

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Which of the three types of closeness discussed in this chapter—(1) physical, (2) emotional, or (3) relational—do you think is most important within close relationships? Why? Also, how do you think these three types of closeness vary based on relationship type, such as relatives versus friends or lovers?
2. Do you agree or disagree with the principles guiding affection exchange theory? How might the theory explain patterns of affectionate communication in relationships between friends or adopted children and their parents?
3. If you want to give friends or loved ones effective social support, what should you say and do? What might you avoid saying or doing? Do you agree or disagree with the idea that invisible support is often more effective than visible support? Explain your reasoning.

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MAKING A LOVE CONNECTION Styles of Love and Attachment

Gabriela and Brian have been dating for several months. Although they care deeply for one another, problems have started to surface in their relationship. Brian wishes Gabriela would show him more affection. Every time they get really close, she seems to pull away. She also seems to put her career ahead of their relationship. Just last week, she cancelled their Saturday night date so she could spend extra time working on an advertising campaign. Sometimes Brian wonders if he cares more for Gabriela than she cares for him. Gabriela, in contrast, wants Brian to give her more space. She doesn't understand why he needs her to say "I love you" so often. Shouldn't he understand how she feels without her having to tell him all the time? After all, she always makes sure to fit some quality time with Brian into her busy schedule, and they do all sorts of activities together—golfing, skiing, and watching old movies. Sometimes Gabriela wonders if she can devote enough time to the relationship to satisfy Brian. Maybe she's just not ready for the level of commitment he wants.

Who do you relate to more—Gabriela or Brian? Gabriela is focused on her career. She expresses love by engaging in activity, and she values her autonomy. Brian, on the other hand, is more focused on the relationship. He expresses his feelings by saying "I love you" and showing affection. Are Gabriela and Brian's attitudes toward love fairly common? What other attitudes do people have about love? How do they know if they are really in love? Finally, can two people such as Gabriela and Brian—who have such different needs, priorities, and communication styles—be happy together?

The literature on love and attachment helps answer these questions.

In this chapter, we examine different styles of love and attachment. Before doing so, we define love and discuss two major perspectives on how people experience various types of love: (1) Sternberg's triangle of love and (2) Lee's love styles. Next, we discuss different ways that people communicate love. Finally, we discuss **attachment theory**. Attachment is an important part of various loving relationships, including relationships between family members, romantic partners, and close friends.

WHAT IS LOVE?

When love is shared, it is one of the most wonderful human experiences. When love is not returned, people feel rejected and miserable. Researchers have spent considerable energy investigating love. Some of this research has focused on answering basic questions, addressed in the upcoming sections, and including the following: Is loving a distinctly different experience than **liking**? How do people meet and fall in love? And are there different types of love?

LOVING VERSUS LIKING

Some researchers have tried to distinguish loving from liking. Rubin (1970, 1973, 1974) suggested that there are qualitative, rather than quantitative, differences between loving and liking. In other words, liking someone a lot does not necessarily translate into loving someone. Loving is more than an abundance of liking, and loving and liking are related but distinctly different concepts. People can, in some cases, love others without liking them very much. In general, however, individuals tend to like the people they love. For example, Rubin (1970, 1973) found that people *like* their close friends and dating partners about equally, but *love* their dating partners more than their friends. Romantic partners who are “in love” and plan to marry also report loving each other more than dating partners who do not have concrete plans for the future. Thus, romance and commitment appear to be important in many love relationships.

Liking and loving can be distinguished from each other by certain feelings and relationship characteristics (Davis & Roberts, 1985; Davis & Todd, 1982, 1985; Rubin, 1973). Some of the key characteristics defining liking are affection, respect, trust, feeling comfortable together, and enjoying each other's company. Love is a deeper and more intense bond than liking because it is characterized by stronger attachment, a level of caring that includes

making sacrifices for one another, and emotional and behavioral interdependence. **Passion** is also a key ingredient in some love relationships. Passion includes being fascinated by the loved one, feeling that the relationship is unique and exclusive, and experiencing strong sexual desire. Of course, love also occurs in nonromantic relationships such as those between parents and children or best friends. In these cases, the levels of attachment, caring, and interdependence are especially high.

Love as a Triangle

Sternberg's (1986, 1988) triangular theory of love also distinguishes between liking and different types of love. This theory includes three components related to love—(1) **intimacy**, (2) passion, and (3) commitment—pictured as sides of a triangle. According to Sternberg, liking occurs when a person experiences high levels of intimacy but relatively low levels of passion and commitment in a relationship. Love occurs when intimacy combines with passion or commitment. The most complete type of love, **consummate love**, is based on having high levels of all three components (see Box 8.1).

INTIMACY: THE “WARM” COMPONENT Intimacy is based on feelings of emotional connection and closeness and has therefore been called the “warm” part of love. Among the three sides of Sternberg's (1986) triangle, intimacy is seen as most foundational to both love and liking. Liking is defined by intimacy alone. When passion is combined with intimacy, people experience **romantic love**. This type of love often characterizes initial stages of dating relationships, when two people are sexually attracted to each other and feel an intimate connection but have not yet fully committed themselves to the relationship. When commitment is combined with intimacy, **friendship love** emerges. This type of love transcends relationship type (Fehr & Russell, 1991). In other words, love for family members and friends fits this description, as does love between romantic partners who have been together for a long

BOX 8.1 HIGHLIGHTS

SELECTED LOVE TRIANGLES

Types of Love	Intimacy	Passion	Commitment
Liking	+	-	-
Infatuation	-	+	-
Romantic love	+	+	-
Friendship love	+	-	+
Empty love	-	-	+
Consummate love	+	+	+

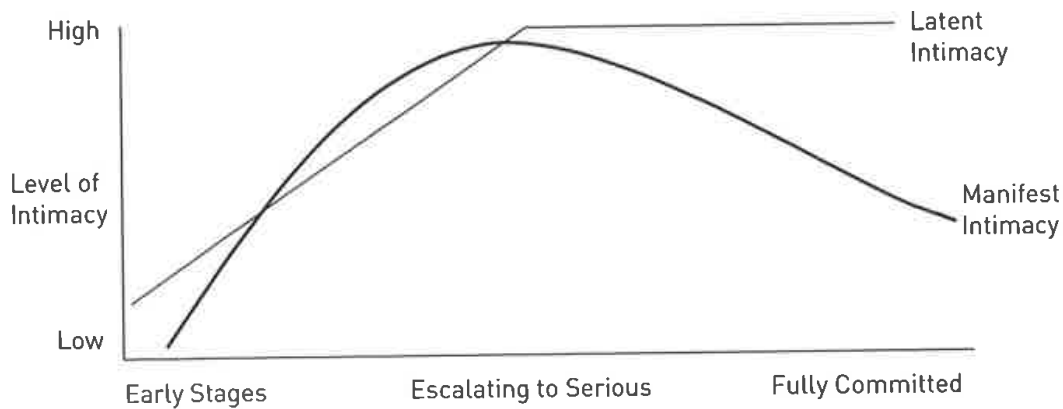
time or consider themselves to be best friends more than lovers. Many scholars consider these two types of love to be universal and to have existed throughout time (Berscheid, 2010). When these two types of love are experienced together so that a relationship contains high levels of intimacy, passion, and commitment, people achieve consummate love.

Sternberg theorized that intimacy is moderately stable over the course of a relationship. However, he made an important distinction between latent and manifest intimacy. **Latent intimacy** refers to internal feelings of closeness and interpersonal warmth, which are not directly observable by others. This type of intimacy is what we feel inside. **Manifest intimacy** refers to how people communicate affection and closeness to someone, such as disclosing intimate feelings to a partner or spending extra time together. According to Sternberg (1986), latent intimacy is likely to increase and then reach a plateau as a relationship develops. Once two people have reached a high level of latent intimacy, their level of psychological and emotional connection usually remains high unless the relationship starts to deteriorate. Manifest intimacy, by contrast, is likely to grow during the initial stages of a relationship, reach

its peak when people are in the process of moving the relationship from casual to serious, but then decline over time as people feel less of a need to show one another how they feel.

Research has shown some support for Sternberg's predictions. Acker and Davis (1992) found that couples felt more intimacy and closeness as their relationships became more serious; however, behavioral (or manifest) intimacy decreased as the relationship progressed. Guerrero and Andersen (1991) found a similar pattern for touch in public settings. Couples in serious dating relationships touched more than married couples, yet spouses felt just as close to each other as did daters. Emmers and Dindia (1995) found a similar pattern for private touch. Even though married couples used less touch to manifest intimacy, they still experienced very high levels of latent intimacy. Every couple is different, but Figure 8.1 shows the general pattern of latent and manifest intimacy over time. This pattern explains why couples who are escalating their relationships or have recently become "official" often show each other more affection through behaviors such as touch, flirting, and staying up all night and talking, than do couples who have been together for a while.

FIGURE 8.1 ■ Latent and Manifest Intimacy Over Time in Romantic Relationships



Established couples usually feel just as close as new couples, but they are past the honeymoon stage and feel less of a need to communicate intimacy overtly. This can be helpful for couples to know; as they become more committed, partners should expect a drop in manifest intimacy but understand that the level of latent intimacy is probably still high.

PASSION: THE “HOT” COMPONENT According to Sternberg (1986, 1988), passion is the “hot” component of love that consists of motivation and arousal. However, passion is not limited to sexual arousal. Friends can experience excitement through activities or by just being together. Passion also includes motivational needs for affiliation, control, and self-actualization. Thus, parents can feel a passionate love for their children that includes an intense desire for them to achieve success and happiness. In romantic relationships, however, passion is often experienced primarily as sexual attraction and arousal. When people have this type of passion without much intimacy or commitment, they are experiencing **infatuation**. Infatuated individuals idealize the objects of their affection and imagine that their lives would be wonderful if they could develop a relationship with that person. Some researchers also argue that infatuation is blind because people downplay dissimilarities and other potential problems when they are infatuated with someone (McClanahan,

Gold, Lenney, Ryckman, & Kulberg, 1990). Because infatuation is based on the “hot” component of the love triangle, it is not surprising that infatuated individuals often fall in and out of love quickly, as their passion heats up and then cools down.

Passion is also relatively unstable as relationships progress, with passion levels often fluctuating greatly during the course of a relationship. Passion and romance tend to be high during the initial stages of a relationship but then level off as the relationship becomes more predictable and less arousing (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986a; Sternberg, 1986). This is not to say that long-term romantic relationships are devoid of passion. As Sternberg (1986) suggested, highly committed couples are likely to cycle back and forth in terms of passion. A romantic weekend away or a candlelight dinner followed by stargazing in a hot tub can provide an important passionate spark to a long-term relationship. Sternberg’s point is that these types of events occur less often in developed relationships because it is hard to sustain a high level of passion all of the time. Acker and Davis (1992) found that people feel and desire less passion as they grow older, which suggests that passion may be more characteristic of young romances and the reproductive years than mature relationships. However, Acker and Davis also found that while women were more passionate in

new relationships compared to established relationships, men showed fairly high levels of passion regardless of whether the relationship was new or old.

COMMITMENT: THE “COOL” COMPONENT The third component of Sternberg’s (1986, 1988) love triangle is commitment/decision. This component refers to the decision to love someone and the commitment to maintain that love. Because commitment is based on cognition and decision making, Sternberg referred to it as the “cool” or “cold” component. Commitment is undoubtedly an important part of love for many people. In a study by Fehr (1988), college-aged students rated how closely various words or phrases, such as *affection* and *missing each other when apart*, relate to love. Of the 68 words and phrases Fehr listed, the word *trust* was rated as most central to love. *Commitment* ranked 8th overall, suggesting that it is also highly central to love. The other two components of the triangular theory of love were also important, although less central, with *intimacy* ranking 19th and *sexual passion* rating 40th. Fehr (1988) also had college-aged students rate words and phrases describing the concept of commitment. *Loyalty, responsibility, living up to one’s word, faithfulness, and trust* were the top five descriptors of commitment, suggesting that commitment involves being there for someone over the long haul.

Of the three components of the love triangle, commitment is most stable over time. In long-term relationships, commitment typically builds gradually and then stabilizes (Acker & Davis, 1992). Commitment also appears to play an important role in keeping a relationship satisfying and stable. In the Acker and Davis study, intimacy, passion, and commitment were all related positively to satisfaction, but commitment, followed by intimacy, were the strongest predictors of satisfaction. Hendrick, Hendrick, and Adler (1988) conducted a study to determine whether commitment, relational satisfaction, or investment of time and effort was the best predictor of relational stability. They found that commitment was the best predictor of whether dating couples would still be together two months later. Thus, commitment

is not only a part of most love relationships but also a stabilizing force within these relationships.

Yet commitment alone is not enough to keep a relationship happy. When individuals experience **empty love**, they have commitment but relatively low levels of intimacy and passion. Some long-term relationships fall into this category. For instance, if partners no longer feel attached to each other but stay together for religious reasons or because of the children, their love might be characterized as empty. In other cases, empty love characterizes the beginning of a relationship. For example, spouses in arranged marriages may begin their relationships with empty love. Intimacy and passion may, or may not, emerge later.

Finding Love and Falling in Love

Although arranged marriages are rare in Western cultures, they are still common in parts of Africa, Asia, and the Middle East (Barabyal, 2001). Worldwide, more than half of all marriages are arranged, and in India, almost 90% of marriages are (Harden, 2016). A small percentage of these marriages involve force rather than free choice, but most modern arranged marriages allow the prospective bride and groom to make the final decision regarding whether or not they will marry. Families and friends act as matchmakers or well-wishers who search for a suitable partner for their loved one. If the social network agrees, two people meet and courtship may ensue. Research has shown that couples in modern arranged marriages are, on average, as satisfied with their relationships as are couples in marriages based on personal choice (Myers, Madathil, & Tingle, 2005).

In some ways, modern arranged marriages are not that different from pre-20th-century relationships in the United States. Mongeau, Hale, Johnson, and Hillis (1993) noted that at the end of the 19th century, courtship involved men “calling” on women at their homes. The “call” often involved the woman inviting the man over for dinner or tea in the presence of her family. Around the beginning of the 20th century, dating started to replace calling. Dating involved two people going somewhere outside of the home together, often to have dinner out and go to a

concert, play, or social event. This shift from calling to dating also entailed a change in who initiated the get-acquainted process. With calling, a woman's family largely controlled the situation—they could invite the man over and decide what food and home entertainment they would provide. With dating, men usually controlled the situation—they asked the woman out, provided transportation, and paid for the date. This also marked a shift in how people met and fell in love; personal attraction started to outweigh family approval and practical concerns as reasons to explore having a romantic relationship with someone.

Much has changed from the beginning of the 20th century until now. Rosenfeld and Thomas (2012) conducted a study to determine how married couples in the United States met. They surveyed over 3,000 married individuals of different ages and backgrounds. Around 25% of married couples who met in 1940 reported that their family had facilitated their meeting. Families become less influential than friends throughout the rest of the 20th century, so that the percentage of couples who reported meeting through friends rose from 21% in 1940 to a high of around 40% in the 1980s and 1990s. Other ways of meeting one's spouse, such as in high school, through neighbors, or through one's church, have also declined, whereas meeting one's spouse in college has become more common. Between 1995 and 2005, the Internet was a fast-growing way of meeting. In fact, 22% of married couples who met in 2009 said that they got together through the Internet, making the Internet one of most common ways to meet one's spouse. The most frequently mentioned way to meet was still through friends (although this way of meeting had dropped to under 30% by 2009); the Internet and meeting at a public place such as a restaurant or bar tied for second place. The Internet was an even more common way for same-sex couples to meet; over 60% of same-sex couples who were interviewed in 2009 reported that they met online. (To learn more about the advantages and disadvantages of looking for love online, see Box 8.2.)

Of course, meeting and falling in love are two very different things. Most people meet a lot of potential partners but only fall in love with a few if that. Indeed, lasting romantic relationships are distinguished from other types of love relationships by the process of falling in love or being "in love." In one study, college students were asked to write the names of members of their social network under four categories: (1) friends, (2) people they love, (3) people they are in love with, and (4) people whom they feel sexual desire toward (Meyers & Berscheid, 1997). The students were told that they could place a person's name in more than one category. Most students only put one person in the "in love" category, and that person was also listed in the "friend" and "sexual desire" categories, which suggests that being in love is related to both intimacy and passion, as Sternberg (1986, 1988) predicted in his triangular theory of love.

So how do people fall in love? A study by Aron, Dutton, Aron, and Iverson (1989) attempted to answer this question by contrasting the experience of "falling in love" with the experience of "falling in friendship." In some ways, this distinction is similar to the differences between love and liking discussed earlier in this chapter. However, falling in love and being in love are distinctly different from loving someone; falling in love and being "in love" imply a romantic connection. Falling in friendship can involve liking or loving someone but not in a romantic way. Aron and his colleagues found that falling in love was facilitated most by reciprocal liking (self-disclosure and other actions that show feelings are mutual) and noticing the partner's desirable characteristics (such as a good personality and attractive appearance). Other studies have confirmed that reciprocal liking and desirable characteristics are central to the process of falling in love (Pines, 2001; Riela, Rodriguez, Aron, Xu, & Acevedo, 2010; Sprecher et al., 1994). Falling in friendship, on the other hand, is more strongly related to perceived similarity and being in proximity to one another (Aron et al., 1989).

BOX 8.2 TECH TALK**LOOKING FOR LOVE IN ONLINE PLACES**

Looking for love online is now commonplace, but does it actually improve your chances of finding love? Based on the research, the answer seems to be yes and no. A review of the research on online dating suggests looking for love online is different from traditional dating in three important ways: (1) level of access, (2) type of communication, and (3) degree of matching (Finkel, Eastwick, Karney, Reis, & Sprecher, 2012).

Access is an advantage in that you can meet people online who you would never otherwise meet. You can also meet people at times that are convenient for you rather than trying to coordinate schedules. You are no longer limited to meeting people who live near you or go to school with you. Physical proximity is unnecessary. However, access also means that you might be choosier, thinking that there is an unlimited supply of possible partners waiting to meet you out in cyberspace.

There are also advantages and disadvantages when it comes to communicating online. One big advantage is that you can gain information and reduce uncertainty about someone without investing the time to meet face to face. This can help you narrow the field. However, people do not always present themselves authentically on the Internet. People also tend to overinterpret social cues and see potential partners more positively when communicating online versus face to face. Both the ease with which people can misrepresent themselves and the overinterpretation

of social cues can lead people to be disappointed when they meet in person. Another issue is that online communication is missing some of the nonverbal elements that characterize face-to-face communication, including timing and feedback. Therefore, it can be hard to determine if you will “click” and be “in sync” with someone based only on online communication.

In terms of matching, you have probably seen commercials promising that their dating site will help you find your “perfect match” by connecting you to someone who is compatible with you in almost every way. Finkel and his colleagues (2012) cautioned, however, that the methods these companies use to match people are in-house and not verifiable by social scientists. They also note that people might expect to find their perfect soulmate by using these sites, which can lead to disappointment. Also, sometimes people match on paper but do not click in person.

So what does the research on online dating tell us so far? It seems that online dating is a pathway to love for some people, but like any other way of starting a relationship, it is successful in some cases but not others. The research suggests, however, that if you meet someone online and think that there is a possibility for a relationship to develop, it is important to get together in a face-to-face context sooner rather than later, so that unrealistic expectations don't develop.

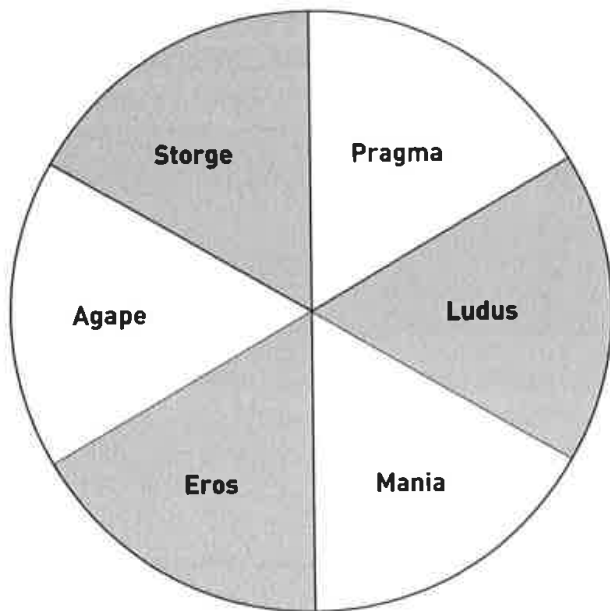
LOVE STYLES

When people fall in love, they can communicate their feelings in a variety of ways, including through self-disclosure, emotional responses, and time spent together. Two perspectives in particular describe different styles of loving. The first focuses on different **ideologies** that people hold about love. The second focuses on different styles of communicating love.

Lee's Love Styles

Lee (1973, 1977, 1988) argued that people have various ideologies when it comes to love. These ideologies can be thought of as collections of beliefs, values, and expectations about love. Lee also contended that there are three primary styles of loving, much as there are three primary colors. When mixing paint, the primary colors are red, blue, and yellow. Mixing these three colors can create any color in the rainbow. Lee

FIGURE 8.2 ■ Lee's Love Styles Represented as a Color Wheel



Note: The primary styles are shaded; the secondary styles are composed of the aspects of the two primary styles adjacent to them.

conceptualized styles of loving in a similar manner. He proposed that the primary love styles are **eros**, or romantic love; **storge**, or friendship love; and **ludus**, or game-playing love. Just as the primary colors can be blended to create a multitude of different hues, Lee theorized that elements of the three primary styles of love can combine to create a vast number of love styles. Of the many possible combinations, Lee suggested that three are the most common: (1) **mania**, or possessive love; (2) **agape**, or compassionate love; and (3) **pragma**, or practical love. Figure 8.2 depicts Lee's love styles as a color wheel.

Each style of love is defined by both positive and negative characteristics. The more strongly and exclusively a person identifies with a single style, the more likely the person is to experience some of the negative characteristics associated with that style. Most people, however, report identifying with a combination of styles—with one or two styles experienced most strongly. Box 8.3 gives a scale by which you can determine your own love style.

EROS: ROMANTIC LOVE Eros, which has also been termed romantic or **passionate love**, is rooted in feelings of affection, attraction, and sexual desire. It is also closely related to being “in love” and feeling secure in relationships (Galinha, Oishi, Pereira, Wirtz, & Esteves, 2014; Lee, 1988). Individuals with the eros style look for partners who are physically attractive and good lovers (Lee, 1988; Levine, Aune, & Park, 2006). They are eager to develop intense, passionate relationships and often experience intense emotional highs and lows. They also feel substantial arousal and desire physical contact. Because they possess strong feelings of attraction, eros lovers develop a sense of intimacy and connectedness relatively quickly. These individuals are “intense communicators” who show high levels of self-disclosure, are able to elicit similarly high levels of self-disclosure from their partners, and display high levels of touch and nonverbal affection (Taraban, Hendrick, & Hendrick, 1998, p. 346). They are also good at coping with stress, which contributes to feeling satisfied in their relationships (Vedes et al., 2016). When eros lovers want to intensify their relationships, they tend to use strategies such as increasing contact, giving tokens of affection (e.g., sending gifts or flowers), and changing their behavior to please their partner (Levine et al., 2006). Compared to other types of lovers, eros lovers also report a stronger desire to increase closeness with their partners (Goodboy & Booth-Butterfield, 2009). Romantic love is also related to engaging in everyday forms of routine communication, such as asking about each other's day or discussing current events or television shows (Tagawa & Yashida, 2006).

Eros is a central part of many love relationships. This type of love is common in the initial stages of romantic relationships. Eros love can also evolve into a more friendship-based and secure style of love as the relationship progresses (Hendrick et al., 1988). Some level of eros also keeps relationships exciting and passionate. However, too much eros can have negative effects. For example, if you are only interested in someone because of the person's beauty, the attraction may fade quickly. Also, some eros lovers have trouble

BOX 8.3 PUT YOURSELF TO THE TEST

WHAT IS YOUR LOVE STYLE?

To determine your dominant love style, rate yourself on each of these statements according to the following scale: 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree				
1. My partner and I were attracted to each other immediately when we first met.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. My partner and I have the right physical chemistry.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. The physical part of our relationship is intense and satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. My partner and I were meant for each other.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. My partner fits my ideal standards of physical attractiveness.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. I try to keep my partner a little uncertain about my commitment to her/him.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. I believe that what my partner doesn't know about me won't hurt her/him.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. I could get over my relationship with my partner pretty easily.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. When my partner gets too dependent on me, I back off.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. I enjoy playing the field.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. It is hard for me to say exactly when our friendship turned into love.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. To be genuine, our love first required caring.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. Our love is the best kind because it grew out of a close friendship.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. Our love is really a deep friendship, not a mysterious or mystical emotion.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. Our love relationship is satisfying because it developed from a good friendship.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. I considered what my partner was going to become in life before committing myself to her/him.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. I tried to plan my life carefully before choosing a partner.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. In choosing my partner, I believed it was best to find someone with a similar background.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19. An important factor in choosing my partner was whether she/he would be a good parent.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20. Before getting very involved with my partner, I tried to figure out how compatible our goals were.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

(Continued)

BOX 8.3 (Continued)

21. If my partner and I broke up, I don't know how I would cope.	1	2	3	4	5
22. It drives me crazy when my partner doesn't pay enough attention to me.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I'm so in love with my partner that I sometimes have trouble concentrating on anything else.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I cannot relax if I suspect that my partner is with someone else.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I wish I could spend every minute of every day with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I would rather suffer myself than let my partner suffer.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I am usually willing to sacrifice my own wishes to let my partner achieve her/his goals.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Whatever I own is my partner's to use as she/he pleases.	1	2	3	4	5
29. When my partner behaves badly, I still love her/him fully and unconditionally.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I would endure all things for the sake of my partner.	1	2	3	4	5

Add up the following items to get your score on each love style.

Eros: Items 1-5

Ludus: Items 6-10

Storge: Items 11-15

Pragma: Items 16-20

Mania: Items 21-25

Agape: Items 26-30

Higher scores mean that you possess more of a particular love style. The highest possible score for a given style is 25; the lowest possible score is 5.

Source: This is an abbreviated, modified version of Hendrick and Hendrick's (1990) love attitudes scale.

adjusting after the initial "hot" attraction begins to cool or after they discover that the partner, who seemed perfect at first, cannot possibly live up to their unrealistically high expectations. Still, research suggests that maintaining some degree of eros is beneficial in a relationship. Hendrick

and associates (1988) found that dating couples were more likely to stay together if the partners were high in eros and low in the ludic, game-playing style of love, which suggests that passion and commitment are both important in many love relationships.

STORGE: FRIENDSHIP LOVE This type of love, which is also called **companionate love**, is based on high levels of intimacy and commitment but comparatively low levels of passion (Sternberg, 1986, 1988). Grote and Frieze (1994) defined friendship love as “a comfortable, affectionate, trusting love for a likable partner, based on a deep sense of friendship and involving companionship and the enjoyment of common activities, mutual interests, shared laughter” (p. 275). Friendship love has been called the glue that keeps relationships together because it is thought to be enduring. People who identify with storgic love also report feeling good about themselves and their relationships (Galinha et al., 2014). However, Berscheid (2010) cautioned that storgic love is based on shows of similarity, reciprocal self-disclosure, shared activities, and mutual validation. If these activities wane, friendship love will also wane.

Storgic lovers have relationships based on affection, shared values and goals, and compatibility (Lee, 1988). Physical attraction is not as important as security, companionship, task sharing, and joint activity. Indeed, when asked what they find attractive in potential romantic partners, storgic individuals endorse personality characteristics, such as intelligence, understanding, a good personality, compassion, and communication skills rather than physical characteristics (Levine et al., 2006). Although these relationships are not very exciting, they are dependable and stable. Levine and colleagues found that people with a storgic style tended not to report using secret tests, which are indirect, sometimes sneaky ways of trying to find out information, such as asking third parties what they know, seeing if your partner gets jealous when you flirt with someone, or taking a break to find out if your partner will miss you (see Chapter 4 for more on secret tests). Presumably, storgic lovers do not need to use secret tests because their relationships tend to be secure with little uncertainty.

For storgic individuals, love often is framed as a partnership or a lifelong journey. Thus, it is important that the two individuals want the same

things—perhaps a home and family, or perhaps independence and the ability to travel together to exotic places. Like a person with an old pair of blue jeans, storgic lovers feel extremely comfortable with each other, and emotions tend to be positive but muted. Unlike some other love styles, storgic lovers do not experience many intense emotional highs or lows. Yet this type of love tends to last. Because storgic lovers trust each other and do not require high levels of emotional stimulation and arousal, they are able to withstand long separations. For example, military couples may be better able to withstand their time apart if they are storgic lovers. Although they are likely to be sad when parted from each other, their trust and relational security keeps them from being distressed. Other types of lovers (e.g., erotic, manic) feel much higher levels of distress because their relationships are fueled by physical attraction and the physical presence of the loved one. Of course, it is important to keep in mind that although trust and security can provide a safety net for a relationship, too much stability can lead to predictability and boredom. Thus, bringing excitement and emotion to the relationship is often the biggest challenge for storgic lovers.

LUDUS: GAME-PLAYING LOVE Ludic lovers see relationships as fun, playful, and casual; they view relationships as games to be played and are less committed and less securely attached to relationships than are people with other love styles (Galinha et al., 2014). They also have difficulty coping with stress in their relationships, presumably because they like to keep their relationships casual and fun (Vedes et al., 2016). Like eros lovers, they look for partners who are physically attractive and good lovers (Levine et al., 2006). The opening lines ludic lovers report using highlight the game-playing aspect of this love style. Specifically, Levine and associates found that ludus was associated with using cute or flippant opening lines when meeting people, such as saying, “Someone like you should be arrested for being too beautiful.” The lack of commitment that characterizes the

ludic style is also reflected in their communication; ludic lovers are less likely to report using increased contact, relationship talk, or bids for commitment (e.g., agreeing to have an exclusive relationship) than are people with other love styles (Levine et al., 2006), which makes sense since they also report desiring less closeness with their partners than do people with other love styles (Goodboy & Booth-Butterfield, 2009). When ludic lovers do want to intensify their relationships, their preferred strategies are to be more affectionate and sexually intimate. Compared to the other love styles, individuals with the ludic style are also the least likely to value communication skills related to emotional support and comfort within their relationships (Kunkel & Burleson, 2003).

Because they avoid commitment and prefer to play the field rather than settle down with one person (Lee, 1988), ludic lovers are also more likely to have on-again off-again relationships and to use certain types of secret tests. Levine and fellow researchers (2006) found that rather than using direct communication, ludic lovers reported trying to get information indirectly by asking third parties, checking for fidelity or jealousy, and increasing the costs in the relationship to see if the partner will still stick around. Ludic lovers also tend to use negative strategies to try to maintain their relationships, such as making the partner jealous or being unfaithful (Goodboy, Myers, & Members of Investigating Communication, 2010). People with the ludic style also share relatively little personal information with their partners and are slow to develop intimate relationships (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986). Some ludic lovers are self-sufficient individuals who put personal goals and activities ahead of their relationships, similar to how Gabriela was described at the beginning of this chapter. Many students and recent college graduates adopt the ludic style, especially if they feel they are not ready for a highly committed romantic relationship. Instead, they may feel that school or career takes precedence over relational involvements. When these individuals are ready and when they meet the right person, they are likely to move out of the ludic style and into a more committed style of loving.

MANIA: POSSESSIVE LOVE The manic style is a combination of eros and ludus, and therefore contains elements related to passion and game-playing. Manic lovers tend to be more demanding, dependent, possessive, and jealous than people with other love styles (Lee, 1973, 1988). They often feel a strong need to be in control and to know everything that the partner is doing. The classic song “Every Breath You Take,” written by Sting and recorded by his band, the Police, exemplifies the manic lover’s desire to monitor “every breath you take, every move you make, every bond you break.” Manic lovers feel high levels of physical attraction and passion for their partners (Hendrick et al., 1988). Perhaps surprisingly, manic lovers are not interested in finding partners who are intelligent or good lovers; instead, they want sensitive partners who understand their feelings (Levine et al., 2006). Finding a sensitive partner who can cope with the emotional highs and lows that manic lovers often experience may be advantageous. Manic lovers often want to spend every minute with the partner, and any perceived lack of interest or enthusiasm by the partner, or any physical separation, results in extreme emotional lows. By contrast, when the beloved person reciprocates affection, the manic lover experiences an emotional high. A sensitive partner may be equipped to cope with these reactions while satisfying the manic partner’s needs.

The emotional highs and lows associated with mania are also reflected in communication. Manic individuals report using a lot of communication aimed at intensifying the closeness within their relationships (Levine et al., 2006). They also report using secret tests relatively frequently, including triangle tests designed to make the partner jealous or see if the partner will be faithful, and endurance tests designed to see if the partner will stay with them even if they behave badly (Levine et al., 2006). In an effort to maintain their relationships, manic lovers also tend to use some negative behaviors, such as trying to make the partner feel jealous, spying on the partner, and engaging in destructive conflict designed to control the partner (Goodboy et al., 2010). Of course, not all manic lovers engage in these potentially destructive behaviors. Many people experience

a mild form of mania—they feel jealous when their partners flirt with an ex-boyfriend or ex-girlfriend; they find themselves constantly thinking about the partner; and their happiness seems to depend, at least in part, on having a relationship with the person they love. When these thoughts and feelings become extreme, a more negative form of mania emerges.

AGAPE: COMPASSIONATE LOVE Agapic revolves around caring, concern, and tenderness, and is more focused on giving than receiving (Lee, 1988; Sprecher & Fehr, 2005). People with this style cope with stress in a positive fashion that helps keep their relationships satisfying (Vedes et al., 2016). The agapic style contains elements of both eros and storge (Lee, 1973). An agapic lover has a deep, abiding, highly passionate love for a partner—although not only in a physical sense. The storge side of agapic love stresses the enduring and secure nature of the relationship, which helps explain why agapic individuals are able to love their partners unconditionally. These individuals look for partners with a host of positive personal characteristics, including a sense of humor, intelligence, understanding, compassion, caring, communication skills, and sensitivity (Levine et al., 2006).

Once in a relationship, agapic lovers are motivated by an intense concern for their partner's well-being. They are willing to make sacrifices for their partner, even at the expense of their own needs and desires. For example, an agapic husband might decide not to pursue having a large family (even though he really wants one) if his wife had a difficult first pregnancy. Agapic love is associated with prosocial behavior, with agapic (as well as manic) lovers reporting that they use the most communication designed to intensify their relationships (Levine et al., 2006). Unlike those with the manic style, however, agapic lovers tend not to use secret tests in their relationships. This pattern of communication reflects the intense, passionate part of agapic love that is related to eros, combined with the stable part of agapic love that is related to storge. Although this description might make agapic love seem ideal, there are some drawbacks to this style. Agapic lovers sometimes seem to be “above” everyone else. Their

partners often have trouble matching their high level of unconditional love, which can lead to feelings of discomfort and guilt. In addition, agapic lovers sometimes put their partners on too high of a pedestal, leading their partners to worry that they cannot live up to such an idealized image. Agapic love may also have an easier time flourishing in relationships that are considered fair and equitable (Berscheid, 2010). So if one partner is doing all the giving and the other is doing all the receiving, levels of agapic love may drop off.

PRAGMA: PRACTICAL LOVE The pragmatic style combines elements of both storge and ludus. As Lee (1988) explained, storge comes into play because pragmatic lovers are seeking a compatible partner. Undertones of the ludus style also are evident in many pragmatic lovers, who typically avoid emotional risk taking and commit to a relationship only after careful thought and considerable time. Pragmatic lovers search for a person who fits a particular image in terms of vital statistics, such as age, height, religion, and occupation, as well as preferred characteristics, such as being a loyal partner or having the potential to be a good parent. In Levine and colleagues' (2006) study, the pragma love style was also associated with looking for a partner who had money and was successful. Lee (1988) used a computer dating service metaphor to help describe the pragma style. If you went to a dating service, you might indicate that you are looking for a petite brunette who is Jewish, likes sports, and has a stable job. Or you might request a college-educated male who is older than you, has a good sense of humor, and loves children. In either case, you would have specified vital statistics that are most important to you.

Pragmatic lovers have a “common-sense, problem-solving approach to life and love” that is reflected in their communication style (Taraban et al., 1998, p. 346). For example, when meeting a potential partner, individuals with the pragma style tend to use direct opening lines, such as simply stating their name and introducing themselves (Levine et al., 2006). When they want to intensify a relationship, they are likely to engage in social enmeshment strategies, such as

getting to know their partner's friends and family. Such a strategy is practical because it gives people insight into how they would fit in the partner's social network if the relationship became serious. Pragmatic lovers' practical side is also reflected in their television viewing; they prefer watching the news over family dramas or movies with a love theme (Hetsroni, 2012). Practical lovers try to present a positive personal appearance when they want to escalate their relationships (Levine et al., 2006). As a way of obtaining additional information to help them decide if a partner is right for them, pragmatic lovers sometimes engage in secrets tests such as seeing if the partner gets jealous, spending time apart to see if they miss each other, and publicly presenting the partner to check for reactions (Levine et al., 2006). For example, a pragmatic lover might introduce her new love interest as "my really good friend" to see if he objects or wants to be called her "boyfriend." Practical lovers also use spying to get information and try to maintain their relationships (Goodboy et al., 2010). The practical nature of this style has benefits; people tend to match themselves up with those with whom they are compatible. But if love is based only on practical concerns, it can be lifeless and dull. Some level of intimacy and passion is required to put the spark into a relationship. For pragmatic lovers, intimacy and passion sometimes develop after realistic concerns have laid the foundation for the relationship.

DIFFERENCES DUE TO SEX AND CULTURE

Lee's original work, as well as subsequent research, suggests that the tendency to identify with the various love styles differs somewhat for men versus women. Studies have shown women from the United States and Portugal score higher than men on pragma (Bernardes, Mendes, Sarmiento, Silva, & Moreira, 1999; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), while men tend to score higher in ludus and agape (Bernardes et al., 1999; Kunkel & Burleson, 2003; Sprecher & Toro-Morn, 2002). The finding that women tend to be more pragmatic is in line with other research showing that women are rational lovers who are choosier about their partners. The finding that men tend to identify with ludus fits with

research showing that men are generally less committed to relationships than are women. Yet studies have also found that men generally fall in love faster than do women (Huston, Surra, Fitzgerald, & Cate, 1981; Kanin, Davidson, & Scheck, 1970) and that they usually say "I love you" first in heterosexual romantic relationships (Owen, 1987; Tolhuizen, 1989), which could help explain why some studies have shown men to be more agapic than women. Together these seemingly contradictory findings suggest that although men may hesitate to make a strong commitment, when they do fall in love, they do it more quickly and emotionally than do women.

As noted previously, some types of love tend to be experienced similarly across different cultures. For example, Jankowiak and Fischer (1992) tested the idea that romantic (or erotic) love is a product of Western culture. Contrary to this idea, they found romantic love to exist in 147 of the 166 cultures sampled. Based on these data, Jankowiak and Fischer suggested that romantic love is nearly universal. Friendship love also appears to cross cultural boundaries—many people from many different cultures around the globe embrace the warmth and security that storgic love offers. Other studies have shown that young adults from the United States, Russia, Japan (Sprecher et al., 1994) Portugal (Neto, 1994), and Israel (Hetsroni, 2012) are similar in terms of their love styles. There is also similarity in how love styles are related to satisfaction in relationships. Across various European cultures, agape and eros lovers tend to be satisfied in their relationships, whereas mania lovers tend to be dissatisfied (Rohmann, Führer, & Bierhoff, 2016).

There are some cultural differences in love styles, however. A study comparing people from France and the United States (Murstein, Merighi, & Vyse, 1991) found that the French were higher on agape whereas people from the United States scored higher on storge and mania. People from cultures that endorse arranged marriages believe more strongly in pragmatic love than do people from cultures where people marry for love alone. In arranged marriages, the parents, often with the community, match their children based on perceived compatibility and

an equitable exchange of resources, which makes practical love highly relevant. Research conducted in India, for example, has shown that people who believe in arranged marriages tend to value the conjugal love that emerges from a socially sanctioned and family-approved union more than they value romantic love (Gupta, 1976). Couples in arranged marriages also report a larger increase in love over time compared to nonarranged marriages (Gupta & Singh, 1982), which suggests that love can develop and grow in some relationships that begin purely on the basis of practical love.

In addition to being more prevalent in countries where arranged marriages are common, *pragma* is also a popular love style in China, where

people tend to endorse both pragmatic and agapic types of love more than people from the United States (Sprecher & Toro-Morn, 2002). Although many people in the United States do identify with the agapic love style (Levine et al., 2006), it is even more prevalent in Asian cultures where people focus on group harmony and cohesiveness rather than individual needs. People in the United States and East Asian countries may also emphasize different aspects of the agapic style; those from the United States value unconditional love and those from China, Japan, and South Korea value caregiving (Kline, Horton, & Zhang, 2008). There are also differences in how love is communicated across cultures, as discussed in Box 8.4.

BOX 8.4 AROUND THE WORLD

COMMUNICATING LOVE AMERICAN AND NON-AMERICAN STYLE

Love is a universal emotion, so it should be communicated the same way across different cultures, right? Well, not always. Research has shown that love is communicated both similarly and differently across cultures.

Similarity Across Cultures

Self-disclosure, social support, and shared experiences are related to love across cultures. One study showed that dating relationships characterized by either friendship or romantic love contain higher levels of self-disclosure than same-sex or cross-sex friendships for both U.S. and Japanese college students (Kito, 2005). Another study investigated how people in China, Japan, South Korea, and the United States communicate love to their friends and spouses (Kline et al., 2008). Across all these countries, people reported expressing love to friends by sharing common experiences, being supportive, and engaging in open discussion. With spouses, people also reported communicating love through physical intimacy and verbal statements, such as saying “I love you” and “I miss you.”

Differences Across Cultures

Certain verbal and nonverbal expressions of love may be valued more in some cultures than others. In individualistic cultures, such as the United States, where self-expression and individual feelings are valued, people are especially

likely to verbalize their love by saying “I love you” (Wilkins & Gareis, 2006). People from Latino cultures also appear to say “I love you” to their romantic partners, friends, and family more than do people from other non-U.S. cultures (Wilkins & Gareis, 2006), such as Germany (Gareis & Wilkins, 2011). In contrast, nonverbal expressions of love may be valued more in cultures where people pay especially close attention to subtle contextual cues, which is the case in many Asian and European countries. For example, Gareis and Wilkins (2011) found that over 80% of Germans believed that nonverbal expressions of love are more common than verbal expressions, compared to only 45% of people from the United States. Germans also noted that subtle cues, such as gaze, most often accompanied verbal expressions of love, whereas people from the United States mentioned hugs and kisses more often.

Culture may affect the activities people see as expressing love. Activities are valued differently across cultures. People in more developed countries have more leisure time whereas those in less developed countries may work together more often. One study demonstrated that there are subtle differences in the types of activities that people in the United States versus East Asian countries saw as expressing love in their marriages. For spouses from the United States, sports, food preparation, and shopping were key activities. For East Asians, talking and food preparation were most important.

Ways to Communicate Love

There is also individual variability in how people communicate love. For example, in addition to thinking about love differently, Gabriela and Brian vary in how they prefer to communicate love to each other. Researchers have worked to identify the various ways people communicate love. In one study, the top five ways were (1) saying “I love you” to one’s partner; (2) doing special things for one’s partner; (3) being supportive, understanding, and attentive; (4) touching one’s partner; and (5) simply being together (Marston, Hecht, & Robers, 1987). Of these, saying “I love you” was the most common response, with 75% of respondents mentioning it. The researchers also asked, “How does your partner communicate love to you?” The top five responses were similar to those listed previously. Saying “I love you” again emerged as the most common answer, with 70% of the participants identifying this strategy. The next most common responses were showing love through touch and sexual contact, being supportive, doing favors or giving gifts, and engaging in behaviors that show togetherness. Other less-frequently mentioned behaviors included communicating emotion, engaging in eye contact, and smiling. Together these findings show that love is communicated and received in a variety of ways but that verbally telling our partners we love them is a particularly important way of expressing love. This may explain why Brian wishes that Gabriela would tell him she loves him more often.

In his bestselling book, Chapman (1995) suggested that there are five **love languages** that represent preferred ways of communicating and receiving love. These five love languages revolve around (1) words of affirmation, (2) quality time, (3) gifts and tokens of affection, (4) acts of service, and (5) physical touch. As such, these languages include many of the behaviors found in the Marston et al. (1987) study mentioned above. Researchers have tested to see whether Chapman’s love languages represent a valid way of classifying different ways of

communicating love. These studies have generally confirmed that they do (Egbert & Polk, 2006; Polk & Egbert, 2013). In addition, Marston, Hecht, and their colleagues identified **love ways** that represent different styles of communicating and experiencing love (Hecht, Marston, & Larkey, 1994; Marston & Hecht, 1994; Marston, Hecht, Manke, McDaniel, & Reeder, 1998; Marston et al., 1987). Chapman’s five love languages are described next. These descriptions are augmented by related work from the research on love ways by Marston and Hecht.

1. ***The Language of Affirmation and Support:*** Communicating love through affirmation commonly includes being encouraging, supportive, and complimentary (Chapman, 1995). For example, Brian might send Gabriela a text that says “good luck” before she makes an important presentation, and Gabriela might respond with a smiling Snapchat that says, “Thanks, you’re the best” with a red heart. The work on love ways suggests that people who use this type of affirming communication tend to regard relationships as partnerships where people build one another up. Such partnerships increase energy and intensify emotion, which help maintain the relationship.
2. ***The Language of Time Together:*** For some people, spending time together participating in shared activities is an essential way to express love (Chapman, 1995). Marston et al. (1987) identified a similar love way that involves engaging in joint activities and feeling strong and self-confident. People who prefer communicating love this way are likely to engage in activities such as spending their free time together, having deep conversations, going places, and being alone as a couple. When couples are highly committed, they are also likely to communicate love this way by planning

future activities together, such as vacations or holidays with family (Marston et al., 1987).

3. ***The Language of Gifts and Tokens of Affection:*** This way of communicating love includes doing things such as bringing one's partner flowers or a surprise gift (even if there is no special occasion), creating and posting a collage of pictures on Instagram for an anniversary, and giving one's partner personal items to wear such as a ring or watch (Chapman, 1995). People who prefer this way of communicating love also tend to be well integrated into each other's social networks (Egbert & Polk, 2006), perhaps because both private and public demonstrations of togetherness and affection are important to them. They want their partner, as well as other people, to know how strong their bond is.
4. ***The Language of Physical Touch:*** Holding hands, cuddling, sitting close to one another, and engaging in sexual activities are just a few ways that people communicate love through physical contact. Marston et al.'s work on love ways suggests that when love is grounded in touch, it is also experienced through physical reactions such as feeling warm all over, getting nervous, and losing one's appetite. Although physical contact is considered to be a defining characteristic of most romantic relationships, Chapman (1995) suggests that for some people physical connection is the most important ingredient for maintaining relationships and keeping them satisfying.
5. ***The Language of Acts of Service:*** This love language involves helping with necessary tasks by doing things such as washing one's partner's car, helping with housework or homework, and running errands for one's partner. Egbert and Polk (2006) found that

people who preferred showing love through acts of service also reported that they share tasks and engage with their partner's social network as ways to maintain their relationships. Although some people see acts of service as a primary way of communicating love, others do not. This can cause misunderstanding. For example, Brian might wash Gabriela's car as a way to communicate love, but she might see washing the car as a routine chore rather than an act of love and therefore not appreciate his action as much as he expected.

Indeed, understanding each other's preferred way of communicating love may help partners maintain happy relationships. Chapman (1995) believes that most people favor one or two of the love languages, and that it is critical for people to recognize their partner's style so they can give them what they need. Other research suggests that people often value aspects of all or most of the love languages (Egbert & Polk, 2006). Regardless of whether people have one or more love language preferences, Marston and Hecht (1994) provide helpful advice for communicating love in ways that maximize relational satisfaction. First, they suggest that people recognize that their partner's preferred communication might be different from their own. For example, if Brian expresses love through physical touch and likes to hug and hold hands in public, he should not necessarily expect Gabriela to want the same. In fact, Gabriela might dislike showing affection in public and prefer to cuddle in private or to show her love through time together engaging in shared activities. Second, people should be careful not to overvalue particular elements of their own way of communicating loving. For example, since Gabriela prefers to express her love through time and activities, she might worry if she and Brian start to develop different sports interests or argue about which old movies to watch. If this happens, Gabriela should recognize that other aspects of

their relationship may still reflect their love for one another. Finally, people should avoid statements like, “If you really loved me, you’d give me more space” (as Gabriela might say) or, “If you really loved me, you’d tell me more often” (as Brian might say). Instead, Brian and Gabriela should focus on the various other ways that they express love for one another. Remember that any two people bring different ideologies and expectations about love to the relationship. The key may be to appreciate what each partner brings to the table, rather than wishing that the table was set in a different way.

ATTACHMENT THEORY

So far, we have shown that scholars classify love in many different ways. Lee’s six styles of love are based largely on ideology. Love languages are based on how people express love through verbal and nonverbal communication. Attachment theorists take yet another approach in studying love. According to attachment theorists such as Hazan and Shaver (1987), love is best conceptualized as a process of attachment, which includes forming a bond and becoming close to someone. Attachment theory takes a social-developmental approach, stressing how interactions with others affect people’s attachment style across the life span. Children first learn to develop attachments through communication with caregivers. As children grow, they develop a sense of independence that is rooted in security. Finally, security in adulthood is based on being self-sufficient when necessary, while also having the ability to provide care and support for another adult in a love relationship that functions as a partnership (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

Communication plays a central role in attachment theory (Guerrero, 2014a). Communication is one of the key causes of attachment style. People’s communication with others leads them to think about themselves and others in ways that lead them to develop particular attachment styles.

Communication is also a result of one’s attachment style. As discussed later in this chapter, people with different attachment styles vary along a wide array of communication variables, including self-disclosure, emotional expression, caregiving, conflict behavior, and nonverbal behavior just to name a few. People also report different levels of relational satisfaction depending on their attachment style and the attachment style of their partner. Some research suggests that communication plays an important role here, too. Partners with certain attachment styles may be happier in their relationships because they are better communicators.

The Propensity for Forming Attachments

Originally, attachment theory was studied within the context of child-caregiver relationships (Ainsworth, 1969; Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Ainsworth & Wittig, 1969; Bowlby, 1969, 1973, 1980). Later, researchers extended the theory to adult romantic relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Although parent–child and romantic relationships have received the most attention, attachment theory applies to all types of close relationship, including friendships and sibling relationships. Because people usually want to be part of a social group and to be loved and cared for by others, attachment theorists believe that people have a natural tendency to try to develop close relational bonds with others throughout the life span.

In childhood, the need to develop attachments is an innate and necessary part of human development (Ainsworth, 1991). According to Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980), attachment is an essential component within a larger system that functions to keep children in close proximity to caregivers, which protects children from danger and provides them with a **secure base** from which to explore their world. For example, toddlers may feel free to try the slides and swings at the playground if they know that a caregiver is close by to act as a secure

base if they get hurt or need help. Similar to the way soldiers return to a military base to get supplies or reinforcements, children use their caregivers as secure bases that allow them to feel comfortable exploring their surroundings. Exploration of the environment eventually leads to self-confidence and autonomy. Thus, one goal of the attachment system is to give children a sense of both security and independence. Another goal is to help children develop a healthy capacity for intimacy.

In adulthood, attachment influences the type of relationship a person desires. For example, some people (like Gabriela) might want a relationship that is emotionally reserved, while others (like Brian) might desire a relationship that is emotionally charged. Bowlby (1977) and Ainsworth (1989, 1991), who pioneered research on child-caregiver attachments, both believed that attachment typifies intimate adult relationships, with Bowlby (1977) arguing that attachment is characteristic of all individuals from the cradle to the grave. The type of attachment individuals form depends on their cognitive conceptions of themselves and others. These cognitions, or **internal working models**, influence orientations toward love, intimacy, and interpersonal interaction in adult relationships.

Internal Working Models and Attachment Styles

According to attachment theorists, people have different styles of attachment depending on how they perceive themselves and others. These perceptions, which are called internal working models, are cognitive representations of oneself and potential partners that reflect an individual's past experiences in close relationships and help an individual understand the world (Bowlby, 1973; Bretherton, 1988; Collins & Read, 1994). Models of both self and others fall along a positive-negative continuum. A positive self-model is "an internalized sense of self-worth that is not dependent on ongoing external validation"

(Bartholomew, 1993, p. 40). Thus, individuals who hold positive self-models view themselves as self-sufficient, secure, and lovable. Those holding negative self-models see themselves as dependent, insecure, and unworthy of love and affection. Positive models of others reflect expectations about how supportive, receptive, and accepting people are, as well as how rewarding it is to be in an intimate relationship. Individuals with positive models of others see relationships as worthwhile and possess *approach* orientations toward intimacy. Individuals with negative working models of others see relationships as relatively unrewarding and possess *avoidant* orientations toward intimacy.

Depending on individuals' configurations of internal working models—that is, the "mix" of how positive or negative their models of self and others are—they develop different attachment styles. An attachment style is a social interaction style that is consistent with the type and quality of relationship one wishes to share with others, based on working models of self and others (Bartholomew, 1990). Attachment styles include one's own communication style, the way one processes and interprets others' behavior, and the way one reacts to others' behavior (Guerrero & Burgoon, 1996). Attachment styles are also associated with "relatively coherent and stable patterns of emotion and behavior [that] are exhibited in close relationships" (Shaver, Collins, & Clark, 1996, p. 25).

Attachment Styles in Childhood

Early communication with primary caregivers shapes children's internal models of themselves and others and sets the stage for later attachments (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1977). Although new interactions with significant others continue to modify the way people see themselves and relational partners, the first two to three years of life (and especially the first year) are critical in developing these internal models. By the time a baby is about 6 weeks old, the infant already shows a

preference for the primary caregiver—usually the mother. For example, if a 2-month-old baby is crying, she might be best comforted by her mother. At around 14 to 20 months old, toddlers are usually attached to their mothers and feel separation anxiety when they leave. At this time, babysitters may have trouble with their charges, who often become distressed when they realize their mother who functions as their secure base is not around. Some of our students have reported experiences like this, where a niece or nephew who used to be fine when alone with them suddenly seems nervous and starts crying or looking around for her or his mom.

Most children emerge from the first two years of life with secure, healthy attachments to caregivers (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969). If this is the case, they have developed positive models of both themselves and others. Not all children are so lucky. About 30% of children develop insecure attachment styles because they have negative models of themselves or others. Bowlby's original work showed that children who were raised in institutions and deprived of their mother's care for extended periods of time were more likely to develop insecure attachments (Bowlby, 1969, 1973). Ainsworth and her colleagues later demonstrated that the type of care children receive at home influences their attachment style (Ainsworth, 1969, 1982, 1989; Ainsworth & Eichberg, 1991; Ainsworth et al., 1978; Ainsworth & Wittig, 1969). They delineated three types of infant attachment: (1) secure, (2) avoidant, and (3) anxious ambivalent.

SECURE CHILDREN The majority of children fall into the secure category. Secure children tend to have responsive and warm parents, to receive moderate levels of stimulation, and to engage in synchronized interaction with their caregivers. The fit between the caregiver and the child is crucial. Caregivers may need to adjust their style of communication to accommodate the child. Thus, one child may need a lot of cuddling and reassurance while another may prefer to be left alone. This helps



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Although mothers are often considered to be the primary caregiver, the way fathers communicate affection also has profound effects on a child's attachment style.

explain why children from the same family environment may develop different attachment styles. Children who develop secure attachments to a caregiver are more likely to feel free to explore, approach others, and be positive toward strangers than are insecure types. Secure children are also likely to protest separation and then to show happiness when reunited with their caregivers. These children tend to develop positive models of self and others.

AVOIDANT CHILDREN Some insecure children develop an **avoidant attachment style** (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Avoidant children tend to have caregivers who are either insensitive to their signals or try too hard to please. In addition, avoidant children are often either over- or understimulated, which leads to physiological arousal and a flight response. When overstimulated, they retreat from social interaction to avoid being overloaded. When understimulated, they learn how to cope without social interaction. Because their caregivers are not able to fulfill their needs, they develop negative models of others. These children stay within themselves, seldom explore their environment, and are rarely positive toward strangers. They tend not to protest separation from caregivers and show little emotion when the caregiver returns.

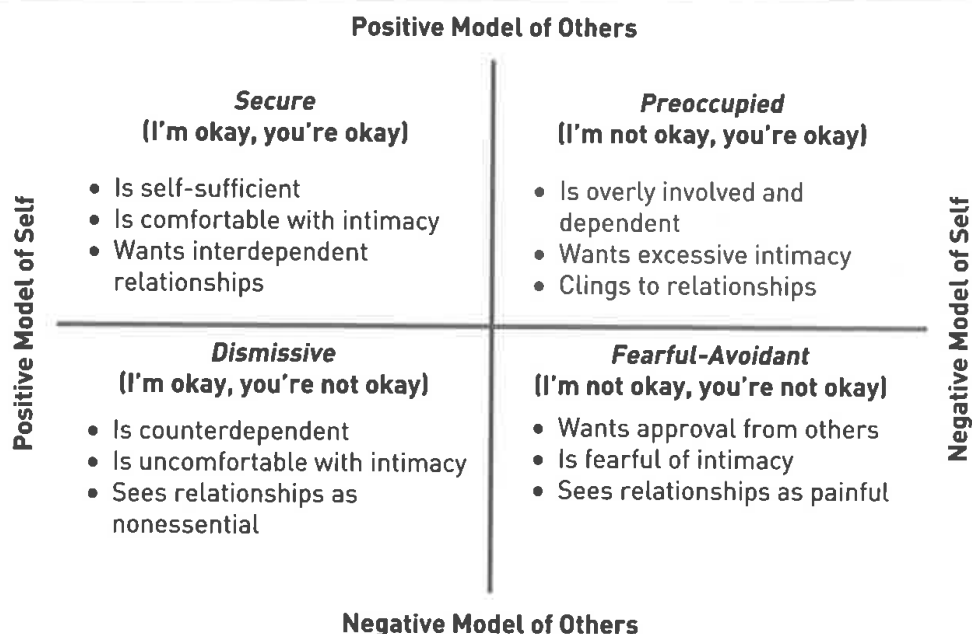
ANXIOUS-AMBIVALENT CHILDREN Other insecure children develop an **anxious-ambivalent attachment style** (Ainsworth et al., 1978). These children tend to be the product of inconsistent caregiver communication; sometimes the caregiver is appropriately responsive, and other times the caregiver is neglectful or overstimulating. Anxious-ambivalent children often have caregivers who are preoccupied with their own problems, such as relational conflict, divorce, or substance abuse. Instead of blaming the caregiver (or the caregiver's situation) for this inconsistency, they blame themselves and develop self-models of doubt, insecurity, and uncertainty. Anxious-ambivalent children often are tentative when exploring their environment in the presence of their caregivers and fearful of exploration if alone. They protest separation from caregivers vehemently yet are both relieved and angry when the caregiver returns. This contradiction is reflected in their label—they are anxious upon separation and ambivalent when the caregiver returns. Sometimes

these children develop positive models of others because they do receive some comfort and security from caregivers.

Attachment Styles in Adulthood

Attachment styles are also relevant in adult relationships. Hazan and Shaver (1987) conceptualized love as an attachment process that is “experienced somewhat differently by different people because of variations in their attachment histories” (p. 511). Using Ainsworth and colleagues’ (1978) three attachment styles as a guide, Hazan and Shaver (1987) proposed that adults can have secure, avoidant, or anxious-ambivalent attachments to their romantic partners similar to those they had with caregivers. Shortly after Hazan and Shaver (1987) published their groundbreaking work, Bartholomew (1990) proposed a four-category system of attachment. She argued that the working models a person holds about self and others combine to produce four, rather than three, attachment styles: (1) secure, (2) preoccupied, (3) dismissive, and (4) fearful (see Figure 8.3), as described next.

FIGURE 8.3 ■ Bartholomew’s Four Attachment Styles



SECURE: THE PROSOCIAL STYLE Individuals with a **secure attachment style** have positive models of themselves and others (“I’m okay and you’re okay”). Secure individuals feel good about themselves and their relationships, and they display “high self-esteem and an absence of serious interpersonal problems” (Bartholomew, 1990, p. 163). These individuals have the capacity for close, fulfilling relationships. They are likely to have realistic expectations, be satisfied with their relationships, and be comfortable depending on others and having others depend on them. Although they value relationships, they are not afraid of being alone.

Secure individuals have a communication style that displays social skill and promotes healthy relationships (Guerrero & Jones, 2005). They seek social support when distressed and know how to provide support and comfort to their relational partners (Kunce & Shaver, 1994; Weger & Polcar, 2002). In general, their communication tends to be pleasant, attentive, and expressive (Guerrero, 1996; Le Poire, Shepard, & Duggan, 1999), and they smile at, laugh with, and touch their romantic partners more than do individuals with other attachment styles (Tucker & Anders, 1998). When secures are distressed, they are usually able to express their negative feelings appropriately and seek support from others (Feeney, 1995; Simpson & Rholes, 1994). They cope with feelings of anger, jealousy, and sadness by behaving in ways that bolster their self-esteem and help maintain relationships (Guerrero, 1998; Guerrero, Farinelli, & McEwan, 2009; Sharpsteen & Kirkpatrick, 1997). In conflict situations, secure individuals are more likely than individuals with other attachment styles to compromise and solve problems (Bippus & Rollin, 2003; Pistole, 1989), especially if their partner is also secure (Domingue & Mollen, 2009). Secure individuals also employ high levels of relational maintenance behavior, such as engaging in romantic activities, talking about commitment, and sharing activities (Bippus & Rollin, 2003; Guerrero & Bachman, 2008; Simon & Baxter, 1993). In a study of Iranian couples, secure individuals reported using the word *we* more often as a way of being nice and emphasizing

commitment (Sadeghi, Mazaheri, & Moutabi, 2011). A study of married couples also showed that secure individuals were most likely to express positive emotions—such as love, pride, and happiness—to their spouses (Feeney, 1999).

PREOCCUPIED: THE EMOTIONAL STYLE

Individuals with a **preoccupied attachment style** have positive models of others but negative models of themselves (“You’re okay but I’m not okay”). These individuals are overly dependent on relationships. As Bartholomew (1990) put it, preoccupied individuals are characterized by “an insatiable desire to gain others’ approval and a deep-seated feeling of unworthiness” (p. 163). Their relational identities often are much stronger than their self-identities; they need to have a relationship with someone to feel worthwhile. In fact, preoccupied individuals report feeling lost and unable to cope in the absence of a close relationship. They also are likely to cling to their relationships in times of trouble and to resist any attempts by a partner to de-escalate or terminate close relationships.

Preoccupied individuals exhibit mixed messages that reflect their high need for intimacy coupled with low self-confidence. In everyday interactions, they often appear pleasant, attentive, and expressive (Guerrero, 1996). However, when they become anxious their communication sometimes becomes unpleasant and self-focused. In one study, preoccupied individuals exhibited low levels of enjoyment when talking about relationship issues with their romantic partners (Tucker & Anders, 1998). In another study, preoccupied individuals were expressive but showed low levels of composure and altercentrism (a focus on the partner) when discussing a conflict issue (Guerrero & Jones, 2005). Preoccupied individuals are also overly sensitive and have trouble controlling their emotions (Guerrero & Jones, 2003). In their quest to develop intimacy, they sometimes disclose intimate information too quickly (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). Sometimes preoccupied individuals display demanding behavior in an attempt to hang onto their relationship or

change their partners (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Guerrero & Langan, 1999). In conflict situations, they tend to engage in controlling behavior and to nag and whine (Creasey, Kershaw, & Boston, 1999; O'Connell-Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000). Similarly, they tend to express anger using aggressive or passive-aggressive behaviors (Feeney, 1995; Guerrero et al., 2009). They also avoid discussing deception with their partners, which is perceived as an ineffective communication strategy (Jang, 2008).

FEARFUL: THE HESITANT STYLE Individuals with a **fearful attachment style** have negative models of both themselves and others ("I'm not okay and you're not okay"). Some of the **avoidants** in Hazan and Shaver's (1987) system fall in this category, as do a few of the **anxious-ambivalents**, particularly when they have negative views of both others and themselves. The key characteristic of fearful avoidants is that they are afraid of hurt and rejection, often because they have experienced painful relationships in the past. Fearful individuals usually want to depend on someone but find it difficult to open up to others. As Bartholomew (1990) put it, fearful individuals "desire social contact and intimacy, but experience pervasive interpersonal distrust and fear of rejection" (p. 164).

Fearful individuals tend to avoid social situations and potential relationships because they fear rejection. Even when in relationships, they tend to be hesitant to communicate emotions or to initiate escalation of the relationship. Bartholomew (1990) noted the paradoxical nature of fearful individuals' actions and desires: By refusing to open up to others, they undermine their chances for building the very type of trusting relationship they desire. Their communication style reflects their fear and lack of trust. Guerrero (1996) found that fearful individuals were less fluent and used larger proxemic distances than individuals with other attachment styles. Other studies suggest that fearful individuals possess less social skill than people with other attachment styles. They tend to lack assertiveness

(Anders & Tucker, 2000) and to appear uncomposed (Guerrero & Jones, 2005). They also have difficulty expressing emotions and responding to the emotions of others (Guerrero & Jones, 2003). Fearful individuals are both anxious and avoidant, and research shows that people who possess these two characteristics report using less relational maintenance behavior (e.g., showing affection, being positive and cheerful) in their relationships (Guerrero & Bachman, 2006). Fearful individuals also have difficulty confronting conflict issues; instead, they tend to withdraw or accommodate the partner (Pistole, 1989).

DISMISSIVE: THE DETACHED STYLE Individuals with a **dismissive attachment style** have positive models of themselves but negative models of others ("I'm okay but you're not okay"). Many of the avoidants in Hazan and Shaver's system would fall here. Dismissives can best be characterized as counterdependent. In other words, they are so self-sufficient that they shun close involvement with others. Some researchers suggest that counterdependence is a defensive strategy that allows people to feel good about themselves without opening themselves up to the criticisms and scrutiny of others. Dismissives neither desire nor fear close attachments but rather lack the motivation to build and maintain intimate relationships (Bartholomew, 1990). They place a much higher value on autonomy than on relationships and tend to focus on less-personal aspects of their lives, such as careers, hobbies, and self-improvement (Bartholomew, 1990).

Not surprisingly, dismissive individuals possess a highly avoidant attachment style. Yet unlike fearful individuals, dismissives are composed and self-confident (Anders & Tucker, 2000; Guerrero & Jones, 2005). Dismissive individuals generally exhibit less disclosure, conversational involvement, and affection than individuals with the secure or preoccupied style (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Guerrero, 1996). They report relatively low levels of relational maintenance behaviors, such as being romantic and giving assurances that they are committed to the

relationship (Guerrero & Bachman, 2008; Simon & Baxter, 1993), and their partners see them as relatively uncaring and unsupportive (Kane et al., 2007). People who are high in avoidance and low in anxiety (which is what defines dismissive individuals) also report using less cell phone communication with their romantic partners (Jin & Peña, 2010). Dismissives also are seen as fairly dominant. They tend to interrupt their partners more than do those with other attachment styles (Guerrero & Langan, 1999), and they report low levels of accommodation and tend to withdraw during conflict (Feeney, Noller, & Roberts, 2000). When dismissives experience emotional distress, they often deny their feelings and insist on handling their problems without help from others (Bartholomew, 1993). As Simpson and Rholes (1994) put it, dismissives “distance themselves from others emotionally. Over time they come to see themselves as fully autonomous and immune to negative events” (p. 84).

As the descriptions above show, people communicate differently based on their attachment style. (Box 8.5 summarizes some of the key attachment-style differences in communication.) People with different attachment styles also use technology differently. Secure individuals tend to use high levels of communication, including texting, snapping, and social media, as well as high levels of face-to-face communication. Studies have shown that attachment security is related to sending more text messages (Drouin & Landgraff, 2012), whereas avoidance, which is typical of dismissive and fearful attachment, is related to texting and talking on the phone less (Morey, Gentzler, Creasy, Oberhauser, & Westerman, 2013). However, researchers have also shown that individuals with insecure attachment styles are likely to rely more on texting than on other forms of communication (such as face-to-face interaction) to maintain their relationships (Luo, 2014). Taken together, this research suggests that secure individuals report high levels of texting because they communicate a lot with their partners through their phones and in person. Insecure individuals report less texting overall; nevertheless,

texting represents a higher share of their overall communication than does face-to-face interaction. This may be because texting is perceived as less intimate and less threatening than face-to-face communication (Luo, 2014). Interestingly, people with insecure attachment styles are more likely to engage in sexting, which involves sending sexual images or texts to one’s partner via one’s cell phone, than people with secure attachment styles (Drouin & Landgraff, 2012; Weisskirch & Delevi, 2011). These individuals may feel more of a need to use such messages to maintain their relationships than do secure individuals.

There are also attachment style differences in Facebook usage. Individuals who have attachment anxiety (especially preoccupieds) are likely to look at their partners’ Facebook accounts to check up on them; this type of surveillance often fuels jealousy (Marshall, Bejanyan, Di Castro, & Lee, 2013). These individuals also tend to check social media frequently, use it to express negative feelings, and to be concerned with the impressions they make on Facebook. In contrast, individuals with avoidant attachment (especially dismissives) tend to use Facebook less frequently (Oldmeadow, Quinn, & Kowert, 2013).

Attachment and Relational Satisfaction

As the descriptions of the four attachment styles suggest, security is associated with relational satisfaction. In fact, both one’s own security and the partner’s security make a difference. In one of the first studies of adult attachment, Hazan and Shaver (1987) found that secure individuals reported having happier and more trusting relationships than insecure individuals. Individuals with negative models of self or others tend to report less satisfaction (Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney, 1995; Feeney, Noller, & Callan, 1994; Feeney, Noller, & Roberts, 1998; Simpson, 1990). In some studies, researchers have asked both partners in romantic couples to rate their own attachment style and relational satisfaction. These studies have shown that one person’s attachment style predicts

BOX 8.5 HIGHLIGHTS**ATTACHMENT-STYLE DIFFERENCES IN COMMUNICATION**

	Secure	Preoccupied	Fearful	Dismissive
Conflict Behavior	Most compromising and adept with problem solving	Demanding, exhibits dominating behavior, nagging, whining	Accommodating, responds passively	Withdrawing, less accommodating, more interrupting
Maintenance Behavior	Highest level of maintenance	High level of maintenance	Relatively low level of maintenance	Less maintenance overall, especially less romance and assurances
Emotional Expression	Readily expresses emotions in a direct, prosocial manner	Expresses negative emotions using aggression or passive aggression	Inhibits the expression of negative emotions	Experiences and expresses emotions (negative and positive) the least
Self-Disclosure	High levels of appropriate disclosure, able to elicit disclosure from others	High levels of disclosure that is sometimes inappropriate or indiscriminate	Low levels of disclosure, especially with strangers or acquaintances	Low levels of disclosure
Nonverbal Intimacy	Relatively high levels of facial and vocal pleasantness, laughter, touch, and smiling	Mix of positive and negative nonverbal cues, depending on situation	Relatively low levels of facial and vocal pleasantness, expressiveness, and smiling	Relatively low levels of facial and vocal pleasantness, expressiveness, and smiling
Social Skill	Assertive, responsive to others, able to provide effective care and comfort	Overly sensitive, difficulty controlling emotional expression	Trouble expressing self and being assertive, exhibits anxiety cues such as lack of fluency and long response latencies	Trouble expressing self and comforting others

how satisfied the other person is. Specifically, Kane and fellow researchers (2007) found that men were happier when their partners were low in attachment anxiety (which is related to having a positive model of self), and women were happier when their partners were low in attachment avoidance (which is related to having a positive model of others). Guerrero and associates (2009) found that people were most likely to report high levels of relational satisfaction when their partners were high in security and low in both

dismissiveness and preoccupation. Other studies have shown that relationships tend to be especially satisfying if both partners are secure (Senchak & Leonard, 1992).

Researchers have also tried to determine why secure attachment is related to being in a happier relationship. Communication provides one answer to this important question. Feeney and colleagues (2000) explained that communication may be “the underlying mechanism” that explains why secure

partners have better relationships (p. 198). According to this reasoning, secure individuals engage in patterns of communication that promote closeness and cooperation, whereas insecure individuals engage in communication patterns that are more distant or demanding. Indeed, numerous studies have shown couples that include at least one insecure partner tend to exhibit negative communication patterns (Pearce & Halford, 2008). Several studies also support the idea that communication helps explain the link between attachment and relationship satisfaction. For example, Kane and colleagues (2007) found that security was related to caregiving and that caregiving helped predict why some partners were more satisfied with their relationships than others. Other studies have shown that the affectionate communication, constructive conflict behavior, and self-disclosure that secure partners use is related to being happier in one's relationship (Feeney et al., 2000; Morrison, Urquiza, & Goodlin-Jones, 1997).

Emotional communication provides another explanation for why people are more satisfied with relationships that include secure partners. Feeney and colleagues (1998) found that women reported being happier in relationships with secure men because those men tended to communicate sadness and other emotions directly and openly, allowing them to work out problems. Guerrero and colleagues (2009) found different patterns of emotional communication and relational satisfaction for people who had secure, dismissive, and preoccupied partners. People reported that their secure partners engaged in more prosocial emotional communication, such as discussing feelings in an open and calm manner, which led to more relationship satisfaction. Individuals perceived dismissive partners as using more detached communication, such as avoiding talking about their emotions, which was related to less satisfaction. Finally, people viewed their preoccupied partners as using more aggressive and passive-aggressive expressions of anger, which was related to less satisfaction. Thus, the manner in which people communicate

Stability and Change in Attachment Styles Across the Life Span

By now, it may not be difficult to guess what attachment styles Brian and Gabriela have. (To assess your own attachment style, take the test in Box 8.6.) Brian appears to be somewhat preoccupied. He worries that he might care more for Gabriela than she cares for him. He also appears to desire high levels of overt affection in his relationships. Gabriela, on the other hand, seems somewhat dismissive. She wonders if she can commit enough time and energy to her relationship, and her priority seems to be her personal goals. If Gabriela and Brian stay together, are their attachment styles likely to change or stay the same during the course of their relationship? Have they had these attachment styles since childhood or could they have developed these styles recently? Finally, do they have the same attachment styles with their friends and family as they have with each other? Research investigating how stable attachment styles are across time suggests that the answer to all of these questions is "it depends." Studies have shown that around 25% to 30% of adults experience changes in their attachment style toward romantic partners (Davila, Burge, & Hammen, 1997; Davila, Karney, & Bradbury, 1999; Feeney & Noller, 1996). Similarly, in a study on adolescent friendships, 35% of high school students reported a change in attachment style from one year to the next (Miller, Notaro, & Zimmerman, 2002). These studies suggest that although attachment styles are fairly stable, they can be modified by new experiences.

EXPLANATIONS FOR STABILITY At least two forces work to stabilize a person's attachment style. First, communication with caregivers has an especially strong effect on a person's social development, including the attachment style a person develops. Bowlby (1969, 1973) believed that early interactions with caregivers provide a mental blueprint for thinking about oneself and others that carries into adulthood. An avoidant child thus has many obstacles to overcome to develop into a secure adult, including learning to trust others and being comfortable

BOX 8.6 PUT YOURSELF TO THE TEST

WHAT IS YOUR ATTACHMENT STYLE?

This questionnaire asks you to think about your general attitudes toward yourself, others, and relationships. Please rate yourself on each of these statements according to the following scale: 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

	Disagree							Agree						
1. I fit in well with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I worry that people don't like me as much as I like them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would like to trust others, but I worry that if I open up too much people might reject me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Sometimes others seem reluctant to get as close to me as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I worry a lot about the well-being of my relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel smothered when a relationship takes too much time away from my personal pursuits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I worry about getting hurt if I allow myself to get too close to someone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I would like to have closer relationships, but getting close makes me feel vulnerable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I tend not to take risks in relationships for fear of getting hurt or rejected.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I rarely worry that I don't "measure up" to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Achieving personal goals is more important to me than maintaining good relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I avoid getting too close to others so that I won't get hurt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I am confident that other people will like me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I worry that others do not care about me as much as I care about them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I wonder how I would cope without someone to love me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I rarely worry that others might reject me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Being independent is more important to me than having a good relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I am confident that others will accept me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I find it relatively easy to get close to people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Pleasing myself is much more important to me than getting along with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I need relational partners to give me space to do "my own thing."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I sometimes worry that my relational partners will leave me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(Continued)

BOX 8.6 (Continued)

23. It is easy for me to get along with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I frequently pull away from relational partners when I need time to pursue my personal goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I need to be in a close relationship to be happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Add up the following items and then divide by the number shown to get your score on each attachment style.

Security: Items 1+10+13+16+18+19+23 / 7 = _____

Preoccupation: Items 2+4+5+14+15+22+25 / 7 = _____

Dismissiveness: Items 6+11+17+20+21+24 / 6 = _____

Fearful: Items 3+7+8+9+12 / 5 = _____

Higher scores mean that you possess more of a particular attachment style. The highest possible score for a given style is 7; the lowest possible score is 1.

Source: Adapted from Guerrero et al. (2009).

child needs to become self-confident and self-sufficient to achieve security. Such changes are possible but require time, effort, and the cooperation and patience of others.

A second source of stability is called the **reinforcement effect** (Bartholomew, 1993). According to this perspective, people communicate in cycles that reinforce their attachment style. For example, because secure individuals are self-confident and readily approach others, they are more likely to make friends and develop relationships, causing them to feel even better about themselves and others. Preoccupied individuals, by contrast, continually reach for higher levels of intimacy. Perhaps you have had a partner like this—someone who wanted to meet your family right away, told you how much she or he loved you on the third date, or wanted to move in with you after your first month together. A common reaction to these premature declarations of love and commitment is to try to de-escalate the relationship, which only makes the preoccupied person engage in more excessive intimacy and

closeness. This process reinforces that individual's negative model of self ("My partner doesn't love me as much as I love her") and positive model of others ("Everything would be great if only I could get him to love me").

Fearful and dismissive individuals suffer from similarly paradoxical interaction patterns. More than anything else, fearful individuals need to build a secure, happy relationship to help them feel better about themselves and others. However, their fear of pain and rejection keeps them from reaching out to others and developing the kind of intimate relationship that would bring them out of their protective shells. Dismissives display similarly negative self-reinforcing patterns. If dismissives continually avoid highly committed relationships and refuse to ask others for help and support, they reinforce their view that other people are unnecessary and they should rely only on themselves. They miss the opportunity to discover ways in which committed relationships can enrich, rather than impede, personal satisfaction.

EXPLANATIONS FOR CHANGE There are four primary explanations for change in attachment styles (Feeney et al., 2000). First, significant events such as divorce, marriage, reunion after a long separation, development of a new relationship, or the death of a loved one may modify a person's attachment style. For example, a fearful man may become more secure after reuniting with his ex-wife, and a secure young woman may become more dismissive when she heads off to college and away from those who love her. Research has also shown that women report less attachment anxiety and avoidance over time if they are in a stable relationship (Givertz & Safford, 2011). Second, a person's attachment style may be affected by a partner's style, as several studies have shown (e.g., Guerrero & Bachman, 2008; Le Poire et al., 1999). For example, Givertz and Safford (2011) showed that men's attachment styles become increasingly avoidant if their relationship is characterized by demand-withdrawal conflict. (This type of conflict occurs when one person demands change and the other person withdraws, see Chapter 11.) In the case of Gabriela and Brian, their opposing needs could cause them to become more dismissive and preoccupied, respectively. When Gabriela expresses a need for

more space, Brian might feel a lack of closeness and crave more intimacy. When Brian expresses a need for more affection, Gabriela might pull away and retreat into her personal activities.

Third, people may have different attachment styles depending on relationship type (Baldwin & Fehr, 1995; Cozzarelli, Hoekstra, & Bylsma, 2000; Pierce & Lydon, 2001). For example, Gabriela might have a dismissive attachment orientation toward Brian and her father but a secure attachment orientation toward her mother and friends. The movie *Good Will Hunting* provides a good example of how attachment orientations sometimes vary on the basis of relationship type. Will exhibits classic fearful behavior with romantic partners—he avoids commitment because he is afraid of being hurt and abandoned as he was as a child in the foster care system. However, within his close-knit group of male friends, Will displays a secure attachment style. Finally, some researchers have suggested that stability (or instability) of attachment style is a personality characteristic; some people are more susceptible to change than others. So Gabriela's attachment style could be more likely to change based on life events (e.g., what's happening at work) than Brian's.

SUMMARY AND APPLICATION

People approach loving relationships in a variety of ways. Every person has a unique set of perceptions, expectations, and preferences that contribute to that individual's love and attachment styles. When two people's styles interact within the context of a close relationship, another unique relational pattern emerges. Partners should realize that what works in one of their relationships might not necessarily work in others and that it is difficult for two people to fully meet each other's expectations.

The attitudes Gabriela and Brian have about love and relationships are fairly common. From the description at the beginning of this chapter,

Gabriela has a dismissive attachment style and communicates love through activity-sharing. Brian has a preoccupied attachment style and communicates love through affection and verbal expression. Of course, most people do not fall neatly into a love or attachment category. Take another look at Figure 8.3. Where would you fall on the dimensions representing positive versus negative models of self and others? You could fit squarely within a given category or you could fall on the border between categories. For instance, Gabriela might have an extremely positive model of self and only a slightly negative model of others, and Brian might be on the border

between preoccupation and security. Moreover, the interaction between Brian and Gabriela's styles is likely to produce a unique set of behaviors. Styles of love and attachment reflect some important differences in how people approach and communicate in close relationships, but it is crucial to see ourselves and others as complex individuals who do not always fit a particular profile.

People with different relational needs and communication styles, like Brian and Gabriela, can often work together to build happy relationships. One key to a successful relationship is for relational partners to help each other grow as individuals. For example, preoccupied individuals like Brian may need to make an effort to give their partners more space, while dismissive individuals like Gabriela may need to work on showing more affection. At the same time, individuals in relationships with people who have insecure attachment styles should be patient and understanding, rather than demanding more or less intimacy than their partners are comfortable giving. Relational partners should also understand and appreciate each other's ways of

loving. For example, Brian may feel more secure if he realizes that Gabriela is showing that she cares for him when she plans activities for them to do together.

In the scenario at the beginning of this chapter, Brian also wonders if Gabriela really loves him. This is a difficult question to answer. Liking and loving differ in both quantitative and qualitative ways. Loving is typically characterized by more attachment, caring, and commitment than liking, and love between romantic partners is also usually characterized by feelings of passion. Yet it is hard to quantify love, and there is no simple answer to the seemingly straightforward question: What is love? Love is a complex and variable phenomenon that defies simple definition. Indeed, instead of simply asking what love is, it may be more appropriate to ask, "What is love to me and to my partner, and how does love function in the unique relationship we share?" Thinking about these issues may be especially helpful to relational partners like Gabriela and Brian, who have different styles of loving and attachment.

KEY TERMS

- | | | |
|--|--|---------------------------------------|
| agape (p. 204) | infatuation (p. 200) | love ways (p. 212) |
| anxious-ambivalent attachment style (p. 217) | internal working models (p. 215) | ludus (p. 204) |
| attachment theory (p. 197) | intimacy (p. 198) | mania (p. 204) |
| avoidants (p. 219) | language of acts of service (p. 213) | manifest intimacy (p. 199) |
| avoidant attachment style (p. 216) | language of affirmation and support (p. 212) | passion (p. 198) |
| companionate love (p. 207) | language of gifts and tokens of affection (p. 213) | passionate love (p. 204) |
| consummate love (p. 198) | language of physical touch (p. 213) | pragma (p. 204) |
| dismissive attachment style (p. 219) | language of time together (p. 212) | preoccupied attachment style (p. 218) |
| empty love (p. 201) | latent intimacy (p. 199) | reinforcement effect (p. 224) |
| eros (p. 204) | liking (p. 198) | romantic love (p. 198) |
| fearful attachment style (p. 219) | love languages (p. 212) | secure base (p. 214) |
| friendship love (p. 198) | | secure attachment style (p. 218) |
| ideologies (p. 203) | | storage (p. 204) |