



Romantic Jealousy: A Comprehensive Review

Romantik Kıskançlık: Kapsamlı Bir Derleme

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ABSTRACT

Jealousy in a romantic relationship can have destructive consequences, such as ending relationships and leading to violent behaviors. Despite being heavily studied internationally for nearly three decades, it has not received sufficient attention in Turkish psychology literature. From this point of view, this article aims to address romantic jealousy from various perspectives, with the intention of providing ideas for future studies on the subject. The article discusses jealousy in a romantic relationship, taking various theoretical explanations into account to understand its triggers and forms of expression. It also includes the findings of various studies on jealousy in the international and Turkish literature. Finally, the article provides application and research suggestions based on the information obtained. According to the results of the reviewed studies, although jealousy is a universal emotion, there are intercultural differences in the experience of jealousy. As demonstrated by the reviewed studies, further research is necessary in both international literature and Türkiye to fully comprehend the dynamics of romantic jealousy and prevent its destructive consequences.

Keywords: Jealousy, interpersonal relations, intimate partner violence

ÖZ

Romantik kıskançlık, ilişkilerin sonlanması, şiddet davranışlarının ortaya çıkması gibi pek çok yıkıcı sonuca yol açabilmektedir. Buna karşın, uluslararası alanyazında yaklaşık otuz yıldır çalışılan romantik kıskançlığın Türkiye'deki psikoloji alanyazınında yeterli ilgiyi görmediği anlaşılmaktadır. Buradan hareketle makalede, konuyla ilgili gerçekleştirilecek sonraki çalışmalara fikir vereceği düşüncesiyle romantik kıskançlığı çeşitli yönleriyle ele almak amaçlanmıştır. Bu doğrultuda makalede ilk olarak kıskançlık ve romantik kıskançlıktan söz edilmektedir. Ardından kıskançlığa dair çeşitli kuramsal açıklamalara, kıskançlığın tetikleyicilerine ve ifade biçimlerine yer verilmiştir. Bunları, uluslararası ve Türkiye alanyazınından kıskançlıkla ilgili yapılmış çalışma örnekleri izlemektedir. Son olarak, elde edilen bilgiler doğrultusunda bazı uygulama ve araştırma önerilerine yer verilmiştir. İncelenen çalışma bulgularına göre, evrensel bir duygu olmasına karşın kıskançlık deneyiminde kültürlerarası farklılıklar vardır. Ayrıca, makale kapsamında incelenen çalışmaların da gösterdiği gibi, romantik kıskançlığın dinamiklerinin ortaya konması, daha iyi anlaşılması ve yıkıcı sonuçlarının önüne geçilebilmesi için uluslararası alanyazında ve Türkiye'de daha fazla çalışmaya gereksinim vardır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Kıskançlık, kişilerarası ilişkiler, yakın partner şiddeti

Introduction

A romantic relationship is an important source of wellbeing and perceiving a meaningful life. However, as the sources of psychological and emotional satisfaction for an individual, romantic relationship can also be detrimental for individuals because of negative and contentious situations due to negative feelings such as jealousy. Jealousy towards a romantic partner significantly affects not only the person who feels or expresses it but also their partner, which ultimately affects the couple's emotional state. Not only negative emotional outcomes for couples, romantic jealousy can also lead to fatal consequences such as suicide and homicide (Martínez-León et al. 2017). For example, in a study conducted in the Philippines, 17% of participants cited romantic jealousy as a trigger for intimate partner violence (Ansara and Hindin 2009). Similarly, a study conducted using the National Violence Fatality Reporting System (NVDRS) database in the United States revealed that jealousy was one of the most important causes of intimate partner homicide among adolescents (Adhia et al. 2019). Data from Türkiye also show that the reasons for 45% of intimate partner homicides are reported as infidelity, honor, and romantic jealousy (Toprak and Ersoy 2017). Moreover, acts of violence motivated by jealousy may not be perceived negatively enough and considered as an expression of love because of the continued effects of patriarchal gender roles in modern societies (Makepeace 1981, Puente and Cohen 2003, Vandello and Cohen 2008). For instance, Puente and Cohen's (2003) study showed that participants reported a man who abuses his wife out of jealousy loves his wife more than a man who does not abuse his wife.

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The information provided suggests that understanding the dynamics and outcomes of romantic jealousy is crucial from both public health and academic perspectives. This article aims to examine romantic jealousy, which is one of the important factors in the termination of romantic relationships and femicide (Milroy 1995, Carson and Cupach 2000, Martínez-León et al. 2017, Sümer 2017, Toprak and Ersoy 2017). In other words, this article aims to understand romantic jealousy, identify the associated variables, provide suggestions for future research, and contribute to resolving jealousy problems in a romantic relationship. Additionally, this article aims to serve as a resource for those with academic or personal interest in romantic jealousy, which has only been in the international literature for approximately thirty years (White and Mullen 1989, Melamed 1991, Pines 1992, Guerrero et al. 1995, Sharpsteen 1995, Guerrero 1998, Carson and Cupach 2000). Thus, the concepts of jealousy and romantic jealousy are first discussed below. Subsequently, various theoretical explanations, triggers, and expression forms of jealousy are presented. This is followed by examples of international and Turkish studies on jealousy. Finally, some practical and research suggestions are provided based on the information obtained.

Jealousy

Although there are many different definitions of jealousy, these definitions converge at several points: 1) a real or imagined rival involved in a dyadic relationship, 2) a perceived threat due to the presence of the rival, and 3) the fear of loss generated by the threat (White 1981a, Salovey and Rodin 1986, Brehm 1992, Pines 1998). In general, jealousy can be defined as a negative emotional experience arising from the threat of losing a valued relationship due to a real or imagined rival (Salovey and Rodin 1988, Hupka 1991, Parrott and Smith 1993). The three emotions that best characterize jealousy are hurt, anger, and fear (Guerrero and Andersen 1997). According to DeSteno and Salovey (1994), the essential component of jealousy is the presence of a relationship that one could lose and a rival capable of taking that relationship away. Apart from romantic jealousy, there are many types of jealousy such as sibling jealousy, child-parent jealousy, friend jealousy, and co-worker jealousy.

Jealousy is often confused with envy (Parrott and Smith 1993, Kim and Hupka 2002). Therefore, it is useful to address the emotion of envy and its differences from jealousy. Jealousy involves the thought of losing an object or a relationship, typically with a person, due to the presence of a third entity; whereas envy involves an assessment that one is experiencing an undeserved lack (Ben-Ze'ev 2010). In envy, there is a desire for something possessed by someone else, whereas in jealousy, there is a desire to retain or regain something/someone perceived as one's own (Sanders 2014). In simpler terms, jealousy is characterized by a fear of losing something to someone else, whereas envy is the desire to obtain something that someone else has. In the context of romantic relationships, jealousy is associated with a triadic relationship (the individual, their romantic partner, and the rival who poses a risk of losing the relationship). In contrast, envy in a romantic relationship is associated with a dyadic relationship (the individual and the rival who has what they want to obtain) (Spielman 1971).

Romantic Jealousy

Romantic jealousy can broadly be defined as a set of thoughts, feelings, and actions that emerge when one perceives a romantic attraction between their partner and another person, perceived as a rival in their relationship regardless of whether this rival is real or imagined. This perception often leads to a loss or threat to one's self-esteem (White and Mullen 1989). There are cross-cultural differences in how romantic jealousy is encouraged, how frequently it is felt, and what behaviors are deemed acceptable in response to this feeling (Hupka 1991, Puente and Cohen 2003). The fact that perceptions of romantic jealousy differ across cultures results in different manifestations of jealousy. For example, since the 1960s, jealousy in modern cultures has been associated with outdated sexual morals, patriarchal values, and an assault on individual freedom (Guerrero and Andersen 1997). On the other hand, in honor cultures, where individuals see something, they consider as their own as emotionally valuable and as a means of legitimizing violent behavior, violence arising from jealousy is seen as justified and legitimate (Puente and Cohen 2003). Moreover, in these cultures, the distinction between self-image and social reputation is not as clear as it is in individualistic cultures (Kim et al. 1994). Therefore, in honor cultures, where the masculine honor code is formed by the woman's fidelity, a violation is perceived as a threat to both the man and the family (Baldry et al. 2013). Thus, violence against women carried out in the name of preserving honor serves to reassert control over women (Cihangir 2013).

The researchers posit that although the experience of jealousy is universal, the conditions that lead to jealousy differ between cultures (Clanton and Smith 1977, Hupka 1981, White and Mullen 1989). According to Russell (1957), jealousy serves the smooth functioning of the patriarchal social order. In other words, in patriarchal societies, jealousy helps men maintain their property while also being used as a tool for women to keep the family

together (Guerrero and Andersen 1997). Jealousy is most prevalent in cultures with rigid gender roles, where women are seen as property, therefore, a marriage has provided men with a property right as well as important social status to protect (Whitehurst 1977, Hupka and Ryan 1990). For instance, Watts's (1958) study showed that jealousy is encouraged in Christian and Jewish cultures because adultery is viewed as a violation of property rights and a loss of social status for a man. In these cultures, jealousy interacts with moral values to act as a mechanism that people hope to prevent extramarital sexual relations. Despite this, there are also cultures where jealousy is less prevalent. Hupka (1981) notes that cultures that place less value on marriage and individual property rights, view sexual experiences and close relationships as accessible, and do not emphasize the need for genetic offspring, exhibit lower levels of jealousy. The perception of jealousy has undergone a transformation in contemporary societies, particularly with the influence of the feminist movement in the 1960s (Guerrero and Andersen 1997). According to Clanton and Smith (1977), jealousy has become the new sin of the liberated generation in modern societies. From a point of psychological approach which focuses on emotions, romantic jealousy can generally be considered a mix of various emotions, such as anger, frustration, insecurity, misfortune, helplessness, sadness, grief, shame, and humiliation (Salovey and Rothman 1991). Consistent with these associated emotions, romantic jealousy is known to lead to various violent behaviors and to have significant consequences. Before discussing these consequences, some psychological explanations regarding the possible sources of jealousy are presented below.

Psychological Theories to Explain Jealousy

Attachment Theory

According to attachment theory, the dimensions of attachment that develop based on the quality of the relationship between an infant and their caregiver in the early stages of life play a decisive role in the individual's future romantic relationships and their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors related to jealousy (Hazan and Shaver 1987). The theory classifies three attachment styles that people have gained from early childhood such as the secure, anxious-ambivalent, and avoidant attachment style (Ainsworth et al. 1978, Hazan and Shaver 1987). According to this framework, individuals with avoidant attachment tend to feel uncomfortable with closeness and dependence on their romantic partners, and they prefer emotional distance. Anxiously attached individuals, on the other hand, have a strong desire for closeness and to maintain the existing relationship, while exhibiting intense anxiety and insecurity regarding their partner's presence and the value placed on the partner. Securely attached individuals find it relatively easy to get close to others and have a lower tendency to worry about being abandoned or becoming too close to someone.

Empirical studies have demonstrated a positive correlation between jealousy and feelings of insecurity and uncertainty (McIntosh 1989, Afifi and Reichert 1996, Parker 1997). Given that individuals with high attachment anxiety are more dependent on the approval of others, it can be predicted that they will experience jealousy and its negative emotions more frequently (Curun and Çapkın 2014). Indeed, research has reported that securely attached individuals typically exhibit low levels of jealousy and employ constructive strategies such as openly discussing issues with their partners. In contrast, anxiously attached individuals display high levels of jealousy and respond with dysfunctional behaviors such as monitoring their partners (Hazan and Shaver 1987, Collins and Read 1990, Radecki-Bush et al. 1993, Buunk 1997, Sharpsteen and Kirkpatrick 1997, Guerrero 1998). Avoidantly attached individuals tend to exhibit low levels of jealousy and are more likely to direct their anger and blame towards rivals rather than their partners (Wegner et al. 2018, Richter et al. 2022). These differences in attachment styles can be explained by the negative self-perception and dependency on others observed in anxiously attached individuals, and the positive self-perception and avoidance of closeness seen in avoidantly attached individuals (Griffin and Bartholomew 1994).

Evolutionary Psychology Approach

Evolutionary psychology approach suggests that humans are motivated by instinctual processes driven by natural selection, sexual selection, and mate retention. According to the approach, a man's desire to ensure paternity and efforts to retain his mate provide a biological foundation for jealousy and possessiveness, making jealousy culturally universal (Buss 1988, Daly and Wilson 1988). From this perspective, men can increase their reproductive potential through multiple mating, thereby fathering more offspring (Buss 1988, Daly and Wilson 1988). However, if females also engage in a similar reproductive strategy, men's paternity becomes uncertain, and they face the risk of raising children who are not genetically their own (Buss 1988). In other words, a man can only guarantee his paternity by preventing a sexual relationship of his partner with other men.

Consequently, this paternal uncertainty may lead men to adopt relationship strategies such as jealousy, anger, and possessive behaviors (Guerrero and Andersen 1997).

The evolutionary perspective suggests that women's jealousy is grounded differently from men's jealousy. Due to processes such as pregnancy and breastfeeding, women's reproductive opportunities are more limited compared to men, making them more selective (Walters and Crawford 1994). Therefore, women should focus on men's resources and fidelity rather than their health, youth, and physical attractiveness (Buss 1988, Kenrick and Trost 1989). Researchers who argue that a threat to long-term relationships can provoke jealousy in women emphasize that such jealousy is often triggered by threats to relational, emotional, and economic resources (Buss 1988, Kenrick and Trost 1989, Kenrick and Keefe 1992, Greenlees and McGrew 1994). Despite these explanations, there are several criticisms of the evolutionary explanation of jealousy. Firstly, it is argued that jealousy is not a protective strategy since it typically arises after a partner has engaged in a relationship with someone else (Guerrero and Andersen 1997). Additionally, the fact that humanity has largely adapted to modern social life by suppressing various instinctual behaviors also questions the validity of the evolutionary explanation (Guerrero and Andersen 1997).

Psychodynamic Approach

According to the psychodynamic approach, during the oedipal stage, children experience the initial awakenings of sexuality and direct their sexual impulses toward the nearest person of the opposite sex (typically the mother or father). In this scenario, they also face the nearest person of the same sex as a bigger and stronger rival. When the child reaches adulthood, if a third person threatens their romantic relationship, this childhood experience is reactivated, resulting in jealousy (Freud 1923). Additionally, this approach posits that repressed elements such as drives, fears, desires, and traumatic memories play an active role in triggering jealousy (Pines 1998).

Freud (1923) categorized jealousy into three types: competitive or normal jealousy, projected jealousy, and delusional jealousy. In normal jealousy, the individual suffers from the perception of losing something important to a perceived rival. In projected jealousy, it is assumed that everyone has an inclination to cheat, and projection is used as a coping mechanism to suppress this impulse. Delusional jealousy is a type of paranoia where people make the same sex rival an object of jealousy. According to Freud (1923), the fundamental cause of delusional jealousy is the repression of childhood interest in the same-sex parent, which is later directed toward the opposite sex in adulthood and manifests through repressed and distorted homosexual impulses.

One of the important critiques in the literature is that the psychoanalysis approach places excessive emphasis on early childhood experiences in the formation of jealousy, while not adequately highlighting current factors such as the dynamics of the relationship (Pines 1998). Another lack in this approach is that it overlooks the conscious expectations and events that contribute to the emergence and maintenance of jealousy by focusing more on the unconscious process (Pines 1998).

Theory of Interpersonal Relationships

Jealousy also finds its place in the theory of interpersonal relationships proposed by Sullivan (1953). According to Sullivan (1953), jealousy arises from situations that trigger an individual's feelings of inadequacy. In other words, jealousy occurs when an individual believes that their relationship will be ended by a third person whom they perceive to be better than themselves (Sullivan 1953). For instance, in a heterosexual relationship, when a man believes his best friend is better than him, and also introduces him to his partner, then if they develop a close bond right after he was introduced, the man starts to feel jealous. In this situation, the person whose feelings of inadequacy are triggered will begin to feel jealous, believing that their friend is better than he is, and assuming that the relationship between his friend and his partner will be better (Mathes 1992). However, Sullivan (1953) suggested that jealousy decreases with age and maturation, explaining this by noting that a mature individual become more aware of complete relationships, therefore they develop a better coping mechanism to maintain multiple close relationships.

Systemic Approach

Similar to the evolutionary approach, the systemic approach also considers jealousy to have a functional role (Elbaum 1981). Jealousy is seen as an outcome of the dynamics within a romantic relationship, reflecting the issues or problems present within that relationship (Barker 1987, Pines 1998, Çapkın 2012). According to this approach, the focus should be on the forces that generate and sustain jealousy. Thus, the primary focus should

not be on the individual but on the higher-level system of which the individual is a part—namely, the relationship (Pines 1998). At a system level, jealousy should be evaluated as a communicative tool that serves a specific function within the relationship (Dokur and Profeta 2006).

Unlike the evolutionary approach, the systemic approach offers solutions to address jealousy. To effect change in the person experiencing jealousy, it is necessary to change their relationship system (Margolin 1985, Pines 1998). The focus of intervention is on changing behaviors in both partners that help maintain the issue of jealousy, thereby bringing about change in the entire system (Margolin 1985, Pines 1998, Dokur and Profeta 2006). The systemic approach is criticized for its lack of emphasis on early childhood experiences and the unconscious origins of jealousy (Pines 1998).

Social Comparison Theory

Social comparison theory suggests that individuals enhance their self-esteem by comparing themselves to others who are less desirable (Guerrero and Andersen 1997). Salovey and Rodin (1988) state that jealousy holds significant importance in romantic relationships due to individuals' tendencies to engage in social comparison. These comparisons can pose a serious threat to an individual's self-esteem (Ellis and Weinstein 1986). When an individual perceives that their partner shows romantic interest in someone else, they may view this person as a rival. Therefore, the perceived rival for the person becomes a comparison object on the dimensions such as the individual considers important for self-esteem, important for their partner, or general attractiveness (Buunk and Dijkstra 2004). Depending on the dimension of comparison, individuals may engage in different strategic responses such as normalization if they evaluate their rival as inferior, or reduction of importance and underestimation if they evaluate themselves as inferior (Buunk and Dijkstra 2004).

Characteristics Associated with Jealousy

Individual Characteristics

Self-Esteem

Insecurity and low self-esteem are considered fundamental personality traits that predict jealousy, as they make individuals more vulnerable to the perceived threat posed by the presence of a third party (Berscheid and Fei 1977, Francis 1977, White 1981a, Melamed 1991, Sharpsteen 1995). Guerrero (1998) found that individuals with negative self-perception experienced higher levels of jealousy, while those with attachment anxiety experienced more negative affect. Similarly, Mead (1977) stated that jealousy arises from threats to self-esteem. Additionally, White (1981a) suggested that individuals with high feelings of inadequacy perceive greater threats to their self-esteem in the presence of an actual or imagined rival and found that feelings of inadequacy as a partner were positively and significantly associated with jealousy for both genders. DeSteno, Valdesolo, and Bartlett (2006) found in an experimental study that threatened self-esteem is a primary source of jealousy.

Consistent with these findings, researchers also believe that jealousy may play a role in an individual's efforts to regain self-esteem (Mathes et al. 1985, Nadler and Dotan 1992, DeSteno and Salovey 1996b). Studies have supported this argument by showing that jealousy increases as self-esteem decreases (Stewart and Beatty 1985, Adams 2012, Hamid 2013, Farooq et al. 2020, Arpacioğlu et al. 2022).

Gender

The studies conducted have revealed that there are differences between genders in terms of reported jealousy status, level, type, reactions to jealousy and coping mechanisms (Mathes and Severa 1981, White 1981a, Hansen 1982, Pines and Aronson 1983, Peretti and Pudowski 1997). Consequently, while men tend to find partner behavior towards sexual infidelity more disturbing than emotional infidelity, the opposite is true for women (Buss et al. 1992, Geary et al. 1995, Buunk et al. 1996, Hupka and Bank 1996, Pines and Friedman 1998, Wiederman and LaMar 1998, Cann et al. 2001, Cramer et al. 2001, Demirtas 2004, Edlund and Sagarin 2017, Pavela Banai et al. 2022).

Despite numerous studies support the existence of gender differences in romantic jealousy, there are also findings that show no significant differences between genders (Hupka 1981, White 1981a, Green and Sabini 2006). In order to explain these contradictory findings, as suggested by Demirtaş (2004), it may be useful to consider the gender variable in jealousy as a multidimensional variable and to examine in detail the differences between genders in dimensions such as triggers of jealousy, forms of expression of jealousy and beliefs about jealousy.

Attachment Styles

As outlined within the framework of attachment theory, the relationship between jealousy and attachment can vary according to an individual's attachment dimensions (Sharpsteen and Kirkpatrick 1997, Retana and Sánchez 2008). Studies examining the relationship between jealousy and attachment dimensions have found that individuals with an anxious attachment style exhibit more jealousy compared to those with a secure attachment style (Hazan and Shaver 1987, Buunk 1997, Sharpsteen and Kirkpatrick 1997, Guerrero 1998). Knobloch, Solomon, and Cruz (2001) also indicated that the anxious attachment dimension has a direct positive effect on emotional jealousy. These differences are explained by the negative self-perception characteristic of anxious attachment, in contrast to the positive self-perception associated with avoidant and secure attachments (Griffin and Bartholomew 1994). In other words, it is understandable that individuals with high anxiety experience more jealousy given their dependency on others' approval for their self-esteem (Curun and Çapkın 2014). In a study by Marazziti et al. (2010), a positive relationship was found between jealousy dimensions such as suspicion, fear of loss, and self-confidence, and the avoidant attachment dimension. Similarly, Rydell and Bringle (2007) divided jealousy into types and found that experiencing suspicious jealousy was associated with lower self-esteem and insecure (anxious and avoidant) attachment dimensions. Consistent with these findings, another study found that as attachment anxiety increased, Facebook jealousy also increased. Additionally, low levels of trust and low levels of attachment avoidance were associated with higher levels of Facebook jealousy (Hira and Bhogal 2022).

Relational Characteristics

Duration of Relationship

The literature indicates that the level of jealousy reported by couples varies depending on various relational characteristics, yet the findings are often contradictory. Some studies have found that individuals in long-term relationships report stronger jealousy (Aune and Comstock 1997, Arnocky et al. 2015), while others have found a negative relationship between the duration of the relationship and jealousy (Buunk 1981, Aylor and Dainton 2001, Demirtaş and Dönmez 2006). The positive relationship between relationship duration and jealousy is explained by the notion that jealousy increases with the length of the relationship due to the investment individuals have made in the relationship (White 1981b, Bringle and Buunk 1985). Conversely, the negative relationship between these two variables is explained by the increase in trust towards the partner and the belief in the partner's commitment to the relationship as the relationship duration extends (Perlman and Duck 1987). In future studies examining the relationship between relationship duration and jealousy, it is recommended to particularly consider the amount of trust in the relationship and the level of investment made in the relationship.

Type of Relationship

When examining the type of relationship, most research indicates that unmarried individuals report more jealousy compared to married individuals (Buunk 1980, Aylor and Dainton 2001, Demirtaş 2004, Arslan 2015). These findings can be explained by the fact that unmarried individuals have less confidence in their partner's commitment and that married individuals perceive their partner's extra relational involvements as less threatening (Buunk 1980, Perlman and Duck 1987).

Relationship Satisfaction

The literature presents numerous findings indicating that as relationship satisfaction increases, the level of jealousy decreases (Pines and Aronson 1983, White and Mullen 1989, Guerrero and Eloy 1992, Andersen and Eloy 1995, Knox et al. 1999, Bevan 2013, David and Roberts 2021). However, there are also findings that show the contrary (Buunk 1981, Buunk 1982, Hansen 1982). The positive relationship between relationship satisfaction and jealousy can be explained by the notion that, in the face of infidelity or situations that trigger jealousy, individuals with high relationship satisfaction—and consequently greater rewards from the relationship—have more to lose if the relationship is endangered (Buunk 1986).

Situational Characteristics

Rival's Characteristics

Studies on jealousy have shown that the characteristics of a rival can play a significant role in the emergence and intensity of jealousy (Shettel-Neuber et al. 1978, Buunk 1982, Pines and Aronson 1983). For instance, Buunk

(1982) found that rivals who are low in social desirability and not physically attractive tend to elicit more jealousy. This finding is explained by the notion that an unattractive rival might threaten an individual's self-esteem more severely. Similarly, Shettel-Neuber et al. (1978) discovered that unattractive rivals provoke more sadness and anger. DeSteno and Salovey (1996b) found that jealousy is most triggered when the betrayed individual and the rival are highly related in the area of success.

Culture

One of the significant situational determinants of jealousy is the individual's cultural context (Hupka 1981). According to Whitehurst (1977), jealousy is most prevalent in cultures with rigid gender roles. Hupka and Ryan (1990) noted that jealousy is particularly prominent in cultures where marriage and property are crucial for social status. For example, Canto et al. (2017) found that men in Portugal and Brazil who strongly identify with cultural norms emphasizing honor are more distressed by partner behaviors that imply sexual infidelity. Similarly, a study in the United States found that jealousy towards partner's sexual infidelity-related behaviors is strongly predicted by the degree to which individuals endorse collectivist norms (Zandbergen and Brown 2015). Additionally, in cultures with more permissive attitudes towards extramarital affairs, both men and women report higher levels of jealousy towards emotional infidelity (Buunk et al. 1996, DeSteno and Salovey 1996a). However, there are cultures where jealousy is less prevalent. Hupka (1981) noted that jealousy is lower in cultures that place little value on marriage and property, and where sexual experiences and intimate relationships are seen as more accessible. For instance, studies on polygamy and partner swapping have found that sexual infidelity does not lead to jealousy (Mead 1977, Pines and Aronson 1983).

Triggers of Jealousy

The emergence of jealousy is influenced by a number of factors, including the individual's identity structuring and self-perception (Metiner 2017). Additionally, as previously mentioned, the foundation of jealousy is considered to be linked to the individual's childhood and past experiences (Freud 1923, Curun and Çapkin 2014). Shackelford and Buss (1997) identified several triggers for emotional jealousy, such as relational dissatisfaction, loss of love, emotional neglect, reluctance to spend time together, engaging in passive rejection and neglectful behaviors, entering into aggressive and critical communication, avoiding discussion about a particular individual, and adopting an anxious communication style. For sexual jealousy, they noted that physical signs contrary to the couple's sexual norms (e.g. a scent indicating the partner's physical proximity to someone else), disclosure of sexual infidelity, changes in the usual frequency and manner of the couple's sexual activity, exaggerated displays of increased sexual interest and emotions, and experiences of sexual disinterest can all serve as triggers (Shackelford and Buss 1997).

According to Pines (1992), the emergence of romantic jealousy results from the interaction between individual predisposition and a triggering event, and it is particularly difficult to determine an individual's predisposition to jealousy in the absence of such a triggering event. As detailed above there are a bulk of individual characteristics to play a role in the manifestation of jealousy in a romantic relationship such as dispositional factors, relational characteristics, and situational factors (Demirtaş 2004). Moreover, the family structure, culture, experiences in interpersonal relationships, and the personal characteristics of the perceived rival also significantly influence the occurrence and intensity of jealousy (Metiner 2017).

DeSteno and Salovey (1996b) examined the influence of the rival's characteristics for triggering to jealousy. Their findings indicated that jealousy is most likely to occur when the rival is successful and highly related to the individual who has been betrayed. Regarding cultural triggers, Aloyce et al.'s (2023) study in Tanzania, which has a cultural structure that supports gender inequality revealed that a suspicion or confirmed infidelity, decreased interest in a partner, and challenging male superiority can trigger romantic jealousy which mostly turns into men's partner violence. Even a study with low-income, married couples in northern Ecuador suggests that culture can function as a trigger of romantic jealousy by enabling men's partner violence through accusing of infidelity due to women's participation in the workforce and refusal of sexual relations in a marriage, controlling women's movements and sexuality through community gossip (Buller et al. 2023).

Forms of Jealousy Expression

Romantic jealousy encompasses both internal components and external components. While internal dimensions are a combination of specific emotions (e.g. pain, anger, sadness, fear, resentment) and thoughts (resentment, self-comparison, blaming oneself and others, and self-pity); external dimensions can be more readily observable from the outside world such as indifference, crying, shouting, the use of humor and violence (Pines 1992). There

are also physical symptoms such as shortness of breath, trembling, sleep disturbance, and stomach cramps that have been linked to the internal components of jealousy. Pines's (1998) study showed that the extrinsic components are more readily susceptible to individual control than the intrinsic components.

Studies on the relationship between jealousy and communication indicate that communicative reactions to jealousy serve critical positive functions in relationships (Rusbult and Buunk 1993). Firstly, communication may assist individuals experiencing jealousy to reduce their uncertainty about their own relationship or partner's relationship with the rival. Secondly, it can function as a facilitative tool for the maintenance or repair of the relationship following the occurrence of jealousy. Finally, communication is necessary for the individual to salvage their reputation or regain self-confidence after feeling jealous. Guerrero et al. (1995) identified the reflective and expressive communicative responses of jealousy as integrative communication, distributive communication, avoidance/denial, and violent communication/threats in the direct communication category and surveillance/restriction, compensatory restoration, manipulation attempts, rival contact, and violent behavior in the indirect communication category.

Integrative communication is defined as direct and non-aggressive communication with a partner about jealousy. Examples of integrative communication reactions include openly expressing experienced jealousy, asking questions of the partner, and attempting to make joint decisions with the partner. Distributive communication is defined as direct and aggressive communication with the partner about their jealousy. Examples of destructive communication responses include accusing the partner of infidelity, being sarcastic or rude towards the partner, and arguing with the partner. Avoidance/denial is defined as non-aggressive communication that focuses on avoiding the problem, situation, or partner that is causing jealousy. For instance, individuals may deny their feelings of jealousy, feel indifferent to the situation, reduce contact with their partner, and avoid circumstances that elicit jealousy. Violent communication/threat encompasses actions such as threatening the partner or resorting to physical violence. Examples of such reactions include threatening the partner with harm if they continue to see the rival, frightening, hitting or slapping the partner by pretending to hit them (Guerrero et al. 1995). Nevertheless, it is not always possible to express feelings of jealousy in a clear manner to the other person. Therefore, the individual engages in indirect communication. The following are examples of indirect communication reactions: These include observing and monitoring behavior, the use of compensatory renewal strategies, manipulative attempts, contact with the rival, and violent behavior (Guerrero et al. 1995, Guerrero and Andersen 1997).

Surveillance/restriction corresponds to behavioral strategies designed to learn about or interfere with the rival relationship. Examples include spying on or controlling the partner, following the partner to find evidence of a rival relationship, snooping through the partner's phone, and restricting the partner's movements in social settings. Compensatory restoration strategies involve behaviors aimed at improving the relationship and/or making oneself more attractive. Examples of such strategies include sending gifts to the partner, trying to appear more physically attractive, making various gestures to the partner, and attempting to present oneself as "better" than the rivals. Manipulation attempts correspond to actions taken to elicit negative emotions in the partner or shift the responsibility of communication about the issue. Examples include flirting with others to make the partner jealous, inducing guilt in the partner, mentioning the rival's name in conversation to gauge the partner's reaction, and asking others to talk to the partner about the situation. Rival contacts involve direct communication with the rival. Examples include telling the rival to stop seeing the partner, using derogatory language towards the rival, asking questions about the relationship without revealing one's identity, and making negative comments about the partner to convince ending to communicate with the rival. Violent behavior primarily involves directing violence towards objects rather than people. It corresponds to actions such as slamming doors, breaking dishes, and throwing the partner's belongings outside regardless of being in private or public contexts (Guerrero et al. 1995).

In media portrayals of romance, love is often depicted within the contexts of jealousy, control, and violence. Such depictions can particularly encourage women to perceive controlling behaviors as signs of intimacy and affection (Chung 2005, Power et al. 2006, Donovan and Hester 2010, Collins and Carmody 2011, Bonomi et al. 2013, Hayes 2014, Hartwell et al. 2015, Papp et al. 2017). A study on media portrayals of romantic jealousy and communicative responses to jealousy (Frampton and Linvill 2017) conducted a content analysis of the types of romantic jealousy and communicative responses to jealousy in the highest grossing romantic comedy films released between 2002 and 2014. Analysis of these movies indicated that the most frequently depicted type of jealousy in the movies was reactive jealousy, while the most frequent communicative response was distributive communication. Furthermore, it was observed that female characters employed rival-oriented communication more frequently than male characters. Despite these findings, it has been argued that if audiences are influenced

by reactive jealousy and destructive reactions in romantic comedies, these tendencies, which make the movies more entertaining, may not be good for real-world relationships because of the consequences they can have (Guerrero et al. 2011). How an individual expresses jealousy may also vary contingent upon the emotions experienced. A study conducted by Guerrero et al. (2005) revealed that fear and anger were the underlying emotions associated with jealousy, and that different combinations of emotions predicted distinct communicative responses. For instance, violent communication was predicted by high levels of hostility and low levels of guilt, while communication with a rival was predicted by high levels of passion and hostility. As a constructive response, integrative communication is positively related to anger and negatively related to the intensity of the threat. Therefore, if an individual is angry but does not feel particularly threatened, they are more likely to engage in a constructive discussion with their partner. Another constructive response, compensatory restoration strategies, is predicted by high levels of fear-envy and low levels of hostility. The findings indicate that when an individual is fearful of losing their partner, envious of a rival, and not harboring hostility, they may be motivated to engage in behaviors such as attempting to prove their love for their partner and enhancing their attractiveness.

While jealousy does not have many negative effects when it is controlled, it can cause severe damages to the relationship if it cannot be controlled (Sümer 2017). Such negative effects may occasionally manifest in behavioral forms, potentially leading to violent acts (Carson and Cupach 2000). Milroy (1995) examined international reports and found that the killing of a partner due to jealousy is one of the most common reasons for homicide. Therefore, future research should prioritize investigating communicative responses to understand jealousy by focusing on underlying processes for the formation of outcomes such as reducing uncertainty, maintaining the relationship, and preventing violence.

Research on Jealousy

Besides the fact that jealousy is a universal emotion (Buss 1988, Daly and Wilson 1988), many studies have shown that there are differences in the level, type and coping methods of romantic jealousy depending on gender, culture, self-esteem and attachment style variables (Buunk 1981, Pines and Aronson 1983, Peretti and Pudowski 1997, Demirtaş and Dönmez 2006, Retana and Sánchez 2008, Arnocky et al. 2015, Arslan 2015, Zandbergen and Brown 2015, Canto et al. 2017, Farooq et al. 2020, David and Roberts 2021, Aloyce et al. 2023). Even the personality has a significant role in to experience of feeling jealousy. For instance, Richter et al.'s (2022) study on the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and romantic jealousy showed that individuals with higher neuroticism, lower agreeableness, and lower openness scores tend to report higher levels of romantic jealousy. Although the limited amount of information currently available suggests a relationship between Big Five personality traits and romantic jealousy, further research is required to gain a more comprehensive understanding of these relationships.

O'Leary's et al. (2007) study, conducted with 453 couples, found that jealousy was a significant predictor of partner violence for both men and women. However, numerous studies have indicated that women tend to adopt more constructive strategies in response to jealousy, such as rational discussion and attempts to repair the relationship whereas men tend to employ more destructive methods such as yelling, abandonment, and physical violence (Brehm 1992, Mathes 1992, Carson and Cupach 2000). Collibee and Furman (2014) demonstrated that jealousy is also associated with an increase in ongoing sexual pressure. Leisring (2013) identified anger, revenge, seeking attention from the partner, jealousy and stress as the most common reasons for emotional abuse. Similarly, Sunday et al. (2011) also reported that jealousy and emotional control were significant predictors of verbal abuse in adults who had been physically abused by their parents. In another study, it was observed that individuals who reported violence in the relationship reported more problematic relationship dynamics, jealousy, verbal conflict and cheating behaviors than other individuals (Giordano et al. 2010). A study conducted in Spain revealed that the most prevalent form of violence was psychological violence, followed by jealousy behaviors (Sebastián et al. 2014). A noteworthy finding of this study was that adolescents exhibited a greater tendency to engage in violence motivated by jealousy, whereas young adults demonstrated a stronger inclination towards sexuality-related factors. Furthermore, the study highlighted that jealousy behaviors were perceived as indicators of love and commitment and as desired behaviors.

Research Conducted in Türkiye

One of the most comprehensive and significant studies on romantic jealousy in Turkish literature is the doctoral dissertation by Demirtaş (2004). In this study, not only the adaptation of the Romantic Jealousy Scale to Turkish was performed but also the relationships of individual, situational, and relational variables with jealousy in close

relationships were examined. Contrary to the literature, the results showed that unmarried individuals reported higher levels of jealousy compared to married individuals. However, unmarried women reported higher levels of jealousy compared to married women, and married women reported higher levels of jealousy compared to married men. Consistent with the studies from the evolutionary approach in the literature, Demirtaş (2004) found that men experienced more sexual jealousy, while women experienced more emotional jealousy. Similarly, Yerlikaya (2015) found that women were more distressed by emotional infidelity, whereas men were equally distressed by all types of infidelity. Furthermore, the study revealed that homosexual men were more distressed by emotional infidelity compared to heterosexual men in Türkiye.

Karakurt's (2001) found in their study that individuals with secure attachment styles were more inclined to preserve their relationships when dealing with jealousy compared to those with insecure attachment styles. Additionally, attachment styles were found to significantly influence behavioral jealousy. This finding was explained by the difficulty of suppressing behavioral jealousy through the defensive strategies associated with attachment dimensions, as opposed to emotional and cognitive jealousy. Toplu-Demirtaş's et al. (2022) revealed that university students with higher levels of anxious attachment are more likely to distrust their partners, suspect their partners of infidelity, experience jealousy, and consequently engage in cyber dating abuse.

In a review article on Facebook jealousy in romantic relationships, Güner and Karaaziz (2022) noted that the features of Facebook, such as the ability to share whatever one desires and the ease of reaching others, pose a risk for individuals to reconnect with new acquaintances or former lovers. This situation has been found to lead to jealousy among couples, subsequently resulting in trust issues, infidelity, and breakups.

Arslan (2015) examined the functions of various individual and relational differences in jealousy among the Turkish sample, indicating that romantic jealousy exhibits variations according to age, gender, the duration of the relationship, and the level of sharing quality time with the partner. Parallel with psychology literature on romantic jealousy (Aylor and Dainton 2001, Demirtaş 2004, Demirtaş and Dönmez 2006), the effect of age has been observed as decreasing the emotional intensity of jealousy with increasing age in this study. Again, as previously observed in the literature, women demonstrated a more constructive approach to coping with jealousy, whereas men exhibited a more destructive and antisocial response in Türkiye (Aylor and Dainton 2001, Demirtaş and Dönmez 2006). This study also reiterated the finding that singles experience higher levels of jealousy compared to married people (Aylor and Dainton 2001, Demirtaş and Dönmez 2006), and found that this difference between the two groups emerged only when the threat was not certain. In other studies conducted in Türkiye, it was observed that as the years of marriage increased, relationship satisfaction increased and jealousy level decreased (Girgin and Şık 2018, Arpacıoğlu et al. 2022). Güvenir (2019) examined the relationships between university students' attitudes toward physical and psychological violence in romantic relationships taking their experiences of dating violence, gender, levels of romantic jealousy, perceptions of the effects of jealousy, perceptions of the causes of jealousy, and coping methods for jealousy into account. The study revealed that the more people feel jealous the more they have positive attitudes toward psychological violence in romantic relationships. Additionally, it was found that destructive coping methods for jealousy predicted physical dating violence for both genders while men had more positive attitudes toward psychological dating violence compared to women. Moreover, individuals who believed that jealousy had positive effects on romantic relationships exhibited more positive attitudes toward psychological dating violence compared to others. No significant relationship was found between perceptions of the causes of jealousy (feelings of inadequacy and fear of loss) and physical dating violence.

Another study in Türkiye examining the relationship between attitudes towards gender roles and romantic jealousy (Kaplan and Tasa 2022) revealed that university students exhibited greater levels of jealousy in their romantic relationships if they had more traditional attitudes towards gender roles. Furthermore, the study revealed that increasing age led to exhibiting a more traditional attitude towards gender roles and to an increase in the levels of romantic jealousy. This result, which contradicts the findings in the literature on the negative relationship between jealousy and age (Mathes et al. 1982, Aylor and Dainton 2001, Demirtaş 2004), was explained by the age differences between the sample groups. It was stated that the mentioned study was conducted with university students and thus with a narrower age range, while the other studies were conducted with a wider age range of participants. It was also noted that intergenerational differences that may arise from the time periods in which the studies were conducted should also be considered (Kaplan and Tasa 2022).

Another study (Ökten 2016) conducted with university students revealed that cognitive jealousy is associated with a decrease in relationship satisfaction whereas emotional jealousy is associated with higher relationship satisfaction in Türkiye. The finding regarding cognitive jealousy was explained by the notion that doubts about a partner's loyalty can undermine the trust that forms the foundation of the relationship, thereby negatively

impacting relationship satisfaction (Ökten 2016). It was stated that the relationship between emotional jealousy and relationship satisfaction contradicts the finding that "emotional jealousy decreases relationship satisfaction" revealed by the studies conducted with married couples, and it was stated that the difference may be due to the type of relationship (Ökten 2016).

Hoşoğlu and Sevim's study (2019) among university students in Türkiye showed that women use more destructive-avoidant communication styles to cope with jealousy in their romantic relationships compared to men. Additionally, they revealed that individuals who reported having been cheated on in their previous romantic relations were found to prefer destructive-avoidant and rival-oriented communication styles more frequently than those who had not been cheated on.

Akça (2014) investigated the relationship between jealousy and empathetic tendencies among university students in Türkiye and found that as the levels of empathetic tendencies increased, the levels of jealousy due to feelings of inadequacy decreased. The study also revealed that women employed more constructive coping strategies (commitment and communication) compared to men when dealing with romantic jealousy. Akça explained this finding by referring to Rusbult's (1987) ideas, suggesting that women are more inclined to maintain their relationships. The study also revealed that individuals who perceived themselves as jealous reported more experience jealousy under conditions that triggered jealousy compared to those who did not perceive themselves as jealous. Çimen's (2007) study on people who have arranged marriages or love marriages revealed that those who are in love marriages use more frequent communication methods to cope with jealousy compared to people who are in an arranged marriage. Çimen (2007) suggested that this difference might stem from the fact that individuals in love marriages might be more motivated to protect their relationship to prove that their choice was not wrong.

Aslan Cevheroğlu et al. (2022) examined coping methods and jealousy from the perspective of personality traits and found that individuals with neurotic personality traits exhibit destructive-avoidant reactions when experiencing jealousy in their romantic relationships. The researchers suggested that this could be due to the difficulties neurotic individuals face in forming and maintaining relationships and their tendency toward unrealistic thinking patterns (Aslan Cevheroğlu et al. 2022). Another finding of the study was that individuals with the personality traits of openness and agreeableness tend to use rival-oriented communication styles in situations of jealousy. This communication style involves direct interaction with the rival, warning them to stay away from the partner, and confronting the rival (Guerrero 2014, Hoşoğlu and Sevim 2019).

Utkan's (2016) study examining the relationship between romantic jealousy and relationship beliefs, showed that the more individuals have dysfunctional relationship beliefs —e.g. "We should do everything together" and "We should fulfill all of each other's needs"—, the more they show jealousy due to fear of loss. The positive relationship between dysfunctional relationship beliefs and jealousy has been replicated in other studies conducted in Türkiye (Kızıldağ Şahin and Yerlikaya 2020, Terzi İlhan 2021). Furthermore, university students currently in romantic relationships were found to experience more jealousy in situations that triggered jealousy and to hold more irrational relationship beliefs compared to those not in relationships.

In a study conducted with married couples, Alpay (2009) found that as jealousy towards the sexual intercourse of the spouse with another person increased, avoidance behaviors, which is a sub-dimension of forgiveness, decreased and the tendency to make attempts to improve the relationship increased. Güngör-Houser's (2009) study conducted with arranged or love marriage couples, found that women in arranged marriages experienced more romantic jealousy than women in love marriages. The researcher posited that the elevated levels of jealousy observed in arranged marriages may be attributed to the higher levels of investment in their relationships compared to those in love marriages. However, the study also revealed that while women in arranged marriages experience greater levels of jealousy than men, men in love marriages experience greater levels of jealousy than women. The researcher explained the findings that men who are in a love marriage may be more fearful of losing their relationship because as the literature suggests they have higher levels of marital satisfaction compared to arranged marriage. Indeed, the study revealed that individuals who married through dating were more satisfied with their marriages than those who married through arranged marriages.

Çapkın (2012), in a study examining the relationship between jealousy levels, attachment styles, personality traits, and marital satisfaction among married individuals, found a significant relationship between the personality trait of openness to experience and emotional jealousy. The emotional jealousy in individuals open to experience was explained by their higher social activity levels. Additionally, a significant relationship was found between anxious attachment and cognitive jealousy. This relationship was explained by the presence of anxiety in the jealousy experiences of individuals based on their thoughts and beliefs (Çapkın 2012).

Conclusion

The findings of the studies on romantic jealousy, which has been the subject of research relatively recently, reveal important information and clues about the source of jealousy, the factors it is related to, and its consequences. For instance, it has been observed that the level of jealousy may vary depending on relationship duration (Girgin and Şık 2018, Arpacioğlu et al. 2022), relationship type (Demirtaş 2004), age (Aylor and Dainton 2001, Kaplan and Tasa 2022) and personality traits (Çapkın 2012). Similarly, it has been demonstrated that how jealousy is expressed may vary in cultures, and also depends on certain individual variables, including gender (Carson and Cupach 2000), attachment style (Karakurt 2001) and self-esteem (Adams 2012, Arpacioğlu et al. 2022). These findings can serve as a guide for better understanding the experience of jealousy.

Not only the role of jealousy in domestic violence but also the discomfort and stress it creates in individuals has led social psychologists to address the psychological dimensions of jealousy (Pines 1998). Considering that romantic jealousy can lead to partner violence and relationship dissolution, it is critical to develop intervention programs and provide recommendations based on the findings of existing and future studies. For example, intervention programs like the Indashyikirwa in Rwanda and the SASA! in Uganda have shown that promoting loyalty and honesty in a romantic relationship can reduce the effect of romantic jealousy to conflict and violence in relationships while improving trust and communication can reduce suspicion (Kyegeombe et al. 2022).

Similarly, in Türkiye, it may be beneficial to develop educational or intervention programs aimed at fostering honesty, trust, and communication among couples. Such programs could help mitigate incidents of jealousy-based violence. Furthermore, within the context of the aforementioned intervention programs, it was emphasized that there is a necessity for further research into the lack of standardized measurements of the multifaceted concept of romantic jealousy, including the forms, gender-based differentiation and consequences of romantic jealousy.

Although there are a bulk of studies on romantic jealousy in the literature, not many of them are laboratory or field experiments that can have the capacity to reveal causal effects to explain romantic jealousy. Therefore, conducting experimental studies on romantic jealousy can yield highly beneficial results for developing intervention programs. For example, the first known study to examine experimental interventions aimed at reducing jealousy found that anxious attachment causes a high level of jealousy, yet physical contact from a partner act as a buffer to reduce feelings of jealousy (Kim et al. 2018). In accordance with the findings of this study, contact interventions that can be readily implemented to enhance the relationship satisfaction of individuals prone to jealousy may be a promising avenue for future research.

One of the most frequently encountered variables in the context of romantic jealousy is attachment style. Securely attached individuals are found to cope with jealousy more healthily compared to those with anxious or avoidant attachment styles (e.g. Hazan and Shaver 1987, Buunk 1997, Sharpsteen and Kirkpatrick 1997, Guerrero 1998, Wegner et al. 2018). Therefore, it can be suggested that educational or intervention programs designed with these insights are beneficial. As is well known, attachment styles are directly related to parenting styles (Hazan and Shaver 1987). By providing education to prospective parents or caregivers on child-raising practices, it may be possible to increase the likelihood that their children will develop secure attachment styles in adulthood, thanks to establishing appropriate relationships during childhood.

Romantic jealousy can even lead to lethal outcomes in relationships (Harris 2003). However, the number of studies focusing on the relationship between jealousy and violence is quite limited. The primary aim of this review is to emphasize the importance of this relationship, provide researchers with a comprehensive resource, and draw attention to the potential dangers of romantic jealousy. Therefore, investigating the roles and impacts of love and jealousy as tools for legitimizing violence is important, especially in societies where social norms related to male honor, female submission, and jealousy play a role in violence against women.

Reviewing the literature on romantic jealousy is evident that there are only a few theoretical explanations, comprehensively and satisfactorily explain romantic jealousy, regarding its definition and psychological dynamics (Demirtaş Madran 2008, Curun and Çapkın 2014, Hoşoğlu and Sevim 2019). Therefore, more comprehensive and detailed further studies on this concept can be conducted in the literature. Furthermore, gender-based violence is a practice that is influenced by a number of factors, including honor culture, protective sexism, and jealousy (Costa et al. 2016). Consequently, examining cross-cultural variations in romantic jealousy studies in countries such as Türkiye, Portugal, Spain, Japan, Eastern Europe and the Southern United States where honor culture and traditional gender roles are pervasive, can also contribute significantly to the existing literature.

A bulk of research findings have demonstrated that there are significant gender differences in romantic jealousy (e.g. Carson and Cupach 2000). Conversely, there are also findings that do not reveal differences between genders (e.g. Green and Sabini 2006). In order to explain these contradictory findings, it may be useful to examine in detail the differences between genders in dimensions such as triggers of jealousy, expressions of jealousy, and beliefs about jealousy.

It may also be beneficial to focus on examining dyadic analyses which provide different dimensions of romantic jealousy by collecting data from both couples. Jealousy is an emotion that affects not only people who feel it but also their partner. The collection of data from both couples may facilitate an understanding of the mutual effects of jealousy. Additionally, experimental studies are required to examine the cognitive processes that individuals engage in when confronted with a potential rival, and to investigate the underlying self-protection mechanisms such as social comparisons of rival characteristics (Broemer and Diehl 2004). In light of the limitations of previous studies on different relationship types and durations, it would be beneficial to examine such comparisons. Furthermore, given that university-educated individuals may have been exposed to cultural expectations and norms in different ways, differences in socioeconomic status (SES) may affect responses to gender role expectations, jealousy, and infidelity (Green and Sabini 2006). Consequently, future research may also investigate whether there are variations in jealousy according to socioeconomic status.

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