

WHEN A RELATIONSHIP ENDS: THE ROLE OF ATTACHMENT IN ROMANTIC

RELATIONSHIP LOSS

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ABSTRACT

Loss is an inevitable part of the human experience. How each individual reacts to loss may be affected by various factors (e.g. an individual's attachment style). The current studies focused on how individuals respond to and cope with the loss of one type of attachment figure, specifically the loss of a romantic partner. The relationship between romantic loss and attachment theory is discussed and an integrated model of romantic relationship loss and attachment is proposed. This model accounts for various differences in how individuals respond to the loss of romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Study 1 focused on the development of a revised form of the Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (IDWL; Caserta and Lund, 2007), which was labelled the Daily Activities After Relationship Loss (DAARL), to assess loss-orientation, restoration-orientation, and the oscillation between these processes following romantic relationship loss. This measure allowed for the assessment of coping in keeping with the constructs of the Dual Process Model of Bereavement (DPM; Stroebe & Schut, 1999), but allowed for these processes to be assessed in the context of romantic relationship loss as opposed to coping following the death of a loved one. Study 1 was comprised of two parts with differing samples: Part 1 included seven (four female) graduate students and undergraduate alumni in the social sciences as participants whereas Part 2 included ninety-seven (sixty-nine female) undergraduate psychology students. Participants were presented with proposed items for the new measure, as well as definitions of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented coping, and then were asked to categorize these items as loss-oriented coping, restoration-oriented coping, both, or other. Items yielding the highest levels of inter-rater agreement were used for the DAARL in Study 2.

Study 2 focussed on the attachment relationship between former romantic partners, and how individuals coped with the loss of an attachment figure following the termination of a romantic relationship. One hundred and fifty-nine (one hundred and eleven female) individuals who had been broken up with or deemed their most recent romantic loss as being a mutual break-up were asked to complete a questionnaire packet containing measures of attachment style, coping behaviours following the loss, depression, anxiety, and socially desirable responding. A model of differences in coping with romantic relationship loss based on an individual's attachment style was proposed and tested based on Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe's (2005) DPM and findings by Waskowic (2010; See Figure 4). Based on the findings from the current studies there are differences between the four types of attachment (i.e., secure, dismissing, preoccupied, and fearful) in how each copes with the loss of a romantic attachment figure. In light of the current findings, a revised model of romantic grief, which integrates the Dual Process Model of Bereavement within an attachment theoretical framework is offered (See Figure 5). This new model accounts for observed differences in the way individuals cope with the loss of a romantic relationship and suggests that researchers focus on the attachment relationship to explain variability in an individual's response following romantic loss. The results of Study 2 provide support for the new integrated model and encourage others to consider using attachment theory, when examining how individuals with different attachment styles (i.e., secure, dismissing, preoccupied, and fearful) will respond to a romantic loss.

Study 1 and 2 in conjunction also provide early stage support for the validity of the DAARL. Study 1 provided initial content validity by having independent raters assess

items as being consistent with restoration-oriented or loss-oriented coping. Study 2 provided empirical support of the items selected as being consistent with their intended constructs by analyzing internal consistency and item-total correlations. The findings of Study 2 suggested that the dimensions proposed represented related, but distinct constructs.

The current studies aimed to advance our understanding of the relationship between attachment theory and romantic relationship loss by expanding upon relevant theories and empirical findings for bereavement following a death to other forms of loss. Further, the findings are reported in regards to specific attachment styles, rather than the secure versus insecure distinction that has been commonly utilized when conducting research on attachment style differences. Implications and future directions for research are discussed.

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Introduction

Loss is a relatively common phenomenon which can have a wide range of consequences for individuals. Despite the high frequency of loss and abundance of loss theory generated, there is a lack of investigation into the consequences of romantic loss. Over the past several years, the relationship between attachment and grief resolution, has gained interest in the bereavement literature (Stroebe, Schut, & Boerner, 2010; Waskowic, 2010). While the relationship between bereavement and attachment style has gained considerable interest and investigation the same cannot be said for other forms of loss (e.g., romantic relationship loss). The lack of investigation into the impact of attachment – a theory which conceptualizes emotion regulation when faced with separation- on romantic loss represents a significant gap within the literature.

For many years, the romantic relationship literature has investigated the impact of attachment style on relationship satisfaction (Madey & Rodgers, 2009; Mondor, McDuff, Lussier, & Wright, 2011; Rotella, 2009), but this research has yet to explore the relationship between attachment style and coping following romantic relationship loss. The present research attempts to further understand the role attachment style plays in successful coping following romantic relationship loss. Specifically, two theoretical models, that is, Bartholomew's (1990) Four-category Model of Attachment Styles (See Figure 1) and Stroebe and Schut's (1999) Dual Process Model (DPM; See Figures 2 & 3) of Adaptive Coping with Bereavement were used to design and ultimately understand the results of the current study. In addition, Castera & Lund's (2007) investigation into several dimensions of oscillation found in the DPM (e.g., degree of balance, frequency, awareness, control and intent of oscillation) were used to further assess outcomes. The goal of these studies was to

establish that utilization of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented behaviours as well as the subsequent psychological well-being of individuals would differ significantly for individuals with different attachment styles following romantic loss. These assertions were based upon past work investigating the relationship between attachment and bereavement following the death of a loved one (See Waskowic, 2010).

However, it was important to define attachment and describe the model of attachment used for the current studies before reviewing the literature on the relationship between romantic loss and attachment. Furthermore, it was important to review theories of loss, as well as literature which had investigated the relationship between attachment style and the experience of loss. The following discussion describes these constructs and theories in further depth to provide a rationale for the current studies.

Defining Basic Attachment Terminology

Attachment theory has long been regarded as a fundamentally important concept in several aspects of psychological well-being, although it has been frequently misrepresented or misunderstood. The aforementioned difficulties come in part due to researchers who have failed to define terms used in their research, but also due to the various models of attachment which have been proposed (e.g., Ainsworth, Bleher, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Bartholomew, 1990; Bowlby 1969; Crittenden, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to appropriately define the attachment terms which are used throughout the current studies.

The term “attachment figure” refers to the preferred individual to whom one relies on for attachment needs in times of distress whereas the term “attachment behaviour” refers to efforts either to continue or gain physical or psychological contact with an attachment figure (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). Although the term “attachment behaviour” describes

behaviours used to promote closeness to an attachment figure, the term “attachment behavioural system” refers to the organization of these behaviours within an individual (Cassidy, 2008). The term “attachment bond” refers to the emotional connections between individuals and their respective attachment figures (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). Rholes and Simpson (2004), define “attachment style” as the stable, global individual differences in one’s tendency to seek and feel comfort and emotional support from an attachment figure, and the beliefs that one holds regarding the responsiveness of the attachment figure to the individual’s efforts to gain comfort and support. In other words, attachment styles represent the expectations individuals develop about themselves and their close relationships based on their previous encounters. With this introduction to the attachment terminology, the following literature focuses on providing an overview of attachment theory.

Attachment Theory

Attachment theory has become one of the most comprehensive and extensive theories in psychology (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). Furthermore, it has been suggested that attachment theory was “designed to explain the psychological impact of loss” (Shaver & Tancredy, 2001, p. 73). Attachment theory provides an explanation of how relationships are developed and maintained over a lifetime. This section will discuss the origins of attachment theory, and include Bartholomew’s (1990) conceptualization of attachment, which was utilized in the current studies (See Figure 1).

The initial conceptualization of attachment came from the work of Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1979, 1980) and was expanded on by Ainsworth (Ainsworth, Bleher, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Bowlby’s (1969, 1973, 1980) conceptualization of attachment theory was used to explain the distress experienced by infants when separated from their primary

caregivers and the formation of reactions when these parent-child relationships do not meet the needs of infants (Bretherton, 1985).

Attachment theory was derived from the notion that human beings possess an innate bias to be social. Rholes & Simpson (2004) stated that attachment theory relies upon a belief that “human beings have an evolved, biologically based predisposition to direct ‘attachment behaviours’ (e.g., searching for, promoting physical contact with, looking at, following, visually tracking) toward persons who serve as their primary caregivers” (p. 5). Bowlby (1973) described attachment behaviour as “any form of behaviour that results in a person attaining or retaining proximity to some other differentiated and preferred individual, usually conceived as stronger and/or wiser” (p. 292). The attachment behavioural system is thought to have developed in order to increase physical proximity between infants and their caregivers (Rholes & Simpson, 2004).

Over the first year of an infant’s life, attachment theory states that primary caregivers become increasingly differentiated from other people in the infant’s mind. Bowlby referred to the differentiation of primary caregivers from others as “monotropy,” which is a universal bias the infant has to create a hierarchy of people, with one highly preferred attachment figure (Goldberg, 2000). Attachment theory suggests that natural selection favours infants who become attached as they were more likely to survive due to greater protection from danger and predation in ancestral environments through the use of proximity seeking (Rholes & Simpson, 2004).

An attachment relationship, as defined by attachment theory, must include proximity seeking, a secure base, and a safe haven (Feeney & Noller, 1996). An attachment figure serves as a secure base from which an infant can feel safe to explore their

environment. When no threat is apparent, the infant typically engages in exploratory behaviour, as opposed to attachment behaviours. However, if an infant perceives a threat within their environment, the child typically seeks out the attachment figure. As such the primary caregiver serves as a safe haven, where the child will return to for comfort and security when distressed. Through these behaviours, the child learns to explore their environment with confidence and engage other people (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

In the attachment paradigm, it is thought that both caregivers and infants experience an emotional connection to each other and develop an internal representation of both the relationship and those involved in it while engaging in behaviours that serve to maintain the relationship (Goldberg, 2000). Expectations about the availability and responsiveness of the attachment figure are then integrated into the internal working model of the child (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

The internal working models of infants represent the psychological structures underlying the various styles of attachment (Collins & Read, 1994; Collins, Guichard, Ford, & Feeney, 2004). The internal working model is created by experiences from early relationships and provides a basis for expectations of what is likely to occur in different situations with attachment figures (Rholes & Simpson, 2004, p. 7).

In close relationships, internal working models organize behaviours, affect, and cognitions while providing a guideline for how to respond, what to expect, as well as how to interpret ambiguous interactions (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). While forming new relationships individuals rely on these internal working models to interpret the intentions of others (Hazen & Shaver, 1987). Furthermore, internal working models draw attention to

attachment relevant events and help regulate emotions when stressors arise (Rholes & Simpson, 2004).

Expectations regarding the availability and responsiveness of the attachment figure depend upon the individual's model of others and model of self. An individual's model of others represents the individual's perception of whether or not an attachment figure is responsive to cues for support, whereas a model of self is the individual's perception of whether or not he or she is someone that others are likely to respond to in positive ways (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

Attachment Styles

In attachment theory, different styles of attachment develop depending upon how caregivers have responded to an infant's attachment behaviours (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall (1978) identified three types of attachment: a secure style and two insecure styles (i.e., resistant or anxious-ambivalent and avoidant attachment styles).

Secure attachments are thought to be the result of caregivers who are responsive to their child's distress and use effective methods to comfort their child. These caregivers remain both physically and emotionally available without becoming disruptive when the infant is not distressed. Children with secure attachments are identified as directly seeking comfort from their attachment figure, are easily calmed by others, and once calmed can engage in other activities. In contrast, individuals with anxious-ambivalent attachments typically continue to be agitated, and often do not re-engage in other activities. Children displaying an avoidant attachment style often disregard their caregivers, show signs of emotional withdrawal, and utilize distractions to mitigate their distress (Ainsworth, Blehar,

Waters, & Wall, 1978). A fourth attachment style was later introduced called the disorganized style of insecure attachment (Main & Solomon, 1986) for individuals who did not fit into one of the three previously described attachment styles. Disorganized individuals typically display contradictory behaviour (i.e., simultaneously approaching and avoiding the attachment figure), apprehension to the attachment figure, and affect that is unstable or depressed (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

Each of the styles of attachment reinforces strategies for regulating and expressing emotions. For instance, infants with a secure attachment style are able to freely and directly express their needs for comfort and protection. In contrast, those with an avoidant style are limited in their ability to express attachment needs, and resistant infants often exaggerate their attachment needs (Goldberg, 2000).

Kobak & Sceery (1988) stated that attachment styles possess a set of organized rules that dictate the individual's awareness and response to emotional arousal. According to Kobak & Sceery (1988), individuals with a secure attachment style tend to be guided by rules that allow them to acknowledge their distress and turn to others. Individuals with an avoidant attachment style are guided by rules that limit their acknowledgement of distress. Individuals with an ambivalent attachment style are guided by rules that direct their attention towards the stressor and the attachment figure to an extreme, which then disrupts the development of autonomy and self-confidence.

Attachment in Adulthood

Ainsworth (1979) and Weiss (1991) both stated that adult romantic relationships can be considered attachment relationships and display attachment bonds – in particular marital and committed non-marital relationships. Weiss (2001) goes as far to state that an

attachment bond is “fundamental to the functioning of marital relationships,” (p.54). Hazen and Shaver (1987) have conceptualized romantic love as an attachment process similar in its progression, and individual differences, to that of the infant-parent attachment described earlier. They suggest that infant-caregiver and adult romantic relationships share the following characteristics: security is gained when the other individual is nearby and responsive; each relationship engages in close, intimate contact; each relationship can feel insecure when the other individual is not present; and both relationships display mutual fascination with both participants. Mikulincer, Gillath, and Shaver (2002) caution, however, that three functions must be present in order for a person to be considered an attachment figure. The attachment figure must be a target for proximity seeking, should act as a safe haven during times of distress, and become a secure base for the individual (Mikulincer, Gillath, & Shaver, 2002).

The above characteristics which define an adult attachment relationship have also been described by other theories of adult romantic relationships (e.g. Sternberg, 1986). In Sternberg’s (1986) Triangular Theory of Love, the concept of love is defined across three distinct yet related dimensions of a relationship: intimacy, passion, and commitment. Sternberg (1986) noted that these three components may all be present, absent, or in any combination in either high or low levels in any given relationship. These different combinations of intimacy, passion, and commitment represent distinct types of loving relationships which may have differing needs and dynamics. For more information regarding these different types of loving relationships see Sternberg (1986).

Sternberg’s first component in his theory of love is known as intimacy. The intimacy component is defined by the feelings of connectedness, bonding, and closeness in

loving relationships (Sternberg, 1986). Sternberg & Grajek (1984) noted that the intimacy component comprises the following aspects: a) a desire to promote the welfare of a loved one, b) to experience happiness for the loved one, c) to hold the loved one in high regard, d) being able to depend upon the loved one in times of need, e) a mutual understanding with the loved one, f) sharing of one's self and one's possession with the loved one, g) receipt of emotional support with the loved one, h) giving of emotional support to the loved one, i) intimate communications between the individual and the loved one, and j) valuing the loved one within the individual's life. Sternberg (1986) noted, however, that while these elements are characteristic of the intimacy component, that they are also merely a subset of the feelings that could be experienced under the concept of intimacy, and need not all be present for a relationship to be considered intimate.

These factors of the intimacy component become particularly relevant when viewing them through an attachment context. Intimacy has a large focus on the closeness between individuals whether it be physically or through a mental representation, much in the way attachment theory focuses on proximity seeking – first physically, but later through mental representations as well (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Beyond this focus on closeness and bond formation, several of these factors map almost directly onto attachment behaviours. For example, holding the loved one in a high regard is akin to differentiating between attachment and non-attachment figures. Likewise being able to depend upon a loved one in times of need is similar to proximity-seeking during times of distress between an individual and his or her attachment figure. These similarities between Sternberg's (1986) conceptualization of intimacy in loving relationships and concepts related to attachment theory lend support to the notion that intimacy, in part reflects attachment and

that adult romantic relationships can represent attachment bonds. This idea is further supported by findings by Sternberg & Grajek (1984), which indicated that the structure of intimacy does not appear to vary in a significant way from one loving relationship to another suggesting that the intimacy component may represent a common core across loving relationships. This finding could mean that loving relationships generally possess elements of attachment, even if the loved one is not the primary attachment figure.

The second component of Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory of Love is known as passion, and includes motivational drives and other sources of arousal that lead to the experience of passion. Passion also includes what Hatfield and Walster (1981) describe as "a state of intense longing for union with the other," (p.9). While passion is often conceptualized as being driven by sexual desire, Sternberg (1986) notes that passion also includes other needs such as self-esteem, nurturance, dominance, submission, affiliation, or self-actualization. In this sense, the passion component is mainly the result of drives to have needs met within a relationship, which would vary based on relationship type and also within the same type of relationship as well. In attachment theory, the main motivation of attachment behaviours are to obtain safety, security, and comfort in times of distress, which may be a parallel to the drives found within several loving relationships as defined by Sternberg's (1986) model.

The third and final component of Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory of Love is commitment. It should be noted that commitment does not refer to the intensity, loyalty, or exclusivity of a loving relationship, but rather to a subjective evaluation of duration of a relationship. To that end the commitment component is broken up into two possibilities: a short-term commitment in which a decision is made that an individual loves another and a

long term commitment in which an individual is determined to maintain that love. Findings by Hazen & Zeifman (1999) suggest that individuals who have been in longer term romantic relationships are more likely to identify their romantic partner as their primary attachment figure. As such, whether or not a commitment is long term may determine if the romantic relationship represents an attachment relationship that is high within an individual's attachment hierarchy, or if the loved one serves more as a proximate attachment figure.

Bearing in mind the parallels between Sternberg's (1986) conceptualization of love, it stands to reason that individuals of differing attachment styles would vary in both their needs and their experiences in romantic relationships. It should be noted first that loving relationships vary tremendously depending on the nature of the relationship (e.g., romantic vs. familial), the needs of the individual, and many other factors. Furthermore a loving relationship is not a static concept and continues to change or mature as time goes on. With these limitations in mind, the following discussion highlights the role of attachment style as a factor affecting in part the structure of romantic relationships.

Bolt (2004) discussed differences in loving relationships using Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory of Love and Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall's (1978) attachment styles. Bolt (2004) noted that individuals with a secure attachment were unlikely to have much difficulty in forming intimate relationships with others due to their ability to be comfortable with being independent or within a committed relationship. Furthermore since they tend not to experience a pronounced fear of rejection and can be independent or dependent upon others without much difficulty, secure individuals would likely be able to maintain a long term commitment to others and a relationship. Bolt (2004) concluded that

securely attached individuals were likely to have little or no issues with passion, commitment, or intimacy, and as a result could rather easily experience any or all types of Sternberg's (1986) conceptualizations of loving relationships successfully.

In contrast, individuals who possess an avoidant attachment style may have difficulty in building intimate or long-term commitment relationships due to a perception that others are not dependable nor trustworthy (Bolt, 2004). As a result, this may limit the types of romantic relationships that avoidant individuals may engage in. Sternberg (1986) went as far as stating that intimacy is a "common core in loving relationships" (p.122). Therefore, individuals with an avoidant attachment style may find many of Sternberg's types of loving relationships difficult, with the exception of infatuation, leading these individuals to experience primarily short-term commitment relationships (Bolt, 2004).

Finally, individuals who have an anxious attachment style tend to detach and disengage from the relationship as they are unsure of what to expect from others (Bolt, 2004). These characteristics tend to make it difficult for individuals with an anxious attachment style to establish intimacy and commitment (Bolt, 2004). Over time, however, individuals with an anxious attachment style may become more engaged in the relationship through familiarity with their romantic partner; as a result they may eventually be able to establish intimacy and even long-term commitment (Bolt, 2004). In this way, while individuals with an anxious attachment style may have difficulty with many of Sternberg's (1986) types of love, the outlook for these individuals tends to be more positive than individuals with an avoidant attachment style (Bolt, 2004).

Beyond similarities across theories of adult romantic relationships and attachment theory, further evidence for the notion that adult romantic relationships can function as

attachment relationships has been found. Attachment theory states that an attachment style represents a relatively stable construct; as such, it stands to reason that this style will carry on into adulthood. The assumption that attachment style is a stable construct gives a basis for the notion that individuals will continue to be influenced by their experiences in the creation, maintenance, and termination of subsequent relationships (Stroebe, Schut, and Boerner, 2010). As a result, by the time an individual reaches adulthood, he or she has had many attachment experiences to draw upon in order to construct a stable internal working model (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

In adults, attachment behaviours can become more refined and rely not only upon physical presence, but can also draw upon “mental images, prototypes, schemas, or specific memories of interactions with...attachment figures,” (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008, p. 507) in order to regain proximity. Due to this increased capacity in adulthood, “mental representations of attachment figures can become symbolic sources of protection, and their activation can establish what might be called “ ‘symbolic proximity’ to supportive others” (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007, p. 13). Mikulincer & Shaver (2007) also suggested adults engage in self-soothing methods learned from previous interactions with an attachment figure in order to delay the need for comfort seeking until the attachment figure is available in the case of a prolonged absence.

Additionally, Main (1990) outlined two secondary attachment strategies for use when proximity seeking is not an option (i.e., hyperactivating and deactivating strategies). Hyperactivating strategies include behaviours such as clinging as well as cognitive and behavioural efforts to gain proximity, while deactivating strategies include suppressing

threats, handling stress independently, and keeping distance (Stroebe, Schut, and Boerner, 2010).

Hyperactivating strategies are meant to obtain attention and comfort from the unavailable attachment figure by whatever means necessary (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). These strategies are typically used in relationships in which the attachment figure's response to attachment needs is inconsistent. These inconsistent responses of caregivers to attachment behaviours can lead to the development of individuals who constantly worry about the availability and responsiveness of their attachment figures which, in turn can lead to exaggerated behaviours to gain support (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007/2008).

In contrast, deactivating strategies aim to shut down the attachment behavioural system to avoid the distress resulting from the unavailability of an attachment figure (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). These strategies occur most in relationships where the attachment figure tends to be punitive or disapproving of the expression of attachment needs (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008). Individuals in these relationships learn to hide or suppress attachment needs and as a result often manage distress independently (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

Just as infant-caregiver attachments produce a number of individual differences, so do adult romantic relationship attachments. While some researchers used models similar to those of Ainsworth and colleagues (e.g., Hazen & Shaver, 1987), other researchers were dissatisfied with a three-category model of adult attachment. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) were among the researchers who challenged the three-category model.

Bartholomew claimed the avoidant attachment style could be split into two distinct forms of avoidance (i.e., fearful-avoidant and dismissing-avoidant; Bartholomew, 1990).

Bartholomew differentiated these styles by suggesting that dismissing individuals are avoidant in order to have a defensive sense of self-reliance and independence. In contrast, fearful individuals are avoidant to avoid pain or rejection by others. Bartholomew's distinction between individuals who are fearful and those who are dismissing led to the creation of Bartholomew's (1990) four-category (i.e., secure, preoccupied, fearful and dismissing) model of adult attachment, which is the model of attachment that is utilized for the current studies.

Bartholomew (1990) went on to define this model as being based upon two dimensions: positive versus negative model of self and others (See Figure 1). These models of self and others are analogous to those discussed earlier in other attachment theories. The combinations of these dimensions define the four types of adult attachment as follows: secure (positive image of self and positive image of others), preoccupied (negative image of self and positive image of others), dismissing (positive image of self and negative image of others), and fearful (negative image of self and negative image of others). In later work, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) offered the following descriptions of the adult attachment styles:

“It is relatively easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me” (Secure). “I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me” (Dismissing). “I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like, I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them” (Preoccupied). “I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others, I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely or to depend on them. I sometimes worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others” (Fearful). (p. 244)

Although Bartholomew's (1990) model of attachment was utilized in the current studies, it should be noted that there are several competing models of attachment, including ones which are more recent and could be applied to adult romantic relationships (e.g. the Dynamic Maturational Model of Attachment; Crittenden, 2006). Despite this, Bartholomew's (1990) model was chosen as it retains many of the elements that are consistent across several models of attachment and focuses primarily on young adult romantic relationships, which were likely to make up a large amount of the sample in Study 2 due to recruitment methodology and availability of participants. Furthermore, unlike several other models of attachment which require observation or interview, Bartholomew's model has a valid and reliable quantitative measure (i.e., ECRI, see Appendix M) for assessing attachment style allowing for online administration and as a result a larger potential subject pool with an easier administration.

It should be noted that throughout one's development, changes in the composition, structure, and ordering of an individual's attachment hierarchies occur (Hazen & Zeifman, 1999). Bowlby suggested that as an individual develops that even though parents typically remain a permanent element in an individual's attachment hierarchy, parents typically rank second in terms of attachment when compared to a romantic partner in adulthood. Many researchers (Bowlby, 1969, 1980; Parkes & Weiss, 1983; Weiss, 1975) found that adults who become separated from or lose their romantic attachment figure experience similar reactions to this loss as those found in infants who are separated from their caregiver, lending further support to the assertion that romantic partners can function as attachment figures.

There is empirical evidence (e.g., Hazen & Zeifman, 1999) to support Bowlby's claim that romantic relationships can be attachment relationships. For instance, Hazen and Zeifman (1999) interviewed adults aged 18 to 82 with questions designed to measure several aspects of attachment relationships (e.g., proximity seeking, secure base, safe haven, and separation distress). These participants were then divided into three groups based upon relationship status: those not in a romantic relationship, those who were in a romantic relationship less than two years, and those in a relationship for two years or more.

Hazen and Zeifman's (1999) study found that most participants typically directed proximity-seeking and safe haven attachment behaviours towards a peer as opposed to a parent. Furthermore, all groups showed a significant preference for seeking emotional support from friends or partners rather than a parent or sibling. Separation anxiety and secure base preference varied depending on relationship status. Specifically those in a romantic relationship for at least two years typically identified their romantic partners as the most preferred individual in their attachment hierarchy, whereas participants who were in a short-term or no relationship at all typically identified a parent as their secure base for which they felt the greatest separation anxiety. It should be noted, however, that these findings do not indicate that all romantic relationships greater than two years in length would represent an attachment relationship, nor would romantic relationships less than two years in length be non-attachment relationships exclusively. In contrast, these findings merely suggest that as the length of the relationship increases the likelihood of a romantic relationship taking on attachment based characteristics and the romantic partner being viewed as the primary attachment figure is higher as relationship duration increases. Before the two year mark, it is possible that a romantic partner may be the primary attachment

figure; however, it is also possible he or she may still be an attachment figure, just lower on the individual's attachment hierarchy. The above findings by Hazen & Zeifman (1999) support Bowlby's claim that for adults, parents or romantic partners can be attachment figures.

With the firm establishment that romantic partners can act as attachment figures in adulthood, the question arises: how do adults adjust to the loss of an attachment figure? For the purposes of the current studies, a model of coping to the loss of an attachment figure (see next section) due to death of the attachment figure will be applied to romantic relationship loss to better understand the similarities of coping across different forms of loss.

Dual Process Model

Stroebe and Schut (1999) have proposed a model of adaptive coping with bereavement called the Dual Process Model (DPM). The DPM provides a means for conceptualizing the process of reorganization and "letting go" of the physical attachment following a death. Parkes (2001) stated that the DPM "highlight[s] the way in which bereaved people oscillate between the pangs of grief (separation orientation), in which attention is focused on the lost person, and the less dramatic but equally important periods of apathy and direction of attention away from the loss and toward the other life tasks (restoration orientation)" (p.40).

That is, Stroebe and Schut's (1999) DPM distinguishes between two types of tasks that an individual must undergo to successfully resolve grief: loss-oriented (focusing on the loss and the events surrounding the loss) and restoration-oriented (dealing with secondary stressors that arise as a result of the death). The DPM states that during bereavement, both

of these tasks need to be addressed in an alternating fashion which leads to a process known as oscillation. Figure 2 provides a visual model of the DPM highlighting the process of oscillation as well as behaviours that would be considered loss-oriented or restoration-oriented. While this allows for a quick overview of the DPM, it fails to consider the implications of both positive and negative affect and cognitions within loss and restoration-oriented behaviours. Folkman (2001) found that positive affect and appraisal when engaging in loss and restoration-oriented behaviours tended to lead to adaptive coping. In contrast, Noel-Hoeksema (2001) found that rumination has negative consequences, yet it cannot be totally avoided. Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe (2005) integrated the findings of both Folkman (2001) and Noel-Hoeksema (2001) to create a DPM model which incorporated both positive and negative affect and cognitions (See Figure 3). Furthermore, Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe (2005) stated that adaptive coping would require an oscillation within loss-oriented and restoration-oriented behaviours between positive and negative appraisals.

According to the DPM, adaptive grieving is a complex process of confrontation and avoidance of both positive and negative affect and cognitions associated with loss and the subsequent consequences the event has on the individual's life (Stroebe, 2002; See Figure 3). The DPM advocates that adaptive coping involves a reorganization of the individual's internal working model to account for the inaccessibility of an attachment figure.

Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) have suggested that if there is not a balance of hyperactivation and deactivation strategies, an individual may not fully appreciate the magnitude and meaning of the loss, thus interfering with the transfer of attachment needs to an accessible attachment figure. Likewise Caserta and Lund (2007) have suggested that the

oscillation between loss-oriented coping and restoration-oriented coping is ideally balanced to both fully understand the loss and to transfer attachment needs to a new and more importantly accessible attachment figure.

The DPM suggests that secure individuals generally experience and express their emotions to a moderate degree, while oscillating with reasonable ease between both loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks (Stroebe, Schut, & Stroebe, 2005). These individuals typically both experience and express more grief-related feelings than dismissing individuals, who in extreme cases may not experience grief at all (Stroebe, Schut, & Stroebe, 2005).

Securely attached individuals, however, tend to express less grief than preoccupied individuals, who in extreme cases may become fixated on their loss and loss-oriented tasks in a predominantly ruminative as opposed to reorganizational manner (Stroebe, Schut, & Stroebe, 2005). Preoccupied individuals are often prone to unresolved grief and in some extreme cases related mental disorders such as depression, anxiety, or Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (Stroebe, Schut, Stroebe, 2005).

Therefore, within the context of the DPM, Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe (2005) have suggested that secure individuals can more easily oscillate between loss-oriented and restoration-oriented coping, whereas preoccupied individuals are more likely to focus on loss-oriented tasks. In contrast to preoccupied individuals, they propose that fearful individuals are more likely to focus on restoration-oriented tasks while avoiding loss-oriented tasks.

Bowlby's (1980) perspective shares several similarities with Stroebe and Schut's (1999) DPM in that the DPM involves an ongoing shift between two complementary but

distinct tasks associated with loss. It is even possible to consider loss-orientation in the DPM as being analogous to attachment-system hyperactivation, and restoration-orientation in the DPM as being analogous to attachment-system deactivation (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008). In the DPM the process of oscillating “between these two orientations brings about a gradual reorganization of life and mind, such that the deceased is integrated into one’s identity and the bereaved individual expands the function of the other relationships, establishes new relationships, and finds new meanings in life” (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008, p.96). Given Mikulincer & Shaver’s (2008) description of the process of reorganization it can be seen that either loss-oriented or restoration-oriented coping behaviours as a long term coping mechanism can have negative consequences (e.g., impeding the formation of new relationships).

The need for oscillation is further exemplified in a study conducted by Schut, Stroebe, and van den Bout (1997). Twenty three widows and twenty three widowers who reported high levels of distress 11 months post-death of their spouse were randomly assigned to one of two groups: those receiving an emotion-focused intervention, and those receiving a problem-focused intervention group. These groups were then compared to a control group of 59 individuals who received no intervention. Schut and colleagues found that men who typically relied on avoidance strategies benefited from an intervention that encouraged them to focus on neglected parts of their loss experience. Likewise, their results suggested that women who normally focused on meaning and implications of the loss benefited most from problem-focused interventions that taught them how to handle practical issues related to the loss (Schut, Stroebe, & van den Bout, 1997). These results are

suggestive that in order to most effectively resolve loss, it is important to work towards both loss-oriented and restoration-oriented goals.

The DPM represents one of many models of coping with loss. To best understand the phenomenon of romantic loss, we must first discuss the relationship between attachment style and other forms of loss which result in separation from an attachment figure (e.g., bereavement due to the death of an attachment figure).

Loss and Attachment Style Differences

As stated previously, the romantic relationship research has studied attachment almost exclusively in its role on current relationships and not as a factor that affects individuals following the loss of a romantic relationship. While investigation into attachment style and romantic loss is relatively new terrain, there has been considerable work and discussion around the role of attachment style in the bereavement process. As such, this section primarily focuses on the role attachment plays in bereavement following the death of an attachment figure in an attempt to provide insight into other forms of loss.

Mikulincer & Shaver (2007) stated that the intensity of grief that an individual experiences is highly related to where that attachment figure was placed within the individual's attachment hierarchy. Attachment theory states that the absence of an attachment figure activates a motivational system that compels the individual to seek out the person and to gain that individual's proximity and care, which in turn becomes problematic in terminated romantic relationships and bereaved individuals. When efforts to gain proximity and comfort are unsuccessful, individuals can experience a wide range of negative emotions. Eventually, however, individuals reorganize their representations in a

way that allows them to return to their lives and seek out other relationships (Fraley & Shaver, 1999).

The reorganization of representations requires an alternating activation of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented strategies described previously. Stroebe and Schut (1999) describe the process of going from loss-oriented to restoration-oriented strategies and vice versa in the DPM and refer to this process as oscillation. Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe (2005) stated:

Oscillation occurs in the short term (transient fluctuations in the course of any particular day) as well as across the passage of time, because adaptation to bereavement is a matter of slowly and painfully exploring and discovering what has been lost and what remains: what must be avoided or relinquished versus what can be retained, created, and built on. (p.52)

As the individual reorganizes the attachment system, oscillation lessens and the individual will feel protected by internal images of the deceased person (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

Given individual differences between attachment styles in their model of self and model of others, it is widely believed that attachment style impacts how an individual copes following the loss of an attachment figure. Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe (2005) predicted that individuals with a secure attachment style would experience and express grief at a moderate level – experiencing grief more than dismissing individuals, but less than preoccupied or fearful individuals. Furthermore individuals with a preoccupied or fearful attachment style would be more likely to experience problematic forms of grief. These claims were partially supported in a recent study by Waskowic (2010). Using non-parametric analyses, Waskowic showed a significant difference in reported levels of complicated grief (as measured by the Inventory of Complicated Grief) in preoccupied individuals over all other attachment styles, whereas dismissing individuals reported

significantly lower levels of complicated grief. Individuals with secure and fearful attachment styles, which fell in the middle with fearful individuals having a slightly higher mean, did not show a significant difference in reported levels of complicated grief. Findings by Waskowic (2010) also demonstrated that preoccupied and secure individuals engage significantly more in loss-oriented tasks than dismissing individuals; however, no group differed significantly in the amount of restoration-oriented tasks engaged in. These results are suggestive that dismissive individuals are prone to avoid grief work when faced with the loss of an attachment figure.

Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe (2005) additionally postulated that oscillation is likely to be done in balance by secure individuals, be avoided by dismissing individuals, be engaged extremely by preoccupied individuals, and take an incoherent course among those classified as fearful. Shaver and Tancredy (2001) theorized that different attachment styles would react differently to the loss of an attachment figure. Secure individuals would react emotionally to loss but not be overwhelmed by grief; they should be capable of constructing a meaningful story about the loss and what follows and thus avoid the experience of self-blame. In contrast, dismissing individuals are unlikely to react emotionally to the loss of an attachment figure, as they are less emotionally dependent on the attachment figure. Preoccupied individuals are likely to be the most emotional following the loss of an attachment figure as this is how they reacted within the relationship prior to the loss (Shaver & Tancredy, 2001). Those with a fearful attachment would express an inability to discuss or make sense of the loss in any meaningful manner (Shaver & Tancredy, 2001). Other researchers (e.g., Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Stroebe, Schut, and

Boerner, 2010) have proposed similar theories regarding the role of attachment styles following a loss, although empirical support of these theories remains scarce.

Findings by Waskowic (2010) partially support the notion that fearful individuals engage in a disorganized course of bereavement, but only in relation to dismissing individuals. Furthermore, preoccupied individuals were found to report greater levels of interpersonal dependency following a death than secure or dismissing individuals (Waskowic, 2010). Additionally, findings by Waskowic (2010) supported the notion that oscillation occurred in balance for dismissing individuals. Waskowic's results lent only partial support in that secure individuals oscillated the least among the different attachment styles, but only demonstrated a statistically significant difference when compared to individuals with a dismissing attachment style.

Fraley and Shaver (1999) found that adults who displayed the most distress following the death of a partner were least likely to have had a stable relationship with their partner. These relationships tended to be brief, and these adults reported concerns regarding the stability, security, and care that they desired in a relationship (Fraley & Shaver, 1999). In addition, Fraley, Davis, and Shaver (1997) found that preoccupied adults tended to display more distress when an exclusive romantic relationship was terminated. Furthermore, Fraley & Shaver (1999) stated that preoccupied adults tended to cry and desire their lost attachment figures for longer periods of time than other attachment styles.

It has been argued that adults categorized as fearful often experience problematic grief following the death of an attachment figure (Parkes & Weiss, 1983; Sanders, 1989; Vachon, Sheldon, Lancee, Lyall, Rogers, & Freeman, 1982). Fraley & Shaver (1999) suggested that fearful individuals experience problematic grief more often due to their

vigilance and sensitivity to cues of rejection, which become heightened over their development due to a lack of response from their attachment figures (Fraley & Shaver, 1999). It also stands to reason then that preoccupied individuals have increased difficulty reorganizing their internal working models in reaction to the loss as their attachment systems have been trained to continue yearning for the absent attachment figure (Fraley & Shaver, 1999).

Some research has found that dismissing individuals are least likely to develop emotional attachments to their romantic partners (Fraley & Davis, 1997) and that when their relationships end dismissing individuals typically display little or no negative affect (Fraley, Davis, & Shaver, 1997). Thus the aforementioned research supports that the presence or absence of grief is at least partially dependent on the centrality of the lost attachment figure to the individual.

From the above discussion it is evident loss, not just through death, but likely also through the loss of a romantic relationship, can evoke a wide variety of reactions, which are influenced in part by attachment style. The following discussion will examine other factors associated with coping following romantic loss, which were not included in the currently proposed model, but are worthy of future consideration.

Factors Associated with Coping Following Romantic Loss

While the factors associated with coping with romantic loss under consideration in the current studies have been previously discussed, there are a number of other factors discussed within the literature that may impact romantic loss. This section will provide a quick overview of some findings related to romantic loss based on the following three factors: age, gender, and culture.

Age and coping with romantic loss. An individual's age has often been considered a factor that influences the ways in which individuals conceptualize relationships and the loss of relationships. Furthermore, it is widely believed that over an individual's life span his or her relationship needs and expectations can vary greatly. As such, age can be an important factor in determining how individuals cope following romantic loss.

As the literature suggests, adolescence is not only the time when most individuals first become romantically involved, it is also an important milestone in romantic maturation (Collins, 2003; Connolly & McIsaac, 2009; Laursen, Furman, & Mooney, 2006). This becomes particularly important as majority of participants in the current studies were in late adolescence or early adulthood. Previous studies have suggested that by age 16, about 60% of adolescents report that they have had at least one romantic relationship (Laursen, Furman, & Mooney, 2006) and that, at any point in time, about 40% to 50% these individuals report that they are currently in a romantic relationship (Kuttler & La Greca, 2004). Despite these trends, most adolescent relationships have a duration of under a year and may end after a few months (Shulman and Scharf, 2000; Seiffge-Krenke, 2000). While these findings suggest the prevalence and importance of romantic loss in adolescence, studies investigating the role of romantic loss in adolescence are limited.

Davis, Shaver, and Vernon (2003) investigated the role of age in relation to the emotional, physical and behavioural reactions to romantic relationship loss in a sample of 5255 internet respondents ranging from 15 to 50 years of age. Davis et al. (2003) found that younger individuals tended to engage in self blame and experience feelings of guilt at significantly higher levels than older individuals. Furthermore, Davis et al. (2003) found that younger individuals tended to desire or try to re-enter the lost romantic relationship

and use drugs and alcohol to cope with romantic loss more often than older individuals. In contrast, older individuals reported engaging in more avoidant behaviours related to the loss (e.g. avoiding the former romantic partner) as well as being more likely to avoid the formation of new relationships when compared to younger individuals (Davis et al., 2003). These findings demonstrate that age can be a factor in shaping how individuals interpret, feel, and react in order to cope following a romantic loss, as different challenges and coping behaviours become prevalent across the lifespan.

Collins (2003) argued that romantic experiences in adolescence provide an important context for maturation of intimacy, sexuality, identity, autonomy, and affiliation. Connolly & McIsaac (2009) expanded upon this and proposed that this opportunity for maturation applied not only to the romantic relationship itself but also to the termination of a romantic relationship.

Connolly & McIsaac (2009) sought to address this gap in the literature by assessing the romantic relationship and romantic loss experiences of 211 adolescents ranging from 15 to 18 years of age. Participants were asked to answer number of questions related to their romantic experiences, as well as to provide a written response to the question, “What was the most important reason why your last romantic relationship ended?” (Connolly & McIsaac, 2009, p. 1214). While this study focuses primarily on the motivations of adolescents engaging in relationships and the factors which contribute to relationship loss, it also provided insight into how adolescents coped with romantic relationship loss. Connolly and McIsaac (2009) found that adolescents sought out romantic partners that allowed them the opportunity to meet their current romantic developmental needs (e.g. maturation of intimacy, sexuality, identity, autonomy, and affiliation) and also readily

ended a romantic relationship when their romantic developmental needs were not appropriately met by their partner. While Connolly and McIsaac (2009) emphasized differences between adults and adolescents, they also advocated that actual romantic experiences predict relationship maturation and changing needs better than chronological age.

Connolly and McIsaac's (2009) findings indicated that adolescents focus primarily on romantic developmental needs and actively initiate a romantic termination if they perceive their romantic needs as being unfulfilled. That is, adolescents are not primarily focused on the loss, but instead are focused on finding a new partner to satisfy their unmet needs. Furthermore, while romantic experiences may be a better predictor of romantic development than chronological age, this finding does not mean that age is not a factor which could influence reactions to romantic loss. Certain developmental points in an individual's lifespan (e.g., a woman approaching menopause) may introduce additional significance to a romantic loss. Examining the role of age in the experience of romantic loss would be an excellent future direction for research and address a significant gap in the literature, but is beyond the scope of the current studies, due to a positively skewed distribution of participant age.

Gender and coping with romantic loss. Though gender is not a key variable in the current studies, interesting gender differences have been found in relation to coping with romantic loss. Choo, Levine, and Hatfield (1996) noted that men were significantly more likely than women to utilize distraction techniques as a coping strategy. The finding that men tend to engage in emotional distraction as a coping behaviour following romantic loss more than women is also supported by prior research (Kleinke, Staneski, & Mason, 1982;

Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987). Choo et al. (1996) suggested that this difference may be due to society encouraging women to talk about their emotions, whereas men typically are stigmatized for talking to others about their emotions. As a result, men are more likely to use distraction techniques in order to negate their negative feelings rather than directly resolve them.

Choo et al. (1996) found that while men and women were equally likely to blame themselves following romantic loss, men were less likely than women to blame their partner for the romantic loss. Choo et al. (1996) suggested that this difference may be due to a belief that it is more socially acceptable for women to talk negatively about men, than the reverse. Choo et al. (1996) additionally noted that this effect may have been the result of their sample being college-age individuals. That is women may have just been more ready for commitment and intimacy than men, a notion supported by Buss (1944). In contrast, some researchers have found that women are more likely to blame themselves following romantic loss, whereas men are more likely to blame their partners (Hatfield & Rapson, 1996).

Furthermore, while men and women did not report significantly different amounts of negative feelings following romantic loss, men did report that they felt less joy and relief following romantic loss (Choo et. al., 1996). Other studies may provide insight into this gender difference. Several studies (Baxter, 1984; Cupach & Metts, 1986; Hill, Rubin, & Peplau, 1979) have found that women typically become aware of relationship problems earlier than men. Due to this awareness, women may have had time to examine the positive aspects of the relationship ending, while men were surprised by the relationship's end. For women, the actual break-up may come as a relief rather than as a shock due to this extra

time to evaluate the relationship and a world in which it no longer exists. Additionally, Hatfield & Rapson (1993) suggested that men generally rely primarily on their romantic partners for emotional needs, while women generally have a larger number of intimate relationships to rely upon. As such, women may view the end of a relationship as a chance to utilize other support systems that are available to them which are also more appealing at that time. While gender appears to play a role in navigating romantic loss, it is not included as a variable in the proposed model for the current studies as each attachment style can be utilized regardless of gender. In addition, the current sample was primarily female (approx. 70%) which left an insufficient number of participants across both genders and attachment styles to integrate this factor into the proposed model.

Culture and coping with romantic loss. While there is a wealth of literature on the subject of differences of romantic relationships cross-culturally, this literature seems to mirror the trend of romantic relationship literature as a whole, where there are many studies on the relationships themselves, but not on the aftermath following the termination of a romantic relationship. As such, this section will focus more on cross-cultural differences in reactions to other types of loss, primarily bereavement. While these studies may shed some light on cross-cultural reactions to loss as a whole, it should be noted that not all types of loss are the same and that some factors may play a bigger role in bereavement than romantic relationship loss (e.g., religion).

Culture has been shown to shape a wide array of beliefs and behaviours in terms of romantic loss. Harris (2011) noted several social changes over the past 50 years in industrialized societies and suggested that these changes have resulted in society shifting

their beliefs and behaviours regarding marriage, divorce, and the motivations to enter a romantic relationship. Harris (2011) proposed the following:

In reviewing the social changes over the past 50 years, it has become apparent that we can make the following statements regarding expectations and assumptions in industrialized societies:

- People live longer and with a higher quality of life than in the past; it is highly likely that one would outgrow a life partner instead of outlive one
- The nuclear family is now the basic unit of community rather than the extended family system
- People generally have time to pursue leisure activities and personal fulfillment; however people also spend less time at home due to work-related responsibilities
- The focus is on individual accomplishments and independence rather than on the community and shared accomplishments
- Sexual intimacy is no longer tied strictly to pregnancy and procreation
- There has been an increased secularization of social norms, with an emphasis on individual rights and choices over the principles espoused by formal religious traditions
- Women are able to live economically independent from men
- Women no longer define themselves strictly by their marital status, as there are many more opportunities for social status that they are able to achieve through work and personal pursuits (p.68)

While Harris (2011) spoke of these social changes as characterizing industrialized societies, it should be noted that some of these changes do not characterize all industrialized societies (e.g., the focus is on individual accomplishments and independence rather than on community and shared accomplishments). Harris (2011) stated that the purpose of marriage had shifted from “a social obligation designed mainly for security and procreation” to what is now viewed as “a joint partnership in which the purpose is to advance the personal growth and fulfillment of each of the partners,” (p.68). This shift in perspective on marriage has been referred to by others as the “deinstitutionalization of marriage” (Amato & Irving, 2006). Harris (2011) noted that these changes have led to a greater acceptance and frequency of divorce within some societies, despite much of the

language surrounding divorce reflecting stigma (e.g. failed marriage). Harris (2011) additionally suggested that the increasing normality of divorce and romantic relationship loss has resulted in societies viewing these events as common and less serious than in the past. Harris (2011) went on to state that many individuals experiencing loss may feel pressured to move on from the loss and grieve for a limited amount of time if at all, particularly in cases where the individual ended the relationship. Hooyman and Kramer (2006) further supported these claims by stating:

Most Americans are uncomfortable around others' sadness and tears and so want a quick resolution to grief. In our culture pain is seen as something that can and should be avoided, instead of being viewed as an inescapable part of being human. (p.19)

Beyond the experience of romantic relationship loss, bereavement research has demonstrated many changes in how individuals grieve based on culture. In contrast to most western cultures where it is encouraged for the grieving process to be private and short in duration, other cultures engage in mourning rituals on a more ongoing basis. One example of a longer mourning ritual occurs in Mainland China where it is common for individuals to wear black crepe armbands for a month or so as a symbol of mourning (Wu, 2005, p.138). Additionally in China, "Qing Ming Jie" (the Pure Brightness Festival) is a festival in which individuals honour their ancestors and mourn the dead, further extending the grieving process for many years with a community focus (Wu, 2005, p.139).

Beliefs derived from culture, related to the significance or nature of loss can also shape behaviours used to cope following the loss or even how the loss is evaluated as a whole. For instance, while many cultures would consider crying an appropriate response when an individual is sad and several cultures would consider loss to generally be a sad event; these two commonly assumed beliefs are inconsistent across cultures. Hooyman and

Kramer (2006) noted that although crying is often considered a universal response to grief, the Balinese custom in the face of death is to appear unshaken, even happy. These individuals believe that the gods will ignore their prayers if they do not remain calm, despite what they may be feeling. The above example demonstrates that cultural beliefs can strongly influence or alter practices that are found commonly outside of their culture.

While religion and belief systems associated with a culture can alter coping behaviours, the region in which the loss occurs can also highly influence behaviours following a loss. For instance, Laungani (2005) presented a thorough comparison of Hindu funerals and rites following the death of a loved one in India and in England. In general, funeral rites and rituals related to death in India were more community focussed (e.g., having an entire village or any individuals associated with the dead attending the funeral and participating in the mourning process) and involved more public displays related to a death (e.g., the body being carried through the streets by loved ones to be cremated) when compared to Hindu rites in England (Laungani, 2005). In comparison Hindu funerals and rites in England tended to be private (e.g. typically only involving family and friends) and refrained from any public displays of the body, instead having the body be transported to the crematorium in a closed casket by a hearse (Laungani, 2005). According to Laungani (2005) these differences were not the result of a change in belief, but due to the social norms and practices of the region forcing individuals to conform to other more regionally accepted behaviours.

The above examples demonstrate the importance of culture in navigating loss as it provides a filter for which all experiences are understood and acted upon. While culture has been shown to be influential in the bereavement process, it is not included in the proposed

model for the current studies. The reason for culture being excluded from the proposed model is due to attachment being considered a universal phenomenon that transcends culture (Bowlby, 1969). In essence, according to the models proposed in the current study, attachment works in a similar fashion to culture in that it forms the beliefs and expectations in relation to relationships with an attachment figure. Furthermore, it would be beyond the scope of the current studies to achieve the sample size and diversity across cultures necessary to do an adequate analysis of the effects of culture on coping with romantic loss. To summarize, while the above factors would be excellent future directions for research they remain outside of the scope of the current studies. The following discussion will focus on summarizing the literature and stating the hypotheses and research objectives of the current studies.

Research Objectives and Hypotheses

The intimate relationship literature has extensively explored the relationship between attachment style and several aspects of a current romantic relationship, however, it has failed to examine the aftermath of failed relationships. The present research addresses the aforementioned gap in the literature by examining the role attachment styles play in how an individual copes with the loss of a romantic relationship. Specifically, the present research is designed to explore the impact of the loss of an attachment figure (i.e., a romantic partner) and how one's type of attachment to his or her attachment figure impacts the way in which the person copes with the loss of the attachment figure and subsequent personal psychological well-being.

In the current study, it is proposed that loss of an attachment figure, in this case from the loss of a romantic relationship, activates an individual's attachment behavioural

system. Activation causes individuals to try to cope on their own with the anxiety-provoking emotions that have resulted from their relationship losses. As individuals try to resolve these feelings, the method by which they cope and their level of functioning is dependent on their attachment style prior to the relationship loss. In essence, the need for proximity in the attachment relationship disappears over time as people realize that they can no longer turn to the former romantic partner to meet their attachment-related needs. The way in which this reorganization occurs depends on the expectations and beliefs formed by the individuals as they developed their specific attachment style. While these beliefs and expectations are formed by individuals, their attachment style guides the way in which they navigate the experience of loss and the coping behaviours in which they ultimately engage, whether behaviours are primarily loss-oriented, restoration-oriented, or a balance of the two.

The reorganization of internal working models, however, comes easier to some attachment styles than others and is accomplished by relying on different coping behaviours in varied amounts. In preoccupied and fearful attachment styles, this process tends to be disrupted when handling other forms of loss (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013) so it stands to reason that this may occur when a romantic relationship ends as well. In contrast, individuals with a secure attachment style have relatively low anxiety and avoidance attachment strategies thus are comfortable depending on others and being depended upon (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). These characteristics allow secure individuals to more easily work through loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks (Meier et al., 2013). Secure individuals are also less reliant than, for instance individuals with a preoccupied attachment style on physical proximity with the attachment figure and are

better able to rely on a mental representation of the lost attachment figure to meet attachment related needs (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Individuals with a preoccupied attachment style tend to rely on proximity-seeking behaviours for affect regulation and are not comfortable being without close relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). As such they will likely cope with the loss of a romantic relationship by focusing their attention on loss-oriented tasks and experience more difficulty in letting go of the attachment relationship. They also are more likely to fixate on the former romantic partner and experience higher levels of distress over the loss of the relationship.

Individuals with a fearful attachment style, however, typically use avoidant strategies due to their negative model of others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Their ambivalence with regards to depending upon others or being depended on and their fear of being rejected, often leads them to avoid loss-oriented tasks and focus on restoration-oriented tasks, which interferes in the process of resolving their feelings surrounding the loss (Waskowic, 2010).

Finally, dismissing individuals use avoidant strategies, similar to fearful individuals; however they are relatively low in terms of attachment-related concerns, feel comfortable without intimate relationships, and focus primarily on independence (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Due to these preferences, when dismissing individuals lose an attachment figure they typically can work through loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks without difficulty. Essentially the attachment figures of dismissing individuals never were viewed as an essential component for their well-being and without

taking a prominent place within the attachment hierarchy, dismissing individuals' work in relation to the loss would be relatively limited.

In light of the preceding discussion and theoretical review of attachment theory, models of loss resolution, and attachment style has on coping following the loss of a significant attachment figure; the specific research objectives and hypotheses that were addressed are as follows:

Study 1

1. To develop a modified version of the Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (i.e., Daily Activities After Relationship Loss; DAARL) that takes into account the different challenges of romantic loss from those encountered during bereavement, using items agreed upon to be most consistent with the constructs of loss-orientation and restoration-orientation as determined by a group of raters.
2. To establish inter-rater reliability before the inclusion of any potential items in the Daily Activities After Relationship Loss (DAARL).

Study 2

1. Both the loss-orientation subscale and the restoration-orientation subscale of the DARRL will demonstrate internal consistency, suggesting that they are separate and distinct constructs consistent with the constructs they are based upon.
2. Individuals identified as having had either a secure or dismissing attachment to their former romantic partner will report lower levels of psychological distress (i.e., lower levels of depression and/or anxiety); whereas, individuals who had a

preoccupied or fearful attachment to their former romantic partner will report higher levels of psychological distress.

3. Individuals who have a secure or a dismissing attachment to their former romantic partner will report engaging equally in both restoration-oriented and loss-oriented activities; whereas, individuals who have a preoccupied attachment will report more behaviours consistent with loss-oriented activities, and individuals who have a fearful attachment will report engaging in more restoration-orientation behaviours (See Figure 4).

Study 1 Part 1 Methods

Participants

Study 1 was composed of two parts. The first part of Study 1 focussed on the generation of items for the DAARL which are consistent with the constructs of loss-oriented coping and restoration-oriented coping. Study 1-Part 1 consisted of seven (four female) graduate or undergraduate alumni of the social sciences. Participants were invited to participate in the study by the researchers and were given \$10 as remuneration for their participation in this part of the study. The participants ranged in age from 25 to 29 years, with a mean age of 26.14 years ($SD = 1.46$ years).

Procedure

Items which had been generated by the researchers through brainstorming (see Appendix P) and thought to be consistent with loss-oriented and restoration-oriented coping behaviours as well as a number of distracter items were presented to participants. Participants were presented with definitions of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks and then were asked to categorize the proposed items into one of four categories (i.e., loss-oriented, restoration-oriented, both restoration and loss-oriented, or other coping behaviours). Furthermore, participants were asked to generate any additional behaviours which individuals engage in following romantic loss that are consistent with loss-oriented or restoration-oriented coping in the comments section.

Participants were asked to complete an information and consent form outlining the study, including its purpose and how the results would be used, as well as a debriefing letter providing further information on the nature of the study (Appendices A & C respectively). The researchers' contact information was provided in case participants had

any questions or comments pertaining to the study as part of the debriefing letter. Participants were asked not to include any identifying information to ensure their anonymity and confidentiality. All data was entered, coded, and analyzed using the statistical software package SPSS Version 18.

Ethics Approval. This research project (BEH 11-344) was approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan's Behavioural Research Ethics Board on February 29, 2012.

Study 1-Part 1 Analysis

Inter-rater reliability

To support construct validity and reliability, the inter-rater reliability of participants' responses needed to be examined. Since the data was nominal, inter-rater reliability was determined using the Fleiss' kappa statistic (Fleiss, 1971). Fleiss' kappa is a statistical procedure that assesses the reliability of agreement between multiple raters when assigning categorical ratings to several items (Fleiss, 1971). The Fleiss' kappa statistic calculates the degree of agreement in classification beyond what would be expected by chance and is scored as a number between 0 and 1. There is no generally agreed on measure of significance, however, Landis and Koch (1977) provided the following guidelines: 0.41- 0.60 is considered moderate agreement, 0.61-0.80 is considered substantial agreement, and 0.81-1.00 is considered almost perfect agreement. Landis and Koch (1977) also cautioned, however, that kappas can become inflated when there are relatively few categories. For this sample, the results of the inter-rater reliability analysis yielded a Fleiss' $k= 0.743$, with $p < 0.000$. While this study included four potential categories, which could have inflated Fleiss' kappa, the obtained statistic was relatively

high suggesting a substantial amount of inter-rater reliability. This finding suggests that across raters that the determination of which categories individual items should be placed into was substantially reliable under the guidelines outlined by Landis & Koch (1977).

Percent Agreement for Individual Items

While the above statistic suggested that overall raters were relatively reliable and shared a rather high level of agreement across items, it does not indicate the amount of agreement that any particular item is consistent with the given categories. In contrast, Fleiss' kappa is suggestive that the raters had a consistent understanding and evaluative process in placing the individual items into categories. As such frequency and percentage of agreement for each individual item as being rated consistent with the different categories were calculated. These frequencies were then evaluated and the 15 items for loss-oriented coping behaviour and restoration-oriented coping behaviour that had the highest level of agreement were added to the DAARL for Study 2. This analysis was replicated in Study 1-Part 2, which had a different sample. The frequency of agreement and percent agreement for items which were added to the DAARL for Study 2 across both parts of Study 1 can be found in Tables 1 & 2.

Study 1-Part 2 Methods

Participants

Study 1- Part 2 in contrast to Study 1- Part 1 moved away from brainstorming and the generation of new items to focussing on power and establishing content validity. As such, Study 1-Part 2 focussed on a different population of raters (i.e., undergraduate students) in order to increase sample size. For Study 1-Part 2 a sample of ninety-seven (sixty-nine female) first year psychology undergraduate students attending the University

of Saskatchewan were recruited. Recruitment was conducted through the use of the university's participant pool of introductory psychology classes (for recruitment advertisement see Appendix E). The introductory students were granted bonus credit as remuneration for their participation in the study. The participants ranged in age from 17 to 56 years, with a mean age of 20.33 years ($SD = 4.67$ years).

Procedure

Participants were presented with definitions of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks (in addition to sample items for consideration to be included in the revised form of the Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (IDWL) See Appendix O) generated from both part 1 and the researchers' aforementioned brainstorming. The items that were presented to the participants (See Appendix P) were thought to be consistent with the constructs of loss-oriented or restoration-oriented coping or distracter items. The procedure of this part of Study 1 was essentially identical to the procedures in Part 1.

Participants in Part 2 were presented with definitions of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks and asked to categorize the proposed items into one of four categories (i.e., loss-oriented, restoration-oriented, both restoration and loss-oriented, or other coping behaviours). However, in this part of Study 1, participants were not asked to generate any additional behaviours which individuals engage in following romantic loss that were consistent with loss-oriented or restoration-oriented coping in the comments section as there would be no other chance to evaluate these suggested items.

As in part 1, participants were asked to complete an information and consent form outlining the study, which included its purpose and how the results would be used as well as a debriefing letter (Appendices B & C respectively). The researchers' contact

information was provided in case participants had any questions or comments pertaining to the study as part of the debriefing letter. Participants were asked not to include any identifying information to ensure their anonymity and confidentiality.

Ethics Approval. This research project (BEH 11-344) was approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan's Behavioural Research Ethics Board on February 29, 2012.

Data Collection and Analysis. Data in this study was collected and stored securely using the University of Saskatchewan's Survey Tool. All data was entered, coded, and analyzed using the statistical software package SPSS Version 18.

Study 1-Part 2 Analysis

Inter-rater reliability

To support construct validity and reliability the inter-rater reliability of participants' responses needed to be examined. Since the data was nominal, inter-rater reliability was determined using the Fleiss' kappa statistic (Fleiss, 1971). A description of the Fleiss' kappa statistic can be found in the analysis section of Study 1-Part 1. For this sample, the results of the inter-rater reliability analysis yielded a Fleiss' $k = 0.377$, $p < 0.000$. This result suggested that across raters that the determination of which categories individual items should be placed into was fairly reliable under the guidelines outlined by Landis & Koch (1977). While this finding is notably lower than the Fleiss' kappa observed in Study 1-Part 1, this outcome is likely understandable as due to the difference in training between the two samples (i.e. graduate students and undergraduate alumni of the social sciences compared to first year psychology undergraduates). Gwet (2010) also noted that a large number of raters can impact Fleiss' kappa statistic and this change may account for the difference

observed between the two samples as the number of raters was substantially different (i.e. seven raters as opposed to ninety-seven raters).

Chi-Squared Analysis

The chi-squared (χ^2) statistic evaluates the difference between the tallies or counts of categorical responses between two (or more) independent groups. The chi-squared (χ^2) test evaluates the difference between the expected frequencies of different groups and the observed frequency to determine if there is a significant difference between the two values. In this study the chi-squared test was used as a supplementary test to ensure that the frequencies obtained endorsing items as fitting a certain category (e.g., loss-orientation item) were not due to chance alone. All items selected for the DAARL (See Appendix W) yielded p 's less than 0.001, strongly suggesting that the obtained frequencies for each of the items were not due to chance alone.

Percent Agreement for Individual Items

As in Study 1-Part 1 frequency and percentage of agreement for each individual item as being rated consistent with the different categories (i.e. loss-oriented behaviours and restoration-oriented behaviours) were calculated. These frequencies were then evaluated and the 15 items for loss-oriented coping behaviour and restoration-oriented coping behaviour that had the highest level of agreement were added to the DAARL for Study 2. This analysis is a replication of the analysis from Study 1-Part 1 which had a different sample. The frequency of agreement and percent agreement for items which were added to the DAARL for Study 2 across both parts of study 1 can be found in Tables 1 & 2.

Study 2 Method

Participants

A sample of 159 (111 female) individuals were recruited for this study who had a romantic partner end their previous romantic relationship, or the relationship's end was deemed mutual, and whose relationship had ended within the past year from the time of participation, or were still currently single. Recruitment was conducted through a variety of methods including: posters (See Appendix R), online classified advertisements (Appendix S), relationship and general forum advertisement posts (Appendix S), newspaper advertisements (Appendix U), distributing an e-mail advertisement to representatives of post secondary institutions (Appendix V), an online advertisement using the University of Saskatchewan's PAWS Bulletin Board (Appendix T), advertisement using social media (Appendix U), and by utilizing the University of Saskatchewan's participant pool of introductory psychology classes. For a more in-depth listing of recruitment methods see Appendix Y. Individuals recruited from the introductory psychology classes were offered bonus credit as remuneration for their participation in the study. All other participants were entered into a draw for an iPod Nano as possible remuneration for their participation in the study.

The participants ranged in age from 17 to 51 years, with an average age of 23.13 years ($SD = 6.48$ years). Within the sample, the former romantic relationships ranged in length from 1 to 276 months (23 years), with a mean relationship length of 29.13 months ($SD = 39.13$ months) and a mean length of time since the relationship had ended of 10.18 months ($SD = 18.72$ months). Of the 159 participants included in the sample, 88 participants (55.3%) responded that their former romantic partner had ended the

relationship, while 71 (44.7%) indicated that their former relationship was ended on a mutual basis. The majority of participants indicated that they were still single at the time of participation ($n= 132$, 83%). In this sample, 152 participants (95.6%) reported being in male/female romantic relationships, whereas four participants (2.5%) indicated they were in male/male romantic relationships, and three participants (1.9%) reported that their previous relationship was female/female. This sample was made up of individuals from a variety of cultural backgrounds including: Canadian ($n= 79$, 49.7%), English ($n= 9$, 5.7%), Ukrainian ($n= 9$, 5.7%), Irish ($n= 6$, 3.8%), German ($n= 5$, 3.1%), Scottish ($n= 4$, 2.5%), Cree ($n= 3$, 1.9%), French ($n= 2$, 1.3%), Métis ($n= 1$, 0.6%), Norwegian ($n= 1$, 0.6%), and other cultural backgrounds ($n= 38$, 23.9%).

Procedure

Participants were recruited using the methods stated previously. Participants were asked to complete a questionnaire package containing an information and consent form (See Appendix F), necessary demographic questions (See Appendix J), the Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECRI ; See Appendix M), the Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale (SDS; See Appendix K), the Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale (SAS; See Appendix L), the Daily Activities After Romantic Loss (DAARL; See Appendix W), the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR-6; See Appendix N), and a debriefing letter (See Appendix G). The questionnaire package was administered in an online questionnaire format. All participants were required to provide written informed consent prior to participation in the study (See appendices F & Q for consent forms for the undergraduate and general public samples respectively). Introductory psychology students received bonus

credit in their introductory psychology class as remuneration for their participation in the study whereas other participants were entered into a draw for an iPod Nano.

Ethics Approval. This research project (BEH 11-344) was approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan's Behavioural Research Ethics Board on February 29, 2012. This study later underwent an amendment to include the utilization of online recruitment methods as well as the inclusion of the general public as potential participants. This amendment received ethical approval on May 22, 2012.

Data Analysis. Data in this study was collected and stored securely using the University of Saskatchewan's Survey Tool. All data was entered, coded, and analyzed using the statistical software package SPSS Version 18.

Measures

Study 2 used a measure of the respondents' attachment style (i.e. Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory; ECRI; See Appendix M), two measures of psychological well being (i.e., The Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale and The Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale; See Appendices L and K respectively) as well as a revised form of the Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (DAARL; See Appendix W), which was developed by utilizing the data obtained in Study 1, in order to assess oscillation between loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks following romantic loss. Additionally the questionnaire packet included a demographic questionnaire (See Appendix J) in order to better describe and understand the characteristics of the participants. Finally a measure of social desirability (the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding Version 6; See Appendix N) was included in the questionnaire packet to assess if socially desirable responding affected an individual's responses.

Demographic questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire (See Appendix J) was designed to collect information from participants to adequately describe them and to provide as a check of group differences, which were not seen as key variables in the study (e.g. gender effects), but which may have influenced responses to key variables.

Attachment Style Measure. The Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECRI; Appendix M; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998) was used to determine the participants' attachment style, with their former romantic partners. The ECRI is a 36-item self-report measure of attachment developed through factor analysis of self-report measures of adult romantic attachment. The measure is composed of two subscales, Avoidance (or discomfort with closeness and discomfort depending on others) and Anxiety (or fear of rejection and abandonment). Bartholomew's (1990) four-category model suggests that models of self and others can be determined through combinations of the presence or absence of avoidance and anxiety in individuals (See Figure 1). The ECRI asks participants to respond to a series of statements regarding how they feel in certain relationships (e.g., romantic relationships) using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = Disagree Strongly to 7 = Agree Strongly). Participants are then classified into one of the four attachment categories by comparing where their scores fall on the two dimensions (i.e., anxiety and avoidance) when compared to those of Brennan, Clark, and Shaver's original sample (see Appendix F for scoring instructions).¹

Bartholomew and Shaver (1998) have reported internal consistencies for the ECRI of .94 for the avoidance subscale and .91 for the anxiety subscale, suggesting the measure has good internal consistency. Similar reliability has also been found by other researchers (e.g., Lopez & Gormley, 2002; Lopez, Mauricio, Gormley, Simko, & Berger, 2001; Lopez,

Mitchell, & Gormley, 2002; Vogel & Wei, 2005; Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Vogel, 2007; Wei, Mallinckrodt, Russell, & Abraham, 2004) for the avoidance and anxiety subscales (with α ranging from .91 to .95 and α ranges from .89 to .94 respectively). Lopez & Gormley (2002) reported a six-month test-retest reliability of .71 for the avoidance subscale and .68 for the anxiety subscale of the ECRI. Additionally, Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Vogel (2007) reported a one-month test-retest reliability of .82 for the anxiety subscale and .86 for the avoidance subscale of the ECRI. Based on the findings described above the ECRI has demonstrated acceptable reliability.

To establish validity for the ECRI Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) classified a sample of 1082 undergraduate students using both Bartholomew's four-category self-classification measure and the ECRI's cluster-based method. The two measures yielded a significantly high level of concordance demonstrating considerable similarity between the two methods. These methods of classification (i.e., cluster-based and four-category) were further examined in relation to theoretically related variables (i.e., romantic sexuality and intimate touch). The results produced similar highly significant and expected differences for each method. The ECRI cluster-based results produced stronger correlations than the four-category method when compared to theoretically related variables, which lends support for the validity of the measure. Additionally, these stronger correlations to theoretically related variables lend support to the idea that the ECRI's dimensional approach allows for more precise classification than the four-category model approach.

Depression Measure. The Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale (SDS; See Appendix K; Zung, 1965) is a 20-item self-report measure of depressive symptoms. The SDS asks respondents to rate the frequency of 20 statements on a four-point Likert scale (i.e., a little

of the time, some of the time, good part of the time, most of the time). The responses given to the SDS yield item scores of 1 to 4 depending on the item and response which combine to give a total score ranging between 20 and 80. These total scores categorize respondents into one of four degrees of depressive symptoms (i.e., normal range, mildly depressed, moderately depressed, severely depressed).

Several studies have estimated the internal consistency of the SDS and have reported internal consistencies ranging from 0.75 to 0.95 (Jegede, 1976; Tanaka-Matsumi and Kameoka, 1986; Toner, Gurland, and Teresi, 1988). Zung and Zung (1986) reviewed studies using the SDS with geriatric populations and reported internal consistencies ranging from 0.59 to 0.87. Split-half reliability for the SDS has been estimated at 0.73 (Zung, 1986, p225) and at 0.81 (Yesavage et al., 1983). Furthermore, the one-year test-retest reliability for the SDS has been reported as 0.61 in 279 geriatric populations (McKegney, Aronson, and Ooi, 1988).

The validity of the SDS has been extensively studied and concisely summarized in a review article by Hedlund and Vieweg (1979) and a meta-analysis by Lambert, Hatch, Kingston, and Edwards (1986). While some of the findings are mixed, the results give an overall impression the SDS possessing moderate validity.

In work by Zung (1967; 1974) as well as Zung, Richards, and Short (1965) the SDS was determined to be able to discriminate between patients with depression, anxiety, other psychiatric patients, and controls. Biggs, Wylie, and Ziegler (1978) found the SDS to discriminate significantly among levels of depression, but noted, that self-rating scales can distinguish levels of depression with much greater ease than discriminating between

diagnostic groups. These concerns have been echoed by other researchers who have found the SDS to poorly discriminate between diagnostic groups (Schnurr, Hoaken, Jarrett, 1976).

The SDS has been shown to have moderate to high correlations with other instruments measuring depression. For example, Hedlund and Vieweg's (1979) review noted five correlations between the SDS and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) depression scale that ranged from 0.55 to 0.70, and other studies found similar correlations: 0.59 (Zung, 1967) and 0.76 (Turner & Romano, 1984). A review of several studies comparing the SDS and the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) reported correlations ranging from 0.60 to 0.83 (Moran & Lambert, 1983). Likewise Turner and Romano (1984) reported a correlation of 0.86 between the SDS and the BDI. Biggs, Wylie, and Ziegler (1978) obtained correlations between the SDS and the Hamilton scale ranging from 0.45 to 0.76 during initial testing in an depression intervention study followed over six weeks – the overall correlation between the measures found in the study was 0.80. Biggs, Wylie, and Ziegler (1978) noted that the lowest correlations were obtained at the start of the study, perhaps due to the narrower spread of depression scores before treatment. The above findings lend support to the notion that the SDS is a reliable and valid measure of detecting depressive symptoms.

Anxiety Measure. The Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale (SAS; See Appendix L; Zung, 1971a) is a 20-item self-report measure of state and trait anxiety. The SAS asks respondents to rate the frequency of 20 statements on a four-point Likert scale (i.e., a little of the time, some of the time, good part of the time, most of the time). The responses given to the SAS yield item scores of 1 to 4 depending on the item and response which combine to give a total score ranging between 20 and 80. These total scores categorize respondents

into one of four degrees of anxiety (i.e., normal range, mild to moderate anxiety levels, marked to severe anxiety levels, extreme anxiety levels).

The SAS has demonstrated good reliability and validity across cultures (Jegede, 1977). Zung (1980, p.10) reported a split-half coefficient of 0.71 as well an internal consistency coefficient of 0.85. In a different study by Jegede (1980) the author reported an internal consistency coefficient of 0.69 for non-anxious individuals and 0.81 for patients suffering from anxiety disorders in a Nigerian sample. These findings demonstrate that the SAS is a reliable measure.

To establish the validity of the SAS, Zung (1974) compared the responses of 225 psychiatric patients and 343 nonpatients to the SAS and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (TMAS). Zung reported a correlation of 0.30 for the TMAS with the SAS (Zung, 1974). The SAS discriminated ($p < 0.05$) between anxiety patients and patients with other psychiatric conditions whereas the TMAS did not discriminate significantly (Zung, 1974). In a subsequent study Zung (1980) reported a series of correlations between the SAS and the Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale, ranging from 0.56 to 0.81, with a median of 0.74. These results with the SAS are comparable to previously established measures of anxiety, suggesting the measure is valid.

To further establish the discriminant validity of the SAS the measure has been compared with Zung's Self-rating Depression Scale (SDS) (Bramley, Easton, Morley, and Snaith, 1988). Results from this study yielded a correlation of 0.53 between the SDS and the SAS. Furthermore, the SAS was found to not discriminate significantly between anxious and depressed psychiatric patients, whereas the SDS did (Bramley, Easton, Morley, and Snaith, 1988). In another study, Zung (1971b) reported SAS scores of 58.7 for

anxious patients and 50.7 for depressed patients; the corresponding SDS scores were 52.5 and 65.3, again suggesting that the SDS discriminates better between the diagnostic groups. While the SDS is better able to distinguish between anxious and depressed diagnostic groups, the SAS is still capable of distinguishing significantly between patients with anxiety and unaffected adults and as such can add additional information when combined with the SDS (Zung, 1980).

Measure of Oscillation. The Daily Activities After Relationship Loss (DAARL; See Appendix W) was used to measure the degree to which individuals engage in loss-oriented coping processes, restoration-oriented processes and the oscillation between the two following the loss of a romantic relationship. The DAARL is a revised form of the Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (IDWL; Caserta and Lund, 2007) and was developed based on the constructs presented in the Dual Process Model (DPM, Stroebe & Schut, 1999) and the percent agreement findings from Study 1-Parts 1 & 2.

To help ensure content validity of the DAARL percent agreement of potential items (See Appendix P) thought to be consistent with the constructs of loss-orientation and restoration-orientation were assessed in Study 1. Some of these potential items were revised items from the original IDWL which only changed the subject of the items from referring to a deceased individual to “former romantic partner” or the relationship itself. Some items from the IDWL needed to be removed entirely as they did not carry over to the experience of romantic loss in general (e.g., “handling financial, legal, and property concerns”). The DAARL maintained the basic structure of the IDWL (i.e., a four-point Likert scale measuring the frequency of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks) to help maintain consistency with the previous measure.

After assessing the percent agreement of items from Study 1, it was determined that 15 items would be included for each type of coping behaviour (i.e., 15 restoration-orientation items and 15 loss-orientation items). It was essential that there be an equal number of loss-orientation and restoration-orientation items so as to retain the scoring procedures from the IDWL to measure for degree of oscillation. Because the DAARL is a revised form of the IDWL and is meant for assessing loss and restoration-oriented coping in individuals who have recently lost a romantic relationship as oppose to losing a significant attachment figure through death, the validity and reliability data for the IDWL are presented below.

The Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (IDWL; See Appendix O; Caserta & Lund, 2007) is a 22-item scale that consists of 11 loss-oriented and 11 restoration-oriented items rated on a 4-point Likert scale. The IDWL measures the degree to which bereaved individuals engage in loss-oriented coping, restoration-oriented coping and the oscillation between these processes (Caserta & Lund, 2007) as defined by the DPM (Stroebe & Schut, 1999). Responses on each item of the IDWL range from 1 (i.e., rarely or not at all) to 4 (i.e., almost always). Scores on the measure range from -33 (purely loss-oriented focus) to +33 (purely restoration-oriented focused). A score of zero represents an oscillation balance between the loss-oriented and restoration-oriented processes (Caserta & Lund, 2007; See Appendix O for scoring instructions for the IDWL.)

According to the DPM, oscillation is used to represent the alternating focus of the bereaved person on either loss-oriented or restoration-oriented coping (Stroebe & Schut, 1999). Therefore, an oscillation balance would represent equal endorsement by the bereaved individual of both loss-oriented and restoration-oriented processes. Caserta and

Lund (2007) utilize intervals based on one standard deviation above and below the center point of zero for interpreting the relationship between oscillation balance and other variables. They suggested the following balance categories: primarily loss-oriented (a score ≤ -10), moderately loss-oriented (scores ranging from -9 to -5), relatively balanced (scores between -4 to $+4$), moderately restoration-oriented (scores between $+5$ to $+8$), and primarily restoration-oriented (scores $\geq +10$).

Caserta and Lund (2007) reported internal consistencies for the Loss-orientation subscale of the IDWL of .88 for a group of individuals widowed 12 to 15 months and .91 for individuals more recently widowed. The Restoration-orientation subscale produced an internal consistency of .78 for individuals regardless of the time since the loss. Caserta and Lund (2007) reported low correlations between the Loss-orientation and Restoration-orientation subscales, $r = -.06$, $p > .05$, $n = 163$, suggesting that these subscales represent independent constructs. In a recent study, Waskowic (2010) reported internal consistencies of .89 for the Loss-oriented subscale and .83 for the Restoration-oriented subscale.

Validity of the IDWL has been demonstrated by Caserta and Lund (2007) by using a variety of outcome measures commonly used in bereavement research and other measures that are conceptually related to the restoration-oriented process. Caserta and Lund (2007) reported that both the loss-oriented and restoration-oriented subscales were significantly related to higher levels of grief, depression, loneliness, and bereavement coping self-efficacy. In particular, their findings suggested that higher loss-orientated scores and lower restoration-oriented scores were correlated with higher levels of grief, depression, and loneliness. Furthermore, higher bereavement coping self-efficacy was

correlated with lower loss-oriented coping and greater restoration-oriented coping (Caserta and Lund, 2007).

Socially desirable responding. The Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding Version 6 (BIDR-6; See Appendix N; Paulhus, 1989) is 40-item self-report measure of socially desirable responding. In other words, it assesses whether respondents are responding truthfully or are misrepresenting themselves in order to manage their self-presentation. The BIDR-6 is composed of two subscales; Self-deceptive enhancement and impression management which are considered unconscious and conscious processes respectively (Paulhus, 1991).

The first subscale, self-deceptive enhancement, assesses the extent to which individuals exaggerate positive attributes and conceal negative attributes to themselves (Paulhus, 1991). The 20 items of the self-deceptive enhancement subscale describe subjective qualities, such as "I always know why I like things", "I am a completely rational person", and "My first impressions of people usually turn out to be right" (Paulhus, 1991). In contrast, the second subscale, impression management, assesses the degree to which individuals deliberately inflate the inclination to engage in desirable rather than undesirable behaviours (Paulhus, 1991). The 20 items of the impression management subscale describe concrete, observable acts and their frequency as extremes. Examples include "I never swear", "I never conceal my mistakes", and "I never drop litter in the street" (Paulhus, 1991).

The BIDR-6 has been shown to be a reliable measurement of socially desirable responding. Paulhus (1991) reported Cronbach's α for the two subscales ranging from .68 to .80 for self deception and .75 to .83 to impression management. Furthermore, Paulhus

(1988) reported a Cronbach's α for the total measure of .83. Paulhus (1988) reported week-long test-retest correlations of .69 and .65 for self-deceptive enhancement and impression management, respectively. These findings demonstrate that the BIDR-6 and its subscales are reliable measures of their underlying constructs.

Paulhus (1984) stated that the construct of impression management should converge with lie scales as these both represent conscious processes to deceive others. Lanyon & Carle (2007) reported that scores on the Impression Management (IM) scale were demonstrated to assess conscious deception, as shown by high correlations with other subscales of deception such as the MMPI Lie (L) scale and the L scale of the Eysenck Personality Inventory. Paulhus's (1986) data on the self-deceptive enhanced showed that scores were strongly correlated with Block's (1965) Ego-Resiliency (ERS) scale and Edwards' (1957) Social Desirability (So-r) scale. The findings lend support to the validity of the BIDR-6's two subscales and to the measure as a whole for assessing socially desirable responding.

Study 2 Analysis

Data Screening and Case Removal

Over the course of data collection and analysis many cases needed to be removed from the original sample (N= 367) or altered in some way for a variety of reasons. The following section will describe in detail how these cases were handled and the decision making process surrounding these practices.

Participants Not Belonging to the Target Sample. It was decided early on in the study's development that participants who had ended a romantic relationship would be excluded from the study. The rationale behind this exclusion was based upon the

expectation that individuals who ended the relationship would not grieve (or at the least, less than the partner who had been rejected) over the loss of the relationship nor would these individuals engage in coping behaviours over the lost relationship in the same way. This expectation, while intriguing in itself, had a potential to hide the effects of key variables such as attachment style. While this restriction of the sample was included in the consent form a large number of individuals who participated in the study reported having been the one to end the relationship. All of these cases were removed from the final sample.

Though the initial focus was on individuals who had their partner end the relationship independently within the past 12 months, these restrictions were later modified to allow for the inclusion of individuals who deemed the ended of their relationship to be mutual. Furthermore in cases where the participant did not end the relationship, the time restriction was lifted if the participant had not entered a new dating relationship. The rationale for these inclusions was the expectation that these individuals had a higher likelihood to be grieving or engaging in coping behaviours despite not meeting the original criteria.

Handling Missing Data. In the case of missing data points, the series mean for each variable was used to replace missing data in cases where 10.0% or less of the data for a participant was missing for any of the scales or subscales. This cut-off of 10.0% was decided upon after a review of the literature surrounding missing value replacement. While researchers disagree upon an acceptable amount of missing data which can be replaced, Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) note that if “5% or less, are missing in a random pattern from a large data set, the problems are less serious and almost any procedure for handling missing

values yields similar results.” (p. 63). While this provides a conservative estimate of how many missing data points can be considered tolerable, others have stated that higher amounts of missing values are manageable ranging from 10% (Scheffer, 2002) up to as far as 15% (Pyle, 1999). Additionally Pyle (1999) noted that samples with substantial missing values would likely require more sophisticated methods for data replacement to avoid the pitfalls of any single imputation method and those that exceeded 15% would be unlikely to lead to any type of meaningful interpretation at all (Pyle, 1999). As there is no universally accepted cut-off of when data can be replaced or cases should be removed entirely, the current study used the midway point of the two acceptable ends of the spectrum (i.e. 5% as outlined by Tabachnick & Fidell [2007] and 15% as outlined by Pyle [1999]). Furthermore this cut-off of 10% missing values is supported by Batista & Monard (2003) who suggested that any suitable treatment method can be applied without introducing substantial bias to the data when the amount of missing values is less than 10%.

Thus, individuals who had more than 10% of values missing from any scale or across all scales were removed from subsequent analyses. Those who had 10% or less data missing from a single scale had those missing values replaced with the series mean for that scale, as it is believed the effect of this replacement would be small and produce no significant bias.

Removing Outliers

In parametric tests which rely upon assessing group differences by comparing means, outliers (in particular large outliers) pose a potential threat of biasing results. For the purposes of this study, a case was deemed to be an outlier if their score on any scale or subscale had a z score $> +/- 3.00$ on a key variable (i.e., SAS Total Score, SDS Total Score,

DAARL Loss Subscale or DAARL Restoration Subscale) or their responses produced a z score $> + 3.00$ on either subscale of the BIDR-6 (i.e., BIDR-6 Self Deceptive Enhancement Subscale or BIDR-6 Impression Management Subscale). The rationale for this decision was that high positive z scores on the BIDR-6 would indicate socially desirable responding which could affect other responses on key variables, but a high negative score would indicate very low socially desirable responding, and that the individual was not distorting his or her responses for the sake of social desirability.

Assessing for Normality & Homogeneity of Variance

In order to determine suitability for using parametric analyses with the data both normality and homogeneity of variance of key variables was evaluated. The results of the initial normality analysis can be seen in Table 6. As can be seen in Table 6, all but two of the distributions (i.e., Total SDS and DAARL Restoration) violated the assumption of normality (i.e., the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistical significance value is less than .05). Appropriate transformations to correct non-normal distributions, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), were applied to those variables that violated the assumption of normality. Log base 10 transformations of these variables resulted in only the Total SDS not violating the assumption of normality whereas the DAARL Restoration subscale no longer produced a normal distribution (See Table 7). Finally, an inverse transformation of these variables resulted in only the Total SAS and Total SDS not violating the normality assumption (See Table 8).

Despite attempts to transform the data, some variables in every transformation continued to violate the assumption of normality. These variables were then separated into four groups based on their attachment style. The normality of each group was checked

using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (see Table 9). For those groups in which normality was violated (i.e., the significance value was less than .05), the data was examined for outliers (i.e., values that fall outside three standard deviations from the mean). Following Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) suggestion, outliers were assigned a raw score that was one unit larger (or smaller) than the next most extreme score, thus making the outlier less influential. Following this the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was again used. In all cases, reassigning the outliers to less extreme values did not change the significance of the variables, thus continuing to violate the assumption of normality for the remaining variables. Furthermore, the Log base 10 and inverse transformations were used again with the variables split into four groups based on attachment style. Similar to the previous transformations, these transformations resulted in some variables approaching normality while others moved further from normality (See Tables 10 & 11 for Log base 10 and Inverse Transformations respectively)

Levene's test was used to test for homogeneity of variance across the four attachment groups on the various measures. All but one variable were not significant (i.e., $p > .05$) suggesting that the data were homogenous except in the case of DAARL Oscillation (see Table 12) across the groups. Given the violations of both the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were present, a decision was made to utilize nonparametric tests in subsequent analyses (i.e., the Kruskal-Wallis test). According to Field (2005), the Kruskal-Wallis test provides an alternative method for examining the differences between several independent groups when the data is non-normally distributed, or when some other assumption has been violated. The Kruskal-Wallis test is based on ranked data and utilizes the median for each group to make comparisons which limits the impact made by outliers

or other disruptions to normality. The Kruskal-Wallis test assumes that if there were no differences between the groups, one would expect the same number of high and low ranks in each of the groups. In other words, all scores are first ranked in order regardless of which group the score belongs then the ranked scores are placed back into their original groupings. When all of these ranks are added, it is expected that the average of the total ranks in each group would be approximately equal if no differences existed between the groups being compared.

Analyses of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: *Both the loss-orientation subscale and the restoration-orientation subscale of the DARL will demonstrate internal consistency, suggesting that they are distinct, but related constructs consistent with the constructs they are based upon.*

The reliability of the DAARL was assessed by calculating the Cronbach's alpha for the two subscales of the DAARL (i.e., the loss-orientation subscale and the restoration-orientation subscale). It was predicted that loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks would characterize two distinct, but related constructs and thus will be internally consistent at a given point in time. It was also predicted that the internal consistency of these constructs on the DAARL would be relatively high, as the measure was developed by revising an already established reliable and valid measure (i.e., the IDWL; See Appendix O) of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented coping. To further help ensure that items would be consistent with the constructs of loss-orientation and restoration-orientation, additional items (See Appendix P) were added to the DAARL (See Appendix W) after being evaluated by participants in Study 1 (See Tables 1 & 2 for percent agreement on individual items added to the DAARL).

The internal consistency for the DAARL Loss subscale resulted in a Cronbach's alpha of .94, while the internal consistency analysis of the DAARL Restoration subscale produced a Cronbach's alpha of .82. While many sources report Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 to 0.8 as being acceptable (e.g., Kline, 1999), Field (2005) suggests that such guidelines can be dangerous in assessing reliability. As a result, while the overall Cronbach's alphas for these subscales suggest that these subscales reliably measure a construct, the proposed subscales needed to be evaluated further. To that end, the individual items of these subscales were compared directly to their subscales as a whole in order to determine how each item's inclusion or removal from the scale would affect the overall subscale. The results of these Item-Total subscale analyses can be seen for loss-orientation items and restoration-orientation items in Tables 3 & 4 respectively. As can be seen in Tables 3 & 4, all items produce a moderate positive correlation with the overall subscale, suggesting that they contribute to the overall subscale. This contribution is further supported by noting that the Cronbach's alphas if any of the items are deleted tended to result in a small change from the current Cronbach's alphas of the subscales. Based on the above analyses, no items included in the DAARL for Study 2 were removed from the final measure or subsequent analyses. Additionally, a significant negative Pearson's r correlation was found between the Loss and Restoration subscales ($r = -.257, p = 0.001$), which suggests that these are related, but distinct constructs. Furthermore, these findings provide support for the notion that the DAARL's Loss and Restoration subscales would represent distinct and reliable constructs.

Hypothesis 2: Individuals identified as having had either a secure or dismissing attachment to their former romantic partner will report lower levels of psychological distress (i.e., lower levels of depression and/or anxiety); whereas, individuals who had a preoccupied or fearful attachment to their former romantic partner will report higher levels of psychological distress.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was used to evaluate the differences between the four attachment style groups (i.e., secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing) on the various scales for hypotheses related to group differences (see Table 13). The Kruskal-Wallis test is similar to a one-way ANOVA, but utilizes ranked rather than continuous data making it a non-parametric test useful for assessing group differences when data violates assumptions of normality. The results of each analysis have been reported under the appropriate hypothesis heading. In cases in which the Kruskal-Wallis test demonstrated a significant difference between the groups, follow-up analyses were conducted in the form of a Mann-Whitney U Test with Bonferroni Correction (to control for Type I errors).

The Mann-Whitney U Test is a statistical technique that is utilized to test the differences between two independent groups and is often considered a non-parametric alternative to the independent samples t-test. Field (2005) explains that the Mann-Whitney U Test works by first converting the scores on the continuous variable to ranks, across both groups being evaluated, similar to the Kruskal-Wallis. Following this conversion, the ranked scores for the two groups are then compared to one another to determine whether there is a significant difference between the two groups on the dependent variable. The critical value used to determine significance for any post-hoc comparisons is determined based on the accepted alpha level of .05 divided by the number of pairwise comparisons,

resulting in an alpha level of 0.008 and below being considered significant for this particular study.

The four groups were compared on measures of anxiety and depression (i.e., SAS & SDS respectively) as indicators of psychological well-being using the Kruskal-Wallis Test to determine if there were any differences between one's style of attachment and psychological well-being reported. The results of the test indicated that there were significant differences between the four attachment styles on both the SAS ($\chi^2(3, N = 154) = 17.07, p < 0.001$) and SDS ($\chi^2(3, N = 157) = 17.97, p = 0.001$).

Mann-Whitney U pairwise comparisons were used to follow-up on the Kruskal-Wallis test for the SAS. As a Bonferroni Correction was applied to avoid Type 1 errors, an effect is considered significant if p was less than 0.008. The only significant differences on the anxiety score were between the secure and fearful groups, $z = -3.96, p < .001$ and the preoccupied and fearful groups $z = -2.95, p = .003$ (See Table 14 for all Mann Whitney analyses for the SAS). The mean ranks from the Kruskal-Wallis Test were as follows: fearful group (101.36), dismissing group (75.67), preoccupied group (75.43), and secure group (55.97). The mean rank scores of these three groups indicated that individuals with a fearful attachment (101.36) tended to score higher on anxiety than those with a preoccupied (75.43) or secure (55.97) attachment.

As with the SAS analysis, Mann-Whitney U pairwise comparisons were used for the *post hoc* analysis on the Kruskal-Wallis test for the SDS. As a Bonferroni Correction was applied to avoid Type 1 errors, an effect was considered significant if p was less than 0.008. The only significant differences on the depression score were between the secure and fearful groups, $z = -3.81, p < 0.001$ and the secure and preoccupied groups $z = -3.05, p$

= 0.002 (See Table 15 for all Mann Whitney analyses for the SDS). The mean ranks from the Kruskal-Wallis Test were as follows: fearful group (98.07), preoccupied group (82.03), dismissing group (77.47), and secure group (52.84). The mean rank scores of these three groups indicated that individuals with a secure attachment (52.84) tended to score significantly lower on depression ratings than those with a preoccupied (82.03) or fearful (98.07) attachment.

The above findings provide partial support for the hypothesis that those who have a dismissing or secure attachment style will experience significantly less psychological distress than individuals who have a preoccupied or fearful attachment style. While individuals with a secure attachment reported significantly lower levels of both anxiety and depression than individuals with fearful attachment style, dismissing individuals did not show a significant difference in levels of anxiety and depression from any group. Furthermore while individuals with a secure attachment style reported significantly lower levels of depression than individuals with a preoccupied attachment style, these same groups did not differ significantly on levels of anxiety. An unexpected significant difference was that individuals with preoccupied attachment styles reported significantly lower levels of anxiety than individuals with a fearful attachment style.

Hypothesis 3: Individuals who have a secure or a dismissing attachment to their former romantic partner will report engaging equally in both restoration-oriented and loss-oriented activities; whereas, individuals who have a preoccupied attachment will report more behaviours consistent with loss-oriented activities, and individuals who have a fearful attachment will report engaging in more restoration-orientation behaviours (See Figure 4).

The four attachment styles were compared on measures of loss-oriented coping behaviours, restoration-oriented coping behaviours, and oscillation (i.e., DAARL Loss Subscale, DAARL Restoration Subscale, and DAARL Oscillation Subscale respectively) using the Kruskal-Wallis Test to determine if there were any differences between one's style of attachment and coping behaviours following romantic loss being reported. The results of the test indicated that there were significant differences between the four attachment styles on both the DAARL Loss subscale ($\chi^2(3, N = 159) = 8.76, p = 0.033$) and DAARL Oscillation subscale ($\chi^2(3, N = 159) = 11.94, p = 0.008$), but not on the DAARL Restoration subscale ($\chi^2(3, N = 159) = 5.02, p = 0.170$). As the Kruskal-Wallis test of group differences for the DAARL Restoration subscale did not indicate a significant difference between the different attachment styles, no *post hoc* analyses were conducted related to the DAARL Restoration subscale and the hypotheses related to the DAARL Restoration subscale were not supported. Examinations of the mean ranks from the Kruskal-Wallis Test were as follows: preoccupied group (125.17), secure group (99.68), fearful group (98.92), and dismissing group (84.42) group, although no significant differences existed between these groups.

Mann-Whitney U pairwise comparisons were used to follow-up on the Kruskal-Wallis test for the DAARL Loss Subscale. As a Bonferroni Correction was applied to avoid Type 1 errors, an effect was considered significant if p was less than 0.008. The only significant differences on the Loss Subscale score were between the secure and fearful groups, $z = -4.07, p < .001$, the fearful and dismissing groups, $z = -5.53, p < .001$, and the preoccupied and dismissing groups, $z = -5.22, p < .001$ (See Table 16 for all Mann Whitney analyses for the DAARL Loss subscale). The mean ranks from the Kruskal-Wallis Test

were as follows: fearful group (109.65), preoccupied group (93.19), secure group (62.45), and dismissing group (45.35). The mean rank scores of these three groups indicated that individuals with a fearful attachment (109.65) tended to engage in more loss-oriented coping behaviours than those with a secure (62.45) or dismissing (45.35) attachment style.

As with the DAARL Loss subscale analysis, Mann-Whitney U pairwise comparisons were used for the *post hoc* analysis on the Kruskal-Wallis test for the DAARL Oscillation subscale. As a Bonferroni Correction was applied to avoid Type 1 errors, an effect was considered significant if p was less than 0.008. Several significant differences on the DAARL Oscillation subscale were found between different attachment styles: secure and fearful groups, $z = -3.88$, $p < 0.001$, secure and preoccupied groups $z = -3.34$, $p = 0.001$, fearful and dismissing groups $z = -4.07$, $p < 0.001$, and preoccupied and dismissing groups $z = -3.95$, $p < 0.001$, (See Table 17 for all Mann Whitney analyses for the DAARL Oscillation subscale). The mean ranks from the Kruskal-Wallis Test were as follows: dismissing group (104.81), secure group (100.31), preoccupied group (68.03), and fearful group (55.77). The mean rank scores of these four groups indicated that individuals with a secure attachment (100.31) or dismissing attachment (104.81) tended to have significantly less balanced oscillation between loss oriented and restoration oriented behaviours than those with a preoccupied (68.03) or fearful (55.77) attachment style.

These results in general do not provide support for the hypotheses proposed and in some instances even show the reverse of what was hypothesised. In terms of loss-oriented coping behaviours, the fearful group reported engaging in these behaviours significantly more than individuals with secure or dismissing attachment styles, whereas individuals with a preoccupied attachment style did not differ significantly from any of the other

groups. In terms of restoration oriented coping no significant differences were found between the different attachment styles. These findings do not support the hypotheses that individuals with a preoccupied attachment style would primarily engage in loss-oriented behaviours and that individuals with a fearful attachment would primarily engage in restoration-oriented behaviours. In terms of oscillation, individuals with secure and dismissing attachment styles were found to be significantly less balanced in their oscillation than individuals with fearful and preoccupied attachment styles. These findings not only do not support the hypothesis that individuals with secure and dismissing attachment styles would have a more balanced oscillation between coping behaviours, but in fact suggests that the opposite is true. Mean scores on the DAARL Oscillation subscale suggest that secure and dismissing individuals tend to engage primarily in restoration-oriented behaviours, whereas individuals with fearful or preoccupied attachment styles tend to be more balanced in the coping behaviours they engage in (See Table 5). For a revised model based on the findings of this study please see Figure 5. Implications of the above findings, limitations of the current studies, and future research directions will be discussed in the following sections.

Discussion

The current findings have suggested that the manner in which individuals cope with a relationship loss varies based upon the type of attachment they had with their former partner. As a result, I have proposed an integrated model for conceptualizing the relationship between attachment theory and adaptation to romantic relationship loss due to break up (See Figure 5). This model was established in the hope of filling a significant gap in the literature by examining factors which affect an individual's response and success in

adapting to romantic relationship loss. The following discussion will examine the support for this model, pointing out consistencies and inconsistencies with prior literature. The discussion of the research findings shall be split into 2 sections; one section focussing on the DAARL's development and its utility in assessing romantic relationship loss, and another section focusing on group differences based on attachment style when adapting to romantic loss due to break up.

DAARL Development

In undertaking the task of investigating romantic loss due to break up, the Dual Process Model (DPM; Stroebe & Schut, 1999) was used as a means to examine coping with the loss of an attachment figure. Consequently, it became immediately apparent that no measure currently in use would be acceptable to evaluate this process. As such, it was decided to take the structure of the closest measure in use, the IDWL (See Appendix O), which measures loss-oriented behaviours, restoration-oriented behaviours, and the oscillation between the two for individuals who have recently had a loved one perish, and adapt the content of this measure to make it suitable for evaluating the process of romantic loss. As a result the development of the Daily Activities After Romantic Loss (DAARL) began.

The first stage of development required the researchers to generate a list of potential items for the DAARL that were thought to be consistent with loss-oriented coping behaviours and restoration-oriented coping behaviours, as well as a number of distracter items (See Appendix P for items generated). To evaluate which items from this list should be included in the measure for Study 2, graduate, undergraduate alumni of the social

sciences, and introductory psychology students were asked to categorize each item into one of four categories: loss-oriented coping behaviour, restoration-oriented coping behaviour, both, or other. Items thought to be most consistent with the constructs of loss-oriented coping behaviours and restoration-oriented behaviours as indicated by percent agreement were included in the version of the DAARL used in Study 2 (See Appendix P). These small pilot studies, which comprised Study 1, provided an initial validation and ensured the measure had face validity.

Face validity alone of course is not sufficient in creating an empirically validated and reliable measure. As such, Study 2 sought to further validate the measure by examining the internal consistency of both dimensions (i.e., loss-oriented coping and restoration-oriented coping). As noted in the results section both the Loss subscale and Restoration subscale of the DAARL produced relatively high Cronbach's alphas (0.94 and 0.82 respectively). To further test the role each item played in these observed Cronbach's alphas the individual items of these subscales were compared to their subscales as a whole in order to determine how each item's inclusion within the scale affected the overall subscale. All items included within the subscales produced moderate positive correlations with the overall subscale, suggesting that each item was consistent with the overall subscale. This conclusion was further supported by noting that if any of the items were deleted, the outcome tended to result in small changes from the current Cronbach's alphas of the subscales. Based on the above analyses, no items included in the DAARL for Study 2 were removed from the subsequent analyses. In addition the significantly negative Pearson's r correlation between the Loss and Restoration subscales ($r = -0.57, p = 0.001$) suggests that these constructs are related yet distinct. To summarize the above findings provided support

for the notion that the DAARL's Loss and Restoration subscales would represent distinct and reliable constructs. As a result the DAARL can be considered an acceptable albeit early stage measure of these constructs.

The DAARL represents an early stage attempt at measuring a complex and intricate process and as such this attempt has notable limitations requiring further validation as well as development. There are many potential ways in which the measure could be further validated or other measures could be created, including but not limited to the potential for a factor analysis to better understand if any other dimensions or classes of behaviours may be present in the process of coping with loss. Such a validation process could help us better understand the dimensions that come into play when resolving romantic grief. The aforementioned limitations and potential future developments for the DAARL are discussed below in the Limitations and Future Directions section. While it is acknowledged the DAARL has much validation and development ahead of it, the DAARL still provides a foundation and a useful tool in further evaluating the constructs of loss-oriented coping, restoration-oriented coping, and oscillation between the two in how these constructs relate to the process of coping with romantic loss due to break up.

Attachment Style Differences

Before evaluating the attachment style differences found across a number of variables, it is important to look at the results in combination with how attachment theory describes each attachment style and the types of expectations and beliefs these individuals possess. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) offered the following descriptions of adult attachment styles:

“It is relatively easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don’t worry about being alone or having others not accept me” (Secure). “I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me” (Dismissing). “I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like, I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don’t value me as much as I value them” (Preoccupied). “I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others, I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely or to depend on them. I sometimes worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others” (Fearful). (p. 244)

These descriptions provide an overview of the nature of the different attachment styles in Bartholomew’s (1990) model of attachment. The following are the theoretical underpinnings to the study, followed by a discussion of the actual results in light of this theory.

In the current study, it was proposed that the loss of an attachment figure, (i.e., the loss of a romantic relationship due to break up) activates an individual’s attachment behavioural system causing the individual to try to cope with anxiety-provoking emotions that result from the relationship loss on their own, as the attachment figure is no longer available. As the individual tries to resolve these feelings, the method by which they cope and the level of functioning they will return to is in part dependent on their attachment style prior to the relationship loss. In essence, the need for proximity in the attachment relationship disappears over time as the person realizes that they can no longer turn to the former romantic partner to meet their attachment-related needs. The way in which this reorganization occurs depends on the expectations and beliefs formed by the individual as they develop their attachment style.

Given that the reorganization of attachment often becomes disrupted when adapting to other forms of loss (e.g. bereavement following the death of an attachment figure) for individuals with preoccupied and fearful attachment styles (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013), it was expected that this could have occurred when a romantic relationship ends as well. In contrast, it was expected that those with a secure attachment style have relatively low anxiety and avoidance attachment strategies (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) and are comfortable depending on others and being depended upon, allowing them to more easily work through loss-oriented and restoration-oriented tasks and resolve attachment figure loss concerns (Meier et al., 2013; Waskowic, 2010). That is, these individuals are less reliant than other individuals (e.g., individuals who display a preoccupied attachment style) on physical proximity of the attachment figure and are better able to rely on a mental representation of the lost attachment figure to meet attachment related needs (Bartholomew, 1990). Finally, it was predicted that individuals with a dismissing attachment style are typically undisturbed by losses and focus primarily on autonomy and independence rather than their former attachment bonds in the face of loss (Waskowic, 2010). A more in-depth look at these attachment styles including how their needs, perceptions, and behaviours can differ can be found below.

Individuals who display a secure attachment style tend to have positive views of themselves, others, and their relationships (Bartholomew, 1990). In general these individuals report greater satisfaction and adjustment in their relationships than individuals with other attachment styles (Sable, 2008). Secure individuals report feelings of comfort with regards to being intimate with others and being independent, seeking to balance these constructs within their relationships (Sable, 2008). Furthermore, they “don’t worry about

being alone or having others not accept [them]” (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; p. 244), which likely results in relatively little difficulty with the resolution of grief arising from romantic loss.

Individuals with a preoccupied attachment style tend to rely on proximity-seeking behaviours for affect regulation and are not comfortable being without close relationships (Bartholomew, 1990). Additionally, they are more likely to fixate on lost attachment figures and are thought to experience relatively high levels of distress over the loss of a relationship (Waskowic, 2010). Bartholomew (1990), further described individuals with a preoccupied attachment as having “strong dependency needs” (p.165). As such in the absence of their former attachment figure, they may rely on proximate attachment figures to satisfy the dependency needs noted by Bartholomew (1990). Fraley and Shaver (1999) describe this phenomenon as follows:

“Through mourning, we find ways to continue our bonds with attachment figures even though they are no longer physically present and someone new may serve as a more “proximate” attachment figure. In both cases, some people reorganize their attachment systems in a way that facilitates this balance, whereas others have more difficulty” (p.755).

Entering a new relationship or seeking to have their attachment needs fulfilled by others lower on preoccupied individuals’ attachment hierarchies may be viable strategies for preoccupied individuals based on Fraley and Shaver’s (1999) above assertion. Though these individuals may seek out other potential attachment figures, they are also likely to experience a great deal of distress over the loss of their former romantic partner.

In contrast, individuals with a fearful attachment style typically utilize avoidant strategies in the aftermath of loss (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013). Their ambivalence with regards to depending upon others or being depended on and their fear of

being rejected, presents a unique challenge for these individuals in the face of loss. Individuals with a fearful attachment style are known to actively avoid social interactions where they perceive themselves as vulnerable to rejection (Bartholomew, 1990). This vulnerability would likely result in these individuals being reluctant to rely on any remaining supports, especially in a North American context in which many individuals are “uncomfortable around others’ sadness and tears and want a quick resolution to grief.” (Hooyman & Kramer, 2006; p. 19). As a result, even though individuals with a fearful attachment style are likely to experience high distress or anxiety they are unlikely to seek out other relationships for comfort due to their hypersensitivity to social approval (Bartholomew, 1990).

Finally, dismissing individuals use avoidant strategies, similar to fearful individuals, however they are relatively low in terms of attachment-related needs, feel comfortable without intimate relationships, and focus primarily on independence (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Due to these preferences, when these individuals experience the loss of an attachment figure they typically can work through the loss without difficulty. Essentially these attachment figures are a less essential component for these individuals and without taking a prominent place within the attachment hierarchy, their work in relation to the loss would be relatively limited. Despite these characteristics it should be noted that in a sample of college students, Kobak & Sreey (1988) found that although dismissing individuals did not significantly differ in reported levels of subjective distress from individuals with a secure attachment style, that dismissing individuals reported being lonely and lacking social support. Kobak & Sreey’s (1988) findings suggest that while dismissing individuals focus on independence, they are not entirely self-

reliant and do still possess some attachment needs, as indicated by their reports of loneliness. As a result, though they may try to satisfy their own attachment needs, this may only be a partial solution to their concerns. These characteristics as put forth in attachment theory and subsequent research will help guide the discussion and further interpretation of the current study's results.

Loss-Oriented Behaviours. As reported previously, individuals with different attachment styles tended to engage in loss-oriented behaviours following romantic loss at significantly different levels. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test and Mann Whitney U Test indicated that those with a fearful attachment tended to engage in more loss-oriented coping behaviours than those with a secure or dismissing attachment style. Individuals with a preoccupied attachment style, however, tended to engage in loss-oriented behaviours at a relatively intermediate level that was significantly higher than dismissing individuals, but showed no significant difference when compared to secure or fearful attachment styles.

The finding that fearful individuals engage in a statistically significant higher level of loss-oriented behaviours than secure or dismissing attachment styles is inconsistent with past findings (e.g. Waskowic, 2010), but may provide insight into the utility of loss-oriented behaviours. Attachment theory suggests that individuals with a fearful and preoccupied attachment styles (i.e., individuals with relatively high attachment anxiety) tend to become disrupted while reorganizing their attachment hierarchies in the face of loss and as such tend to become distressed (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013). It was thought that fearful individuals would orient themselves away from the lost relationship through restoration-oriented behaviours due to their ambivalence towards depending on others or being depended upon and their fear of being rejected by potential attachment

figures or proximate attachment figures (Bartholomew, 1990). The fear of rejection that fearful individuals experience, however, may only impair the formation of alternate attachment relationships leaving these individuals to resolve their significantly higher levels of distress independently. That is, it is speculated that instead of avoiding the relationship, thereby also avoiding loss-oriented behaviours as hypothesized, fearful individuals may avoid establishing new intimate relationships in fear of rejection and instead engage in high levels of loss-oriented behaviours privately to fulfill their attachment needs to some extent, without the possibility of rejection. In addition, these individuals would be unlikely to seek out support or grieve publically due to their fear of rejection (Bartholomew, 1990).

Individuals with a preoccupied attachment style, were found to engage in loss-oriented coping behaviours at a significantly higher level than dismissing individuals, but did not vary significantly from secure or fearful individuals. Preoccupied individuals were initially hypothesized to engage in loss-oriented behaviours at high levels and almost exclusively. One reason that preoccupied individuals would likely engage in high levels of loss-oriented behaviours is due to their high attachment anxiety (See Figure 1), similar to fearful individuals. Preoccupied individuals, however, do not typically engage in avoidant behaviours or fear rejection as much as fearful individuals (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), though they do tend to fixate on the lost relationship and become distressed following romantic loss (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013). As such, while these individuals would likely still engage in loss-oriented behaviours to feel more of a connection with their former romantic partner, they have relatively low levels of avoidance (See Figure 1) and are believed to be more likely to utilize their remaining support systems

as proximate attachment figures after the loss, than fearful individuals. As preoccupied individuals do not fear rejection and focus primarily on their own attachment needs this provides them with an additional set of supports and a possibility of satisfying some of their attachment needs without the use of the loss-oriented behaviours covered in this study. This may explain why preoccupied individuals reported intermediate levels of loss-oriented behaviours that were significantly higher than dismissing individuals, but not significantly different from any other attachment style.

In contrast, individuals with secure or dismissing attachment styles reported significantly lower levels of loss-oriented behaviours than individuals with a fearful attachment style. Secure and dismissing individuals tend not to fixate on the relationship loss, are able to move on to new relationships (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013), and are relatively comfortable with independence (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). While it was anticipated that individuals with a secure attachment would engage in higher levels of loss-oriented coping than dismissing individuals, a statistically significant difference between these groups was not observed. It is possible that individuals with a secure attachment style do engage in these behaviours at higher levels, but that it is for a short duration as the individual may resolve their romantic grief much faster than other groups (e.g., fearful individuals). In the case of dismissing individuals, it is possible that their grieving is very limited due to their focus on independence and their use of avoidance strategies in reaction to loss (Meier et al., 2013). Furthermore, dismissing individuals are known for having relatively low distress in reaction to other types of loss (e.g. bereavement) and instinctively feel no need to move towards the relationship by engaging in loss oriented behaviours (Meier et al., 2013). These findings seem to suggest that loss-

oriented coping is being used to fill a void left by the romantic loss and to satisfy attachment needs, particularly if the feelings related to the loss go unresolved (see Levels of Anxiety and Levels of Depression sections below).

Restoration-Oriented Behaviours. In terms of restoration-oriented behaviours as a means of coping following romantic loss, there were no significant group differences on the basis of attachment style (See Table 13). This outcome presents an interesting and strikingly different finding from studies which focus on loss due to death of a loved one (e.g., Waskowic, 2010). Waskowic (2010) found that some individuals may engage in more restoration-oriented behaviours (i.e., fearful individuals), some engage in relatively intermediate amounts of these behaviours (i.e., secure and dismissing individuals), and others barely utilize restoration-oriented coping at all (i.e., preoccupied individuals). To best conceptualize these differences between coping with bereavement and coping with romantic loss due to break up, it is necessary to look at some of the differences between these phenomena.

One immediately noteworthy difference between bereavement following a death and romantic loss is that in romantic loss, the attachment figure remains physically present. This difference could increase social pressure to engage in a variety of restoration-oriented behaviours over loss-oriented behaviours. For instance, this pressure may include being pressured to “[go] to social gatherings” (item 10 on the DAARL) in an effort to get over the loss or even potentially meet a new romantic partner. Furthermore, failure to swiftly “[Reorganize your] living space” (item 14 on the DAARL) whether it be keeping personal effects from the relationship, or something more significant such as continuing cohabitation, these behaviours would likely be met with criticism by others in a North

American context. Also, while taking time away from work or school may be socially accepted at least to an extent following a death, these same allowances are less likely to be granted to individuals in the face of romantic loss. Essentially, certain restoration-oriented behaviours may be considered essential, automatic, or even unavoidable in the face of romantic loss due to break up whereas that may be more negotiable following a death.

While this observed difference between bereavement due to a death and romantic loss is believed to be the result of the social pressures applied to the individual, there are other aspects of the participants, which may account for the high levels of engaging in restoration-oriented behaviours reported across groups. For instance, a large proportion of the participants were North American, who tend to hold beliefs that resolution to grief should be quick and that tears and sadness are uncomfortable as opposed to a natural part of the human experience (Hooyman & Kramer, 2006). This social expectation may discourage individuals from engaging in traditional grief responses that move towards the loss (i.e., loss-oriented behaviours) and more towards behaviours which encourage moving from the relationship and the loss (i.e., restoration-oriented behaviours). Additionally in terms of age, the participants of the current studies were positively skewed with many participants being in their late teens to early twenties and with many of them coming from the psychology undergraduate pool at the University of Saskatchewan. These individuals are likely to spend a large proportion of their time “learning to do new things” (item 6 on the DAARL) and “focussing on employment, studies, or volunteer work” (item 8 on the DAARL) which are both restoration-oriented tasks regardless of a loss. These individuals also are likely to engage in a number of social endeavours and place relatively high value on friendships (Rose & Rudolph, 2006), which may result in these individuals reporting

high levels of several social related restoration-oriented behaviours (e.g. attending social gatherings). It is unknown if the sample had come from a different geographic region (e.g. a region more apt to engage in public displays of grieving) or had been made up of a different age group, if restoration-oriented behaviours would have varied between groups. Furthermore, it is unknown what the impact is on individuals who engage in little to no restoration-oriented behaviours.

Oscillation. As reported previously individuals with different attachment styles reported significantly different degrees of balance while oscillating between loss and restoration-oriented behaviours. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test and Mann Whitney U *post hoc* analysis indicated that individuals with a fearful or preoccupied attachment style had a significantly more balanced oscillation than those with a secure or dismissing attachment style.

To best understand these findings regarding attachment style and oscillation, it is important to understand the roles that loss-oriented behaviours and restoration-oriented behaviours appear to serve for the current sample. As discussed previously, restoration-oriented behaviours appear to occur in relatively high levels (See Table 5) across attachment styles, suggesting that regardless of attachment style or feelings towards the loss, these behaviours may be important or unavoidable to some extent. These behaviours may be the result of pre-existing obligations (e.g. studies or employment), social pressures, or the nature of the sample obtained (i.e., primarily young North American university students).

In contrast, loss-oriented behaviours differ based on attachment style (See Loss Oriented Behaviours Section above). It is believed these behaviours let individuals move

towards the lost relationship and satisfy some of their attachment needs in the absence of their former attachment figure. Thus, those who feel comfortable with independence (i.e., dismissing or secure individuals; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) do not rely on these behaviours as much or for as long (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013). In contrast, individuals with relatively strong dependency needs and high attachment anxiety (i.e., preoccupied and fearful individuals) tend to engage in loss-oriented behaviours more readily in addition to restoration-oriented behaviours in order to address their various needs after a romantic loss. Unlike restoration-oriented behaviours, these loss-oriented behaviours appear to be optional and based on subjective attachment needs of the individual experiencing the loss.

Bearing these considerations in mind, it is not surprising that dismissing and secure individuals tend to have an unbalanced oscillation that favours restoration-oriented behaviours. As previously stated, these individuals may engage in restoration-oriented behaviours due to previous obligations and social pressures, but do not feel a need to engage in loss-oriented behaviours for prolonged periods as they are comfortable with their new independence and believe themselves as worthy of affection from others. In contrast, while preoccupied and fearful individuals also engage in restoration-oriented behaviours for the same reasons as dismissing and secure individuals, their grief resolution process also tends to include relatively heightened levels of loss-oriented behaviours. As a result these loss-oriented behaviours tend to relatively balance the oscillation between loss and restoration-oriented behaviours for both fearful and preoccupied individuals. This difference may also be reflected by the high attachment anxiety (See Figure 1) of

individuals with a fearful or preoccupied attachment style and the prolonged distress they tend to exhibit following a loss (Meier et al., 2013).

Levels of Anxiety. As reported previously individuals with different attachment styles following romantic loss reported anxious symptoms at significantly different levels. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test and Mann Whitney U *post hoc* comparisons indicated that individuals with a fearful attachment style reported significantly higher levels of anxiety than those with a secure or preoccupied attachment style. Individuals with a dismissing attachment style, however, tended to report a relatively intermediate level of anxiety that was not significantly different from any other attachment styles.

The finding that individuals with a fearful attachment style experience significantly higher levels of anxiety than individuals with a secure or preoccupied attachment style is partially supported by theories of the relationship between attachment and romantic relationship loss. Meier, Carr, Currier, and Neimeyer (2013) suggested that individuals identified as having fearful or preoccupied attachment styles often have difficulty in reorganizing their attachment hierarchies following a loss, leading to high levels of distress. In contrast, secure and dismissing individuals are believed to have relatively low levels of anxiety (See Figure 1) and be able to reorganize their attachment hierarchies without great difficulty (Davis, Shaver, and Vernon, 2003; Meier et al., 2013). Fraley, Davis, and Shaver (1997) stated that preoccupied adults tend to display more distress when an exclusive romantic relationship is terminated than other attachment styles. It has also been suggested by Fraley & Shaver (1999) that preoccupied adults tend to cry and desire their lost attachment figures for longer periods of time than other attachment styles.

In light of these assertions and past findings, it is not surprising that individuals with a secure attachment style would have significantly lower levels of anxiety, nor is it surprising that individuals with a fearful attachment style would report significantly high levels of anxiety. In contrast, theory and past findings have suggested that individuals with a dismissing attachment style likely have little to no distress following romantic loss instead of an intermediate amount. In particular, Fraley and Davis (1997) noted that dismissing individuals are least likely to develop emotional attachments to their romantic partners. Fraley, Davis, and Shaver (1997) expanded on this by noting that individuals with a dismissing attachment style typically display little or no negative affect when their relationships end.

While individuals with a dismissing attachment style were hypothesized to experience little distress following romantic loss, the current study found no significant difference between the level of anxiety reported by dismissing individuals and any other attachment style. This finding poses special challenges in understanding the subsequent distress or lack thereof following romantic loss for individuals with a dismissing attachment style as they can be considered neither high, low, nor in between as the findings do not differentiate them from the experiences of other attachment styles. Any mean difference between other groups could merely be accounted for by other factors not within the model, variation due to sampling, or a lack of power due to the use of non-parametric tests. The possibility still exists, however, that dismissing individuals may experience relatively low distress (as initially hypothesized) due to their focus on autonomy and relatively low attachment anxiety (See Figure 1). On the other hand, it is also possible that dismissing individuals could belong to the same group as individuals with a fearful

attachment style (i.e., individuals who experience report high levels of anxiety) or dismissing individuals may in fact belong to their own intermediate group between low and high levels of anxiety. If dismissing individuals were found to belong to either their own intermediate level or to the high level of anxiety group such a finding might be best explained by the findings by Kobak and Sreey (1988). They noted that dismissing individuals reported higher levels of loneliness and having a lack of social support when compared to secure individuals. Kobak and Sreey's (1988) findings suggest that while dismissing individuals focus on independence, they are not entirely self-reliant and, though they may try to satisfy their own attachment needs, this may only be a partial solution to their concerns and other stressors within their lives. As a result, this could account for dismissing individuals reporting higher levels of anxiety than secure individuals, as the SAS is a measure of general symptoms of anxiety, as opposed to measuring specific anxiety related to loss or even to relationships generally. Based on the current findings, however, it is clear that more research is necessary to understand the level of psychological distress individuals with a dismissing attachment style experience following romantic loss as the current study was unable to differentiate the level of distress experienced by dismissing individuals from other attachment styles.

The reported low levels of anxiety for individuals with a preoccupied attachment style were also unexpected. As noted previously, individuals with this attachment style are known to experience high levels of distress in the absence of their attachment figure; so it stands to reason that their anxiety would be high following romantic loss. However, participants in the current study reported relatively low levels of anxiety. To best understand these findings, one must consider the methods by which these individuals are

likely to cope with romantic loss and compare them to the coping practices of fearful individuals to understand why they differ in reported levels of anxiety.

Individuals with a preoccupied attachment style rely on proximity-seeking behaviours for affect regulation and are not comfortable being without close relationships (Bartholomew, 1990). Therefore, in the absence of their former attachment figure, they may rely on proximate attachment figures to satisfy the dependency needs as noted by Bartholomew (1990) and further expanded upon by Fraley and Shaver (1999). Entering a new relationship or seeking to have their attachment needs fulfilled by others lower on a preoccupied individual's attachment hierarchy (e.g., family or friends) may be viable strategies for preoccupied individuals. In contrast, individuals with a fearful attachment style typically utilize avoidant strategies in the aftermath of loss (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer 2013). Individuals with a fearful attachment style are known to actively avoid social interactions where they perceive themselves as vulnerable to rejection (Bartholomew, 1990). This active avoidance likely results in these individuals being reluctant to rely on any remaining supports, especially in a North American context in which many individuals are "uncomfortable around others' sadness and tears and want a quick resolution to grief." (Hooyman & Kramer, 2006; p. 19). As a result, even though individuals with a fearful attachment style are likely to experience high distress or anxiety, they are unlikely to seek out other relationships for comfort due to their hypersensitivity to social approval (Bartholomew, 1990). In essence, while both these groups are likely to experience distress over the loss of their romantic relationship, it is possible through the use of proximate attachment figures that preoccupied individuals are able to mitigate their anxiety and find reassurance. This possibility may reduce their reported levels of anxiety

while they continue to mourn for the loss of their former attachment figure and experience dysphoria as suggested by their reported levels of depression remaining relatively high (See Levels of Depression section below).

While the above discussion provides some insight into the outcomes and challenges that individuals face following romantic loss, the findings of the current studies only begin to scratch the surface of this complex process. In turn, to better understand the distress these individuals face, we must also examine their reported levels of depressive symptoms as well as anxiety.

Levels of Depression. As previously stated the findings of the current studies suggest that individuals with different attachment styles following romantic loss experience depressive symptoms at significantly different levels. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test and Mann Whitney *U post hoc* comparisons indicated that individuals identified as having a fearful or preoccupied attachment style reported higher levels of depressive symptoms than those with a secure attachment style. Individuals with a dismissing attachment style, however, tended to report at an intermediate level of depressive symptoms that was not significantly different from any of the other attachment styles.

The finding that individuals with a secure attachment style report significantly lower levels of depressive symptoms than fearful or preoccupied individuals is consistent with past findings (Meier, Carr, Currier, & Neimeyer, 2013). Secure individuals are described as comfortable with others or being alone (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) and have been shown to experience relatively little distress when resolving other forms of loss (Meier et al., 2013). The finding that individuals with preoccupied and fearful attachment styles reported relatively high levels of depressive symptoms is supported by past research,

which indicates these two groups are likely to experience higher levels of distress and have difficulty in resolving loss (Bartholomew, 1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Meier et al., 2013; Waskowic, 2010).

For individuals with dismissing attachment styles, however, depressive symptoms were again reported at a relatively intermediate level (based on mean rank order) that was not significantly different from any other group. This finding poses special challenges in understanding the subsequent distress or lack thereof following romantic loss for individuals with a dismissing attachment style as they can be considered neither high, low, nor in between as the findings do not differentiate them from the experiences of other attachment styles. Any mean difference between other groups could merely be accounted for by other factors not within the model, variation due to sampling, or a lack of power due to the use of non-parametric tests. The possibility still exists, however, that dismissing individuals may experience relatively low distress (as initially hypothesized) due to their focus on autonomy and relatively low attachment anxiety (See Figure 1). On the other hand, it is also possible that dismissing individuals could belong to the same group as fearful or preoccupied attachment styles (i.e., individuals who experience report high levels of depressive symptoms) or dismissing individuals may in fact belong to their own intermediate group between low and high levels of depressive symptoms. If dismissing individuals were found to belong to either their own intermediate level or high levels of depressive symptoms it is believed that such a finding could be accounted for by the same feelings of loneliness and lack of support that as described in the Level of Anxiety section (See Levels of Anxiety section above). Based on the current findings, however, it is clear

that more research is necessary to understand the level of psychological distress individuals with a dismissing attachment style experience following romantic loss.

As noted earlier, while individuals with a preoccupied attachment display the expected levels of depressive symptoms, they reported relatively low levels of anxiety. This discrepancy is suspected as being the result of these individuals seeking out proximate attachment figures (as described in the Levels of Anxiety section above). It is speculated that while proximate attachment figures may fulfill many of the attachment related needs an individual may experience thereby reducing the individual's anxiety; they are unlikely to resolve the individual's feeling related to the loss of the former romantic partner as an attachment figure. The loss of such a romantic partner would result in the individual not feeling the level of closeness and intimacy that preoccupied individuals actively seek out and leave them with feelings of dysphoria.

These findings provide some insight into the challenges faced by individuals following romantic loss, however, they are somewhat limited by the measures used for distress (i.e., SAS and SDS). The SAS and SDS are measures of general anxious and depressive symptoms respectively and do not measure distress related to the loss of the romantic relationship specifically. As a result, these measures have the potential of having elevated scores merely due to participants suffering in general from depression or anxiety as opposed to it being the result of romantic loss. These results do, however, suggest that the relative distress of individuals with different attachment styles do vary significantly and warrant further investigation.

Oscillation balance in relation to distress. There appear to be a number of differences in terms of the coping behaviours individuals engage in and their distress

following romantic loss across attachment styles. While many of these differences can be explained by re-evaluating attachment styles and differences between bereavement and romantic loss due to break up, other findings seem contrary to theory. One key concept within the Dual Process Model (DPM) as put forth by Stroebe & Schut (1999) is that both restoration and loss-oriented behaviours are generally thought to be beneficial for individuals following the loss. Caserta and Lund (2007) went as far as to state that the oscillation between loss-oriented coping and restoration-oriented coping is ideally balanced to both fully understand the loss and to transfer their attachment needs to a new and more importantly accessible attachment figure. Despite this concept that a balanced oscillation generally results in less distress and better outcomes, the current study found the opposite. That is, the current study's findings suggest that those with a less balanced oscillation who were skewed towards restoration-oriented behaviours (e.g., secure or dismissing individuals) experienced less distress (i.e., reported lower levels of anxiety and depression) than individuals with a relatively more balanced oscillation (e.g., preoccupied and fearful individuals). While the current study cannot explain this discrepancy definitively, there are several possibilities that can be examined.

One possibility is that in the case of romantic loss due to break up, instead of a balanced oscillation being beneficial, oscillation is curtailed by the attachment needs of the different attachment styles. That is, while it may be beneficial for some individuals to engage in a relatively balanced oscillation between loss and restoration-oriented behaviours, for others it may be wiser to focus on one of the two behaviours to better address their attachment related needs following the loss. The current study did not investigate how varying levels of loss or restoration-oriented behaviours within the same

attachment might have impacted the individual; however, this would be an excellent area of exploration in future studies.

Conversely, the lack of balance in oscillation observed for dismissing and secure individuals could merely suggest that these individuals have successfully resolved their grief and engage in restoration-oriented behaviours on an ongoing basis. As noted by Waskowic (2010), these individuals typically are capable of resolving grief due to bereavement with relatively little difficulty compared to fearful or preoccupied individuals; so it stands to reason that this may apply to romantic loss due to break up as well. This possibility is supported by Fraley and Shaver (1999) who noted that preoccupied adults tended to cry and desire their lost attachment figures for longer periods of time than other attachment styles. Stroebe, Schut, and Stroebe (2005) similarly suggested that individuals with high attachment anxiety (i.e., fearful and preoccupied individuals) are more likely to become fixated on loss-oriented behaviours and have difficulty in adjusting to the demands of daily life. Thus, this strong preference towards restoration-oriented behaviour and relatively low levels of depressive or anxious symptoms may be a sign that individuals with a secure attachment style have reorganized their attachment hierarchy and resolved their feelings to the loss, while maintaining restoration oriented behaviours in their daily behaviours. Following the resolution of their grief related to the loss secure individuals may no longer have a use for seeking closeness with their former romantic partner through loss-oriented behaviours. In colloquial terms, these individuals have moved on from their past relationship and feel no need to return to it through loss-oriented behaviours.

The above speculations regarding the discrepancy between balanced oscillation and distress are only potential explanations and require further review and exploration. Future

studies evaluating motivations and change over time by either using a repeated measures approach or by incorporating qualitative components for a more in-depth examination of the coping process are certainly warranted. At this point I can only assert that more research is needed in this area to better understand the process of oscillation in the context of romantic relationship loss. To best understand these points of discussion, however, we must discuss the limits of the current findings as well as future directions for research.

Limitations and Future Directions

All research has limitations and like all other research it is good practice to acknowledge and understand these limitations to best understand the significance of findings and guide future research. In this section I will discuss both the limitations of the current studies and potentially viable future directions for research within this section of loss literature.

In conducting this research a combined sample consisting of participants who experienced break up due to their former romantic partner ending the relationship and those who had ended the relationship mutually were included. Although it would have been preferable to collect and analyze groups separately based on who ended the romantic relationship (i.e., former romantic partner versus mutual termination), it was decided to combine these groups to increase the sample size and power to ensure reasonable numbers of each attachment style and the ability to detect possible effects.

The decision to combine these two groups presents a potential limitation as these groups potentially could have experienced romantic loss in different ways. Furthermore, the very concept of a mutual break up can be a controversial one. Despite these concerns, following data collection it seemed apparent that analysis would be severely limited due to

a large proportion of participants not meeting the initial selection criteria. Considering only who ended the relationship in the original sample (N = 367), only a small subset of the sample deemed the relationship to have been ended by the former romantic partner (n = 132, 36%). In contrast, 128 (34.9%) participants indicated that they had terminated the relationship, 91 (24.8%) participants deemed the relationship's end was a mutual decision, 13 (3.5%) participants reported that the relationship ended due to another undefined factor, and 3 (0.8%) of individuals declined to answer the question at all. It should be noted that these statistics only cover one criterion for exclusion (i.e., who terminated the relationship) and do not cover other exclusion criteria (i.e., time since the relationship ended, missing values, or high socially desirable responding). With these exclusion criteria in place, the sample size available dropped dramatically, at which point it was necessary to re-evaluate exclusion criteria for the current study, in order to find a compromise between obtaining the power necessary to test the hypotheses presented, while still maintaining the integrity of the sample examined. It was determined that those who deemed the relationship end to be mutual would be included in the final sample. This inclusion was deemed appropriate as the concept of the mutual break-up represents a situation where the individual is only in partial control of the relationship's end and this lack of control may lead to romantic grief. It could be considered questionable as to whether or not the relationships deemed to be the result of a "mutual break up" truly represent an co-decision to terminate a relationship or are a by-product of other factors (e.g., socially desirable responding, or misinterpretation of the concept). This in turn highlights some limitations in the terminology used, as well as limitations of an online questionnaire based administration. These concerns are partially

mitigated through the use of a measure of socially desirable responding (i.e., BIDR-6; See Appendix N).

The decision to combine the above mentioned groups yet exclude those who ended their romantic relationship themselves or individuals who stated the relationship ended due to other reasons was made due to the concern that the participants excluded might not experience romantic grief in the same way as those who did not solely initiate the romantic termination. It was also shown through a preliminary analysis that the two groups who were included in the final sample (i.e. those who had their former romantic partner end the relationship or the relationship was terminated mutually) did not significantly differ on any key variables so their combination would be acceptable for subsequent analysis. Future studies could further examine the contrasts between these two groups if they were able to obtain a larger sample size than the one obtained for the present study. Future research could also investigate the two groups removed from the current study (i.e. individuals who ended the relationship or those who stated the relationship ended due to another factor) to empirically test how, if at all, these individuals differ in their experience of romantic loss. These lines of research may highlight how the needs of individuals may differ not only based upon attachment style, but also how the locus of control in terminating the relationship may also impact romantic grief.

In addition to combining the above groups in our target sample, it is possible that other demographic variables which were not collected could have influenced the participants' experience of romantic loss. Initially the sample for the current study was intended to be exclusively young individuals in non-marital romantic relationships collected solely from the introductory psychology undergraduate pool at the University of

Saskatchewan. Recruitment methods for the current study, however, expanded to include online and general public populations in order to achieve the power necessary to test the hypotheses adequately. While the sampling pool expanded to include those who underwent a divorce, individuals who had been formerly engaged, and even individuals that have children with their former romantic partners, these pieces of data were not collected from the current sample. While it is believed these factors would not apply to the majority of the sample due to the positively skewed distribution observed for the age of participants, it may still have influenced the results and it remains a limitation of the current study which cannot be addressed. Future studies may want to collect this data and examine the effects if any these factors have on the experience of romantic loss.

Another potential limitation in the present studies is the use of online surveys in order to collect data. While online survey administrations allow for certain benefits in research (e.g. collecting non-local samples, easy and consistent administration, and obtaining larger sample sizes), it also presents limitations on the data collected. One limitation of online administration is the possibility of a single individual participating multiple times or distorting their answers. Furthermore, as highlighted by Marczyk, DeMatteo, & Festinger (2005), while surveys provide a consistent and easily quantifiable set of data for research, these data also tends to lack the detail of other types of data collection (e.g. interviews, journaling or observation). Although observation of the loss and coping behaviours following romantic loss would not be practical or effective, interviewing and journaling could provide insight into some findings observed in the current study by providing meaning, rationale, and greater detail into the utility of coping behaviours being used. Future studies should also examine the oscillation between loss and restoration-

oriented behaviours over time through the use of journaling to get a better evaluation of the progression of these behaviours while individuals attempt to resolve feelings related to the loss. As an alternative, future research could examine motivations, cognitions, feelings, and subsequent effectiveness of different coping behaviours in reaction to the romantic loss through the use of structured interviews or a repeated measures design. While all data collection methods have advantages and disadvantages the current study's use of online surveys could be considered a limitation.

The use of a Kruskal-Wallis Test with Mann-Whitney U *post hoc* analyses could be considered a potential limitation as it does not provide some of the advantages of parametric tests such as ANOVA or MANOVA. While parametric tests such as ANOVA and MANOVA were originally intended to be used to analyze the data, the distribution of data did not allow for the use of parametric tests to evaluate the findings. That is, despite the use of transformations as outlined by Field (2005) to help correct the violations to the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance for parametric testing, no methods were successful in satisfying these assumptions. Therefore, following Field's (2005) suggestion nonparametric statistical methods were used (i.e. Kruskal-Wallis test with Mann Whitney U *post hoc* analyses). While non-parametric tests allow for the analysis of data that violates the above assumptions these tests tend to be more conservative and lack the power of parametric tests. As a result these tests are more prone than parametric tests to yield a Type II error (i.e., fail to detect differences between groups that actually exist). To better understand what effects could be hidden by a Type II error, a parametric MANOVA analysis was also performed on the data and the overall pattern of findings remained the same (i.e., there were significant group differences for loss-oriented behaviours, levels of

anxiety, levels of depression, and oscillation balance but no significant group differences on restoration-oriented behaviours). This alternate analysis, while not viable to analyze the data on its own, does lend support that the effects observed are the only significant group differences on these variables, or in other words suggests that a Type II error did not occur despite power limitations of non-parametric tests.

Furthermore, the use of a cross-sectional design can be considered a limitation of the current study. While a cross-sectional study design allows for a quick overview of a range of individuals, it does not allow for a detailed analysis or to examine how the individual changes over time. It was decided to use a cross-sectional design primarily because this was an exploratory study, but also because of time constraints and concerns that it would be difficult to recruit and retain participants, particularly in the early stages of grief resolution following romantic loss. Future studies would benefit from examining the progression of grief resolution over time by means of a longitudinal or mixed-methods designs employing the use of either repeated measures over the course of grief resolution or collecting data with methods such as journaling. These studies could go beyond a snap shot of different stages of grief resolution and provide a fuller picture of the grief resolution process as well as the effectiveness of different coping strategies across individuals and groups.

The current studies examined how individuals with different attachment styles varied in their experiences of grief following the loss of a romantic relationship by utilizing a validated theory of coping with the death of a loved one (i.e., the DPM). While the findings of this study begins to highlight the influence of attachment styles, there are still many factors which could influence coping with romantic loss that have yet to be explored

(e.g., the influence of culture, age or gender). While it has been shown that grief resolution outcomes (i.e. levels of depressive or anxious symptoms) and engaging in loss-oriented or restoration-oriented behaviours vary across individuals with different attachment styles, it is unknown if individuals tend to use coping strategies that best address their different attachment related needs or if certain coping patterns may be maladaptive following romantic loss. Given a larger sample size, the variation within attachment styles could have been more thoroughly examined in order to determine the influence of coping behaviour patterns as attachment needs vary. Such an examination could shed light on the utility of different coping behaviours for each attachment style and help guide clinicians to better treatment practices for clients following romantic loss. Regardless, it is evident that this area of research still has many unanswered questions and requires further examination in order to better understand the phenomenon of romantic loss.

While the current studies attempt to better understand the outcomes of romantic relationship termination utilizing an attachment based model, this approach presents a major assumption that the former romantic relationship represented an attachment relationship prior to the relationship's termination. This assumption is based upon the assertions of several adult attachment researchers (e.g., Ainsworth, 1979; Hazen and Shaver, 1987; Mikulincer, Gillath, and Shaver; Weiss, 1991; Weiss, 2001) who indicate that in adulthood and adolescence committed non-marital and marital relationships can be considered attachment relationships. Mikulincer, Gillath, and Shaver (2002) caution, however, that three functions must be present in order for a person to be considered an attachment figure. The attachment figure must be a target for proximity seeking, should act as a safe haven during times of distress, and become a secure base for the individual

(Mikulincer, Gillath, & Shaver, 2002). In the current studies, I am unable to confirm definitively that the former romantic relationship represented an attachment relationship as described by Mikulincer, Gillath, & Shaver (2002).

This concern that the romantic relationships in the current study do not represent attachment relationships becomes particularly relevant when looking at the sample obtained for the present study. Hazen & Zeifman (1999) found that in adults, separation anxiety and secure base preference varied based on the duration of the romantic relationship a participant was currently in. Specifically those in a romantic relationship for at least two years typically identified their romantic partner as the most preferred individual in their attachment hierarchy, whereas participants who were in a shorter-term or no relationship at all typically identified a parent as their secure base for which they felt the greatest separation anxiety. In the context of the current sample, the majority of participants (n= 103, 64.8%) reported that their former romantic relationship had a duration of two years or less (for a more detailed representation of this distribution see Table 18). Given the findings by Hazen & Zeifman (1999) it could be argued that these individuals, and as a result, the majority of the relationships under examination were not attachment relationships. It should be noted, however, that Hazen & Zeifman's (1999) findings do not indicate that all romantic relationships greater than two years in length would represent an attachment relationship, nor would romantic relationships less than two years in length be non-attachment relationships exclusively. In contrast, these findings merely suggest that as the length of the relationship increases, the likelihood of a romantic relationship taking on attachment based characteristics and the romantic partner being viewed as the primary attachment figure is higher as relationship duration increases. Before the two year mark, it

is possible that a romantic partner may be the primary attachment figure; however, it is also possible they may still be an attachment figure, just lower on the individual's attachment hierarchy. As a result, while a longer relationship duration would support the notion that these relationships represented an attachment with a primary attachment figure; the current sample may also possess attachment related characteristics which are relevant in romantic grief resolution.

Beyond defining if the relationships in question represented an attachment-based bond during the relationship, it is also important to consider if the relationship still has maintained attachment characteristics. The obtained data set for the current study does not distinguish whether or not participants may have formed new attachment relationships following the romantic loss with new attachment figures. These shortcomings present a major limitation on the current studies and the model that was utilized. The above limitations related to establishing that a former romantic relationship represents an attachment relationship could be addressed in future studies by only including participants, who were previously married, had ended their romantic relationship more recently, were in a relationship for an extended period of time (i.e., longer than two years), and had not entered a new romantic relationship. This more conservative sampling would increase the likelihood that the former romantic relationship represented an attachment relationship; however, it would also limit the scope of the study in that only a small sub-sample of individuals experiencing romantic loss would be under investigation. In addition, despite the potential for the relationships under investigation not being attachment relationships, a significant effect across several variables was observed dependent upon the participants' attachment style. This observation lends support to the idea that either the relationships

under investigation were attachment based or, in contrast, that despite an attachment not being formed, the end of a romantic loss may still activate an attachment response and affect outcomes for the individual. Such findings support the notion that attachment style influences individual outcomes following romantic loss.

Finally as in other research, the measures used within the present studies have their limitations. While for the most part, the measures in the present research have satisfactory reliability and validity; the DAARL has significant limitations as a newly developed measure. Although the current findings are encouraging and support the DAARL's utility, the DAARL's validation is limited to that of the current studies, which are still preliminary. As a result, the DAARL still requires further validation. This concern is partially mitigated by the fact that the DAARL was based on a validated measure, the Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (IDWL; Caserta & Lund, 2007), which has the same constructs (i.e., loss-orientated coping behaviours, restoration-oriented coping behaviours, and the oscillation between the two), but was modified for a different experience of loss (i.e., the DAARL focuses on romantic loss due to break up as opposed to bereavement following a death). While this connection does lend some support to the DAARL's structure, it should be noted that the IDWL also has notable limitations. The IDWL is a relatively new measure used to examine the coping processes associated with the DPM (Stroebe & Schut, 1999) and requires further validation and development, in particular with regard to examining the phenomenon of oscillation (Caserta & Lund, 2007). Specifically, Caserta and Lund (2007) recommended "exploration into the nature and measurement of the dimension of oscillation" (p. 526). Currently the IDWL examines the construct of oscillation by measuring the balance between loss-oriented coping behaviours and restoration-oriented

coping behaviours by calculating the difference in magnitude between the two. Caserta and Lund (2007) identified five additional dimensions of oscillation: oscillation depth, frequency of movement between the two coping processes, awareness of oscillating, perceived control over oscillation, and what the bereaved person's intent or motive is for engaging in the coping processes. (See Caserta & Lund (2007) for further explanation of these dimensions.)

In the same way that these dimensions would improve the IDWL's examination of oscillation in bereaved individuals, it stands to reason that the DAARL would also gain from the inclusion of these proposed dimensions when examining romantic grief. Despite this limitation, the creation and validation of these additional dimensions of oscillation is beyond the scope of the current studies and could possibly make the measure invalid if done improperly. Thus, it was decided to utilize the currently developed structure and dimensions of the IDWL in the creation of the DAARL as these dimensions had validation from past studies. By staying consistent with the IDWL's dimensions, it is believed that the DAARL was able to maintain a certain level of validity in its creation and lend support to its utility in exploring this new line of research.

Conclusions

In evaluating the current studies and related literature, it becomes apparent that coping with romantic grief is a multi-faceted phenomenon which is influenced by many factors making it a personal and unique experience across individuals. In an attempt to better understand this experience, the current studies utilized an attachment theory based model. This model proposes that once a romantic relationship is terminated that an

individual must reorganize their attachment hierarchy and establish a more viable attachment while resolving their attachment needs during the interim. The Dual Process Model (DPM; Stroebe & Schut, 1999) suggests that this grief resolution is accomplished through an oscillation between loss-oriented and restoration-oriented coping behaviours, which in the proposed model would occur as the individual re-evaluates and reorganizes their internal working models so that the former attachment figure that is no longer available is no longer regarded as a primary attachment figure. The crux of this model is not just that individuals engage in this process, but rather that it is guided by the beliefs and expectations that individuals have formed with regards to relationships and their attachment needs leading to varying outcomes based on attachment styles.

The current findings seem to support the idea that individuals cope with romantic grief differently based on attachment style and have varying levels of distress subsequently. For instance, individuals classified as having a secure attachment style had relatively unbalanced oscillation with a preference for engaging in restoration-oriented behaviours while tending to have low levels of depressive and anxious symptoms. Likewise dismissing individuals also had an unbalanced oscillation with a preference for engaging in restoration-oriented behaviours; however, they tended to experience an intermediate level of depressive and anxious symptoms as they fall between other groups on these variables, but it must be noted that this finding was not significantly different from any other groups. In contrast, individuals with a fearful or preoccupied attachment style undergo a relatively balanced oscillation between loss oriented and restoration oriented behaviours and high levels of depressive symptoms. Furthermore while individuals with a fearful attachment style reported high levels of anxious symptoms, individuals with preoccupied attachment

styles reported low levels of anxious symptoms. These findings demonstrate the variance in both how individuals of different attachment styles cope with romantic loss as well as their subsequent levels of anxious and depressive symptoms. These findings only demonstrate that these processes and outcomes differ; however, it does not indicate the utility of these coping behaviours, motivations surrounding their use, or the individual's progression of grief resolution (i.e., are they still actively grieving or has this process been resolved) either within attachment styles or between them. The findings of the current studies demonstrate that attachment style plays a significant role in romantic grief resolution suggesting that future research in this area is warranted and could further our understanding of this process.

Although most people will experience romantic loss in their lifetime, it is unlikely that all types of romantic loss will be experienced or processed in the same way. The present research has focused specifically on the relation between individuals' grief responses based on attachment style following the loss of a romantic relationship, with participants between the ages of 17 and 51 years – the majority being in their late teens or early 20s-, typically unmarried, and primarily residing in North America. While these demographic factors were not included in the proposed model as attachment is considered universal (i.e., it is common across cultures) and affects individuals across the lifespan, this reasoning seemed to theoretically minimize their importance within the model. Despite this assertion in developing the currently proposed model, it would be an overstatement to say romantic loss bears the same significance and results in the same experience across the lifespan and across the globe. As such, this model is not meant to be all inclusive or negate the impact of other factors, but rather a foundation to be built upon as we continue to grow our understanding of romantic relationship loss.

To that end, the DAARL represents an early attempt at measuring the coping process of individuals after romantic relationship loss by adapting the DPM as a model of romantic loss as well as bereavement. As displayed in our examination of the DAARL's internal consistency, there appears to be some initial support for the validity of the DAARL for measuring loss-oriented and restoration-oriented behaviours. While this is an early stage validation of the DAARL, the statistical findings give some support for its utility, though it would require additional research to establish its reliability and validity. Additionally the DAARL, like the IDWL which the DAARL was based upon, would benefit from further development of its measurement of oscillation. Caserta and Lund (2007) in their evaluation of the IDWL suggested five additional dimensions of oscillation (i.e., oscillation depth, frequency of movement between the two coping processes, awareness of oscillating, perceived control over oscillation, and the individual's intent or motive for engaging in the coping processes). To better understand the process of oscillation and utilization of the described coping behaviours, the DAARL should ultimately include these dimensions in future versions of the measure. Despite the DAARL's limitations in terms of validation and detail, it does provide an empirically supported early stage measure of coping with romantic loss that could be used in future research.

In identifying differences in coping patterns and subsequent outcomes following romantic relationship loss, the present research has provided a starting point for future research in this area. While the current studies provide some insight into romantic grief resolution outcomes between individuals who vary in their coping style, it simultaneously introduces new questions worthy of future investigation. The current studies have

supported the significance of attachment theory in understanding how people respond to romantic loss. This research also opens a new line of empirical study while paying tribute to furthering our understanding of the common phenomenon of romantic loss.

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Footnotes

¹ It should be noted that individuals were categorized into Bartholomew's attachment styles by using median splits on the ECRI's two underlying dimensions (i.e., avoidance and anxiety). From there, each participant was categorized as being either high or low on anxiety and avoidance and placed into his or her respective category based on Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) model (i.e., low anxiety, low avoidance= secure; low anxiety, high avoidance= dismissing; high anxiety, low avoidance= preoccupied; high anxiety, high avoidance= fearful). This procedure was utilized due to concerns of disproportionate numbers for each attachment style. By utilizing median splits, group sizes became comparable, aiding in subsequent analyses. While this deviates from the measure's original scoring might, it identifies individuals based on attachment style by indicating if individuals were "relatively" high or low on anxiety and avoidance for our study.

Table 1. Percent Agreement for Loss Orientation Items in Study 1 Parts 1, 2, and Combined.

Item	Part 1	Part 2	Combined
Crying or feeling sad about the loss of my former romantic relationship.	100.00	66.00	68.27
Feeling lonely.	85.70	63.90	65.38
Yearning for my former romantic partner.	100.00	64.20	66.67
Contacting former romantic partner	100.00	63.20	65.68
Re-reading e-mails, letters, cards, etc. from former romantic partner	100.00	65.30	67.65
Thinking about what my former romantic partner is doing	100.00	62.90	65.38
Feeling like you lost the “one”	100.00	62.50	64.42
Imagining my former romantic partner’s feelings regarding the relationship’s end	85.70	62.50	63.46
Thinking about how much I miss my former romantic partner.	100.00	60.80	63.46
Being preoccupied with the loss of my former romantic partner.	100.00	61.10	63.73
Feeling angry about the loss	100.00	57.90	60.78
Attempting to get updates on former romantic partner	85.70	56.70	58.65
Imagining re-entering a romantic relationship with my former partner	100.00	54.60	57.69
Thinking about the circumstances or events associated with my former relationship ending.	100.00	54.70	56.73
Brooding about ways to get back at my former romantic partner	85.70	53.70	55.88

Study 1 Part 1 N= 7, Study 1 Part 2 N= 95 to 97 (some missing values)

Table 2. Percent Agreement for Restoration Orientation Items in Study 1 Parts 1, 2, and Combined.

Item	Part 1	Part 2	Combined
Going to social gatherings	85.70	71.10	73.08
Finding ways to spend additional free time	71.40	67.00	68.27
Making time for yourself	85.70	68.80	69.90
Reorganizing living space	100.00	69.10	71.15
Reconnecting with friends	100.00	66.00	68.27
Focussing on improving self-esteem	100.00	65.60	67.96
Finding ways to share mutual friends without conflict	85.70	64.60	66.02
Learning to do new things.	85.70	66.30	67.65
Focusing on employment, studies or volunteer work.	100.00	67.00	68.32
Attending to the maintenance of my personal property.	85.70	61.90	63.46
Finding ways to co-exist in mutual spaces without conflict	85.70	62.90	64.42
Visiting or doing things with others.	71.70	64.50	63.11
Finding ways to keep busy or occupied.	85.70	58.90	59.62
Attending to my own health-related needs. (e.g. sleeping, eating)	85.70	59.80	61.54
Easing anger/frustration by being creative (e.g., writing poetry, painting, etc.)”	57.10	52.10	52.43

Study 1 Part 1 N= 7, Study 1 Part 2 N= 94 to 97 (some missing values)

Table 3. Internal Consistency of Loss Orientation Items. Item-Total Statistics

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item is Deleted
Crying or feeling sad about the loss of my former romantic relationship.	.764	.671	.929
Feeling lonely.	.547	.421	.935
Yearning for my former romantic partner.	.768	.622	.928
Contacting former romantic partner	.329	.266	.940
Re-reading e-mails, letters, cards, etc. From former romantic partner	.682	.542	.931
Thinking about what my former romantic partner is doing	.781	.646	.928
Feeling like you lost the “one”	.709	.567	.930
Imagining my former romantic partner's feelings regarding the relationship's end	.668	.538	.931
Thinking about how much I miss my former romantic partner.	.807	.706	.927
Being preoccupied with the loss of my former romantic partner.	.732	.662	.930
Feeling angry about the loss	.675	.568	.931
Attempting to get updates on former romantic partner	.647	.500	.932
Imagining re-entering a romantic relationship with my former partner	.753	.658	.929
Thinking about the circumstances or events associated with my former relationship ending.	.721	.629	.930
Brooding about ways to get back at my former romantic partner	.563	.465	.934

N= 159

Table 4. Internal Consistency of Restoration Orientation Items

Item	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item is Deleted
Going to social gatherings	.479	.481	.804
Finding ways to spend additional free time	.551	.414	.799
Making time for yourself	.524	.373	.801
Reorganizing living space	.199	.141	.823
Reconnecting with friends	.542	.455	.800
Focussing on improving self- esteem	.525	.434	.801
Finding ways to share mutual friends without conflict	.290	.265	.818
Learning to do new things.	.559	.530	.799
Focusing on employment, studies or volunteer work.	.424	.401	.808
Attending to the maintenance of my personal property.	.429	.250	.808
Finding ways to co-exist in mutual spaces without conflict	.365	.289	.813
Visiting or doing things with others.	.588	.556	.798
Finding ways to keep busy or occupied.	.459	.293	.806
Attending to my own health- related needs. (e.g. sleeping, eating)	.385	.275	.812
Easing anger/frustration by being creative (e.g., writing poetry, painting, etc.)”	.265	.172	.819

N= 159

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics Based on Attachment Style.

Scale	Attachment Style	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Skew (S.E.)	Kurt (S.E.)
SAS – Total	Secure	33.53	7.91	23.00	56.00	1.01 (0.81)	1.11 (0.41)
	Fearful	42.22	8.72	24.00	62.00	0.36 (0.39)	-0.02 (0.77)
	Preoccupied	37.04	7.66	25.00	59.00	0.86 (0.33)	0.58 (0.64)
	Dismissing	37.55	9.71	24.00	59.00	0.61 (0.41)	-0.50 (0.80)
SDS – Total	Secure	35.13	9.28	21.00	60.00	0.70 (0.42)	0.25 (0.82)
	Fearful	45.84	11.22	23.00	67.00	0.09 (0.39)	-0.78 (0.76)
	Preoccupied	41.40	8.54	26.00	59.00	0.03 (0.33)	-0.56 (0.64)
	Dismissing	40.64	10.53	21.00	64.00	0.27 (0.39)	-0.63 (0.77)
DAARL – Loss	Secure	25.06	7.96	15.00	41.00	0.37 (0.41)	-1.03 (0.81)
	Fearful	35.41	9.94	16.00	57.00	0.11 (0.39)	-0.46 (0.76)
	Preoccupied	31.48	9.17	19.00	55.00	0.76 (0.32)	0.03 (0.64)
	Dismissing	22.08	6.92	15.00	48.00	1.93 (0.39)	4.54 (0.77)
DAARL - Restoration	Secure	40.38	6.23	22.00	52.00	-0.56 (0.41)	1.10 (0.81)
	Fearful	36.24	8.49	17.00	53.00	-0.24 (0.39)	-0.48 (0.76)
	Preoccupied	37.96	6.53	25.00	56.00	0.58 (0.32)	0.56 (0.64)
	Dismissing	38.17	6.82	27.00	58.00	0.80 (0.39)	0.85 (0.77)
DAARL - Oscillation	Secure	15.31	10.70	-19.00	32.00	-0.84 (0.41)	2.10 (0.81)
	Fearful	0.84	16.01	-40.00	27.00	-0.43 (0.39)	-0.07 (0.76)
	Preoccupied	6.48	11.27	-26.00	25.00	-0.72 (0.32)	0.43 (0.64)
	Dismissing	16.08	10.78	-21.00	40.00	-0.88 (0.39)	3.35 (0.77)

N_{SAS} = 154 (32 Secure, 36 Fearful, 53 Preoccupied, and 33 Dismissing)

N_{SDS} = 157 (31 Secure, 37 Fearful, 53 Preoccupied, and 36 Dismissing)

N_{DAARL} = 159 (32 Secure, 37 Fearful, 54 Preoccupied, and 36 Dismissing)

Note. SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale; SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale; DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale; DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After

Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale; DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale

Table 6. Test of Normality of Distribution on Different Scales.

Scale	Mean	5% Trimmed Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Sig.
Total SAS	37.64	37.23	8.85	0.64	-0.07	.00
Total SDS	40.89	40.66	10.45	0.31	-0.52	.20
DAARL Loss	28.97	28.41	10.09	-0.68	-0.24	.00
DAARL Restoration	38.08	38.08	7.21	0.04	0.21	.20
DAARL Oscillation	9.11	9.77	13.82	-0.80	0.84	.00

N = 152

Note. SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale; SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale; DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale; DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale; DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale.

Note. Kolmogorov Smirnov Sig. Values > 0.05 suggests that a scale is normally distributed

Table 7. Test of Normality of Distribution on Different Scales After a Log 10 Transformation.

Scale	Kolmogorov Smirnov		
	Statistic	df	<i>P</i>
LG10 Total SAS	0.05	152	.01
LG10 Total SDS	0.09	152	.20
LG10 DAARL Loss	0.08	152	.01
LG10 DAARL Restoration	0.08	152	.01
LG10 DAARL Oscillation	0.17	152	.00

N = 152

Note. LG10 Total SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale Total Score with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 Total SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale Total Score with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale with a Log base 10 Transformation.

Note. Kolmogorov Smirnov Sig. Values > 0.05 suggests that a scale is normally distributed

Table 8. Test of Normality of Distribution on Different Scales After an Inverse Transformation.

Scale	Kolmogorov Smirnov		
	Statistic	df	<i>P</i>
INV Total SAS	0.06	152	.20
INV Total SDS	0.07	152	.20
INV DAARL Loss	0.08	152	.02
INV DAARL Restoration	0.10	152	.00
INV DAARL Oscillation	0.41	152	.00

N = 152

Note. INV Total SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale Total Score with an Inverse Transformation; INV Total SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale Total Score with an Inverse Transformation; INV DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale with an Inverse Transformation; INV DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale with an Inverse Transformation; INV DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale with an Inverse Transformation.

Note. Kolmogorov Smirnov Sig. Values > 0.05 suggests that a scale is normally distributed

Table 9. Test of Normality of Scales Based on Attachment Style.

Scale	Attachment Style	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	df	P
SAS – Total	Secure	.11	31	.20
	Fearful	.10	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.13	52	.03
	Dismissing	.15	33	.06
SDS – Total	Secure	.10	31	.20
	Fearful	.09	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.05	52	.20
	Dismissing	.12	33	.20
DAARL – Loss	Secure	.17	31	.02
	Fearful	.10	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.10	52	.20
	Dismissing	.18	33	.01
DAARL - Restoration	Secure	.09	31	.20
	Fearful	.15	36	.03
	Preoccupied	.12	52	.08
	Dismissing	.12	33	.20
DAARL - Oscillation	Secure	.10	31	.20
	Fearful	.07	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.11	52	.09
	Dismissing	.13	33	.14

N= 152 (31 Secure, 36 Fearful, 52 Preoccupied, 33 Dismissing)

Note. SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale; SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale; DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale; DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale; DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale

Note. Kolmogorov Smirnov *P* Values > 0.05 suggests that a scale is normally distributed

Table 10. Test of Normality of Scales Based on Attachment Style with a Log Base 10 Transformation.

Scale	Attachment Style	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	df	<i>P</i>
LG10 SAS – Total	Secure	.10	31	.20
	Fearful	.08	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.11	52	.18
	Dismissing	.13	33	.17
LG10 SDS – Total	Secure	.08	31	.20
	Fearful	.08	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.07	52	.20
	Dismissing	.10	33	.20
LG10 DAARL – Loss	Secure	.17	31	.02
	Fearful	.10	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.08	52	.20
	Dismissing	.16	33	.03
LG10 DAARL - Restoration	Secure	.10	31	.20
	Fearful	.17	36	.01
	Preoccupied	.10	52	.20
	Dismissing	.10	33	.20
LG10 DAARL - Oscillation	Secure	.15	31	.06
	Fearful	.22	36	.00
	Preoccupied	.13	52	.04
	Dismissing	.18	33	.01

N= 152 (31 Secure, 36 Fearful, 52 Preoccupied, 33 Dismissing)

Note. LG10 Total SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale Total Score with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 Total SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale Total Score with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale with a Log base 10 Transformation; LG10 DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale with a Log base 10 Transformation.

Note. Kolmogorov Smirnov *P* Values > 0.05 suggests that a scale is normally distributed

Table 11. Test of Normality of Scales Based on Attachment Style with an Inverse Transformation.

Scale	Attachment Style	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	Df	P
INV SAS – Total	Secure	.10	31	.20
	Fearful	.07	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.10	52	.20
	Dismissing	.11	33	.20
INV SDS – Total	Secure	.06	31	.20
	Fearful	.09	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.09	52	.20
	Dismissing	.10	33	.20
INV DAARL – Loss	Secure	.17	31	.03
	Fearful	.12	36	.20
	Preoccupied	.08	52	.20
	Dismissing	.16	33	.02
INV DAARL - Restoration	Secure	.12	31	.20
	Fearful	.19	36	.00
	Preoccupied	.08	52	.20
	Dismissing	.09	33	.20
INV DAARL - Oscillation	Secure	.24	31	.00
	Fearful	.43	36	.00
	Preoccupied	.20	52	.00
	Dismissing	.26	33	.00

N= 152 (31 Secure, 36 Fearful, 52 Preoccupied, 33 Dismissing)

Note. INV Total SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale Total Score with an Inverse Transformation; INV Total SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale Total Score with an Inverse Transformation; INV DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale with an Inverse Transformation; INV DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale with an Inverse Transformation; INV DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale with an Inverse Transformation.

Note. Kolmogorov Smirnov *P* Values > 0.05 suggests that a scale is normally distributed

Table 12. Test of Homogeneity of Variance for Different Scales.

Scale	Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	P
SAS Total	1.21	3	150	.31
SDS Total	1.45	3	153	.23
DAARL Loss	2.23	3	155	.09
DAARL Restoration	1.77	3	155	.15
DAARL Oscillation	3.34	3	155	.02

Note. SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale; SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale; DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale; DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale; DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale.

Note. Levene's Test *P* Values > 0.05 suggests homogeneity of variance for that particular scale

Table 13. Kruskal-Wallis Test of Differences between Attachment Types.

Scale	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.	Mean Rank			
				Secure	Fearful	Preoccupied	Dismissing
SAS Total	30.96	3	.000	104.08	114.58	152.72	62.54
SDS Total	13.91	3	.003	100.53	117.08	129.83	74.62
DAARL Loss	8.76	3	.033	96.47	125.86	116.78	83.77
DAARL Restoration	5.02	3	.170	99.68	98.92	125.17	84.42
DAARL Oscillation	11.94	3	.008	93.58	130.58	124.94	87.58

$N_{SAS} = 154$ (32 Secure, 36 Fearful, 53 Preoccupied, and 33 Dismissing)

$N_{SDS} = 157$ (31 Secure, 37 Fearful, 53 Preoccupied, and 36 Dismissing)

$N_{DAARL} = 159$ (32 Secure, 37 Fearful, 54 Preoccupied, and 36 Dismissing)

Note. SAS = Zung Self-Rating Anxiety Scale; SDS = Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale; DAARL Loss= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Loss Subscale; DAARL Restoration= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Restoration Subscale; DAARL Oscillation= Daily Activities After Relationship Loss, Oscillation Subscale

Table 14. Mann-Whitney U *Post Hoc* Analyses for SAS Based on Attachment Style.

Attachment Styles	Mean Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Secure Fearful	24.44 43.44	254.00	-3.960	0.000
Secure Preoccupied	35.41 47.58	605.00	-2.208	0.027
Secure Dismissing	29.13 36.76	404.00	-1.629	0.103
Fearful Preoccupied	54.79 38.35	601.50	-2.950	0.003
Fearful Dismissing	40.13 29.41	409.50	-2.218	0.027
Preoccupied Dismissing	43.50 43.50	874.50	0.000	1.000

$N_{SAS} = 154$ (32 Secure, 36 Fearful, 53 Preoccupied, and 33 Dismissing)

Note. Asymp Sig. < 0.008 is considered significant due to the use of a Bonferroni Correction

Table 15. Mann-Whitney U *Post Hoc* Analyses for SDS Based on Attachment Style.

Attachment Styles	Mean Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Secure Fearful	24.53 42.85	264.50	-3.807	0.000
Secure Preoccupied	31.90 47.58	493.00	-3.047	0.002
Secure Dismissing	28.40 38.82	384.50	-2.184	0.029
Fearful Preoccupied	51.64 41.22	753.50	-1.863	0.062
Fearful Dismissing	41.58 32.29	496.50	-1.872	0.061
Preoccupied Dismissing	46.11 43.36	895.00	-0.494	0.622

$N_{SDS} = 157$ (31 Secure, 37 Fearful, 53 Preoccupied, and 36 Dismissing)

Note. Asymp Sig. < 0.008 is considered significant due to the use of a Bonferroni Correction

Table 16. Mann-Whitney U *Post Hoc* Analyses for DAARL Loss Subscale Based on Attachment Style.

Attachment Styles	Mean Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Secure Fearful	24.45 44.12	254.50	-4.066	0.000
Secure Preoccupied	32.94 49.76	526.00	-3.023	0.046
Secure Dismissing	38.06 31.33	462.00	-1.404	0.160
Fearful Preoccupied	52.99 41.21	740.50	-2.090	0.037
Fearful Dismissing	50.54 23.08	165.00	-5.534	0.000
Preoccupied Dismissing	52.71 27.93	339.50	-5.215	0.000

$N_{\text{DAARL}} = 159$ (32 Secure, 37 Fearful, 54 Preoccupied, and 36 Dismissing)

Note. Asymp Sig. < 0.008 is considered significant due to the use of a Bonferroni Correction

Table 17. Mann-Whitney U *Post Hoc* Analyses for DAARL Oscillation Subscale Based on Attachment Style.

Attachment Styles	Mean Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Secure Fearful	45.06 26.30	270.00	-3.876	0.000
Secure Preoccupied	55.16 36.59	491.00	-3.335	0.001
Secure Dismissing	33.09 35.75	531.00	-0.554	0.580
Fearful Preoccupied	40.43 49.81	793.00	-1.665	0.096
Fearful Dismissing	27.04 47.24	297.50	-4.068	0.000
Preoccupied Dismissing	36.62 58.82	492.50	-3.953	0.000

$N_{DAARL} = 159$ (32 Secure, 37 Fearful, 54 Preoccupied, and 36 Dismissing)

Note. Asymp Sig. < 0.008 is considered significant due to the use of a Bonferroni Correction

Table 18. Frequencies of relationship duration ranges.

Relationship length	N	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 months 1 day to 3 months	18	11.3	11.3
3 months 1 day to 6 months	17	10.7	22.0
6 months 1 day to 9 months	15	9.4	31.4
9 months 1 day to 12 months	16	10.1	41.5
12 months 1 day to 15 months	9	5.7	47.2
15 months 1 day to 18 months	14	8.8	56.0
18 months 1 day to 21 months	3	1.9	57.9
21 months 1 day to 24 months	11	6.9	64.8
24 months 1 day to 27 months	4	2.5	67.3
27 months 1 day to 30 months	3	1.9	69.2
30 months 1 day to 33 months	2	1.2	70.4
33 months 1 day to 36 months	12	7.6	78.0
36 months 1 day to 39 months	2	1.2	79.2
39 months 1 day to 42 months	7	4.4	83.6
42 months 1 day to 45 months	2	1.3	84.9
45 months 1 day to 48 months	1	0.6	85.5
Over 48 months	23	14.5	100.0

N= 159

Figure 1. Two Dimensional Model of Differences Between Attachment Styles Based on Bartholomew's (1990) and Brennan, Clark, and Shaver's (1998) Models

		Model of Self (Anxiety)	
		Positive (Low)	Negative (High)
Model of Others (Avoidance)	Positive (Low)	<p>SECURE Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy</p>	<p>PREOCCUPIED Preoccupied with relationships</p>
	Negative (High)	<p>DISMISSING Dismissing of intimacy Counterdependent</p>	<p>FEARFUL Fearful of intimacy Socially avoidant</p>

Figure 2. The dual-process model of coping with bereavement. (Stroebe, Schut, & Stroebe, 2005, p. 51)



Figure 3. The dual-process model of coping with bereavement. Appraisal. (Stroebe, Schut, & Stroebe, 2005, p. 54)

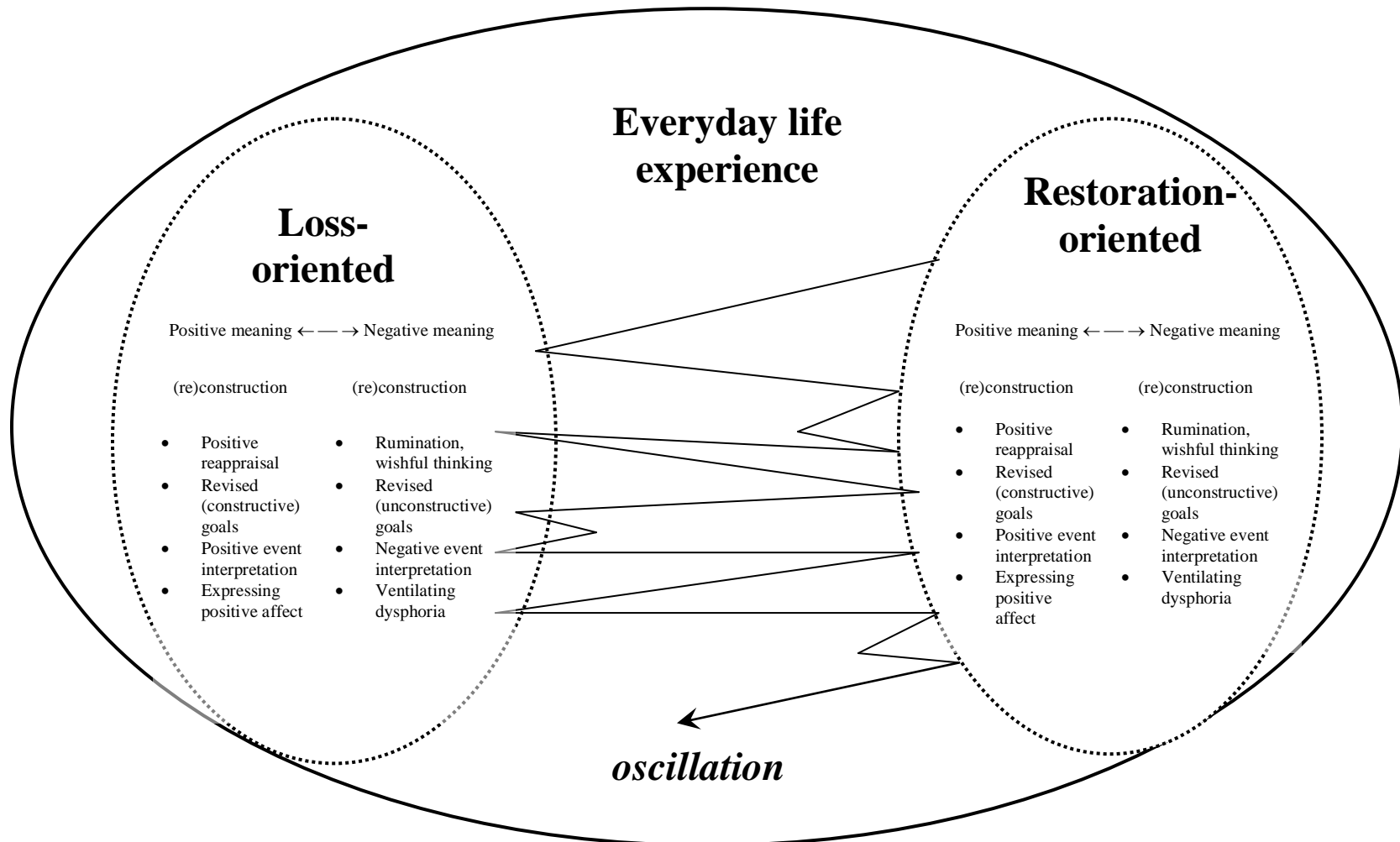
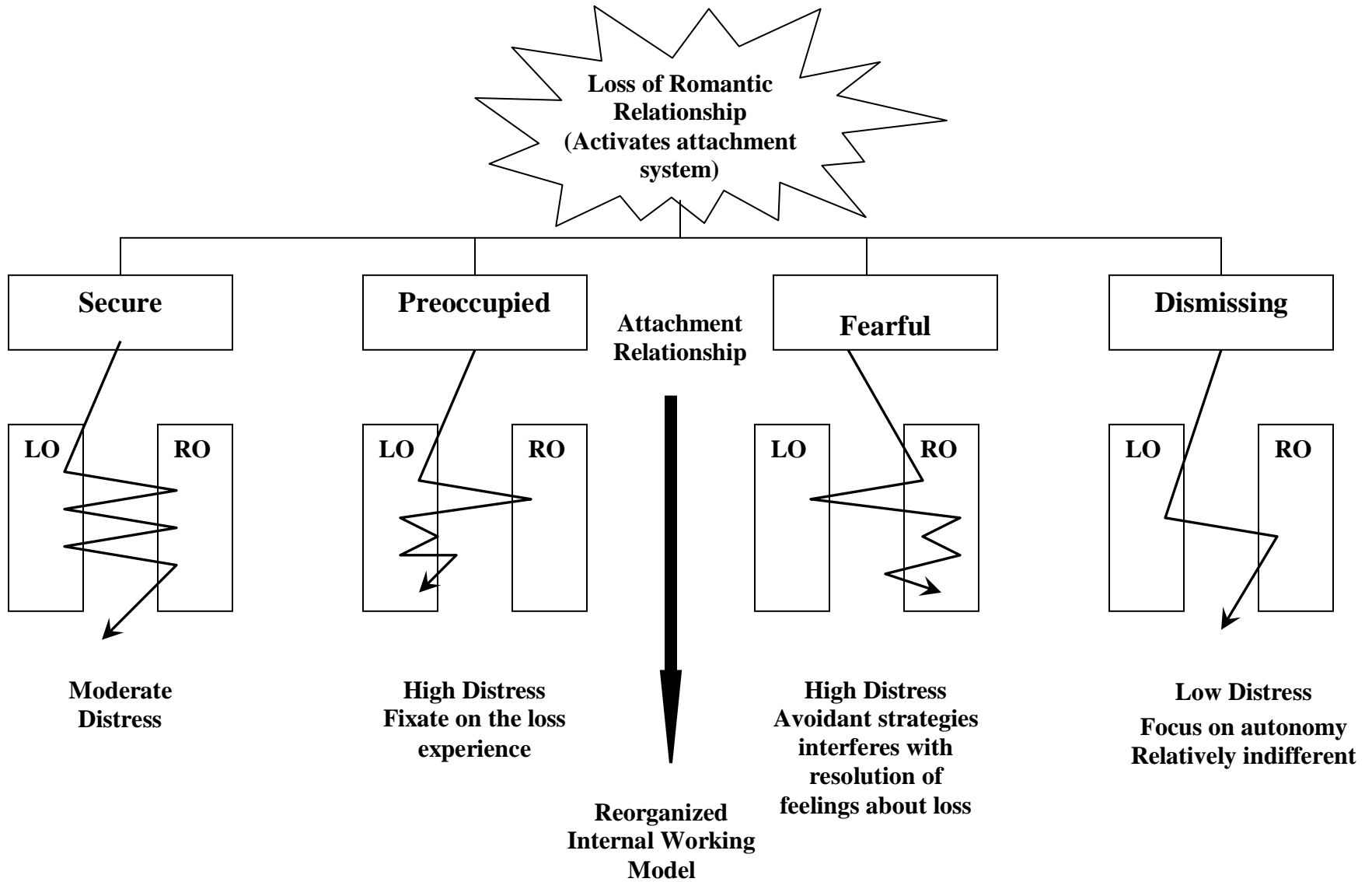
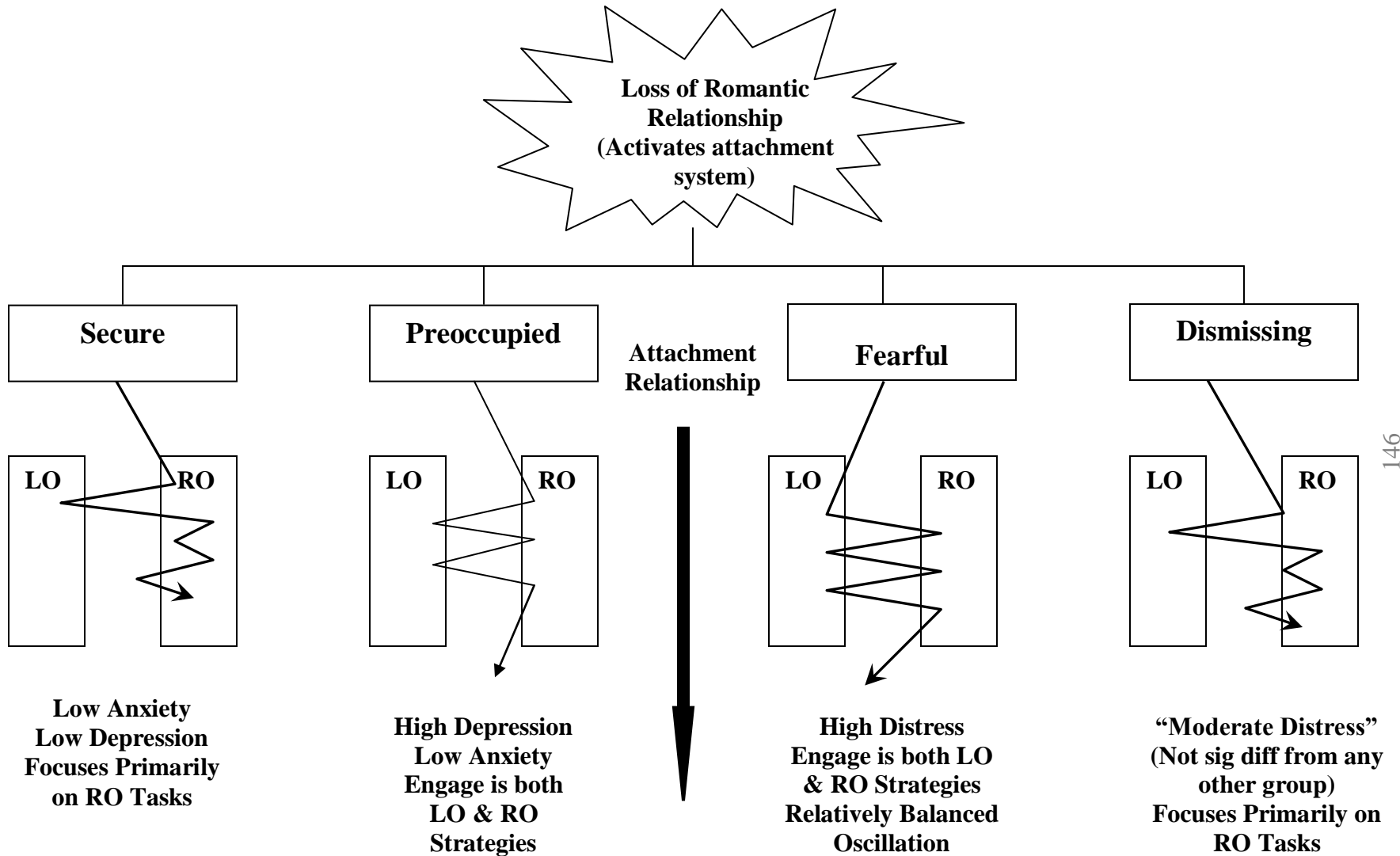


Figure 4. Proposed Model for Romantic Relationship Loss Outcomes Based on Attachment Style.



Note. LO = Loss-Orientated; RO = Restoration-Oriented.

Figure 5. Model for Romantic Relationship Loss Outcomes for Different Attachment Styles Based on Findings.



Note. LO = Loss-Orientated; RO = Restoration-Oriented.

Appendix A:
Information and Consent Form (Study 1 Part 1)

Investigator: Blake MacGowan, Graduate Student in Basic Behavioural Sciences Psychology
Supervisor: Dr. Brian Chartier, Associate Professor, STM College, 966-8948

Description: This study is being conducted as part of a Master's thesis. The study focuses on the development of a new measure for assessing coping behaviours following romantic relationship loss. Specifically, the study examines a number of proposed items describing activities individuals engage in following romantic relationship loss and if these activities describe loss-oriented, restoration-oriented, or neither.

If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaire will ask you to categorize proposed items into one of three categories: loss-oriented coping, restoration-oriented coping, or other. The information that you provide will be used to help develop a measure of activities following romantic loss. Due to the focus and potentially sensitive nature of the questions you may find some of the questions difficult to complete, so please feel free to contact myself or Dr. Brian Chartier to discuss any of your concerns. You can reach me at blake.macgowan@usask.ca; Dr. Brian Chartier can be contacted at 966-8948, e-mail: brian.chartier@usask.ca. Furthermore if you wish to withdraw you may do so at any point with no penalty and still gaining full remuneration for your participation.

The study will take approximately 15 minutes to complete and will earn participants \$10. In accordance with policy from Financial Services participants will be given a receipt to record participants and the amount paid for this transaction. Once completed you will be given a debriefing sheet, which further explains the nature and purpose of the study. Please read the debriefing sheet only after you have fully completed the question booklet.

The results of the study will be presented in an aggregate form to ensure your anonymity and confidentiality. You may also withdraw your data if you wish for it not to be included in the study. Your right to withdraw data from the study will apply until the data has been pooled at which point no identifying information will be linked to the data. After this it is possible that some form of research dissemination will have already occurred and it may not be possible to withdraw your data. Also, we ask that you return your question booklet without your name on it. Finally, any information you provide to us will be kept in a secure location for a period of five years following the completion of the study. The final results of the study may be published in journal articles or presented at conferences; however, at no point will individual participant information be released.

Due to the sensitive nature of this study it is possible that some items may cause discomfort or an emotional reaction. If you feel that you need someone to help you cope with feelings surrounding this topic, you may wish to contact one of the agencies listed below:

Saskatoon Mental Health and Addictions Services
715 Queen Street
655-8877

Saskatoon Family Services Bureau
443 2nd Avenue North
244-0127

If you have any questions concerning the research project, please feel free to ask at any point; you are also free to contact the researchers at the numbers provided if you have other questions. This research project has been approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board on [date to be determined]. Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to that committee through the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call collect.

Completion and return of the question booklet indicates that you:

- √ Understand the explanation of the study and that possible risks have sufficiently been explained to you.
- √ Are able to contact the individuals listed above should you have any questions or concerns at any time during the course of the study.
- √ Understand that you have the right to refuse to answer any specific questions.
- √ Consent to participate in the study.

Your experience and time is greatly appreciated!

Name of Participant

Date

Signature of Participant

Signature of researcher

Appendix B:
Information and Consent Form (Study 1 Part 2)

Investigator: Blake MacGowan, Graduate Student in Basic Behavioural Sciences Psychology
Supervisor: Dr. Brian Chartier, Associate Professor, STM College, 966-8948

Description: This study is being conducted as part of a Master's thesis. The study focuses on the development of a new measure for assessing coping behaviours following romantic relationship loss. Specifically, the study examines a number of proposed items describing activities individuals engage in following romantic relationship loss and if these activities describe loss-oriented, restoration-oriented, or neither.

If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaire will ask you to categorize proposed items into one of three categories: loss-oriented coping, restoration-oriented coping, or other. The information that you provide will be used to help develop a measure of activities following romantic loss. Due to the focus and potentially sensitive nature of the questions you may find some of the questions difficult to complete, so please feel free to contact myself or Dr. Brian Chartier to discuss any of your concerns. You can reach me at blake.macgowan@usask.ca; Dr. Brian Chartier can be contacted at 966-8948, e-mail: brian.chartier@usask.ca. Furthermore if you wish to withdraw you may do so at any point with no penalty and still gaining full remuneration for your participation.

The study will take approximately 15 minutes to complete and will earn participants 1 bonus mark towards their final introductory psychology grade. Once completed you will be given a debriefing sheet, which further explains the nature and purpose of the study. Please read the debriefing sheet only after you have fully completed the question booklet.

The results of the study will be presented in an aggregate form to ensure your anonymity and confidentiality. You may also withdraw your data if you wish for it not to be included in the study. Your right to withdraw data from the study will apply until the data has been pooled at which point no identifying information will be linked to the data. After this it is possible that some form of research dissemination will have already occurred and it may not be possible to withdraw your data. Also, we ask that you return your question booklet without your name on it. Finally, any information you provide to us will be kept in a secure location for a period of five years following the completion of the study. The final results of the study may be published in journal articles or presented at conferences; however, at no point will individual participant information be released.

Due to the sensitive nature of this study it is possible that some items may cause discomfort or an emotional reaction. If you feel that you need someone to help you cope with feelings surrounding this topic, you may wish to contact one of the agencies listed below:

Saskatoon Mental Health and Addictions Services
715 Queen Street
655-8877

Saskatoon Family Services Bureau
443 2nd Avenue North
244-0127

If you have any questions concerning the research project, please feel free to ask at any point; you are also free to contact the researchers at the numbers provided if you have other questions. This research project has been approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board on [date to be determined]. Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to that committee through the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call collect.

Completion and return of the question booklet indicates that you:

- √ Understand the explanation of the study and that possible risks have sufficiently been explained to you.
- √ Are able to contact the individuals listed above should you have any questions or concerns at any time during the course of the study.
- √ Understand that you have the right to refuse to answer any specific questions.
- √ Consent to participate in the study.

Your experience and time is greatly appreciated!

Name of Participant

Date

Signature of Participant

Signature of researcher

Appendix C:
Debriefing Letter (Study 1)

To Be Read Upon Completion of the Questionnaires

Thank you for your time and participation in this study. Your assistance and experience are greatly valued and appreciated. The study you have just completed examines whether or not several proposed items for a new measure of activities following romantic relationship loss are consistent with the constructs of loss-oriented and restoration-oriented coping. Loss-oriented and restoration-oriented coping have become important constructs in the bereavement literature and represent different ways of coping with loss. The development of this new measure is to help extend these constructs and findings to other forms of loss (e.g. romantic relationship loss).

This type of research represents a relatively new area and therefore, the information you have shared will assist in increasing our understanding of activities individuals engage in following romantic loss. If you have any questions, concerns, or would like to discuss the study, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Due to the sensitive nature of the questionnaires it is possible that some items may have caused discomfort or an emotional reaction. If you feel that you have become upset as a result of this study and need someone to help you cope with these feelings, you may wish to contact one of the agencies listed below:

Saskatoon Mental Health and Addictions Services
715 Queen Street
655-8877

Saskatoon Family Services Bureau
443 2nd Avenue North
244-0127

Once again, **thank you** for your participation.

Sincerely,

Blake MacGowan, B.Sc. Hons,
Masters Student, Basic Behavioural Science
blake.macgowan@usask.ca

Brian Chartier, Ph.D.
Associate Professor, Psychology
(306) 966-8948 or brian.chartier@usask.ca

Appendix D:
Letter of Invitation

To whom it may concern, my name is Blake MacGowan and I'm a Master's Student conducting research under the supervision of Dr. Brian Chartier. I'm looking for participants for my study to develop a new measure of activities following romantic relationship loss. The title of the study is *When a Relationship Ends: The role of attachment in romantic relationship loss*. If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaire will ask you to categorize proposed items into one of three categories: loss-oriented coping, restoration-oriented coping, or other. The information that you provide will be used to help develop a measure of activities following romantic loss.

Participation takes approximately 15 minutes and will earn participants \$10 in remuneration. I must stress though that while this does result in financial remuneration, participation in this study is strictly on a voluntary basis. Also should at any point during the study you choose to rescind your consent you may do so without any penalty. The study consists of categorizing potential items for the new measure, filling out a demographic questionnaire, and answering a few questions regarding your daily activities.

All graduate and senior undergraduate students in the social sciences are encouraged to participate. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Behavioural Research Ethics Board (REB). If there are any further questions with regards to the study please feel free to contact me (Blake MacGowan) at blake.macgowan@usask.ca or my supervisor (Dr. Brian Chartier) at brian.chartier@usask.ca . Thank you for your time.

Appendix E:
Recruitment Advertisement Study 1 (SONA Advertisement)

Description	<p>This study examines the feelings and behaviours that one may engage in that help him/her to adjust to the loss of their former romantic partner. If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to categorize potential items for a new measure and respond to a list of demographic questions. The questionnaires will ask you to categorize potential items for a new measure related to behaviours individuals engage in following a romantic loss. The information that you provide will be used to help further our understanding of behaviours related to coping with romantic loss and aide in the creation of a new measure.</p>
Eligibility Requirements	All students can participate in this study for credit. No restrictions are applied.
Duration	30 minutes
Timeslot Usage Limit	50 hours (approximately 100 signups)
Credits	1 Credits
Researcher	Blake MacGowan Email: blm153@mail.usask.ca
IRB Approval Code	BEH #11-344

Appendix F:
Information and Consent Form (Study 2)

Investigator: Blake MacGowan, Graduate Student in Basic Behavioural Sciences Psychology
Supervisor: Dr. Brian Chartier, Associate Professor, STM College, 966-8948

Description: This study is being conducted as part of a Master's thesis. The study focuses on the factors that may contribute to well-being and approaches to coping following the loss of a romantic relationship. Specifically, the study examines the feelings and behaviours that one may engage in that help him/her to adjust to the loss of their former romantic partner.

If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete questionnaires and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaires will assess emotional experiences, coping behaviours, and your relationship with your former romantic partner before the relationship ended. The information that you provide will be used to help further our understanding experiences and factors related to coping with romantic loss. Due to the focus and potentially sensitive nature of the questions you may find some of the questions difficult to complete, so please feel free to contact myself or Dr. Brian Chartier to discuss any of your concerns. You can reach me at blake.macgowan@usask.ca; Dr. Brian Chartier can be contacted at 966-8948, e-mail: brian.chartier@usask.ca

The study will take approximately 30 minutes to complete and will earn participants 1 bonus mark towards their final introductory psychology grade. Once completed you will find a debriefing sheet, which further explains the nature and purpose of the study. Please read the debriefing sheet only after you have fully completed the question booklet.

The results of the study will be presented in an aggregate form to ensure your anonymity and confidentiality. You may also withdraw your data if you wish for it not to be included in the study. Your right to withdraw data from the study will apply until the data has been pooled at which point no identifying information will be linked to the data. After this it is possible that some form of research dissemination will have already occurred and it may not be possible to withdraw your data. Also, we ask that you return your question booklet without your name on it. Finally, any information you provide to us will be kept in a secure location for a period of five years following the completion of the study. The final results of the study may be published in journal articles or presented at conferences; however, at no point will individual participant information be released

Due to the sensitive nature of this study it is possible that some items may cause discomfort or an emotional reaction. If you feel that you need someone to help you cope with feelings surrounding this topic, you may wish to contact one of the agencies listed below:

Saskatoon Mental Health and Addictions Services
715 Queen Street
655-8877

Saskatoon Family Services Bureau
443 2nd Avenue North
244-0127

If you have any questions concerning the research project, please feel free to ask at any point; you are also free to contact the researchers at the numbers provided if you have other questions. This research project has been approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board on [date to be determined]. Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to that committee through the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call collect.

Completion and return of the question booklet indicates that you:

- √ Understand the explanation of the study and that possible risks have sufficiently been explained to you.
- √ Are able to contact the individuals listed above should you have any questions or concerns at any time during the course of the study.
- √ Understand that you have the right to refuse to answer any specific questions or withdraw without penalty.
- √ Consent to participate in the study.

Your experience and time is greatly appreciated!

Name of Participant

Date

Signature of Participant

Signature of researcher

Appendix G:
Debriefing Letter (Study 2)

To Be Read Upon Completion of the Questionnaires

Thank you for your time and participation in this study. Your assistance and experience are greatly valued and appreciated. The study you have just completed examines the relationship between an individual's style of attachment and how he/she experiences the loss following the termination of a romantic relationship. The study examines whether one's style of attachment is related in part to the daily activities individuals engage in and their general psychological well-being in the face of romantic loss.

This type of research represents a relatively new area and therefore, the information you have shared will assist in increasing our understanding of how different people cope with the loss of a romantic relationship. If you have any questions, concerns, or would like to discuss the study, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Due to the sensitive nature of the questionnaires it is possible that some items may have caused discomfort or an emotional reaction. If you feel that you have become upset as a result of this study or if you have a desire/intention to hurt yourself or others and need someone to help you cope with these feelings, you may wish to contact one of the agencies listed below:

Saskatoon Mental Health and Addictions Services
715 Queen Street
655-8877

Saskatoon Family Services Bureau
443 2nd Avenue North
244-0127

Once again, **thank you** for your participation.

Sincerely,

Blake MacGowan, B.Sc. Hons,
Masters Student, Basic Behavioural Science
blake.macgowan@usask.ca

Brian Chartier, Ph.D.
Associate Professor, Psychology
(306) 966-8948 or brian.chartier@usask.ca

Appendix H:
Recruitment Advertisement

To whom it may concern, my name is Blake MacGowan and I'm a Master's Student conducting research under the supervision of Dr. Brian Chartier. I'm looking for participants for my study on attachment style and coping with romantic relationship loss. The title of the study is **When a Relationship Ends: The role of attachment in romantic relationship loss**. If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire packet and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaires will assess emotional experiences, coping behaviours, and your relationship with your former romantic partner before the relationship ended. The information that you provide will be used to help further our understanding experiences and factors related to coping with romantic loss.

Participation takes approximately 30 minutes and will earn participants 1 bonus mark towards their final introductory psychology grade. It is a great way to see what psychology research is like, help advance psychological understanding, and even boost your GPA early on in your educational career.

I must stress though that while this does result in a bonus point, participation in this study is strictly on a voluntary basis. Also should at any point during the study you choose to rescind your consent you may do so without any penalty. The study requires participants to answer several questions about their former romantic relationship, their daily activities, and the participants' experiences following the loss.

Any individual who has had a significant other end their romantic relationship in the past year are encouraged to participate. There are no participation restrictions on the basis of gender, age, or culture. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Behavioural Research Ethics Board (REB). If there are any further questions with regards to the study please feel free to contact me (Blake MacGowan) at blake.macgowan@usask.ca or my supervisor (Dr. Brian Chartier) at brian.chartier@usask.ca . Thank you for your time.

Appendix I:
Demographic Questionnaire (Study 1)

Instructions:

Please indicate the appropriate response to the following questions:

1. Your gender (check appropriate answer):
 male female
2. Please indicate your age in years: _____
3. How long was your romantic relationship: _____ year(s) _____ month(s)
4. How long has it been since relationship ended: _____ year(s) _____ month(s)
5. How long were you single following the loss of your relationship? _____ month(s)
6. Are you presently dating someone? Yes No

How long? _____
7. Are you currently interested in dating? Yes No
8. What is your race or ethnic background? (please check appropriate answer)
 German English Scottish Irish Ukrainian
 French Métis Cree Norwegian Polish
 Canadian Other (please specify): _____.

Appendix J:
Demographic Questionnaire (Study 2)

Instructions:

Please indicate the appropriate response to the following questions:

1. Your gender (check appropriate answer):
_____ male _____ female
2. Please indicate your age in years: _____
3. How old was your former romantic partner: _____
4. How long was your romantic relationship: _____ year(s) _____ month(s)
5. How long has it been since relationship ended: _____ year(s) _____ month(s)
6. Who ended your last romantic relationship: ___ I did ___ My Partner ___ Mutual
7. How long were you single following the loss of your relationship? _____ month(s)
8. Are you presently dating someone? Yes No

How long? _____
9. Are you currently interested in dating? Yes No
10. Have you received any professional counselling to help you work through your relationship loss (check one):

 No Yes How long? _____

From whom (check one):

 Therapist Social worker Nurse Psychologist

 Clergy Family Doctor Psychiatrist

 Other _____ (Please specify)
11. My relationship was (check one)

 Male/Female Female/Female Male/Male

Other _____ (Please specify)

12. What is your race or ethnic background? (please check appropriate answer)

_____ German _____ English _____ Scottish _____ Irish _____ Ukrainian

_____ French _____ Métis _____ Cree _____ Norwegian _____ Polish

_____ Canadian _____ Other (please specify): _____.

Appendix K:
Zung's Self-Rating Depression Scale (SDS; Zung, 1965)

Instructions:

Please read each statement and decide how much of the time the statement describes how you have been feeling during the past several days.

Make check mark in appropriate column	A little of the time	Some of the time	Good part of the time	Most of the time
1. I feel down-hearted and blue				
2. Morning is when I feel best				
3. I have crying spells or feel like it				
4. I have trouble sleeping at night				
5. I eat as much as I used to				
6. I still enjoy sex				
7. I noticed that I am losing weight				
8. I have trouble with constipation				
9. My heart beats faster than usual				
10. I get tired for no reason				
11. My mind is as clear as it used to be				
12. I find it easy to do the thing I used to do				
13. I am restless and can't keep still				
14. I feel hopeful about the future				
15. I am more irritable than usual				
16. I find it easy to make decisions				
17. I feel that I am useful and needed				
18. My life is pretty full				
19. I feel that others would be better off if I were dead				
20. I still enjoy the things I used to				

Scoring Key for the SDS

Make check mark in appropriate column	A little of the time	Some of the time	Good part of the time	Most of the time
1. I feel down-hearted and blue	1	2	3	4
2. Morning is when I feel best	4	3	2	1
3. I have crying spells or feel like it	1	2	3	4
4. I have trouble sleeping at night	1	2	3	4
5. I eat as much as I used to	4	3	2	1
6. I still enjoy sex	4	3	2	1
7. I noticed that I am losing weight	1	2	3	4
8. I have trouble with constipation	1	2	3	4
9. My heart beats faster than usual	1	2	3	4
10. I get tired for no reason	1	2	3	4
11. My mind is as clear as it used to be	4	3	2	1
12. I find it easy to do the thing I used to do	4	3	2	1
13. I am restless and can't keep still	1	2	3	4
14. I feel hopeful about the future	4	3	2	1
15. I am more irritable than usual	1	2	3	4
16. I find it easy to make decisions	4	3	2	1
17. I feel that I am useful and needed	4	3	2	1
18. My life is pretty full	4	3	2	1
19. I feel that others would be better off if I were dead	1	2	3	4
20. I still enjoy the things I used to	4	3	2	1

Total Score Categories for SDS

- 20-49 Normal Range
- 50-59 Mildly Depressed
- 60-69 Moderately Depressed
- 70 and above Severely Depressed

Appendix L:

Zung's Self-Rating Anxiety Scale (SAS; Zung, 1971)

Instructions:

For each item below, please place a check mark in the column which best describes how often you felt or behaved this way during the past several days.

Make check mark in appropriate column	A little of the time	Some of the time	Good part of the time	Most of the time
1. I feel more nervous and anxious than usual				
2. I feel afraid for no reason at all				
3. I get upset easily or feel panicky				
4. I feel like I'm falling apart and going to pieces				
5. I feel that everything is alright and nothing bad will happen				
6. My arms and legs shake and tremble				
7. I am bothered by headaches neck and back Pain				
8. I feel weak and get tired easily				
9. I feel calm and can sit still easily				
10. I can feel my heart beating fast				
11. I am bothered by dizzy spells				
12. I have fainting spells or feel like it				
13. I can breathe in and out easily				
14. I get feelings of numbness and tingling in my fingers and toes				
15. I am bothered by stomach aches or Indigestion				
16. I have to empty my bladder often				
17. My hands are usually dry and warm				
18. My face gets hot and blushes				
19. I fall asleep easily and get a good night's rest				
20. I have nightmares				

Scoring Key for the SAS

Make check mark in appropriate column	A little of the time	Some of the time	Good part of the time	Most of the time
1. I feel more nervous and anxious than usual	1	2	3	4
2. I feel afraid for no reason at all	1	2	3	4
3. I get upset easily or feel panicky	1	2	3	4
4. I feel like I'm falling apart and going to pieces	1	2	3	4
5. I feel that everything is alright and nothing bad will happen	4	3	2	1
6. My arms and legs shake and tremble	1	2	3	4
7. I am bothered by headaches neck and back Pain	1	2	3	4
8. I feel weak and get tired easily	1	2	3	4
9. I feel calm and can sit still easily	4	3	2	1
10. I can feel my heart beating fast	1	2	3	4
11. I am bothered by dizzy spells	1	2	3	4
12. I have fainting spells or feel like it	1	2	3	4
13. I can breathe in and out easily	4	3	2	1
14. I get feelings of numbness and tingling in my fingers and toes	1	2	3	4
15. I am bothered by stomach aches or Indigestion	1	2	3	4
16. I have to empty my bladder often	1	2	3	4
17. My hands are usually dry and warm	4	3	2	1
18. My face gets hot and blushes	1	2	3	4
19. I fall asleep easily and get a good night's rest	4	3	2	1
20. I have nightmares	1	2	3	4

Total Score Categories for SAS

- 20-44 Normal Range
- 45-59 Mild to Moderate Anxiety Levels
- 60-74 Marked to Severe Anxiety Levels
- 75-80 Extreme Anxiety Level

Appendix M:
Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998)

Instructions:

The following statements concern how you felt in your relationship with your former romantic partner. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Write the number in the space provided, using the following rating.

- | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|---|---------------------------|---|---|---------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Disagree
Strongly | | | Neutral/
Mixed | | | Agree
Strongly |
- ___ 1. I prefer not to show _____ how I feel deep down.
- ___ 2. I worry about being abandoned.
- ___ 3. I am very comfortable being close to _____.
- ___ 4. I worry a lot about my relationships.
- ___ 5. Just when _____ starts to get close to me I find myself pulling away.
- ___ 6. I worry that _____ won't care about me as much as I care about him/her.
- ___ 7. I get uncomfortable when _____ wants to be very close.
- ___ 8. I worry a fair amount about losing _____.
- ___ 9. I don't feel comfortable opening up to _____.
- ___ 10. I often wish that _____ 's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her.
- ___ 11. I want to get close to _____, but I keep pulling back.
- ___ 12. I often want to merge completely with _____, and this sometimes scares
him/her away.
- ___ 13. I am nervous when _____ gets too close to me.
- ___ 14. I worry about being alone.
- ___ 15. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with _____.
- ___ 16. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.
- ___ 17. I try to avoid getting too close to _____.
- ___ 18. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by _____.
- ___ 19. I find it relatively easy to get close to _____.
- ___ 20. Sometimes I feel that I force _____ to show more feeling, more
commitment.

- ___ 21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on _____.
- ___ 22. I do not often worry about being abandoned.
- ___ 23. I prefer not to be too close to _____.
- ___ 24. If I can't get _____ to show interest in me, I get upset or angry.
- ___ 25. I tell _____ just about everything.
- ___ 26. I find that _____ doesn't want to get as close as I would like.
- ___ 27. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with _____.
- ___ 28. When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel somewhat anxious and insecure.
- ___ 29. I feel comfortable depending on _____.
- ___ 30. I get frustrated when _____ is not around as much as I would like.
- ___ 31. I don't mind asking _____ for comfort, advice, or help.
- ___ 32. I get frustrated if _____ is not available when I need him/her.
- ___ 33. It helps to turn to _____ in times of need.
- ___ 34. When _____ disapproves of me, I feel really bad about myself.
- ___ 35. I turn to _____ for many things, including comfort and reassurance.
- ___ 36. I resent it when _____ spends time away from me.

Scoring:

- Reverse score items: 3, 15, 19, 22, 25, 27, 29, 31, 33, and 35. (1 →7, 2→6, 3→5, 5→3, 6→2, 7→1)

- Compute scores for avoidance and anxiety dimensions:

Compute avoidance = mean.14(1,3r,5,7,9,11,13,15r,17,19r,21,23,25r,27r,29r,31r,33r,35r).

Compute anxiety = mean.14(2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20,22r,24,26,28,30,32,34,36).

- Compute attachment-style categories from the classification coefficients based on Brennan, Clark, and Shaver's sample of 1082 participants.

Compute Sec = avoidance*3.2893296 + anxiety*5.4725318 – 11.5307833.

Compute Fear = avoidance*7.2371075 + anxiety*8.1776446 – 32.3553266.

Compute Pre = avoidance*3.9246754 + anxiety*9.7102446 – 28.4573220.

Compute Dis = avoidance*7.3654621 + anxiety*4.9392039 – 22.2281088.

If (sec>max(fear,pre,dis)) ATT = 1.

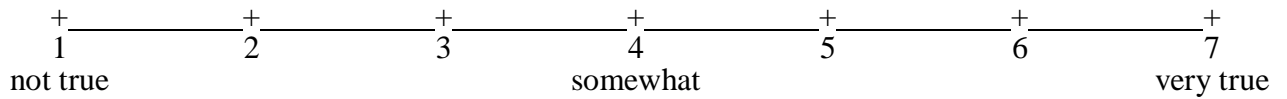
If (fear>max(sec,pre,dis)) ATT = 2.

If (pre>max(sec,fear,dis)) ATT = 3.

If (dis>max(sec,pre,fear)) ATT = 4.

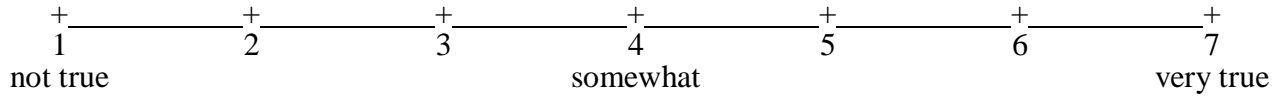
Appendix N: **BIDR Version 6 (Paulhus, 1991)**

Using the scale below as a guide, write a number beside each statement to indicate how true it is.



- ___ 1. My first impressions of people usually turn out to be right.
- ___ 2. It would be hard for me to break any of my bad habits.
- ___ 3. I don't care to know what other people really think of me.
- ___ 4. I have not always been honest with myself.
- ___ 5. I always know why I like things.
- ___ 6. When my emotions are aroused, it biases my thinking.
- ___ 7. Once I've made up my mind, other people can seldom change my opinion.
- ___ 8. I am not a safe driver when I exceed the speed limit.
- ___ 9. I am fully in control of my own fate.
- ___ 10. It's hard for me to shut off a disturbing thought.
- ___ 11. I never regret my decisions.
- ___ 12. I sometimes lose out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.
- ___ 13. The reason I vote is because my vote can make a difference.
- ___ 14. My parents were not always fair when they punished me.
- ___ 15. I am a completely rational person.
- ___ 16. I rarely appreciate criticism.
- ___ 17. I am very confident of my judgments
- ___ 18. I have sometimes doubted my ability as a lover.
- ___ 19. It's all right with me if some people happen to dislike me.
- ___ 20. I don't always know the reasons why I do the things I do.

Using the scale below as a guide, write a number beside each statement to indicate how true it is.



- ___ 21. I sometimes tell lies if I have to.
- ___ 22. I never cover up my mistakes.
- ___ 23. There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.
- ___ 24. I never swear.
- ___ 25. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
- ___ 26. I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.
- ___ 27. I have said something bad about a friend behind his/her back.
- ___ 28. When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.
- ___ 29. I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her.
- ___ 30. I always declare everything at customs.
- ___ 31. When I was young I sometimes stole things.
- ___ 32. I have never dropped litter on the street.
- ___ 33. I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit.
- ___ 34. I never read sexy books or magazines.
- ___ 35. I have done things that I don't tell other people about.
- ___ 36. I never take things that don't belong to me.
- ___ 37. I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick.
- ___ 38. I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it.
- ___ 39. I have some pretty awful habits.
- ___ 40. I don't gossip about other people's business.

Scoring key for BIDR Version 6

Self Deceptive Enhancement (SDE): Items 1 - 20

Reverse scored items: 2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20.

Impression Management (IM): Items 21 - 40

Reverse scored items: 21,23,25,27,29,31,33,35,37,39.

Dichotomous Scoring procedure

1. Reverse the Likert ratings for the items indicated above.
2. For each subscale, add one point for every '6' or '7'. (In the case of 5-point scales, add one point for every '5' on the SDE and one point for every '4' or '5' on the IM scale.)

For each subscale, the minimum score is 0; the maximum is 20.

Reliabilities: Typical alphas are .67-.77 (SDE) and .77-.85 (IM)

Norms: Means and standard deviations for 177 UBC undergraduates under two scale formats and two instructional sets.

	7-point scale		5-point scale	
	Males (182)	Females (251)	Males (122)	Females (248)
Respond Honestly				
SDE	7.5 (3.2)	6.8 (3.1)	2.3 (2.3)	2.1 (2.0)
IM	4.3 (3.1)	4.9 (3.2)	5.5 (3.5)	6.1 (3.6)
Play Up Your Good Points				
SDE	9.0 (3.9)	7.8 (3.9)	4.1 (3.6)	4.2 (3.6)
IM	10.5 (4.1)	10.9 (4.2)	11.8 (4.3)	12.5 (4.5)

Appendix O:
Inventory of Daily Widowed Life (Caserta & Lund, 2007)

Instructions:

Below is a list of activities, tasks, or issues that widows and widowers sometimes need to confront or do in their daily lives. For each item, please indicate how much time you have spent on it *during the past week*.

Activity	Rarely or not at all	Once in a while	Fairly often	Almost always
1. Thinking about how much I miss my _____.	1	2	3	4
2. Thinking about the circumstances or events associated with my _____'s death.	1	2	3	4
3. Yearning for my _____.	1	2	3	4
4. Looking at old photographs and other reminders of my _____.	1	2	3	4
5. Imagining how my _____ would react to my behaviour.	1	2	3	4
6. Imagining how my _____ would react to the way I handled tasks or problems I faced.	1	2	3	4
7. Crying or feeling sad about the death of my _____.	1	2	3	4
8. Being preoccupied with my situation.	1	2	3	4
9. Engaging in fond or happy memories about my _____.	1	2	3	4
10. Feeling a bond with my _____.	1	2	3	4
11. Feeling lonely.	1	2	3	4
12. Visiting or doing things with others.	1	2	3	4
13. Finding ways to keep busy or occupied.	1	2	3	4
14. Dealing with financial matters.	1	2	3	4
15. Engaging in leisure activities (hobbies, recreation, physical activity, etc.)	1	2	3	4
16. Attending to my own health-related needs.	1	2	3	4
17. Engaging in employment or volunteer work.	1	2	3	4
18. Watching TV, listening to music, listening to the radio, reading.	1	2	3	4
19. Attending to legal, insurance or property matters.	1	2	3	4

20. Attending to the maintenance of my household or automobile.	1	2	3	4
21. Focusing less on my grief.	1	2	3	4
22. Learning to do new things.	1	2	3	4

Scoring Instructions:

LO Subscale Score = Sum of items 1 through 11 (Possible range = 11[Low] to 44[High]).

RO Subscale Score = Sum of items 12 through 22 (Possible range = 11[Low] to 44[High]).

Oscillation Balance = RO score minus LO score (Possible range = -33 [Exclusively Loss-oriented] to +33 [Exclusively Restoration-oriented]). A score equal to zero (0) indicates perfect oscillation balance.

Appendix P:
Proposed Daily Activities After Romantic Loss (DAARL) Items Examined in Study 1

Loss-oriented

Talking about emotions surrounding the relationship with others
Thinking about my relationship
Contacting former romantic partner
Intentionally encountering former romantic partner
Imagining how my former romantic partner feels about me now
Imagining my former romantic partner's feelings to the relationship's end
Imagining re-entering a romantic relationship with my former partner
Spending time with mutual friends in the hope of encountering former romantic partner
Writing down feelings related to the loss
Attempting to get updates on former romantic partner
Think about things I could have done differently to make relationship successful
Regretting ending the relationship
Feeling distracted or unmotivated
Feeling like you lost the "one"
Trying to be close to your former romantic partner
Thinking about what your former romantic partner is doing
Re-reading e-mails, letters, cards, etc. from former romantic partner
Dealing with feelings of hopelessness and rejection
Actively seeking out reminders
Feeling angry about the loss
Brooding about ways to get back at my former romantic partner
Thinking about how much I miss my former romantic partner.
Thinking about the circumstances or events associated with my former relationship ending.
Yearning for my former romantic partner.
Looking at old photographs and other reminders of my former romantic partner.
Crying or feeling sad about the loss of my former romantic relationship.
Being preoccupied with the loss of my former romantic partner.
Engaging in fond or happy memories about my former romantic partner.
Feeling a bond with my former romantic partner.
Feeling lonely.

Restoration-oriented

Getting personal possessions back from former romantic partner
Spending less time talking about the relationship
Finding ways to share mutual friends without conflict
Reconnecting with friends
Spending time away on vacation
Going to social gatherings
Finding ways to spend additional free time
Thinking about other potential romantic partners

Reorganizing living space
Making time for yourself
Finding ways to co-exist in mutual spaces without conflict
Focussing on improving self-esteem
Exercise to wear off anger/frustration
Easing anger/frustration by being creative (e.g., writing poetry, painting, etc.)
Visiting or doing things with others.
Finding ways to keep busy or occupied.
Attending to my own health-related needs. (e.g. sleeping, eating)
Focusing on employment, studies or volunteer work.
Watching TV, listening to music, listening to the radio, reading.
Attending to the maintenance of my personal property.
Focusing less on my emotions.
Learning to do new things.

Other Items (Distracter Items)

Using alcohol or drugs more often
Removing reminders of the relationship
Actively seeking a new relationship
Demanding gifts be returned
Exercising
Avoiding mutual friends
Taking vacations or time off from work
Eating more than usual
Denying relationship ended
Turning to religion
Trying to seduce former romantic partner
Buying gifts for former romantic partner
Trying to show your former romantic partner that you care
Remembering problems in the relationship
Picturing myself hurting my former romantic partner*
Planning ways to get revenge on my former romantic partner*
Using self injury to ease the pain of the loss*
Thinking of things that could harm my former romantic partner*
Fantasizing about how to harm my former romantic partner*
Watching my partner without them knowing*

*Items removed before study began due to ethical concerns that such items might identify criminal or dangerous behaviour and thus would necessitate extensive procedures to deal with such a possibility.

Appendix Q:

Information and Consent Form (Study 2 General Public)

Investigator: Blake MacGowan, Graduate Student in Basic Behavioural Sciences Psychology
Supervisor: Dr. Brian Chartier, Associate Professor, STM College, 966-8948

Description: This study is being conducted as part of a Master's thesis. The study focuses on the factors that may contribute to well-being and approaches to coping following the loss of a romantic relationship. Specifically, the study examines the feelings and behaviours that one may engage in that help him/her to adjust to the loss of their former romantic partner.

If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete questionnaires and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaires will assess emotional experiences, coping behaviours, and your relationship with your former romantic partner before the relationship ended. The information that you provide will be used to help further our understanding experiences and factors related to coping with romantic loss. Due to the focus and potentially sensitive nature of the questions you may find some of the questions difficult to complete, so please feel free to contact myself or Dr. Brian Chartier to discuss any of your concerns. You can reach me at blake.macgowan@usask.ca; Dr. Brian Chartier can be contacted at 966-8948, e-mail: brian.chartier@usask.ca

The study will take approximately 30 minutes to complete and participants will be entered into a draw for an iPod Nano. Once completed you will find a debriefing sheet, which further explains the nature and purpose of the study. Please read the debriefing sheet only after you have fully completed the question booklet.

The results of the study will be presented in an aggregate form to ensure your anonymity and confidentiality. You may also withdraw your data if you wish for it not to be included in the study. Your right to withdraw data from the study will apply until the data has been pooled at which point no identifying information will be linked to the data. After this it is possible that some form of research dissemination will have already occurred and it may not be possible to withdraw your data. Also, we ask that you return your question booklet without your name on it. Finally, any information you provide to us will be kept in a secure location for a period of five years following the completion of the study. The final results of the study may be published in journal articles or presented at conferences; however, at no point will individual participant information be released

Due to the sensitive nature of this study it is possible that some items may cause discomfort or an emotional reaction. If you feel that you need someone to help you cope with feelings surrounding this topic, you may wish to contact one of the agencies listed below:

Saskatoon Mental Health and Addictions Services
715 Queen Street
655-8877

Saskatoon Family Services Bureau
443 2nd Avenue North
244-0127

If you have any questions concerning the research project, please feel free to ask at any point; you are also free to contact the researchers at the numbers provided if you have other questions. This research project has been approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board on February 29, 2012. Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to that committee through the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call collect.

Completion and return of the question booklet indicates that you:

- √ Understand the explanation of the study and that possible risks have sufficiently been explained to you.
- √ Are able to contact the individuals listed above should you have any questions or concerns at any time during the course of the study.
- √ Understand that you have the right to refuse to answer any specific questions or withdraw without penalty.
- √ Consent to participate in the study.

Your experience and time is greatly appreciated!

Name of Participant

Date

Signature of Participant

Signature of researcher



**Department of Psychology
University of Saskatchewan**

***PARTICIPANTS NEEDED FOR
RESEARCH IN COPING WITH
RELATIONSHIP LOSS***

We are looking for volunteers to take part in a study **who had a significant other end their romantic relationship in the past year.**

As a participant in this study, you would be asked to: **Fill out Anonymous questionnaires about your relationship, your daily activities, your thoughts and emotions, as well a short demographic questionnaire.**

Your participation would involve **ONE session**, which is approximately **30 minutes**.

In appreciation for your time, you will **be entered into a draw for an iPod Nano.**

For more information about this study, or to volunteer for this study, please contact:

Blake MacGowan
Department of Psychology, Master's student
at
Email: blake.macgowan@usask.ca

or

Dr. Brian Chartier
Department of Psychology, Associate Professor
at
Phone: 306-966-8948
Email: brian.chartier@usask.ca

This study has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics, University of Saskatchewan.

Appendix S:
Online recruitment advertisement

To whom it may concern, my name is Blake MacGowan and I'm a Master's Student from the University of Saskatchewan conducting research under the supervision of Dr. Brian Chartier. I'm looking for participants for my study on attachment style and coping with romantic relationship loss. The title of the study is When a Relationship Ends: The role of attachment in romantic relationship loss. If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire packet and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaires will assess emotional experiences, coping behaviours, and your relationship with your former romantic partner before the relationship ended. The information that you provide will be used to help further our understanding experiences and factors related to coping with romantic loss.

Participation takes approximately 30 minutes and will enter you into a draw for an iPod Nano. It is a great way to see what psychology research is like, help the advancement of research on relationships and potentially win an iPod Nano.

I must stress though that while this does result in being entered into a draw, participation in this study is strictly on a **voluntary basis**. Also should at any point during the study you choose to rescind your consent you may do so without any penalty. The study requires participants to answer several questions about their former romantic relationship, their daily activities, and the participants' experiences following the loss.

Any individual who has had a significant other end their romantic relationship in the past year are encouraged to participate. Participants must be 18 years of age or older. There are no participation restrictions on the basis of gender or culture. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Behavioural Research Ethics Board (REB). If there are any further questions with regards to the study please feel free to contact me (Blake MacGowan) at blake.macgowan@usask.ca or my supervisor (Dr. Brian Chartier) at brian.chartier@usask.ca.

If you wish to participate you may click the link below:
[link to study to be inserted here]

Thank you for your time!

Appendix T:
PAWS Portal Advertisement

My name is Blake and I'm a student from the U of S looking for participants for my study on romantic loss. If you participate in this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire focussing on emotions, coping, and your last relationship.

Participation is approximately 30 minutes and will enter you into a draw for an iPod Nano. Participation in this study is strictly on a **voluntary basis**.

Any individual who has had a significant other end their romantic relationship in the past year are encouraged to participate. Participants must be 18 years of age or older. If there are any questions about the study contact me at blake.macgowan@usask.ca or my supervisor at brian.chartier@usask.ca.

If you wish to participate you may click the link below:
[link to study inserted here]

Appendix U:
Star Phoenix Newspaper Classifieds & Social Media Advertisement

LOOKING FOR PARTICIPANTS FOR ROMANTIC LOSS STUDY. Participation takes 30 min and will enter you into a draw for an iPod Nano. **Any individual who has had a significant other end their romantic relationship in the past year are encouraged to participate.** If you wish to participate or for more information contact me at blake.macgowan@usask.ca

Appendix V:
E-mail advertisement to other institutions

Greetings,

My name is Blake MacGowan and I'm a Master's Student from the University of Saskatchewan conducting research under the supervision of Dr. Brian Chartier. We are currently conducting research on romantic loss and are trying to gather a diverse national sample. As such we are requesting that you please share an advertisement for our online study (found below) with your respective department. If you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me directly at blake.macgowan@usask.ca. This project received ethical approval from the Behavioural Research Ethics Board on February 29, 2012 (approval # BEH 11-344). Thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

My name is Blake MacGowan and I'm a Master's Student from the University of Saskatchewan conducting research under the supervision of Dr. Brian Chartier. I'm looking for participants for my study on attachment style and coping with romantic relationship loss. The title of the study is When a Relationship Ends: The role of attachment in romantic relationship loss. If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire packet and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaires will assess emotional experiences, coping behaviours, and your relationship with your former romantic partner before the relationship ended. The information that you provide will be used to help further our understanding experiences and factors related to coping with romantic loss.

Participation takes approximately 30 minutes and will enter you into a draw for an iPod Nano. It is a great way to see what psychology research is like, help the advancement of research on relationships and potentially win an iPod Nano.

I must stress though that while this does result in being entered into a draw, participation in this study is strictly on a **voluntary basis**. Also should at any point during the study you choose to rescind your consent you may do so without any penalty. The study requires participants to answer several questions about their former romantic relationship, their daily activities, and the participants' experiences following the loss.

Any individual who has had a significant other end their romantic relationship in the past year are encouraged to participate. Participants must be 18 years of age or older. There are no participation restrictions on the basis of gender or culture. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Behavioural Research Ethics Board (REB). If there are any further questions with regards to the study please feel free to contact me (Blake MacGowan) at blake.macgowan@usask.ca or my supervisor (Dr. Brian Chartier) at brian.chartier@usask.ca.

If you wish to participate you may click the link below:
[link to study inserted here]

Thank you for your time!

Appendix W:
Daily Activities After Romantic Loss (DAARL) Final Version

Instructions:

Below is a list of activities, tasks, or issues that individuals sometimes need to confront or do in their daily lives following the termination of a romantic relationship. For each item, please indicate how much time you have spent on it during the past week.

Activity	Rarely or not at all	Once in a while	Fairly often	Almost always
1. Contacting former romantic partner.	1	2	3	4
2. Attending to my own health-related needs. (e.g. sleeping, eating).	1	2	3	4
3. Thinking about the circumstances or events associated with my former relationship ending.	1	2	3	4
4. Feeling lonely.	1	2	3	4
5. Attempting to get updates on former romantic partner.	1	2	3	4
6. Learning to do new things	1	2	3	4
7. Focussing on improving self-esteem.	1	2	3	4
8. Focusing on employment, studies or volunteer work.	1	2	3	4
9. Being preoccupied with the loss of my former romantic partner.	1	2	3	4
10. Going to social gatherings.	1	2	3	4
11. Feeling angry about the loss.	1	2	3	4
12. Reconnecting with friends.	1	2	3	4
13. Re-reading e-mails, letters, cards, etc. From former romantic partner	1	2	3	4
14. Reorganizing living space.	1	2	3	4
15. Thinking about what your former romantic partner is doing	1	2	3	4
16. Making time for yourself	1	2	3	4
17. Finding ways to co-exist in mutual spaces without conflict.	1	2	3	4
18. Yearning for my former romantic partner.	1	2	3	4
19. Finding ways to share mutual friends without conflict.	1	2	3	4
20. Finding ways to spend additional free time.	1	2	3	4
21. Attending to the maintenance of my personal property.	1	2	3	4

22. Imagining my former romantic partner's feelings regarding the relationship's end.	1	2	3	4
23. Crying or feeling sad about the loss of my former romantic relationship.	1	2	3	4
24. Finding ways to keep busy or occupied.	1	2	3	4
25. Brooding about ways to get back at my former romantic partner.	1	2	3	4
26. Imagining re-entering a romantic relationship with my former partner	1	2	3	4
27. Visiting or doing things with others.	1	2	3	4
28. Feeling like you lost the "one."	1	2	3	4
29. Thinking about how much I miss my former romantic partner.	1	2	3	4
30. Easing anger/frustration by being creative (e.g., writing poetry, painting, etc.)	1	2	3	4

Scoring Instructions:

LO Subscale Score = Sum of items 1, 3, 4, 5, 9, 11, 13, 15, 18, 22, 23, 25, 26, 28, 29
(Possible range = 15[Low] to 60[High]).

RO Subscale Score = Sum of items 2, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 24, 27, 30
(Possible range = 15[Low] to 60[High]).

Oscillation Balance = RO score minus LO score (Possible range = -45 [Exclusively Loss-oriented] to +45 [Exclusively Restoration-oriented]). A score equal to zero (0) indicates perfect oscillation balance.

Appendix X:
Recruitment Advertisement Study 2 (SONA Advertisement)

Description	This study examines the feelings and behaviours that one may engage in that help him/her to adjust to the loss of their former romantic partner. If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to complete questionnaires and a list of demographic questions. The questionnaires will assess emotional experiences, coping behaviours, and your relationship with your former romantic partner before the relationship ended. The information that you provide will be used to help further our understanding experiences and factors related to coping with romantic loss.
Eligibility Requirements	For this study we are primarily interested in testing participants who had a partner end their previous romantic relationship within the past year. Others can participate for credit.
Duration	30 minutes
Timeslot Usage Limit	75 hours (approximately 150 signups)
Credits	1 Credits
Researcher	Blake MacGowan Email: blm153@mail.usask.ca
IRB Approval Code	BEH #11-344

Appendix Y:
Recruitment Methods by Study

Study 1 Part 1

Personal Invitation by Researcher
Letter of Invitation distributed via e-mail (See Appendix D)

Study 1 Part 2

SONA (Undergraduate Participant Pool) Recruitment Advertisement (See Appendix E)

Study 2

SONA (Undergraduate Participant Pool) Recruitment Advertisement (See Appendix X)
Online classifieds ads

- Kijiji
- Craigslist
- Yourclassifieds.ca
- And more

PAWS Portal Bulletin Board Advertisement (See Appendix T)
Newspaper Classifieds Advertisement (Star Phoenix; See Appendix U)

Recruitment Posters (See Appendix R)

- At hospitals
- Across University of Saskatchewan Campus
- In malls and stores
- On bulletin boards across the city
- At community centres
- Libraries

Advertisements on discussion forums (See Appendix S)

- Ehealthforums.com
- Loveadviceforum.com
- Psychlinks.ca
- And more

Advertisements on dating and relationship sites (See Appendix S)

- Connectingsingles.com
- Loveforum.net
- Relationship-forums.net
- And more

E-mails advertisements to academic institutions across Canada and the USA (See Appendix V)
Advertised via social media (e.g. Facebook; see Appendix U)