

Death Anxiety's Effect on Aspects of Gender Attitudes: Voting Decisions and Infidelity

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Abstract

Terror Management Theory states that humans uniquely have awareness that we will inevitably die while concurrently having the innate desire to survive; this internal struggle often creates an unconscious anxiety surrounding death which humans typically combat by investing in our culture, worldviews, and values. The current study examines the way individuals decide to manage their terror in relation to gender attitudes: By choosing to commit to their romantic relationships or by adhering to their worldview allegiance through their voting decision. Participants ($N = 100$) from diverse backgrounds, genders, and political leanings took an online survey including questions about likelihood to commit infidelity and voting decisions in a hypothetical election scenario. It was hypothesized that men would be more likely to vote male whereas women would have no significant difference in the gender they choose to vote for after a death reminder (termed *mortality salience*, MS). It was also hypothesized that men would be more likely to report cheating on their partners as a death-denying strategy whereas women would be less likely to report infidelity following death reminders. Results showed that under MS, men were less likely to report cheating on their partner whereas women were more likely to report cheating on their partners. Both genders were more likely to vote female when primed with death.

Keywords: terror management theory, mortality salience, gender attitudes, voting decisions, self-esteem, infidelity

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Individuals across the globe create and invest themselves deeply in values and culture, from marriage traditions to death rituals, religion to sports, and education to fame, but we are still far from fully understanding *why* humans do this. Terror Management Theory (TMT) is one potential explanation for this uniquely human devotion to culture, values, and worldviews. Ernest Becker, a multidisciplinary academic who first developed this theory, claims that human actions—specifically commitment to culture and worldviews—can be explained by the often unconscious anxiety that humans experience as a result of knowing death's inevitability (Solomon et al., 2015). The ironic presence of this awareness—also known as *mortality salience* (MS)—paired with the intense desire to continue human existence puts people in a fiercely existential position, leaving them to create worldviews and cultural values that act as a buffer between themselves and their death anxiety (Solomon et al., 2015). TMT has expanded its application to many human behaviors and world events including war, political ideologies, fame, and self-esteem (Solomon et al., 2015; Burke et al., 2010; Burke et al., 2013).

Literature Review

TMT researchers put a strong emphasis on the need for self-esteem, as only those who live up to the cultural expectations within one's cultural context will experience a sense of value that can buffer death anxiety (Solomon et al., 2015). Unconsciously, people are driven by this desire to be accepted by their culture and individuals who share their worldview in order to manage their terror; it is difficult to think about death when you are playing soccer, writing policies, or petting a puppy, for example. Practices like religion, nationalism, political ideologies, careers, sports, pets, traditions, and even marriage all promise a path to either literal or symbolic immortality, which is a chance for humans to either deny that their death is inevitable or that it will be the end of their existence (Solomon et al., 2015). Both literal and symbolic immortality offer ways to manage death anxiety by either denying or attempting to transcend death. Additionally, individuals who feel their worldview being challenged or threatened will experience what is known as *worldview defense*, which claims that people will cling more tightly to their cultural worldviews especially in challenging times (Solomon et al., 2015).

This theory also plays into daily decisions that individuals often overlook. Several studies have been conducted on death reminders (MS), showing their role in behavior such as increasing strength performance, materialism and greed, and the desire to have children (Peters et al., 2005; Kasser & Sheldon, 2000; Wisman & Goldenberg, 2005; Burke et al., 2010).

TMT and Gender

In American culture, there are still rigid and working stereotypes when it comes to gender. Research shows that children as young as elementary age endorse gender-based stereotypes towards themselves (Patterson, 2012). Whether these stereotypes target boys and men (such as toxic masculinity) or girls and women (such as thinness as a standard of beauty), gender stereotypes can significantly affect self-esteem. Beauty is still seen as a dominant source of self-esteem among young women with thinness and sensuality at the top of the list in Western cultures. Other gender-based stereotypes that exist for women include weaknesses in the STEM field, low academic intelligence, irregular display of emotions, and a responsibility to prioritize motherhood over career (Patterson, 2012). These unrealistic expectations of women's cultural experience can lower their self-esteem, thereby rendering them more susceptible to the effects of MS. One example of standards of beauty is shown within the growing concern about young girls' own body image. By age six, girls begin to express concerns about their personal weight

or body shape, and 40-60% of elementary school girls (ages 6-12) are concerned about their weight or about becoming too fat (National Eating Disorders Association, 2018). As these girls are met with adversity (in this case, about their body image), they tend to cling to the ideals of their culture more heavily by doing whatever they can to be seen as culturally accepted, a mentality predicted by TMT (Rosenblatt et al., 1989).

Additionally, gender has a unique relationship with MS. Research on this association has shown that men's gender-attitudes are significantly affected by death reminders, specifically in cases involving the opposite sex. Men give male-female perpetrators a more lenient sentence after being reminded of their death as compared to sentences for a male-male perpetrator or male-female perpetrator without a death reminder (Landau et al., 2006). Males are also more likely to distance themselves from female attraction and show an increased tolerance for aggression towards females, due to a desire to boost their self-esteem by devaluing women (Landau et al., 2006). These conclusions show that gender-related attitudes, especially among men, show significant bias after death reminders.

TMT and Dating

More recently, research has focused on the idea of investing in close relationships to create the security needed to keep one's death anxiety at bay. When primed with death, researchers see an increased need for attachment constructs, and when loved ones are threatened, defensive behaviors amongst individuals increase (Cox & Arndt, 2012). Close relationships, whether romantic or not, support Becker's fundamental idea of creating meaning and value in one's life as a death defense strategy. These relationships provide an increase in self-esteem, and allow individuals to focus on others, which helps to keep their death anxiety manageable (Cox & Arndt, 2012). Whereas cultural ideas of a traditional relationship have changed over recent years, underlying evolutionary constructs have still been maintained, impacting our relationships and, in turn, our death anxiety.

Close relationships are not the only way cultures develop ways to manage their death anxiety, however. Social roles are also a major part of this. Due in large amounts to the patriarchal societies that have developed throughout history, women are most defined by their ability to reproduce, and their relationships depend on this ability (Compton & Bowman, 2017). Additionally, whereas relationship security does help manage death anxiety, infidelity has always challenged just how much security relationships provide. The majority of the world lives within patriarchal societies, which have systems of male privilege that define acceptable cheating behaviors—differently by gender—as a cultural norm (Scheinkman, 2005).

Looking at evolution through a TMT lens, it is clear that close relationships help create value and establish a sense of belonging, but this may look different for men and women. It is feasible then that men will take a route that boosts their self-esteem, which might be via deprecating a woman rather than protecting cultural values, like committing to a romantic partner, whereas women will defend their personal cultural values by bolstering their commitment to a relationship (Landau et al., 2006).

TMT and Voting Decisions

Terror management theory has been applied to politics in numerous ways. One major way has been via the *conservative shift hypothesis*, which claims that political conservatism manages death anxiety more effectively than political liberalism (Burke et al., 2013). For example, American citizens displayed a conservative shift after the 9/11 attacks when various research studies showed increased support followed MS (or 9/11 reminders) for President Bush and conservative political ideologies such as capital punishment (Burke et al., 2013).

Other political research suggests that, in some cases, individuals adhere more vehemently

to their preexisting ideologies—termed *worldview allegiance*—after MS, rather than experiencing a conservative shift (Burke et al., 2013). For instance, in the 2016 U.S. Presidential election, Hillary Clinton’s campaign activated many feminists’ worldviews with agenda topics such as feminist identification, views of societal gender discrimination, and personal experiences with gender discrimination (Pahlke et al., 2018). White women were more likely to vote for Hillary Clinton over Donald Trump perhaps because they saw gender-related ideals expressed more heavily in her campaign and policies than Trump’s, which alludes to a key potential difference from men in how women might respond to challenges to their worldviews (Pahlke et al., 2018). In relation to previous research on gender attitudes and self-esteem (Landau et al., 2006), we predicted that men would be more likely to vote *against* the candidate who displayed greater feministic ideals in future elections because that would go against their cultural value of male privilege and work against their worldview allegiance.

In sum, previous research has demonstrated how TMT affects many aspects of life, especially gender differences and self-esteem, but not specifically aspects of gender-attitudes like voting decisions and likelihood to commit infidelity. There is still a gap in the research that can give societies answers about the relationship between terror management and real-world decision making on gender-related attitudes. The following study will explore how death reminders affect both individuals’ likelihood to commit infidelity and the gender of the candidate they are most likely to vote for in a hypothetical scenario. At their core, both voting decisions (when different genders are involved) and the chance to commit infidelity may give individuals the chance to manage their terror by either dominating a woman and boosting their self-esteem, or by behaving in a way that will allow them to be culturally accepted by others who support their worldview. Specifically, the study will examine *how* individuals decide to manage their terror: By choosing to commit to their romantic relationships or by adhering to their worldview allegiance through their voting decision. It is hypothesized that men will be more likely to vote male, because evidence shows men’s self-esteem can be boosted when they feel they have power over women/have dominated or devalued a woman, whereas women will have no significant difference in the candidate they choose to vote for under MS. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that men will be more likely than women to report cheating on their partners as a death-denying strategy.

Methods

Participants

Participants were 100 undergraduate students from a liberal arts college in Southwest Colorado. In total, there were 45 males, 52 females, and three who identified as Other, with a mean age of 20.53 years ($SD = 5.59$). Political leanings among participants ranged from 35 Democrats, 20 Republicans, and 18 Independents, to 27 people who leaned towards None or another party. Ethnicities included 53 Caucasians, two Hispanics, one African-American, and 44 multiracial (most of whom were of Indigenous background/Native American). Data was

collected as part of a course project over the Fall 2020 semester. Participants were randomly placed in either the experimental (death-primed) group or the control (dental pain-primed) group; 63 ended up in the experimental group while 37 landed in the control group.

Materials

Surveys. Surveys including all of the following measures were given to participants via a link to a Google Forms survey that uses Allocate Monster to randomize control and experimental groups.

MAPS Questionnaire. This study used a modified version of the Mortality Attitudes Personality Survey (MAPS; Rosenblatt et al., 1989) questionnaire that asks students to write about (a) what will happen to them as they physically die, and (b) the emotions that the thought of their own death arouses in them. Participants in the control group were asked to write about (a) what will happen to them as they physically experience dental pain, and (b) the emotions that the thought of dental pain arouses in them. This questionnaire is a common primer for death reminders among TMT studies (Burke et al., 2010) and can be found in Appendix A.

Voting Decisions. To analyze how death reminders affect the gender of the candidate an individual votes for, participants were asked to read an excerpt from an actual Bill regarding funding for school lunch programs (see Appendix B). Two political positions on this Bill were given directly after this excerpt; each one attached to a (fictional) politician's name—Terrence Smith and Tiffany Blake—to make the gender of each politician obvious to participants.

Participants were also asked a series of questions (see Appendix C) that asked them to rate on a nine-point Likert scale (“0 = unlikely” to “9 = very likely”) how likely they were to agree with each political position (“Position A” or “Position B”) regarding the Bill included. Other questions such as, “How much do you agree with political candidate Terrance Smith/Tiffany Blake who sides with Position A/B?” and “How likely are you to vote for Terrence Smith/Tiffany Blake?” were also included. This series of questions was mixed in with questions meant to analyze likelihood of infidelity, which follows in the next section.

Likelihood for Infidelity. To analyze how death reminders impact the likelihood of committing infidelity and having infidelity committed against you, participants were asked a series of questions (see Appendix D) that had them look at their partner's and their own likelihood of committing infidelity. Each question asked for three separate responses; how likely the event is to occur, how likely you would be to end the relationship as a result, and how likely your partner would be to end the relationship if these acts occurred. This instrument was adapted from Buss et al. (1999), originally listing 40 scenarios and utilized percentages instead of the Likert scale discussed below.

Participants were asked to complete the three responses by using a 9-point Likert scale (1= “not at all”, to 9= “very strongly”) to see how much they anticipate these events would occur. The questions were repeated twice—one for the likelihood of your partner committing these acts, and one for the likelihood you would be to commit these acts. These questions were used to help analyze how death reminders impact one's security in their relationship through infidelity. As previously mentioned, these were combined with the voting decisions to allow analysis of death reminders' impact on both variables.

Procedure

All data was collected online after participants were given a link where they completed the survey on their smartphone or computer. The survey included an informed consent section accompanied by resources for psychological help (counseling services) and an opportunity for

debrief at the end of the questionnaire. The survey began with demographic questions followed by a modified version of the Mortality Attitudes Personality Survey (MAPS) questionnaire. Next, participants read the Bill excerpt, which doubled as the delay task between the MAPS questionnaire death reminder (in the experimental group) and the surveys to measure the dependent variable—delay tasks are supported by TMT research to be more effective in keeping death reminders at an unconscious level, a more realistic measurement of how death anxiety can affect individuals (Burke et al., 2013). The likelihood to commit infidelity measure and questions regarding voting decisions were intermixed. Once they completed the survey, their results were submitted via Google Forms where data was collected and transformed into SPSS for statistical analysis.

Results

Voting Preferences

As shown in Figures 1 and 2 below, contrary to the original hypothesis, men were significantly more likely to vote for a woman following death reminders ($M = 6.75$, $SD = 2.8$) than were men primed with dental pain ($M = 4.76$, $SD = 1.48$, $t(43) = 2.91$, $p = 0.006$), whereas there was no significant difference between the two groups on voting for the male candidate (death $M = 4.25$, $SD = 2.38$; dental pain $M = 4.57$, $SD = 1.29$, $t(43) = 0.87$, $p = 0.58$). In support of the original hypothesis, women did show a higher likelihood of voting for a female candidate after death reminders ($M = 7.49$, $SD = 2.63$) compared to women who were not given death reminders ($M = 4.47$, $SD = 2.53$, $t(50) = 0.99$, $p = 0.0001$), and there was no significant difference between the two groups of women in terms of voting for a male candidate (death $M = 4.08$, $SD = 1.82$; dental pain $M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.92$, $t(50) = 0.73$, $p = 0.46$).

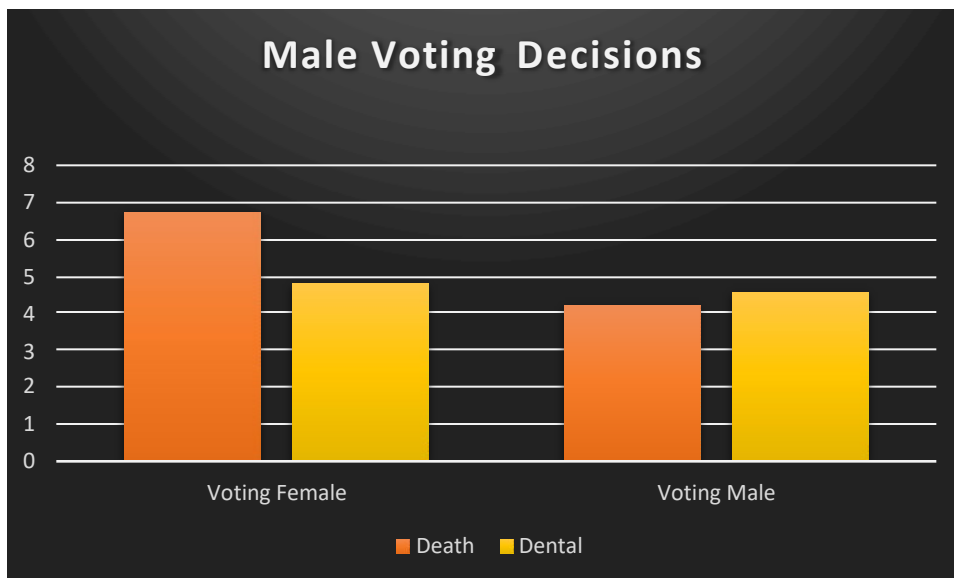


Figure 1: *Male Voting Decisions*

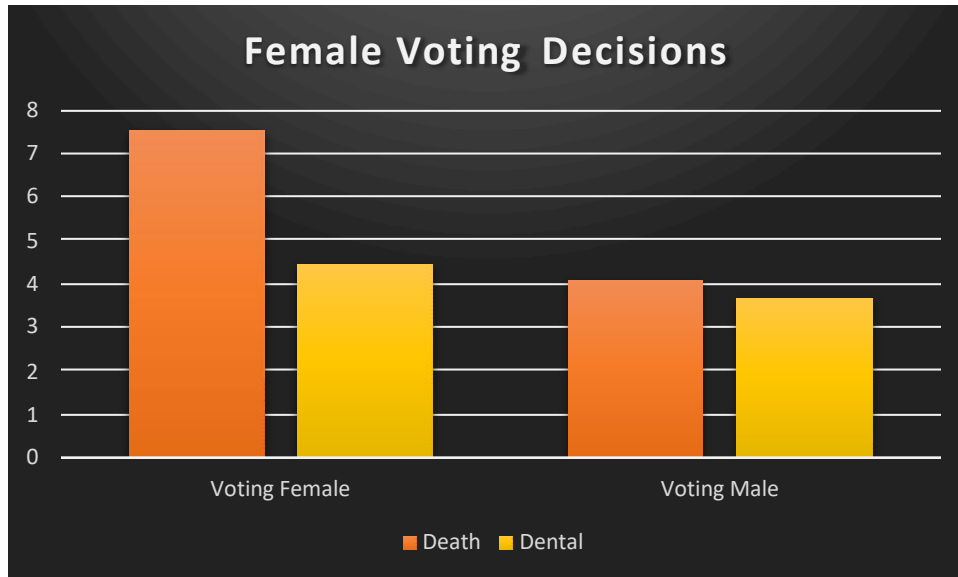


Figure 2: *Female Voting Decisions*

Infidelity

Contrary to our hypothesis, men were significantly less likely to report that they would cheat on their partners after death reminders ($M = 10.21$, $SD = 6.12$) compared to men primed with dental pain ($M = 14.95$, $SD = 8.36$, $t(43) = 2.19$, $p = 0.03$, Figure 3), whereas women were significantly more likely to report that they would cheat on their partners after death reminders ($M = 12.86$, $SD = 6.07$) compared to women primed with dental pain ($M = 9.00$, $SD = 7.85$, $t(50) = 1.91$, $p = 0.06$, Figure 4).

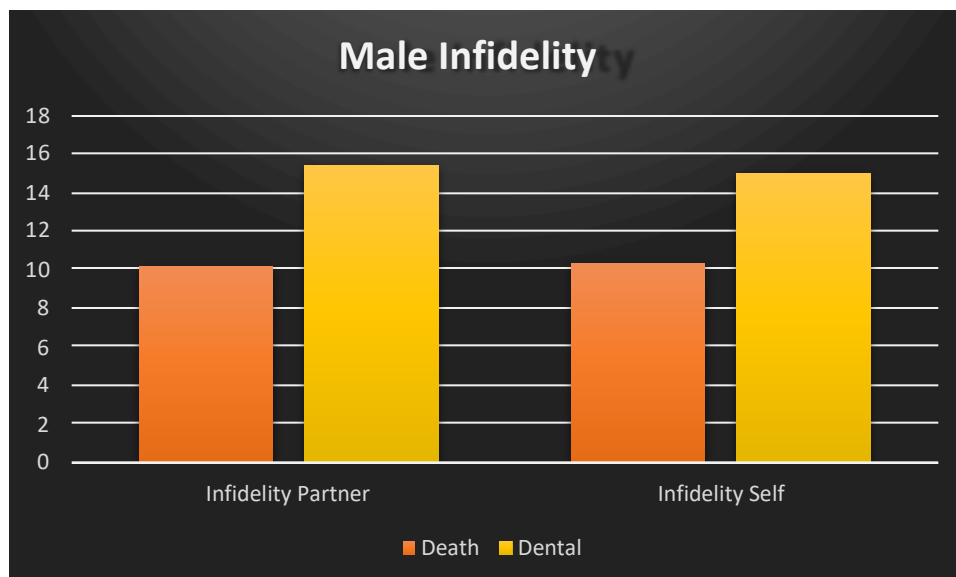


Figure 3: *Male Infidelity Self-Reports*

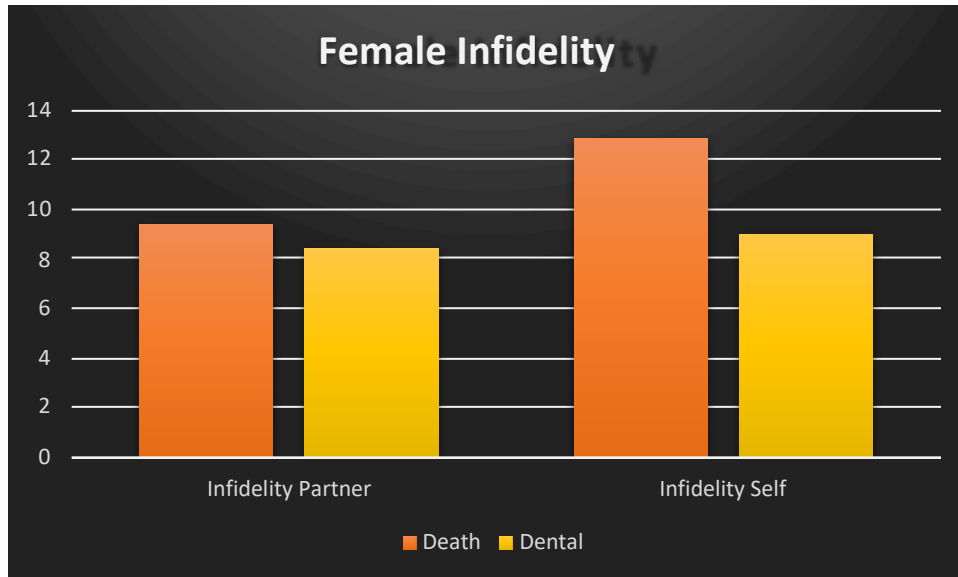


Figure 4: *Female Infidelity Self-Reporting*

When primed with death, men were both significantly less likely to think that their partner would cheat on them ($M = 10.08$, $SD = 7.77$) compared to men primed with dental pain ($M = 15.38$, $SD = 9.1$, $t(43) = 2.11$, $p = 0.04$) and less likely to think that their partner would end their relationship within the next year ($M = 20.63$, $SD = 8.09$) compared to men primed with dental pain ($M = 27.14$, $SD = 8.36$, $t(43) = 2.66$, $p = 0.01$, Figure 5). Women also followed this trend under MS; they were less likely to think that their partner would cheat on them ($M = 9.43$, $SD = 6.81$) compared to women who had no death reminders ($M = 8.47$, $SD = 6.07$, $t(50) = 0.48$, $p = 0.65$) and they were also less likely to think their partner would end their relationship within the next year ($M = 23.51$, $SD = 7.63$) in comparison to women reminded of dental pain ($M = 28.93$, $SD = 7.68$, $t(50) = 2.32$, $p = 0.03$, Figure 6).

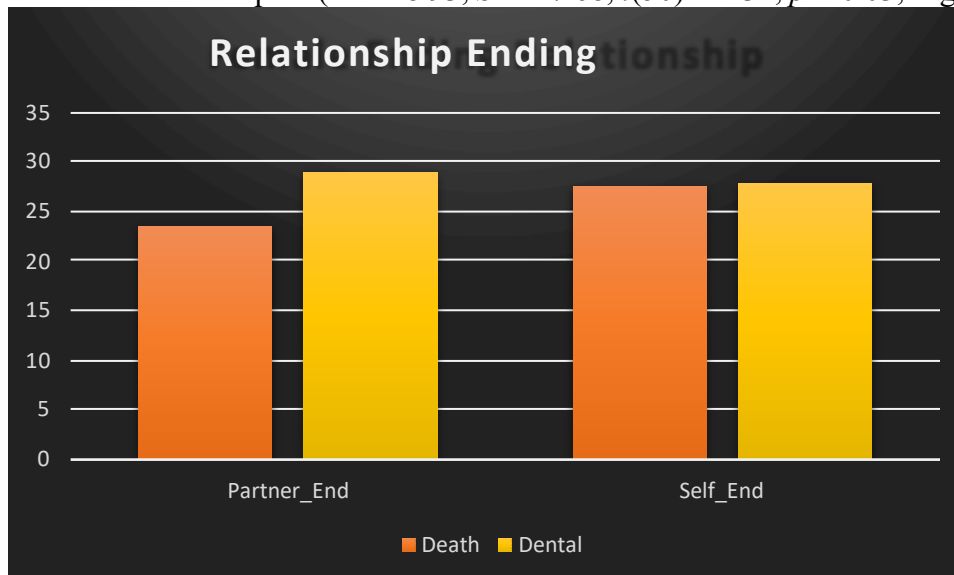


Figure 5: *Termination of Relationships for partners of Males*

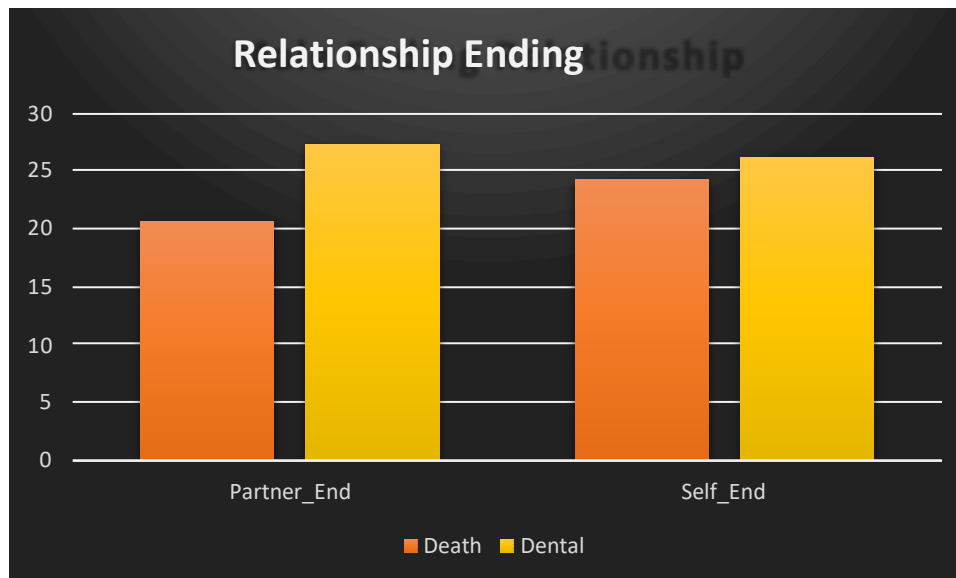


Figure 6: *Termination of Relationships for partners of Females*

Many of the other questions showed statistical significance as well. Results revealed that, under MS, only one hypothetical infidelity scenario showed an increase in likelihood:

Participants were significantly more likely to report going on a romantic date with someone other than their partner in the death group ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 2.14$) compared to those in the dental pain group ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 2.37$, $t(98) = 3.82$, $p = 0.00$). Participants reminded of dental pain showed trend towards significance in higher likelihood of reporting that they would have a one-night stand with someone other than their partner ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 2.56$) compared to those in the death group ($M = 1.98$, $SD = 1.93$, $t(98) = 1.83$, $p = 0.07$). Furthermore, those in the dental pain group reported a significantly higher likelihood of flirting with someone other than their partner ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 2.53$) in comparison with those in the death group ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 2.57$, $t(98) = 2.22$, $p = 0.03$) and a greater chance of their partner ending the relationship after they went on a romantic date with someone else ($M = 7.38$, $SD = 2.48$) compared to participants in the death group ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 2.58$, $t(98) = 9.2$, $p = 0.00$). Finally, there was a trend towards significance in the dental pain group for likelihood to report that participants' partners would cheat on them ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 2.48$) compared to the death group ($M = 2.50$, $SD = 2.51$, $t(98) = 1.30$, $p = 0.02$).

Results comparing women to men in our sample were also notable. Although women were significantly less likely to report that they would cheat compared to men when there was no death reminder (women $M = 9.00$, $SD = 7.85$; men $M = 14.95$, $SD = 8.36$), women were significantly more likely to report that they would cheat on their partner compared to men under MS (women $M = 12.86$, $SD = 6.07$; men $M = 10.21$, $SD = 6.12$). Overall, women were less likely to think their partner would cheat on them ($M = 9.43$, $SD = 6.81$) compared to men ($M = 10.08$, $SD = 7.77$) and women also believed their partners would be less likely to end their relationship ($M = 23.51$, $SD = 7.63$) in comparison to men ($M = 20.63$, $SD = 8.09$).

Discussion

In general, the findings of this study did not support the hypothesis that men would be more likely to report cheating on their partner or vote for a male candidate under MS. Instead, results showed that *women* were *more* likely to report cheating on their partner after being primed with death whereas *men* were *less* likely to report cheating on their partner under MS. One reason this might have occurred could be that this sample population was generally young

($M = 20.53$ years) and may have strove to actively work against gender stereotypes. For women, this could be the stereotype that they are more likely to commit to their relationships or take on more traditional roles such as caretaker or responsible partner. Furthermore, men may have wanted to work against the stereotype that college boys/young men do not stay loyal to their relationships. In addition to fighting stereotypes, participants could have potentially been playing into different stereotypes where women are more honest regarding relationships, whereas men may feel the need to hide. These results could also mean that individuals might be more willing to manage their terror around their death anxiety by committing to attachment constructs (a replication of Cox & Arndt, 2012 findings), which boosts their self-esteem by adhering to the worldview defense hypothesis rather than by boosting their self-esteem by devaluing the opposite sex. Specifically, results of Cox and Arndt's (2012) findings showed that, under MS, participants believed that their romantic partner saw them in a more positive light (greater need for attachment constructs).

Additionally, men and women were *both more likely* to vote *female* when reminded of death, which could be due to a number of factors. One of those might include the fact that this survey was sent out two weeks before the 2020 U. S. Federal election that involved major political strife. Given that this sample population consisted of mostly Democratic-leaning participants, perhaps there was an unconscious thought of electing a female candidate (no matter what it was for) as a compensation for former Presidential Candidate Hillary Clinton not getting elected in the previous (2016) Federal election, which then gave rise to ongoing controversy over Donald Trump's term in office.

Limitations

As previously mentioned, this survey was sent out two weeks before one of the most controversial elections in American history, which could present as a limitation to the accuracy of reported voting decisions in this study. Conjointly, the questions used to measure voting decisions also presented some limitations for accuracy. For example, the only questions truly used to measure how participants chose to manage their terror by voting for a candidate were those asking which hypothetical candidate they would be more likely to vote for (somewhat based on the position they hypothetically took). Furthermore, the Bill used referenced open versus block funding, which is not a construct generally known by the public; this was done purposefully so that support for the candidate did not depend on their position on the Bill. Moreover, the sample population was relatively young, which may decrease the external validity of these findings. Finally, the surveys were sent out online, which could have decreased engagement and external validity.

Strengths

Some studies have indicated that online participants may pay closer attention to study instructions than student samples (Hauser & Schwarz, 2015) and provide comparable data quality (Kees, Berry, Burton, & Sheehan, 2017), which may have created more accurate results in this study. Another strength this study offers is the unique opportunity for participants to *choose* how they manage their terror, which might have provided a deeper understanding of how MS might contribute to gender differences in responses to death anxiety. Furthermore, there was a diverse range of ethnicities among participants which allows for higher external validity.

Future Directions and Conclusions

To further explore this relationship between gender attitudes and terror management theory, a similar survey could be sent out to participants further away from any real election that might occur and include a broader age range to increase the accuracy of applying these

conclusions to the general public. Candidates could be described as male or female instead of using names that are typically gendered (Terrence and Tiffany) but might inadvertently activate other notions in participants. Another aspect that could be addressed when looking at the gendered candidates is providing each gender as for or against the policy within the survey to balance gender attitudes (i.e., counterbalancing gender). Additionally, the voting preference and infidelity responses should be assessed in two separate studies, as we do not know whether and how they might have cross-contaminated each other in the present research survey. Finally, other aspects of gender attitudes might be considered for further research, such as looking at how women respond to the opportunity to devalue another woman after death reminders.

In conclusion, gender attitudes can give us unique insight to our cultural worldviews and values, which might lead us to more accurately predict behavior of individuals in situations that heighten death anxiety. More research on this relationship could be valuable in preventing sexism and discrimination and enlightening humans on how this ubiquitous death-related terror can be optimally managed.

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Appendix A

MAPS Questionnaire

Experimental group:

1. Please jot down the emotions and feelings you experience when you think about physically dying.
2. Please jot down the emotions and feelings you experience when you think about what will happen to you after you die.

Control group:

1. Please jot down the emotions and feelings you experience when you think about experiencing dental pain.
2. Please jot down the emotions and feelings you experience when you think about what will happen to you when you experience dental pain.

Appendix B

Bill used as political excerpt/delay task:

Reported to House amended, Part I (12/08/2016)

Improving Child Nutrition and Education Act of 2016

This bill amends the Richard B. Russell National School Lunch Act and the Child Nutrition Act of 1966 to reauthorize and modify: (1) child nutrition programs, including the National School Lunch Program (NSLP) and other institutional food service programs; and (2) the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC).

For the child nutrition programs, the bill makes policy changes that:

- establish a demonstration project to permit up to three states to receive a block grant instead of open-ended funding currently provided by several child nutrition programs;
- require the Department of Agriculture to review school meal regulations every three years and make any necessary revisions;
- increase the eligibility threshold for participation in the Community Eligibility Provision that permits schools in high poverty areas to serve all meals free of charge;
- permit states to provide summer meals away from a congregate site (specific sites where children come to eat and are supervised) in rural or low-income areas without access to summer service

Terrence Smith takes Position A on this policy which says that funding should NOT shift from a block grant to open-ended funding.

Tiffany Blake takes Position B on this policy which says that funding SHOULD shift from a block grant to open-ended funding.

Appendix C**Measurement for gender bias in voting decisions**

Terrence Smith takes Position A on this policy which says that funding should NOT shift from a block grant to open-ended funding.

Tiffany Blake takes Position B on this policy which says that funding SHOULD shift from a block grant to open-ended funding.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Unlikely								Very likely

1. Using the scale above, how likely are you to agree with Position A?
2. Using the scale above, how likely are you to agree with Position B?
3. Using the scale above, how likely are you to agree with Terrence Smith on all of his policies?
4. Using the scale above, how likely are you to agree with Tiffany Blake on all of her policies?
5. Using the scale above, how likely are you to vote for Terrence Smith?
6. Using the scale above, how likely are you to vote for Tiffany Blake?

Appendix D

Measure for likelihood to commit infidelity

Instructions. Below are listed a series of events. We would like you to make three responses to each event: 1) estimate the likelihood that the event would occur within the next year; 2) estimate the likelihood that if the event occurred, you would end the relationship; and 3) estimate the likelihood that if the event occurred, your partner would end the relationship. Decide which number best represents your estimate, then insert the number on each of the following items.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Unlikely								Very likely

(1) Partner flirts with someone else within the next year.

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship

(2) Partner passionately kisses someone else within the next year.

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship

(3) Partner goes out on a romantic date with someone else within the next year.

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship

(4) Partner has a one-night stand with someone else within the next year.

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship

(7) You flirt with someone else within the next year

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship

(8) You passionately kiss someone else within the next year.

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship

(9) You go out on a romantic date with someone else within the next year.

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship

(10) You have a one-night stand with someone else within the next year.

_____ likelihood that event would occur within the next year

_____ if event occurred, probability that you would end the relationship

_____ if event occurred, probability that partner would end relationship