-six and above were equally distressed by the two types of infidelity, whereas men aged twenty-five and below found emotional infidelity as more distressing.

This interesting finding is quite inconsistent with the suggestion of Harris (2003a). She claimed that younger age would increase the size of sex differences because young men tend to be more focused on sexuality than older men. However, the present study suggests the opposite.

One possible explanation is that older men might be more experienced in sexual aspects of romantic relationships; therefore their increased discomfort feelings about sexual infidelity in comparison to younger men can result from that experience.

4.2. Sexual Orientation

As mentioned before, results indicated that most women, but also the majority of men found emotional infidelity as more upsetting. Yet when examining with the heterosexual sample only, men became almost equally distressed over the two types of infidelity. In other words, preferences of increased emotional infidelity among men disappeared. Thus, this increase seemed to occur because of the homosexual men's preferences.

In the analyses with the sample of homosexual individuals, there was no significant difference observed between genders' selections of infidelity type. This non-significance is consistent with the studies of Sagarin et al. (2012a) and, Frederick and Fales (2014). In the present study, homosexual women viewed emotional infidelity as upsetting as heterosexual women. However, homosexual men also were distressed by emotional infidelity; similar to the findings of DeSouza et al.'s (2006) and Dijkstra et al.'s (2001). Otherwise, the homosexual women selected emotional infidelity as more upsetting which is contrary to Dijkstra et al.'s (2001) findings about lesbians. Moreover, our results about homosexual women are not consistent with the 'double-shot' hypothesis' prediction about lesbians' preferences over infidelity types. The lesbian sample of this study did not find sexual infidelity as more distressing.

We included homosexual individuals specifically in the study because we started out from the point of view that, if jealousy is a sex-specific innate module as predicted by the evolutionary model, then homosexuals should have made the selection of infidelity type according to their gender. But we did not find the predicted sex difference in homosexual participants. However, Sagarin et al. (2012a) explained this absence of significant sex differences in homosexuals as inevitable with the reproductive threat-based model, because there was no risk of jeopardizing reproduction for homosexuals.

Further analysis in the present study showed that homosexual men chose emotional infidelity as more upsetting; while heterosexual men were equally distressed by the two types of infidelity. According to this result, it can be considered that the frequently observed pattern of men (choosing emotional infidelity as more upsetting) might be caused by the presence of homosexual men in the sample. Thus, sexual orientation should be included as a moderating variable in future jealousy studies.

4.3. Relationship Status

Among married participants, women were again more distressed by emotional infidelity, contrary to Harris (2000) and, Hupka and Bank (1996). On the other hand, married men tended to choose sexual infidelity as more upsetting than emotional infidelity; but there was no observed significant difference between married men and single men in the analyses. So, we could not say that married men chose sexual infidelity as more distressing. Further analyses were conducted with participants who have been married for more than a year, but similar results were found.

Moreover, we examined whether relationship duration had an effect on the decisions of infidelity type, yet no significant effect was found. In other words, duration of the relationship had no effect on the decisions.

When investigating the samples of single men and men who had a committed relationship (i.e. married, engaged, or in a relationship), a significant difference was found. Specifically, single men tended to choose emotional infidelity as more upsetting, whereas men who had a committed relationship chose both infidelity types as almost equally distressing. This result was opposite to Kato's (2014b) study in which he showed that single men were more upset about sexual infidelity.

Eventually, being in a committed relationship did not have an effect on the selection of infidelity types as more upsetting in this study, and these findings are inconsistent with some related studies; such as Becker et al. (2004), Guadagno and Sagarin (2010), Burchell and Ward (2011).

4.4. Relationship Experience

According to the present study's results about relationship experiences, regular findings were found with the participants who had more than one serious committed relationship, participants who had only one serious committed relationship and participants who never had a committed relationship. In all groups, women viewed emotional infidelity as more upsetting, whereas men were almost equally distressed by the two types of the infidelities. This finding in men was not similar to the Buss et al.'s (1992) and Murphy et al.'s (2006) findings which showed that experienced men in relationships were more distressed by sexual infidelity.

Furthermore, a significant difference was observed among women, but not among men, when the number of committed relationship was divided into two groups for both genders as having one or no committed relationship and having two or more committed relationships. According to the results, the selection of sexual infidelity as more upsetting for women who had two or more committed relationship increased significantly compared to women who had one or no committed relationship.

Considering the sample of women in this study -like most studies in the literature-, since they were predominantly distressed by emotional infidelity, it can be said that emotional aspects of romantic relationships were seen as more important by them. And maybe, the sentimentality in relationships might be curbed as a result of increased experience. So that might explain experienced women's increased preferences of sexual infidelity.

4.5. Previous Infidelity Experience and Cheating Experience

Unlike many relevant studies (e.g. Berman & Frazier, 2005; Tagler, 2010; Varga et al., 2011), previous infidelity experience had no effect on our participants' decisions about infidelity types, as consistent with Harris (2000). Having actual experience of infidelity or not, among men or among women, did not change the regular findings: Women still chose emotional infidelity as more upsetting, and men were still almost equally upset by the two

types of infidelity. Besides, participants who had cheating experience exhibited similar findings.

In addition, when men who specifically experienced sexual infidelity were examined, yet again nothing different was found. Moreover, men belonging to this group were more upset over emotional infidelity like women, contrary to the Burchell and Ward's (2011) study.

In sum, if jealousy is a social construct rather than an innate mechanism, social issues such as serious past actual infidelity experiences should have been effective on the selection of infidelity types. Thus, it should be noted that the observed sex differences in jealousy cannot be explained only as an artifact of social factors.

4.6. Gender Roles

In the current study, gender roles were examined via BSRI. According to the BSRI's concept, participants' gender roles were defined as masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated. Individuals distributed to the groups in an expected way, except increased homosexual men and reduced homosexual women in the feminine group. This circumstance happened probably because of sexual orientation, rather than gender. In other words, being homosexual seemed to create a differentiation over gender roles.

At the beginning, it was expected that feminine characters would choose emotional infidelity; while masculine characters would choose sexual infidelity as more upsetting. However, we could not find any results consistent with these predictions. But interestingly, among heterosexual men, especially androgynous ones were more distressed by emotional infidelity whereas all other gender role groups tended to choose sexual infidelity as more upsetting. Contrary to expectations, feminine men did not show this difference. The analyses indicated that this observed difference of androgynous men was significantly differentiated from other gender role groups of men. Since the only group among heterosexual men who choose emotional infidelity as more distressing is the androgynous, future studies on sex differences in jealousy should specifically include this group in the analyses.

4.7. Context Specific Beliefs and Perspectives

By creating these questionnaires -CSB and CSP-, it was aimed to evaluate some specific beliefs and perspectives of individuals about sexuality, emotionality, relational gender stereotypes, and relational common beliefs. The two significant findings on these questionnaires are summarized below.

As expected, women who rated higher on CSP2 were more distressed by emotional infidelity (*CSP2: It bothers me, if my partner fell in love with someone before*). On the other hand, men who rated higher on CSB1 were more distressed by sexual infidelity (*CSB1: His own sexuality is a major issue for a man. Being good at sexual intercourse and being remembered with this performance is quite precious for a man. A man cannot bear on the idea of being inadequate in sexuality. Issue of sexuality can be assumed as related his masculinity*). According to this information, men who were upset by sexual infidelity more are likely to give more importance to their own sexuality and on perceptions of other persons about their sexuality.

It can be said that this finding might be supportive of the social-cognitive model of Harris (2003a; 2003b). Because in this case, in line with the social-cognitive model's predictions, such beliefs and appraisals (as self perceptions and others' perceptions about self) were taken into consideration by men.

4.8. Traditional Views

On account of examining the GRAS's results, the whole sample was found to be quite egalitarian, except three participants. Because of the limitation of the sample (See Limitations), this scale did not provide useful information to the study. Among women, having egalitarian or traditional attitudes did not influence the decisions of which infidelity type was more upsetting. On the other hand, men who tended to choose emotional infidelity as more upsetting were the men who had higher egalitarian scores on GRAS. Yet again, claims based on GRAS would not be valid in this study, because of the samples' qualifications (having this much egalitarian results means a non-normal distribution among scores; also having this much egalitarian participants in the sample is not that representative of the population; See Limitations).

4.9. Limitations

First of all, our sample should not be considered as representative for Turkey. Because according to the examinations, the sample involved mostly highly educated and egalitarian individuals, who are presumably not suitable for the picture of general Turkish population. This limitation might be due to time and localization limitations on data collection; and also might be due to the collection via internet-based sources, which means only internet users could attend the study. Further studies are warranted with more heterogeneous samples for instance varying city from city in Turkey to reach a more representative sample of Turkey. Thus, the possible effects of egalitarian and traditional view can be investigated properly.

Secondly, the number of homosexual participants in the sample was pretty low and this really limited the current study's predictions about homosexual participants. It was too difficult to reach homosexual individuals in Turkey, and also they did not volunteer to participate in the study because they were bored of being subjects in such studies as they explained.

4.10. Conclusion

The current evidence did not fully support either the evolutionary model or the social-cognitive model. Contrary to the evolutionary model, we could not find men selecting sexual infidelity as more upsetting in any cases. On the other hand, the lack of influence of infidelity experiences, relationship status, relationship experiences, gender roles, etc. on jealousy presents a problem for the social-cognitive model.

Despite the fact that the evolutionary model is quite persuasive, recent findings have shown that men are almost equally likely to choose emotional or sexual infidelity as more upsetting. It thus seems clear that men's jealousy preferences extend beyond evolved modules. Future studies should examine the personal and situational factors influencing men's decisions more closely.

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APPENDIX A

Consent Form

Araştırmanın içeriği: Sizden katılmanızı istediğimiz bu araştırma, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans bitirme tezi kapsamında olup; romantik ilişkileri anlamaya ve ikili ilişkileri etkileyen faktörleri incelemeye yönelik bilimsel bir çalışmadır. Araştırma; cinsiyet, yaş, medeni durum gibi bazı demografik bilgileri; sizinle ve yakınlarınızla ilgili olası bazı yaşantıları; kendinizle ve diğer kişilerle ilgili bazı özel düşünceleri sorgulayan çeşitli anket ve sorular içermektedir. Sizden beklenen; soruları ve yönergeleri okuyarak, maddeleri size uygun veya en yakın şekilde cevaplandırmanızdır.

Uygulayan kişi: Psk. Yağmur Gözde Yerlikaya

Doğuş Üniversitesi, Fen
Edebiyat Fakültesi, Psikoloji
Bölümü

Dr. Hasan Galip Bahçekapılı

Doğuş Üniversitesi, Fen
Edebiyat Fakültesi, Psikoloji
Bölümü

Katılım süresi: Yaklaşık 10 dakika

Önemli: Araştırmada sizden yapmanız beklenen dağıtılacak olan anket formlarını doldurmanızdır. Araştırmaya katılımınızla ilgili öngörülen bir risk bulunmamaktadır. Ancak cevaplandırmanız istenen bazı mahrem sorular bulunmaktadır. Eğer herhangi bir noktada cevapladığınız sorulardan kaynaklanan bir sıkıntı yaşarsanız o soruyu boş bırakabilir ya da herhangi bir zamanda bir yaptırım olmadan araştırmadan çekilebilirsiniz. Ancak bilinmelidir ki bazı soruları boş bıraktığınız takdirde, o araştırma analize dahil edilemeyecektir.

Lütfen anket formlarının üzerine isim yazmayın. Kişisel bilgileriniz hiç bir şekilde istenmemekte ve cevaplar anonim olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Sizden sadece bu kağıdı imzalamanız beklenmektedir. Bize verdiğiniz cevaplar sadece akademik amaçla kullanılacaktır. Dürüst ve içten yanıtlarınız, araştırmanın güvenilirliği açısından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Bu yüzden, cevaplarınızı **samimi** bir şekilde vermeniz beklenmektedir.

Eğer araştırma ile ilgili sorularınız olursa y.gozdeyerlikaya@gmail.com adresinden bizlerle bağlantı kurabilirsiniz.

Bu formu imzalayarak, yukarıdaki bilgileri anladığımı ve araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğimi beyan ederim.

İmza: _____

Tarih: _____

APPENDIX B

The Questionnaire

(Demographic Informations and Hypothetical infidelity Dilemma)

Yaş: _____

Cinsiyet: Kadın Erkek

Cinsel Yönelim:

- Heteroseksüel (Cinsel anlamda karşı cinsiyetteki kişilerle ilgilenen)
- Homoseksüel (Cinsel anlamda kendi cinsiyetindeki kişilerle ilgilenen)
- Biseksüel (Cinsel anlamda hem kendi cinsiyetle hem karşı cinsle ilgilenen)

Kendinizin (veya ailenizin) gelir düzeyi nedir?

- Çok iyi İyi Orta Düşük Çok düşük

En uzun süreyle yaşadığınız yer:

- Büyükşehir Şehir İlçe/Belde Köy

Eğitim:

- İlkokul/ilköğretim mezunu
- Lise mezunu
- Üniversite öğrencisi
- Üniversite mezunu
- Yüksek lisans/doktora öğrencisi
- Yüksek lisans/doktora mezunu

Dini inanç:

- Tanrı'ya inanmam
- Tanrı'ya inanıyor ama bir dini tercih etmiyorum
- Müslümanım
- Diğer _____

Kendinizi dindar/inanan biri olup olmama açısından derecelendiriniz:

Hiç dindar değilim		Orta			Çok dindarım	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Medeni Durum:

- Bekar/İlişkisi yok
- İlişkisi var → Ne zamandır: _____
- Nişanlı/Sözlü → Ne zamandır: _____
- Evli → Ne zamandır: _____
- Boşanmış/Dul

Eğer ilişkiniz varsa, bunu nasıl tanımlarsınız;

- Gayet iyi, arada sırada önemsiz sorunlar
- Fena değil, zaman zaman sorunlu
- Ciddi anlamda sorunlu
- Ayrılık aşamasında
- Diğer _____

Şu ana kadar kaç ayrı romantik ilişkiniz oldu: _____

Romantik ilişkilerinizin kaç tane ciddi/uzun süreli bir birlikteliktir: _____

Lütfen geçmişte yaşamış olduğunuz, şu anda yaşadığınız ya da ileride yaşamak isteyebileceğiniz ciddi, romantik bir ilişkiyi düşünün. Bu ciddi beraberlik yaşadığınız kişinin başka birisiyle ilgilenmeye başladığını fark ettiğinizi hayal edin. Aşağıdakilerden hangisi sizi daha çok rahatsız ederdi? (Hangisi size daha çok dokunurdu/üzzerdi?)

--Lütfen en yakın gelen **bir** şıkkı seçiniz--

- Partnerinizin bu kişi ile tutkulu bir cinsel beraberlikten zevk alması (ama arada aşk yok)

Partnerinizin bu diğer kişi ile derin duygusal bir bağlılık kurması/ona aşık olması (ama arada cinsellik yok)

Anne ve babanızın ilişkisi (vefat eden varsa, hayattayken ilişkileri):

- Hala birlikteler Boşandılar Ayrı yaşıyorlar Diğer _____

Anne-babanız arasında duygusal anlamda (başkasına aşık olma) veya cinsel anlamda (başkasıyla cinsel birliktelik yaşama) herhangi bir aldatma yaşandı mı?

- Evet → Hangi taraf aldattı: Baba Anne Her ikisi de
 Hayır

Daha önce size çok yakın olan birinin (kardeşler, yakın akraba, yakın arkadaş vs.) aldatıldığına yakından şahit olduğunuz oldu mu?

- Evet → 1 kez 2-3 kez 4-5 kez 6-6+ kez
 Hayır

Aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size uygun olanı/olanları işaretleyiniz.

- Hiç aldatılmadım.
 Duygusal anlamda aldatıldığım oldu → 1 kez 2-3 kez 4-4+ kez
 Cinsel anlamda aldatıldığım oldu → 1 kez 2-3 kez 4-4+ kez
 Hem duygusal hem cinsel anlamda aldatıldığım oldu → 1 kez 2-3 kez 4-4+ kez

Eğer aldatıldıysanız, nasıl bir tepki gösterdiniz? (Birden fazla seçeneği işaretleyebilirsiniz)

- Bu bilgiyi kendime sakladım/anlamazlıktan geldim
 Yüzüne vurdum, hesap sordum
 İlişkiyi hemen bitirdim
 Onu sevdiğim için affettim ve ilişkiye devam ettim
 Gururum çok kırıldı ve kimseye güvenemez oldum
 Çok öfkelen dim ve ona şiddet gösterdim → Fiziksel Sözel
 Diğer _____

Daha önce hiç siz aldattınız mı?

- Hiç aldatmadım
 Duygusal anlamda aldattığım oldu → 1 kez 2-3 kez 4-4+ kez
 Cinsel anlamda aldattığım oldu → 1 kez 2-3 kez 4-4+ kez
 Hem duygusal hem cinsel anlamda aldattığım oldu → 1 kez 2-3 kez 4-4+ kez

APPENDIX C

Content Specific Beliefs (CSB)

Lütfen aşağıdaki tanımlara ne derecede katıldığınızı işaretleyiniz.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum | 4 Biraz katılıyorum |
| 2 Katılmıyorum | 5 Katılıyorum |
| 3 Pek katılmıyorum | 6 Kesinlikle katılıyorum |

1. Bir erkek için cinselliği çok önemli bir konudur. Cinsellikte iyi olması ve bu şekilde anılması onun için oldukça değerlidir. Erkek cinsel açıdan yetersiz olma fikrine katlanamaz. Cinsellik konusunun onun erkekliliğiyle bağlantılı olduğu söylenebilir.

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum			Kesinlikle katılıyorum		
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. Bir kadın için aşk çok önemli bir konudur. Sevgi görmek, duygusal bağlılık ve sahiplenilmek gibi konular onun için oldukça değerlidir. Kadın, partnerinin ilgisinin çoğunu ona veriyor olmasını ister ve bunu bekler. Kadınlar genel olarak duygusaldırlar.

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum			Kesinlikle katılıyorum		
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. Bir erkeğin cinsel ilişkiye girmesi için bu kişiye illa aşık olmuş olması gerekmez; ama kadın cinsel ilişkiye giriyorsa aşık olmuştur.

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum			Kesinlikle katılıyorum		
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. Bir kadın aşık olmuşsa, bu illa o kişiyle cinsel ilişkiye gireceği anlamına gelmez; ama bir erkek aşık olmuşsa, o kişiyle cinsel ilişkiye girecektir.

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum			Kesinlikle katılıyorum		
1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX E

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)

Aşağıdaki özelliklerin her birinin sizi tanımlama bakımından ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşününüz. Her özelliğin karşısına, size uygunluğunu

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|
| 1 Hiç uygun değil | 5 Biraz uygun |
| 2 Genellikle uygun değil | 6 Genellikle uygun |
| 3 Pek uygun değil | 7 Her zaman uygun |
| 4 Kararsızım | |

	Uygunluk numarası		Uygunluk numarası
1. Ağırbaşlı, ciddi		21. İdealist	
2. Ailesine karşı sorumlu		22. İncinmiş duyguları tamir etmeye istekli	
3. Anlayışlı		23. Kaba dil kullanmayan	
4. Baskın, tesirli		24. Kadınsı	
5. Başkalarının ihtiyaçlarına duyarlı		25. Kendi ihtiyaçlarını savunan	
6. Boyun eğen		26. Kendine güvenen	
7. Cana yakın		27. Kuralcı, katı	
8. Cömert		28. Lider gibi davranan	
9. Çocukları seven		29. Mantıklı	
10. Duygularını açığa vurmeyen		30. Merhametli	
11. Duygusal		31. Namuslu	
12. Erkeksi		32. Otoriter	
13. Etkileyici, güçlü		33. Riski göze almaktan çekinmeyen	
14. Fedakar		34. Sadık	
15. Girişken		35. Saldırgan	
16. Gönül alan		36. Sevecen	
17. Gözü pek		37. Sıkılgan	
18. Haksızlığa karşı tavır alan		38. Sözünde duran	
19. Hassas		39. Tatlı dilli	
20. Hırslı		40. Yumuşak, nazik	

APPENDIX F

The Gender Roles Attitudes Scale (GRAS)

Aşağıdaki tabloda toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine ilişkin bazı tutumlar bulunmaktadır. Bu cümlelerden hiçbirisinin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Her cümle ile ilgili görüş, kişiden kişiye değişebilir. Bunun için vereceğiniz cevaplar sizin kendi görüşünüzü yansıtmalıdır. Her cümle ile ilgili görüşünüzü belirtirken, önce cümleyi dikkatlice okuyunuz, sonra cümlede belirtilen düşüncenin, sizin düşünce ve duygularınıza ne derecede uygun olduğuna karar veriniz.

Aşağıdaki cümleler size;

- Hiç uygun değilse → “Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum”
 Uygun değilse → “Katılmıyorum”
 Karar veremiyorsanız → “Kararsızım”
 Uygunsa → “Katılıyorum”
 Tamamen uygunsa → “Tamamen Katılıyorum” seçeneğini işaretleyiniz.

Tutum İfadeleri	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Kızlar, ekonomik bağımsızlıklarını kazandıklarında ailelerinden ayrı yaşayabilmelidir.					
2. Erkeğin evde her dediği yapılmalıdır.					
3. Kadının yapacağı meslekler ile erkeğin yapacağı meslekler ayrı olmalıdır.					
4. Evlilikte çocuk sahibi olma kararını eşler birlikte vermelidir.					
5. Bir genç kızın evleneceği kişiyi seçmesinde son sözü baba söylemelidir.					
6. Kadının erkek çocuk doğurması onun değerini artırır.					
7. Kadının doğurganlık özelliği nedeniyle, iş başvurularında erkekler tercih edilmelidir.					
8. Ailede ev işleri, eşler arasında eşit paylaşılmalıdır.					
9. Kadının yaşamıyla ilgili kararları kocası vermelidir.					
10. Kadınlar kocalarıyla anlaşamadıkları konularda tartışmak yerine susmayı tercih etmelidir .					

Tutum İfadeleri	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
11. Bir genç kız, evlenene kadar babasının sözünü dinlemelidir.					
12. Ailenin maddi olanaklarından kız ve erkek çocuk eşit yararlanmalıdır.					
13. Çalışma yaşamında kadınlara ve erkeklere eşit ücret ödenmelidir.					
14. Bir erkeğin karısını aldatması normal karşılanmalıdır.					
15. Kadının çocuğu olmuyorsa erkek tekrar evlenmelidir.					
16. Kadının temel görevi anneliktir.					
17. Evin reisi erkektir.					
18. Dul kadın da dul erkek gibi yalnız başına yaşayabilmelidir.					
19. Bir genç kızın, flört etmesine ailesi izin vermelidir.					
20. Ailede kararları eşler birlikte almalıdır.					
21. Bir kadın akşamları tek başına sokağa çıkabilmelidir.					
22. Eşler boşandığında mallar eşit paylaşılmalıdır.					
23. Kız bebeğe pembe, erkek bebeğe mavi renkli giysiler giydirilmelidir.					
24. Erkeğin en önemli görevi evini geçindirmektir.					
25. Erkeğin maddi gücü yeterliyse kadın çalışmamalıdır.					
26. Evlilikte, kadın istemediği zaman cinsel ilişkiyi reddetmelidir.					
27. Mesleki gelişme fırsatlarında kadınlara ve erkeklere eşit haklar tanınmalıdır.					
28. Evlilikte erkeğin öğrenim düzeyi kadından yüksek olmalıdır.					
29. Bir kadın cinsel ilişkiyi evlendikten sonra yaşamalıdır.					
30. Ailede erkek çocuğun öğrenim görmesine öncelik tanınmalıdır.					
31. Erkeğin evleneceği kadın bakire olmalıdır.					

Tutum İfadeleri	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
32. Alışveriş yapma, fatura ödeme gibi ev dışı işlerle erkek uğraşmalıdır.					
33. Erkekler statüsü yüksek olan mesleklerde çalışmalıdır.					
34. Ailede kazancın nasıl kullanılacağına erkek karar vermelidir.					
35. Bir erkek gerektiğinde karısını dövmelidir.					
36. Evlilikte gebelikten korunmak sadece kadının sorumluluğudur.					
37. Bir kadın hastaneye gittiğinde kadın doktora muayene olmalıdır.					
38. Evlilikte erkeğin yaşı kadından büyük olmalıdır.					

APPENDIX G

The Acknowledgement Letter

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Katıldığınız bu araştırmanın amacı aşağıda özetlenmiştir:

Kıskançlık konusunun zaman zaman, bazen de sıkça romantik ilişkilerde gündemi oluşturduğu bilinmektedir. İnsana dair olan bu duygu birçok yönden araştırılmakta ve farklı bakış açılarıyla açıklanmaktadır.

Bu araştırmada ilgilenilen, kıskançlığın evrimsel yönden ele alınmasıdır; buna göre, kadın ve erkekler romantik kıskançlık ve sadakatsizliğin türü açısından farklılıklar göstermektedir. Evrimsel bakış açısı bu farkı, kişilerin bilinçli olarak farkında olmadıkları ama evrimle taşınan ve altta yatan adaptif problemlerin sonucu olarak açıklamaktadır: Kadınlar eşlerinin duygusal aldatmasını (başka birine aşık olmasını) daha rahatsız edici bulmaktadır, çünkü bu, eşin kaynaklarını diğer kişiye vereceği anlamını taşımaktadır. Erkekler ise eşlerinin cinsel aldatmasını (başka birisi ile cinsel ilişkiye girmesini) daha rahatsız edici bulmaktadır, çünkü bu, babalık şüphesi ve kaynakları belki de başka birinin çocuğuna yatırma anlamına gelmektedir.

Tüm dünyada yapılan birçok araştırma bu farkı desteklemektedir ve bunun sonucunda evrimsel görüş yaygın şekilde kabul görmektedir. Ancak bu farka açık şekilde ulaşamamış ve farklılığı özellikle sosyal, bilişsel ve kültürel başka değişkenlerle açıklayan başka araştırmaların da varlığı söz konusudur. Ayrıca eşcinsel bireylerin evrimsel açıklamada konunun neresinde olduğu açık olmamasına rağmen, eşcinsel bireyleri de çalışmaya katarak yapılan çok az araştırma bulunmaktadır. Böyle bir araştırma Türkiye’de olmadığı gibi; klasik evrimsel farklılığın Türk toplumundaki görünümünü araştıran çalışmaların sayısı da oldukça azdır.

Tüm bu bilgilerden yola çıkarak araştırma kıskançlıktaki cinsiyet farklılığına dair beş temel soruya cevap aramaktadır:

- (a) Eşcinsel grup, evli grup, ve evli olmayan heteroseksüel grup ayrı ayrı beklenen cinsiyet farklılığını gösterecek midir?
- (b) Bireysel veya dolaylı aldatılma deneyimlerinin, geçmiş ilişki yaşantılarının, ve cinselliğe bakış açılarının kıskançlık üzerinde etkisi var mıdır?
- (c) Maskülen, feminen, androjen ve nötr olma gibi cinsiyet rollerinin kıskançlık üzerinde etkisi var mıdır?
- (d) Toplumsal cinsiyet rolü tutumlarının kıskançlık üzerinde etkisi var mıdır?

CURRICULUM VITAE

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