

An Exploratory Study of Compassionate, Companionate, and Passionate Love
Throughout Relationship Course and the Lifespan

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Abstract

This study examines how passionate, companionate, and compassionate love are experienced throughout the temporal course of a romantic relationship and throughout the lifespan. It was hypothesized that passionate love would be negatively correlated with relationship length, and companionate and compassionate love would be positively correlated with relationship length. Additionally, it was hypothesized that age would not affect individuals' levels of the three types of love. Two hundred and seventy-three individuals, ranging in age from 18 to 74 years old, completed self-report measures assessing their levels of passionate, companionate, and compassionate love. Data were analyzed using multiple regression and mixed level modelling. Results from the regression analyses show that no effect of relationship length was found for levels of passionate or compassionate love, but a significant positive correlation was found between relationship length and companionate love. No effect was found for age on the three types of love, except for an interaction effect between relationship length and age for companionate love, in which age moderated the relationship between relationship length and companionate love. Mixed modeling results suggest that over the three love scales combined, love increases with relationship length. Additionally, a significant triple interaction between love, relationship length, and age suggests that with increases in age and length of relationships, the passionate and compassionate scales showed higher levels of love than the companionate scale. Additional variables including gender, relationship orientation, living arrangements, and marital status were also explored. This study offers insight into the temporal course of the three aforementioned types of love in romantic relationships, and suggests that individuals' ages do not affect levels of love.

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Evidence suggests that love has long been a pervasive aspect of human societies; it is widely accepted that romantic love is a universal phenomenon, as its existence has been found in almost every culture that has been studied (Jankowiak & Fischer, 1992). Countless stories, poems, songs, and theatrical acts have touted the trials and tribulations that love may bring. With the invention of writing by the Sumerians in 3500 BCE, it was found that love was amongst the first topics to be written about (Arsu, 2006). A brief examination of love in world history and literature follows to lend understanding to the importance and robustness of this intense state.

Love

Love in History

The many emotions that encompass the state of being in love have driven individuals to extremes ranging between madness and ecstasy, have triggered scandals, and have even changed the course of history (Ackerman, 1994). For example, the love affair between Egypt's ruler Cleopatra and the two Roman generals, Julius Caesar and Mark Antony, exerted a strong impact upon the course of Roman and Egyptian history. In 48 BC, it was Cleopatra's relationship with Caesar that allowed her to seize the throne from her brother when the siblings were at war. Caesar was murdered in 48 BC, after which a Civil War erupted in Rome. A formation of a triumvirate (consisting of Octavian, Mark Antony, and Lepidus) provisionally resolved the war. Antony reigned over the eastern provinces of Rome, and accused Cleopatra of aiding his enemies. Cleopatra attempted to seduce Antony by dressing elaborately as Venus (Roman Goddess

of Love). Her ploy was successful, and Antony promised to protect both Egypt and her crown. Though Antony married Octavia (Octavian's half-sister) to reinforce his loyalty to Rome, Cleopatra gave birth to his twins a year later. After much time passed, the two were reunited and Cleopatra gave birth to another son. Antony proceeded to leave his wife and declared Caesarion (alleged son of Cleopatra and Julius Caesar) to be Caesar's heir, and gave land to each of his and Cleopatra's children. This ultimately led to the Battle of Actium in 31 BC, in which Octavian defeated Antony and Cleopatra's troops. Following the defeat, Cleopatra went into hiding and Antony mistakenly believed her to be dead. This devastation at her death led him to commit suicide by stabbing himself with his sword. After Antony's death, Cleopatra also committed suicide. Their mutual deaths led to Octavian consolidating his power over Rome.

History is wrought with several more examples of notable, world-changing love affairs. The love affair between Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn is recognized as an essential factor in England's becoming a Protestant nation; the relationship between Pierre and Marie Curie led to ground-breaking work regarding radioactivity; the marriage of Czar Nicholas II and Alexandra Federovna influenced Russian history in the early 1900s, and the love between Mildred and Richard Loving extinguished laws banning interracial marriage in the 1960s. The intriguing points above paint an illustration of the power and potency of love, and demonstrate that love can change the world.

Love in Literature

One of the most well-known love stories is of William Shakespeare's star-crossed lovers Romeo and Juliet, written in the late 1500s. Set in Verona, this tragic love story tells the tale of two distinguished families, the Montagues (Romeo) and Capulets (Juliet),

who have become involved in a feud. The story commences with a brawl between servants of the two households. Romeo attends a party held at the Capulet household, and it is there that he first beholds the lovely Juliet. He falls madly in love with her upon his first sighting, and is able to approach her to express his love, leading to a kiss. When Romeo discovers that the object of his affection is a member of his family's nemesis, he is saddened. Juliet shares similar feelings upon discovery that her love is, in fact, also her enemy. Following this disturbing discovery, Juliet expresses her desire to be with Romeo despite her name, and Romeo overhears this soliloquy. They both express their true love for one another. Friar Laurence secretly marries them; however, following this, a fight erupts between Romeo, his friend Mercutio, and Juliet's cousin Tybalt. The fight leaves Tybalt and Mercutio dead, which leads to Romeo's permanent banishment from Verona. Romeo spends the night with Juliet, and leaves in the morning to hide and wait for news. Juliet's mother decides that she should be married to an appropriate suitor, Paris, but Juliet refuses. She goes to Friar Laurence who provides her with a potion that will make her appear dead for two days. The morning that Juliet is supposed to marry Paris, the nurse finds her "dead", and the family believes she has committed suicide. Friar Laurence orders her to be put in the family vault, and attempts to get a message to Romeo of the true state of affairs. However, Romeo is soon given the news that Juliet is dead. Upon hearing this, he rushes to Juliet's grave, where he finds Paris mourning his loss. They duel, and Paris is killed. Romeo takes Paris' body to the vault, where he sees Juliet and presumes her dead. Grief-stricken, he consumes poison and dies kissing Juliet. Juliet wakes up, sees Romeo dead, and stabs herself with his dagger.

Other prominent examples of love in literature include: the sad tale of the great knight Lancelot and Guinevere; the Greek tale of the desperate love between Orpheus and Eurydice, the time tested devotion of Odysseus and Penelope, the tragic Arabian tale of Layla and Majun, and the selfless love between Pyramus and Thisbe. Such literary tales have remained popular and resonating among individuals for centuries; as such, this serves to reinforce the idea that love is a primal, universally felt emotion that has stood the test of time.

Given the ubiquitous nature and long-standing interest that love has provoked, many researchers in a wide variety of disciplines (e.g., psychology, anthropology, sociology, etc.) have attempted to define, measure, and, essentially, understand the seeming mystery that is the nature of love.

In any discourse on love, it is necessary to delineate the various ways that researchers have attempted to conceptualize and define love. The term “love” can be applied to a variety of contexts, including love for one’s family, love of God or other religious figure, love of humanity, and so on. A qualifying word placed before the term “love” may change its meaning drastically; for example, a review of the love literature presents *passionate/romantic* love, *companionate* love, *compassionate* love, and so on (Graham, 2011). As the main thrust of this study involves comparing the three aforementioned types of loves throughout the relationship course and lifespan, each type of love will be discussed in further detail, along with the most accepted theoretical perspectives on love.

Though a review of the love literature presents an impressive number of studies, it still remains shrouded in mystery. In 1988, Rubin stated “...the science of love is still in

its infancy” (pp. viii); unfortunately, despite the high volume of studies on love, this statement reflects the current reality. Berscheid (2010) suggests that several obstacles need to be overcome to aid in a better understanding of love; specifically, she suggests that the term “love” needs to be clearly explicated, that a model of love in relation to relationship stages and length needs to be developed, and that four different types of love (romantic, passionate, companionate, and adult attachment) need to be considered when examining romantic relationships. The current study aims to garner insight into how different types of love are experienced at different times throughout the temporal course of relationships, using both younger and older individuals.

The Evolution of Love

Though it is clear that love has existed for centuries, as evidenced by art and history, it is important to include a scientific explanation of how love has come about, and why it is so essential for human existence. Humans have a propensity for sophisticated language skills, sports, moral virtue, etc., and Miller (2000) attributes these skills as traits that have developed to assist individuals in courtship and mating.

Fisher, Aron, Mashek, Li, and Brown (2002) propose that human brains have evolved a particular circuitry system for romantic love. They reason that romantic love is a more sophisticated form of basic animal attraction, and serves the purpose of allowing one to choose and prefer the best potential mate to develop an exclusive mating relationship. To further explain this assertion, Fisher (2004) describes the sex lives of chimps, with which humans share 98% of their DNA. Chimps and chimp relatives (e.g., bonobos) display stunningly complex social behaviour, and likely demonstrate similar traits that a human-chimp shared common ancestor also displayed. For example, our

forbearers likely lived in communities, socialized with one another (e.g., eating together, grooming), used tools, displayed dominance, hunted, and so on. Additionally, they would have mated with each other; in fact, Fisher (2004) states “chimps and bonobos are among the most sexually active animals on earth” (p. 432); they kiss, hug, and have sexual intercourse. Further, these animals are very promiscuous; during her most fertile time, a female chimp may mate with a male in private, but this pairing is transitory, and lasts a few weeks at most.

Fisher (2004) also explains that our forbearers likely did not fall in love; they lacked the obsessive passion felt for one mate that humans often experience, and likely did not form a bond with mates for child rearing purposes, as the mother did not rely on a male for food or protection. Fisher (2004) asserts that some of our early ancestors likely felt more attraction to certain mating partners than to others, and this feeling is what slowly evolved into what is now coined romantic love; however, exactly how this happened remains unknown.

Though the exact evolutionary course of love is not certain, Fisher (1998, 2004) suggests an evidence-based explanation. As humans began to evolve approximately six to seven million years ago, they slowly began the process of changes that have led to characteristics and traits that are presently defined as “human”. It is likely that seven million years ago, human ancestors still lived in trees and possessed very primitive characteristics. These early ancestors bred as hominids were beginning to populate East Africa 3.5 million years ago; the fossils of these early hominids reveal an important step in human evolution: they were bipedal. Being capable of walking changed life for humans: they could now use their hands for making gestures and their mouths for making

words; they could use their hands to throw objects at predators; they could gather and collect, and so on. Fisher (2004) theorizes that walking led females to believe that babies should be carried not on their backs, as had been traditionally done when four limbs were needed for movement, but in their arms. Quadruped, arboreal ancestors who carried offspring on their backs had use of their hands to gather food and could escape high into a tree if being chased; bipedal females lost this advantage. She believes it was too much for a female to have to carry items to prepare meals while carrying a child in arms. She argues that it is too difficult for a mother to hunt small animals, dig, gather food, and run from predators while holding an infant. It was this difficulty that prompted pair-bonding, as the female now had a need for a mate to help provide food and protection while she cared for offspring, and it was more efficient for a male to provide for one mate as opposed to several mates. Thus, the seeds of monogamy were planted. Monogamy may have been practiced as early as 3.5 million years ago, as evidenced by sex skeletal size differences, which are similar to modern skeletal size differences between the sexes. This suggests that these early hominids lived in social units similar to present day social units.

Interestingly, Insel and Carter (1995) suggest a genetic explanation for monogamy: prairie voles are monogamous rodents, and it was found that they possess extra DNA in a certain gene (responsible for vasopressin distribution) that montane voles (who are not monogamous) are lacking. Insel and Carter (1995) inserted this extra DNA into montane voles, and subsequently, these rodents commenced romantic pair-bond relationships. Though the impact of this finding has not been comprehensively studied in humans, humans also possess this gene and some humans have the extra DNA. This

suggests that pair-bonding and monogamy have been written into human genetic code, which implies that pair-bonding lent an advantageous edge for human survival.

Although bipedalism is indubitably a milestone in human evolution, it is but an early step of the evolutionary process. Once humans became more adept at living on the land and making tools, they developed language as a means of communicating with one another. Evidence for the development of the language areas of the brain (e.g., Broca's area) are found as early as 1.8 million years ago. With language, endless topics can be furthered and discussed, including courtship and love. Fisher (2004) posits that the development of language was a key factor for the development of specific brain circuitry for attraction into romantic love. More milestones in human evolutionary history undeniably contributed to the development of romantic love, including the creation of fire, which led to the cooking of food, further brain development, and may have been a source of impressing partners.

Following key developments, human brains expanded in size, which led to the "obstetrical dilemma". In utero, babies were now developing significantly larger heads due to larger brain capacity. This led to babies being delivered quite early in their developmental course, which meant that these new babies were completely helpless, and required intensive parental investment. Additionally "delayed maturation" caused parental investment to increase in both effort and time (Hopkins, 1994). Given these factors, parenting became a job better suited to two individuals rather than to one. This meant that individuals sought out partners that had desirable traits that they would choose for mating; these desirable traits probably included qualities to attract others (e.g., charisma) and the display of acquired skills (e.g., hunting). The need to find a partner

that was desirable helped prime the brain for intensified feelings towards a particular individual, which led the way to what presently is called, *romantic love*.

As the human race developed, and new technologies and findings were discovered, human brains grew accordingly. With more to experience, individuals were able to acquire skills (i.e., hunting, making fire); that being the case, some individuals were bound to be more skilled at certain activities than others. Excelling at skills that provide an advantage to survival (i.e., hunting) would make a prospective mate more attractive. Consequently, those who were more skilled would be more likely to mate, hence passing on traits that make offspring more likely to excel in skills as well. Human brains needed to evolve not only to perform such skills, but also to be able to assess these skills in potential mates. This likely led to advanced brain functioning (e.g., awareness, memory, consciousness, etc.) granting individuals the ability to choose their best possible mate (Fisher, 1994; 1998; 2004).

In sum, the evolution of the human brain in developing increasingly advanced skills, led to some individuals possessing skills and traits that were deemed desirable by others, for their advantageous benefit to survival. Individuals would want to appear desirable to potential mates by displaying their advanced talents, which led to the courting process. Individuals developed the ability via higher brain functioning to decipher and appreciate courtship rituals. This likely led to specialized brain circuitry specifically for the appreciation of courtship displays. This, coupled with a biological drive to commit to a long-term relationship with one partner, paved the way for the feelings that are presently known as romantic love (Fisher, 1998; 2004).

The Biological Basis of Love

The biological basis of love has its roots in evolutionary thought; the premise of a universal, biological urge to love comes from the idea that humans are neurologically designed to love one partner in order to produce the strongest offspring with the highest chance of survival (Marazziti & Baroni, 2012). With recent developments in science and technology, researchers are now able to examine neural correlates and mechanisms of love; this is currently a facet of love research that is gaining a great amount of attention (see de Boer, van Buel, & Ter Horst, 2012; Reynaud, Karila, Blecha, & Benyamina, 2010; Tarlaci, 2012; Xu et al., 2012).

Marazziti and Baroni (2012) propose a speculative model of attraction, in which they suggest that falling in love puts the brain under stress, and it reacts as it would to a stressful situation. They suggest that certain factors (i.e., hormonal changes) act to modify individuals' brain functioning, leading to a propensity to react to certain stimuli from other individuals, which may in turn cause an individual to fall in love. They argue that these stimuli will be interpreted from a multisensory perspective (i.e., olfactory, auditory, etc.) but will be mainly interpreted visually. The stimuli go through a series of processing in the brain, beginning with the hypothalamus, where it splits into two bundles; one of which goes to the amygdala (the area responsible for emotions), while the other of which goes first to the cortex (where the quality of the emotion is determined, i.e., love), and then is directed to the amygdala. This cognitive processing allows an individual to understand and identify the feeling they are experiencing, such as love (Marazziti & Cassano, 2003). The authors also suggest the concept of "love maps", which are developed early in life, and serve to guide individuals' choices of whom they

will deem attractive; this idea asserts that individuals will seek out a partner who is similar to someone he/she would associate with positive past experiences.

The seeds of romantic love are planted in attraction, and much research has been done regarding the neurobiology of attraction. Attraction is a complex process that demonstrates specific characteristics, such as loss of appetite, elation, increased energy, decreased need for sleep, etc. These characteristics are analogous to the hypomania that is experienced in bipolar disorder (Marazziti & Cassano, 2003); additionally, extreme mood swings may accompany attraction (from ecstasy to despair) conditional upon the partner's response, which is also similar to the poles of bipolar disorder. Due to the similarity of emotional responding of love and bipolar disorder, it has been suggested that similar neurological functioning (such as increased dopamine and norepinephrine) may be operating in both. Attraction and love have also been compared to obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD); it is typically thought that the most marked feature of attraction is intrusive thoughts of the other (Fisher, 1992), which is akin to the obsessive thoughts found in OCD. Furthering this, Marazziti et al. (1999) demonstrated commonality between love and OCD with a dysfunction of the serotonin system.

Studies examining the biological basis of love help to ameliorate the idea that love is not a topic worthy of scientific pursuit. Unfortunately, the idea that studying love is a waste of time has been an issue that love researchers have had to deal with (Carter, 1998). The above-mentioned points highlight concrete, biological findings that serve to reinforce the idea that love is an important consideration in the lives of both animals and humans.

Theories of Love

Because of the high level of interest in research regarding love, several theories have emerged that attempt to define and conceptualize love. The most popular theories include evolutionary theories, Rubin's (1970) Liking Versus Loving Theory, Stephan, Berscheid, and Walster's, (1971) Two-Factor Theory of Love, Hatfield and Walster's (1978) Passionate and Companionate Love Theory, Lee's (1973) Love Styles Theory, and Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory of Love.

Evolutionary Theories

Evolutionary theories of love describe love as a function that has evolved to ensure the perpetuation and survival of human beings. Humans are born helpless and remain dependent on a caregiver to meet basic survival needs for several years. This means that parental investment in a child is very high for humans compared to most other mammals, which suggests that evolution would have selected for the development of monogamous relationships, to help ensure success of offspring (Fisher, 2004). This suggests that love is a commitment device, and has evolved in order for couples to maintain a connection that will last long enough to see their offspring into adulthood (Fletcher & Overall, 2010). Buss (2006) explains love as *acts* that are vital in relationships relevant to reproduction (i.e., kin relationships, mating relationships). As with any evolutionary explanation of a concept, love is thought to serve certain functions and reach goals related to the success of reproduction.

Kenrick (2006) offers a dynamical evolutionary perspective on love. The basic tenant of this model is that love is a bond that serves advantageous functions for humans, and that different types of love exist because they serve different evolutionary functions.

He suggests that, in its most basic form, love is a set of decision biases that have evolved to promote the most successful reproductive behaviour. These biases differ for men and women, as each sex has disparate criteria for achieving reproductive success.

Kenrick (2006) also posits that the mind has different decision biases for distinct social domains (i.e., finding a mate versus retaining a mate), and each domain corresponds to a certain social bond function. He suggests that these biases will dynamically interact with others' biases and challenges of the physical environment, and serve to make interaction with others go more smoothly. For example, in the social domain of mate gaining, the function of the social bond is to have access to desirable mating partners, and cognitive biases related to this domain include males being more attracted by physical appearance and youth than females, and females taking longer to trust partners than males (due to their increased investment).

Kenrick (2006) also explains that every social bond inherently involves a dynamical interaction, as how a partner and an actor interact depends on mutual responses from each other. Adding to this, both partners also interact with countless others in the social world, which adds much complexity to individuals' social lives; out of this seeming disorder, "self-organization" of relationships (and from this, neighbourhoods) arise. For example, when examining mating strategies, it is likely that it would be difficult to be sexually promiscuous if all one's neighbours are faithfully married and monogamous. On the other hand, if all one's neighbours are highly promiscuous, then it may be difficult to be monogamous. Even though a neighbourhood may involve a mix of behaviours when it begins, over time this self-organization will

favour one behaviour over the other. It is this process that, over time, develops our cultural norms that serve to guide individuals' understanding of love.

Kenrick's (2006) dynamical model of love suggests that the function of strong love bonds correspond to certain social domains (e.g., status, self-protection, gaining mates, retaining mates, and familial care) and cognitive biases that are meant to enhance an individual's potential for reproductive success and survival. This evolutionary model of love is useful in explaining the function of different forms of love, and how these interact with other individuals and the physical environment to shape humans' concept of love.

Buss (2006) offers an evolutionary theory of love that suggests that love is most basically an adaption that evolved to serve numerous functions, including displaying resources, signalling sexual fidelity, displaying commitment, encouraging behaviours and actions that lead to successful reproduction, and signalling parental investment. Some of the reasons he suggests as evidence for the evolutionary nature of love include the universality of love, sex differences in the design of love, and the function of romantic jealousy.

The universality of love provides compelling evidence that love is an evolutionary adaption. In an extensive study on human mating and attraction (Buss et al., 1990), 37 cultures on six continents and five islands were studied in regards to attraction. It was found that "mutual attraction and love" was either the top, or near the top, answer regarding mate preferences. Further evidence of the universality of love is apparent from the study of some cultures that have attempted to banish love (Jankowiak, 1995); for example, The Shakers believed romantic love was an obstruction to larger community

goals, and tried to banish it. Likewise, the Mormons discouraged love in the nineteenth century, as they felt it was disruptive. Neither culture found its ban to be successful; romantic love persisted, even if it had to be hidden from others. The robustness of love in different cultures offers strong support for the universality of love.

Sex differences in the design of love are also touted as proof of love's evolutionary nature. Findings from human mating studies suggest that men place higher importance and value on physical characteristics than do women when choosing a long-term mate, as physical cues give extensive information on a potential mate's youth, health, and reproductive capacity. Women, on the other hand, put more value into a potential mate's ability to acquire resources; this is assessed by a mate's drive, status, and ambition (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). These judgement differences in value of mates are thought to reflect each sex's challenges to reproductive success and survival of offspring.

Finally, the function of romantic jealousy has been offered as further evidence supporting Buss's (2006) evolutionary theory of love. Buss (2006) suggests that jealousy stems from deep feelings of love, and that jealous acts (e.g., visiting your partner unannounced to check up on them) are often interpreted as acts of love (Buss, 1988). Jealousy is highly correlated with love, and is believed to have evolved to protect an individual against losing their partner, specifically to another romantic rival. For example, Mathes (1991) found that individuals who were given a range of scenarios involving the loss of their partner (e.g., because of death, because of relocation, because the partner no longer wanted a relationship, or because the partner fell in love with someone else), reported feeling most jealous at the prospect of losing their partner to a romantic rival. This suggests evidence that jealousy evolved in tandem with romantic

love, and that it is an adaptive emotion that serves to protect a relationship from the threat of romantic rivals. In sum, evolutionary accounts of love provide rationale for the utilitarian nature of love as an adaption device meant to promote reproductive success and survival.

Liking Versus Loving Theory

One of the earliest attempts by psychologists to conceptualize, examine, and measure love was made by Rubin (1970); prior to this, researchers often did not refer to love in studies of interpersonal attraction (e.g., Newcomb, 1960; Walster, 1965), and love was considered a more intense state of “liking” (Heider, 1958). Addressing this dearth in the literature on interpersonal attraction, Rubin (1970) conceptualized love as an interpersonal attitude towards a particular individual that led to certain thoughts, emotions, and behaviours in regards to that specific person. He suggested that love is comprised of three components that he identified as “affiliative and dependent need, a predisposition to help, and an orientation of exclusiveness and absorption” (p. 265). In other words, love consists of attachment, caring, and intimacy. Rubin (1970), approaching love as a multifaceted attitude, developed a Liking Versus Loving Scale (LLS) to measure love. He developed the scale by creating questions that encompassed wide-held beliefs regarding love. He stated that responses would be highly intercorrelated if these questions were assessing a single attitude (love). In tandem to development of the love scale, a liking scale was created as well, in order to demonstrate that liking and loving are two distinct, separable constructs, and also to help show discriminate validity. First, a panel of judges sorted the questionnaire items into either liking or loving items. Following this, a questionnaire consisting of 70 items was

administered to 198 students, who completed the questionnaire twice, once with regards to a romantic partner, and once with regards to an opposite-sex platonic friend. Factor analyses showed that two factors emerged: one for loving items and one for liking items. From this, two 13-item scales were developed, one for loving and one for liking.

Although Rubin's (1970) Liking versus Loving Theory and Scale marks one of the initial attempts to define and measure love, it is still currently used in love research. For example, Mason et al. (2011) examined what effect a romantic breakup had on individuals' self-concepts and well-being. They used Rubin's (1970) LLS to measure individuals' levels of love toward their ex romantic partner, and found that individuals who had a difficult time recovering their self-concept held higher levels of love for their ex partners and experienced poorer well-being. Another study investigating relationship quality predicted negative maintenance behaviors in romantic relationships. The authors measured relational quality through several indicators, such as satisfaction, respect, and liking (using the LLS). They measured negative relational maintenance behaviors (e.g., jealousy, spying, and infidelity) and found that individuals in relationships with lower quality engaged in more negative relational maintenance behaviors (Goodboy & Myers, 2010). Finally, a last example of current research using Rubin's (1970) theory is found in a study by Smithson and Baker (2008). The authors examined the relation of risk orientation, liking, and loving in romantic partners. They measured liking and loving using the LSS, and found that liking and loving are most strongly predicted by couples in which the partners perceive similar levels of risk orientation. They also found that liking and loving were negatively predicted by higher self-ratings and partner ratings of risk-taking. The above-mentioned studies make it clear that Rubin's (1970) theory has proven

to be a robust and widely utilized theory of love.

Two-Factor Theory of Love

The Two-Factor Theory of Love suggested by Stephan, Berscheid, and Walster, (1971) has its roots in a general theory of emotion (Schachter, 1964), which suggests that emotions involve both physiological and cognitive components. When one experiences a physiological reaction in response to an event, he/she is in a state of arousal; the cognitive component of arousal is the label one gives to this arousal. For example, if a female is alone at night and sees a large, strange male approaching her, she may notice that her heart begins to beat faster and her breathing becomes more rapid; the emotional label she will put on her bodily reaction will likely be fear. These labels individuals ascribe to specific physiological reactions carry certain cognitive meaning and characteristics (e.g., love, fear, jealousy, etc.). Once an emotional label is assigned to the arousal reaction experienced by an individual, the corresponding meanings associated with that label are activated, and the individual identifies her physiological reaction as an emotion (as illustrated in the example of fear above). The labels that individuals assign to certain physiological characteristics, and the meanings associated with them, are learned from the society in which they live and the other individuals with whom they interact.

Several studies have demonstrated the link between high arousal and romantic attraction, often in novel, creative ways. For example, Dutton and Aron (1974) measured a male's attractiveness to a female after an arousing situation. They had male participants cross either a bridge meant to induce arousal (swaying and wobbling, low, wire handrails, 230-foot drop, above rocks and rapids, long, etc.) or a "control" bridge (steady, 10 feet above river, sturdy handrails, etc.). After the males crossed the bridge,

they were met by an attractive female research assistant, who pretended she was doing a study on nature's effects on creativity. She asked the males to fill out a questionnaire and to write a story based on a picture of a woman (using a figure from the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)). Once participants completed the tests, she told them to contact her if they were interested in learning more about the study. The TAT test results showed that men who had crossed the arousal inducing bridge told stories with significantly more sexual content than males who crossed the neutral bridge. Also, men who crossed the arousal inducing bridge were eight times more likely than the men in the control group to call the research assistant, suggesting that these men were more interested in the research assistant (a control study was done with a male research assistant, and he received almost no calls, thus suggesting the interest was in the female herself, as opposed to the study).

Another example examining arousal and attraction was done by Dutton and Aron (1974). They had participants come into a laboratory that contained an extensive amount of electrical equipment. The experimenter excused himself from the room, and left an article that described "previous findings in the area we are investigating", which contained information on learning and electric shocks. When the experimenter returned, he brought with him an attractive female confederate, who was posing as another participant. The experimenter told the participant that he was examining how learning is affected by electric shock, and how important this area was to research. While explaining the experiment, the researcher explained that there would be two levels of shock (one very painful, the other just a "tingle"). Following this, a coin was flipped to randomly determine which of the two types of shock the participant and the confederate would

receive. The experimenter then explained the procedure and gave the participants questionnaires to fill out while he was “setting-up”. The questionnaires included a TAT picture of a female, and questions regarding attraction towards the female confederate (e.g., how much would you like to ask her on a date? How much would you like to kiss her?). It was found that participants who thought they were getting the severe shock were more attracted to the female confederate than those who believed they were receiving the low level shock; additionally, the severe shock group wrote TAT stories that involved more sexual and romantic content. These results suggest that being highly aroused leads one to feel more sexual/romantic attraction towards an attractive other.

Several other studies have examined this phenomenon (see Cantor, Zillmann, & Bryant, 1975; Foster, Witcher, Campbell, & Green, 1998; Lewandowski & Aron, 2004; White, Fishbein, & Rutsein, 1981) and have found similar results. This phenomenon is known as misattribution of arousal, in which the arousal one feels is incorrectly attributed to an attractive other (Pines, 1999). This two-factor theory of love suggests that to love passionately, one must first feel physiologically aroused (i.e., rapid heartbeat, flushing), and then label this arousal as love. While this theory has generally fallen out of favor as a comprehensive explanation of love, the idea of misattribution of arousal is still accepted in the attraction and love literature.

Passionate and Companionate Love

Another theory of love is proposed by Hatfield and Walster (1978). They suggest that love is best conceptualized as being one of two types: passionate or companionate. Passionate love is intense, “hot”, and involves emotional, physical, and cognitive components, and can cause an extreme range of emotions in an individual, ranging from

ecstasy when all is going well, to absolute despair when it is not. Companionate love, on the other hand, is more stable, “cool”, and consists of mutual respect, genuine affection, attachment, and trust. Hatfield and Walster (1978) suggest that new relationships have high levels of passionate love, but that this type of love declines over time and is replaced with companionate love. Sternberg (1988) studied couples whose length of marriage ranged from one month to 36 years, and found that passion is what attracted them to one another initially, but noted that this feeling faded over time. He found that after the passage of time, companionate love (comprised of intimacy and commitment) grew and couples noted that it was this type of love they felt was most important.

This theory is still presently accepted in love research, as it is noted that passionate and companionate love are two distinct types of love felt by individuals in romantic relationships, but it is flawed in that it does not consider other types of love which have been found to be important (i.e., compassionate love, attachment) (Berscheid, 2010). Additionally, the original belief that passionate love fades and is replaced by companionate love (e.g., Sternberg 1986; Hatfield & Walster, 1978) has been challenged by more recent findings (e.g., Acevedo & Aron, 2009; Berscheid, 2010; Graham, 2011; Hatfield et al., 2008). These findings are discussed in further detail later on.

Love Styles Theory

Lee’s (1973) Love Styles theory is widely utilized in love research. He suggests that there are six distinct love styles (also called “colors of love”) that individuals will employ. These include: 1. *Eros*, which is a passionate, erotic love (comparable to passionate love); 2. *Ludus*, which treats love as a game (often the individual will have multiple partners); 3. *Storge*, which is an affectionate love based in friendship

(comparable to companionate love); 4. *Pragma*, which is love that is logical and rational; 5. *Mania*, which is love that is obsessive, and the lover is often jealous and possessive, and 6. *Agape*, which is selfless love characterised by altruism (comparable to compassionate love). Lee classifies these six types into *primary* and *secondary* love styles; primary styles include eros, ludus, and storge, while secondary styles include mania, pragma, and agape. The secondary styles emerge from pairs of the primary styles (e.g., mania is a combination of eros and ludus; pragma is a combination of storge and ludus, and agape is a combination of eros and storge), but are their own styles, with distinguishable characteristics from the primary styles. The underlying idea of this has been compared to chemical compounds, in which the styles are interrelated, each style having its own property that is independent of the styles it is comprised from (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986).

When this theory was proposed, it was considered to be quite robust, as it combined several existing theories of love into one comprehensive theory. Lee's (1973) Love Styles continues to be a popular theoretical perspective in love research and has been used to examine a wide range of phenomena such as hook-ups (Paul, McManus, & Hayes, 2000), consumer love for a product (Whang, Allen, Sahoury, & Zhang, 2004), impression management (Davies, 2001), relationship longevity (Erwin, 2011), and shyness (Erwin & Pressler, 2001). Furthermore, Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) used Lee's (1973) Love Styles to create the Love Attitudes Scale. This scale continues to be used in current love research (e.g., Harris, 2006; Hughes, Morrison, & Asada, 2005; Hendrick & Hendrick, 2006; Neto, 2012; Vohs, Finkenauer, & Baumeister, 2011), further reinforcing the robustness of Lee's (1973) Love Styles theory.

Triangular Theory of Love

Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory of Love is one of the most influential and widely used theories in love research. He suggests that love is comprised of three aspects: *passion*, which includes aspects of sexual attraction, infatuation and physiological arousal, *intimacy*, which includes aspects of closeness, connectedness, and self-disclosure, and *commitment*, which includes monogamy, wanting to be with the other, and loyalty. He suggests that these three components (which can be represented visually as three vertices of a triangle) interact with one another to produce seven distinct types of love: 1. *Nonlove* (lack of intimacy, passion, and commitment), 2. *Liking/friendship* (intimacy), 3. *Infatuated love* (passion), 4. *Empty love* (commitment), 5. *Romantic love* (intimacy and passion), 6. *Companionate love* (intimacy and commitment), 6. *Fatuous love* (passion and commitment), and 7. *Consummate love* (intimacy, passion, and commitment). Sternberg (1986) posits that consummate love is the ideal form of love, as it encompasses all three facets of love. He suggests that couples that are in consummate love have the most successful and fulfilling relationships. From his theory of love, Sternberg (1988) developed a scale consisting of 45 items that measures the three separate components of love (passion, intimacy, and commitment).

Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory of love has proven to be quite robust and is still presently utilized to examine eclectic ideas pertaining to love. For example, Bisson and Levine (2009) used Sternberg's scales to measure "friends with benefits" relationships, which are defined as friends who have sex with each other. The authors found that individuals in such relationships scored high in intimacy but lower in passion and commitment, which is consistent with research regarding friendships. Another study

examined sexual minority male youth's characterization of love using Sternberg's theory, and found that the same underlying three factors (intimacy, passion, and commitment) emerged when participants were asked to describe their ideal romantic partner.

Moreover, Sternberg's theory has been used to examine love and romantic relationships in regards to personality factors (Ahmetoglu, Swami, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009), attachment processes (Madey & Rodgers, 2009), psychopathy and Machiavellianism (Ali & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2010), and religiosity (Wong, 2009). This eclectic array of studies helps demonstrate the ability of Sternberg's theory to apply to a range of romantic relationships. Sternberg's theory has also been applied to explain love for non-human entities, such as brand names (Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2008); his theory is the most often used in consumer research to explain love towards brands (Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012). The extensive amount of research, both past and current, helps validate the utility and wide applicability of Sternberg's Triangular Theory of Love.

The present study synthesizes elements from Lee's (1973) Love Styles theory and Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory of Love, as well as empirical findings from research regarding types of love. Based on these theories, passionate, companionate, and compassionate love were examined. Using Sternberg's reasoning, passion is highest at the initial stages of relationship and decreases over the relational time course, so passionate love should be at its highest level in newest relationships. Intimacy and commitment are expected to grow as the relationship progresses, so the related types of love (i.e., compassionate and companionate) should exhibit highest levels in longer relationships.

Types of Love

Passionate Love

Passionate love is the most widely studied type of love, arguably due to its intense and exciting nature (Berscheid, 2010). It is known by many names, including “romantic love,” “puppy love”, “obsessive love,” “eros”, “mania”, “limerance,”, and so on (Hatfield, Bensman, & Rapson, 2012). For purposes of this study, the term *passionate love* will be used, and is operationalized as “a state of intense longing for union with another” (Hatfield & Rapson, 1993, p.5). Passionate love is complex, and includes appraisals, behaviours, feelings, expressions, and physiological responses (Hatfield et al., 2012). Research has shown that when passionate love is reciprocated by the love target, individuals feel ecstatic; conversely, when this type of love is unrequited, individuals may feel emptiness, bleakness, and despair (Hatfield & Sprecher, 2010).

Due to the high level of interest in passionate love, many scales have been created to assess this type of love, including the *Reiss Romantic Love Scale* (Reiss, 1967), the *Romantic Love Scale* (Kephart, 1967), the *Love and Liking Scales* (Rubin, 1970), the *Love Attitudes Scale* (Munro & Adams, 1978), the *Passionate Love Scale* (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986), the *Triangular Theory of Love Scale* (Sternberg, 1997), and the *Being in Love: A Questionnaire* (Fisher, 2004). This list is not exhaustive; many more measures of passionate love exist, further demonstrating the fascination this type of love holds to researchers. The most widely utilized scales are the *Love Attitudes Scale* (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), the *Passionate Love Scale* (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986), and Sternberg’s (1988) *Triangular Love Scale*.

The Passionate Love Scale (PLS) is of main interest to this study, and it measures romantic love felt towards a partner using items that assess the *emotional*, *behavioural*, and *cognitive* aspects of romantic love. Examples of the *emotional* component of passionate love include attraction (especially sexual), happiness when the relationship is positive, unhappiness when the relationship is negative, a strong desire for reciprocation of loving feelings, longing for complete commitment to and from the partner, and sexual arousal. Examples of the *behavioural* component of passionate love include: actions used to discern the loved one's feelings, observing the loved one, doing things to be of service to the loved one, and establishing and maintaining physical closeness. Finally, examples of the *cognitive* component of passionate love include: intrusive thoughts of the loved one, idealization of the loved one, and a strong yearning to get to know the loved one, and to be known by him/her. This measure of passionate love has been extensively used across cultures, and has been found to correlate with known neural activation patterns of love in fMRI studies (Hatfield et al., 2012).

Since the 1960s, passionate love research has been a lively topic for scholars, and continues to be so; as such, many interesting findings regarding passionate love have emerged. Several studies have examined how individuals conceptualize, experience, and are affected by passionate love. Brand, Luethi, von Planta, Hatzinger, and Holsboer-Trachsler (2007) found that adolescents who were in the nascent stages of romantic love experienced hypomania, less but higher quality sleep; they reported more positive mood states, increased concentration, and increased daytime energy when compared to their counterparts who were not experiencing passionate love. The authors concluded that early stage passionate love is analogous to being in a hypomanic state, at least for

adolescents. Recent studies investigating love and its neurological associations have underscored the complex, multifaceted nature of passionate love; Cacioppo, Bianchi-Demicheli, and Hatfield (2012) found that passionate love activates brain regions associated with basic emotions and motivational and reward systems, as well as higher-order brain areas that involve memory, attention, associations, and social cognition.

The study of passionate love continues to be a prominent topic in love research, and the present study seeks to further substantiate how passionate love is experienced throughout the relationship course, and how this experience of passionate love is affected by age.

Companionate Love

Another type of love classified by researchers is companionate love. Hatfield and Walster's (1978) typology of love categorizes love into two types: passionate and companionate. Companionate love is less intense than romantic love, and it is the result of the combination of intimacy, attachment, and commitment (Acevedo & Aron, 2009). Berscheid and Hatfield (1969) define companionate love as "the affection and tenderness we feel for those with whom our lives are deeply entwined" (p. 9). Partners who experience companionate love for one another have a strong friendship, enjoy similar activities, respect each other, share like interests, and enjoy spending time together; however, the partners are not necessarily sexually attracted to each other (Acevedo & Aron, 2009). It is widely accepted that the most important and significant distinction amongst love types is that between companionate love and passionate love (Masuda, 2003).

Research into companionate love has mainly focussed on how it differs from passionate love. Hatfield and Walster (1978) introduced the idea that over the course of a relationship, passionate love morphs into companionate love, and this belief is still accepted at present. In a study examining love as it relates to subjective well-being, Kim and Hatfield (2004) found that companionate love most strongly predicted life satisfaction, and passionate love most strongly predicted positive emotions. Moreover, a study examining attachment style and cultural and ethnic influences on love found that culture and ethnicity did not exert a significant effect on the experience of either passionate or companionate love. The authors did find, however, a significant effect of attachment style on the likelihood of experiencing love. Anxious-ambivalent attached individuals exhibited the highest scores on passionate love, and were also the most likely to fall in love. Securely attached individuals showed middle scores on passionate love, and avoidantly attached individuals showed the lowest scores. As for companionate love, securely attached individuals had the highest scores, followed by anxious-ambivalent, and avoidantly attached demonstrated the lowest score (Doherty, Hatfield, Thompson, & Choo, 1994).

Companionate love is an important concept to examine when studying romantic relationships; the present study examined the experience of companionate love throughout the relationship course in older and younger individuals.

Compassionate Love

Another type of love identified by researchers is compassionate love. Sprecher and Fehr (2005) define compassionate love as “feelings, cognitions, and behaviors that are focused on caring, concern, tenderness, and an orientation toward supporting, helping,

and understanding the other(s), particularly when the other(s) is (are) perceived to be suffering or in need” (p. 630). From this, it is evident that compassionate love is an other-centered emotion, in which one individual focuses on encouraging another’s comfort and happiness (Berscheid, 2006). It may be considered an attitude or a dispositional characteristic, as well as a state that may be affected by situational, relational, and mood contexts. It is comparable to other constructs such as empathy, sympathy, and altruism, in that it considers the well-being and emotions of another individual; however, compassionate love has been found to be longer-lasting and also involves self-sacrifice.

Sprecher and Fehr (2005) argue that compassionate love is a construct distinct and separable from empathy, as it includes features of empathy (i.e., tenderness and caring), but also includes behavioural dispositions. Moreover, compassionate love is more enduring than empathy, and has been demonstrated not only by partners in close relationships, but also amongst strangers; however, the highest levels of compassionate love are those found between intimate relational partners (Sprecher, Zimmerman, & Abrahams, 2010). The two key components of compassionate love are that it strives to help the other in his/her personal growth, while also assuaging any negative feelings he/she may be experiencing (Sprecher & Fehr, 2010).

Research regarding compassionate love has been less pursued by scholars than research pertaining to romantic love, but has nonetheless increased in the last decade and has produced exciting results. For example, Sprecher, Zimmerman, and Abrahams (2010) examined how levels of compassionate love affected the process of romantic relationship dissolution between couples. They found that individuals who scored higher

on compassionate love chose more compassionate strategies when breaking up with their partner (e.g., strategies that were more positive and open as opposed to manipulative or avoidant) than those with lower scores, which demonstrated that levels of compassionate love could predict behaviour intention.

The authors also examined how compassionate love was related to locus of breakup. They identified three loci of breakup: an *external-locus* of breakup was an event or circumstance not directly related to the relationship partners themselves (e.g., moving away for a new job); a *dyadic-locus* involved differences in morals and/or values between the partners (e.g., wanting different things out of life), and a *partner-locus* involved a specific event or circumstance related to one of the partners (e.g., cheating). They found that those with an external or dyadic-locus for breaking up chose more compassionate breakup strategies than did those with partner-locus for breaking up. To illustrate, a woman would be more inclined to breakup with her partner in a more compassionate way if she realized she wanted children but her partner did not (a difference in values), than if she discovered her partner had been cheating on her. The authors also found that those who demonstrated a greater likelihood of engaging in compassionate strategies reported higher levels of compassionate love (Sprecher, Zimmerman, & Abrahams, 2010).

They also discovered gender differences in the interaction between reaction to partner betrayal (e.g., cheating) and compassionate love, with results indicating that women who scored high in compassionate love chose more compassionate breakup strategies after a partner betrayal, whereas men, regardless of their level of compassionate love, employed less compassionate strategies. This finding suggests a gender difference in the behavioural aspect of compassionate love. Another study by Sprecher, Fehr, and

Zimmerman (2007) found that individuals who scored high on passionate love experienced a higher increase in positive mood from giving or receiving help than those who scored lower. Additionally, Sprecher and Fehr (2006) found that individuals with high levels of passionate love experienced not only more positive mood enhancement, but also had higher levels of self-awareness, spirituality, self-esteem, and felt closer to others than those who reported experiencing lower levels of passionate love.

Sprecher and Fehr (2005) state that passionate love is an integral aspect of romantic relationships, as evidenced by several theoretical perspectives on love. For example, *prototype theory* (Fehr, 1998; 1983; Fehr & Russell, 1981) examines how the general population conceptualizes love. Using this theory, it was discovered that individuals consider “compassionate love” and its associated features (e.g., trust, tenderness, caring, etc.) to be a main feature of how they conceptualize love. Additionally, research that examines the six different styles of love recognizes compassionate love as very similar to the love style “agape” (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986; Lasswell & Lasswell, 1976; Lee, 1973) Agape is altruistic love, and involves aspects such as self-sacrifice, putting one’s partner ahead of oneself, and caring for another. Research has indicated that individuals generally score high on this love style in regards to their intimate partner, and it has been demonstrated that partners in long-term relationships show highest levels of agape (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1992). Finally, Sprecher and Fehr (2005) note that most scales measuring romantic love involve questions assessing some type of other-orientation similar to compassionate love. Examples include “I would do almost anything for my partner” (Rubin Love Scale;

Rubin, 1970), “I feel happy when I am doing something to make my partner happy” (Passionate Love Scale; Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986), and “I give considerable emotional support to my partner” (Sternberg’s Triangular Love Scale; Sternberg, 1988). From the abovementioned points, it is clear that passionate love is an important construct to consider in the study of romantic relationships, and this type of love was examined in the present study.

Temporal Course of Love Throughout Romantic Relationships

“Relationships are temporal in nature. Like rivers, they flow through time and space and change as the properties of the environment in which they are embedded change” (Berscheid, 2010, p. 11). This quote nicely illustrates the fluid nature of relationships; they are not fixed; rather, relationships change as environments and individuals change, physically, emotionally, and mentally. Because of this constant flux, it is evident that the love within that relationship will change as well.

Although much past research has examined different types of love at different points in romantic relationships, the findings are inconsistent, and often even conflicting. Outlined below are some of the findings related to passionate, companionate, and passionate love.

The most popular notion regarding passionate love is that it is highest in longer relationships, and previous research suggests that it is experienced to the greatest degree in long-term relationships (Grote & Frieze, 1998; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1992). This idea is consistent with Sternberg’s (1986) triangular love theory, as he suggests that intimacy and commitment increase over time, which would lead to a more passionate relationship. On the other hand, Clark and Monin (2006) suggest a different course for

compassionate love. They suggest that compassionate love may be highest at the beginning of a relationship, as this is when individuals are trying to appear as desirable to their new partners as possible. These studies represent a few examples of research into the temporal course of compassionate love; unfortunately, research into this area is relatively limited, especially among older adults (Berscheid, 2010). Berscheid (2010) stated: “What is needed is a model that specifies a limited range of varieties of love that are likely to be important in assessing both quantitative and qualitative changes in love as the relationship moves through time” (p. 11).

The typically held belief regarding companionate love is that it increases as a relationship moves through time (Hatfield & Walster, 1978). However, more recent research into companionate love presents a conflicting course for companionate love. For example, Hatfield et al. (2008) studied newlyweds’ love directly after they married, and again one year later. They found that companionate love did not increase; in fact, companionate love decreased at the same rate as passionate love. Also, Berscheid (2010) suggests that companionate love may be high at the beginning of a relationship, and may be an important factor in that relationship’s development and success.

Previous research into passionate love strongly suggests that this type of love is highest at the initial phases of relationships (Acker & Davis, 1992; Hatfield & Walster, 1978; Tucker & Aron, 1993). However, recent conflicting findings have emerged that suggest that passionate love may not necessarily follow a downward slope as the relationship moves through time. For example, Graham (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of several studies that examined love. He found that passionate love was positively associated with relationship length. In a similar vein, Acevedo and Aron

(2009) suggest a more optimistic temporal course for passionate love. They posit that passionate love involves two components, obsession and romantic love, and that it is obsession that declines over the course of a relationship, not romantic love.

From the abovementioned points, it is evident that inconsistent and often conflicting results regarding the temporal course of love throughout romantic relationships have emerged. The present study seeks to elucidate different love type experiences by examining each type of love throughout the relationship course.

Love Through the Lifespan

Given Canada's aging population, it would seem sensible that research regarding older adults' experiences with love would be an emerging area of study; yet, a review of the literature suggests that this is not the case. The paucity of research involving older adults' experiences with love demonstrates that investigators have generally overlooked this population. The reason for the lack of research is twofold: love researchers typically ignore the older population, and gerontology researchers typically ignore the topic of love. For example, Robert Kastenbaum, a prominent gerontology researcher, criticized the American Psychological Association in 1973 for neglecting the topic of love in older adults: "[W]e do not have a comprehensive gerontology unless we know something about this realm...Loving is not encompassed by the frequency of reported sexual interests and activities...All the 'dirty old men' jokes in the world do not dilute the poignancy of love and sex in later life". This critique spawned an increase in research involving sexual behaviour of older adults; however, the topic of love remained mostly ignored.

Despite the increasing prevalence of older adults, modern society generally associates passionate love with younger individuals (Barusch, 2008). A recent book by

Barusch (2008), *Love Stories of Later Life: A Narrative Approach to Understanding Romance*, suggests that the experience of love changes throughout the lifespan. The author investigates how older adults (aged 50 or more years) experience romantic love, and how this changes based on culture, age, and gender. She also examines how older adults' descriptions of love differ from that of younger adults. Interviews of 91 older individuals were conducted (mean age = 72), along with an online survey completed by over 1000 participants ranging from 19 to 86 years of age.

Barusch (2008) notes that the results from her research provide insightful lessons on love: "We learned that love is not a single, static entity, but a complex, dynamic process incorporating biochemical events, emotions, decisions, and values" (p. 6). Some noteworthy findings include that infatuation was found in older adults, albeit sometimes in a less physical, less intense form than the infatuation experienced by younger individuals. This difference in intensity was found when older and younger individuals were compared by age only, without taking into account length of relationship. That being said, when older adults who were in newer relationships reported on feelings of infatuation, it was found that their infatuation experience was of comparable intensity to that of younger individuals. Barusch (2008) also found that because of aging related physical changes, the ways in which individuals meet their physical intimacy needs may change. These findings suggest that passionate love and its related cognitions, emotions, and physical manifestations can (and do) exist in older adulthood, but they may be experienced in a unique fashion; additionally, these results underline that it is important to examine love not only in regards to age, but also with the consideration of relationship length in order to gain the most comprehensive understanding of how love evolves.

The small amount of research pertaining to aging and love is peppered with exciting findings that challenge the common belief that passionate love is for the young. For example, Knox (1970) found that older individuals married for 20 years showed higher levels of passion than those married for only five years; moreover, those married for 20 years reported levels of passion similar to high-school seniors. More recently, Fisher (2004) found that adults in middle adulthood (45 years of age) indicated comparable levels of passion to those individuals aged less than 25 years. Wang and Nguyen (1995) also had similar results using a cross-generational study. These findings suggest that love is not an experience unique to younger individuals; the results suggest that older adults do experience the intensity of romantic love as well.

The present study examined how older adults experience love as compared to younger adults, and also examined how older adults experience different types of love throughout the relationship course, addressing a gap in both love and gerontology literature.

Present Study

The present study uses a cross-sectional design, with self-report questionnaires. The study has two main purposes: 1) To garner an understanding of the temporal course of compassionate, companionate, and passionate love in relationships, and 2) To gain insight into how older individuals experience love (e.g., does this differ from younger individuals' experiences?). This study synthesizes elements from both the Triangular Love Theory (Sternberg, 1986) and the Love Styles Theory (Lee, 1973), with the most pervasive empirical findings from research regarding the different types of love. Based on evidence and theoretical rationale, passion is highest at the initial stages of a

relationship and decreases as the relationship increases in length, so passionate love should exhibit the highest levels in newest relationships. In contrast, commitment and intimacy are expected to increase as the relationship progresses; thus, the associated types of love (i.e., compassionate and companionate) should present highest levels in longer relationships. From this reasoning, the hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1a) Passionate love will be negatively correlated with relationship length.

Hypothesis 1b) Companionate love will be positively correlated with relationship length.

Hypothesis 1c) Compassionate love will be positively correlated with relationship length.

Hypothesis 2) Individuals' ages will not affect their levels of compassionate, companionate, or passionate love. These hypotheses serve to test how passionate, compassionate, and companionate love are experienced throughout the relationship course and the lifespan. While these hypotheses provide a framework for understanding how the different types of love are affected by relationship length and age, they do not paint a complete picture. To garner a more comprehensive understanding of how love is experienced, exploratory analyses were also conducted. These analyses serve to further separate the effects of relationship length and age on the different types of love while also examining higher-level interactions between the variables and comparing the types of love to each other. These analyses offer an in depth examination of the experience of love by both age and relationship length (and by other variables such as living arrangements, marital status, relationship orientation, etc.) that address a limitation of the majority of current research on love, as they allow for multiple separate comparisons of love to be made to each other and other variables.

Method

Participants

Participants ($N = 274$) were mostly female ($n = 214$, 78.4%) and ranged in age from 18-74 years of age ($M = 35.66$, $SD = 13.41$). Relationship length ranged from .08-51 years ($M = 6.3$, $SD = 8.81$). Most participants were in a heterosexual relationship ($n = 266$, 97.4%), and the majority were living together ($n = 165$, 60.4%) and not married ($n = 177$, 64.8%).

Measures

Demographic questionnaire (Appendix A). This is a questionnaire assessing demographic information collected data on age, gender, relationship length, marital status, sexual orientation (in present relationship), and living arrangements.

Passionate Love Scale (Appendix B). Passionate love was assessed using the Passionate Love Scale (PLS; Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986). The PLS is a 14-item inventory that measures the extent of passionate love felt by an individual toward a target using a 9 -point rating scale (1 = not at all true, 9 = definitely true). Participants indicate how they feel regarding the person they love. Questions include “I would feel deep despair if my partner left me”. The PLS demonstrates strong interval consistency, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .91.

Compassionate Love Scale (Appendix C). Compassionate love was measured using the Compassionate Love Scale – Close Others Version (CLS; Sprecher & Fehr, 2005). This version of the CLS includes 21 statements concerning the level of compassionate love an individual feels toward a close partner, rated on a 9 -point rating scale (1 = not at all true, 9 = definitely true); the scale was originally rated using a 7 point

scale, but to allow for more equivalent and meaningful comparisons with the other scales, it was made into a 9 point scale. Questions include “1. When I see my partner feeling sad, I feel a need to reach out to him/her”, and “8. If given the opportunity, I am willing to sacrifice in order to let my partner achieve his/her goals” The Close Others version of the scale demonstrates a Cronbach’s alpha of .94.

Companionate Love Scale (Appendix D). Companionate love was assessed using the Companionate Love Scale (Sternberg, 1986). This scale is comprised of two parts: intimacy and commitment, with four questions regarding each (e.g., “I am committed to maintaining my relationship with my partner” to measure commitment, and “I have a warm and comfortable relationship with my partner” to measure intimacy). The participant indicated the level to which they feel each statement relates to their feelings toward their partner using a 9-point scale (1 = not at all, 9 = extremely true). The Companionate Love Scale demonstrates acceptable internal consistency, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .89 for intimacy and .87 for commitment.

Procedure

Data were collected online using Survey Monkey from a sample of 273, individuals from September to October 2013. Participants were recruited through flyers posted around the community (Appendix E) and online advertisements (Appendix F). Interested individuals were given a link to Survey Monkey that took them to the questionnaires. They first read the study cover letter (Appendix H), the consent form (Appendix I), and provided informed consent if they wished to participate. They were then directed to the questionnaires, including the demographic questionnaire, the Passionate Love Scale, the Compassionate Love Scale, and the Companionate Love

Scale. Once they completed the questionnaires, they were directed to a debriefing form (Appendix J), which divulged the purpose of the study and included the contact information of the experimenter. Participants were instructed to email the researcher if they would like to be entered in a draw to win a 50 dollar Walmart gift card.

Results

Analyses were computed using SPSS version 22. Descriptive statistics were calculated along with three separate multiple regressions to test the hypotheses. A higher-level analysis using mixed level modelling was also done to compare trends across the scales. Results from analyses are discussed in detail below.

Descriptive Statistics

Passionate love. The Passionate Love Scale has a total possible score of 126. Scores on this measure ranged from 19 to 126 ($M = 98.8$, $SD = 18.64$) (see Table 1). The distribution showed a negative skew (see Figure 1). The scale showed high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .92.

Companionate love. The Companionate Love Scale has a total possible score of 72. Scores ranged from 8 to 72 ($M = 62.53$, $SD = 11.13$) (see Table 1). The distribution showed a negative skew (see Figure 2). The scale showed high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .93.

Compassionate love. The Compassionate Love Scale has a total possible score of 189. Scores ranged from 22 to 189 ($M = 160.38$, $SD = 25.04$) (see Table 1). The distribution showed a negative skew (see Figure 3). The scale showed high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .96.

Table 1

| <i>Love Scale Descriptive Statistics</i> | | | | | |
|--|----------|----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| | <i>N</i> | <i>Minimum</i> | <i>Maximum</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>Std. Deviation</i> |
| Passionate Love Scale Total Score | 272 | 19.00 | 126.00 | 98.8015 | 18.63905 |
| Companionate Love Scale Total Score | 273 | 8.00 | 72.00 | 62.5348 | 11.13056 |
| Compassionate Love Scale Total Score | 272 | 22.00 | 189.00 | 160.3860 | 25.04170 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 271 | | | | |

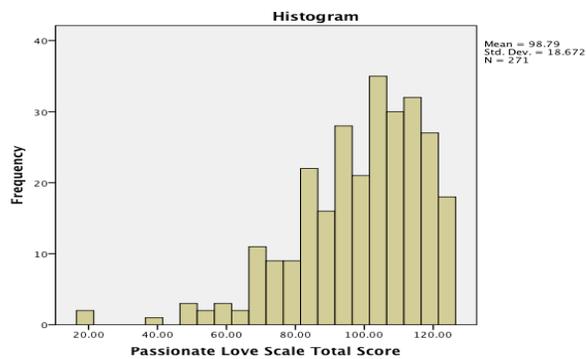


Figure 1. Distribution of passionate love total score

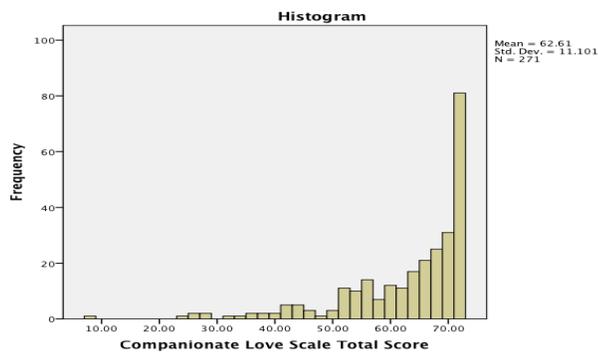


Figure 2. Distribution of companionate love total score.

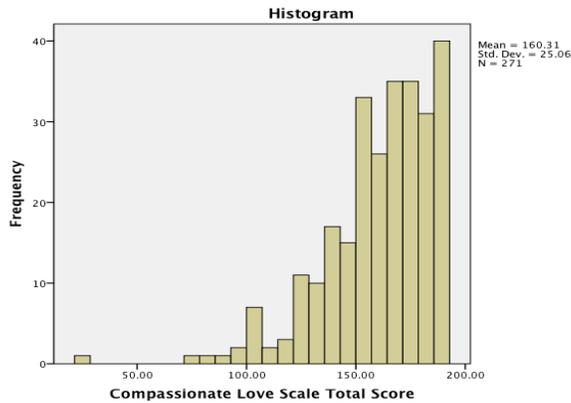


Figure 3. Distribution of compassionate love total score.

Correlations. As shown in Table 2, total scores for passionate, companionate, and compassionate love were highly correlated with one another.

Table 2

Correlations of Love Scales Total Scores

| | | Passionate Love Scale Total Score | Companionate Love Scale Total Score | Compassionate Love Scale Total Score |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Passionate Love Scale Total Score | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .640** | .731** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 | .000 |
| | N | 272 | 272 | 271 |
| Companionate Love Scale Total Score | Pearson Correlation | .640** | 1 | .714** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | .000 |
| | N | 272 | 273 | 272 |
| Compassionate Love Scale Total Score | Pearson Correlation | .731** | .714** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 271 | 272 | 272 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression analyses. Three separate regressions were performed for passionate, companionate, and compassionate love to address the hypotheses. Because the

distributions for the three types of love were negatively skewed, the directions of the scales were reflected to create a positive skew, and the scales were analyzed as gamma distributions with a log link. This helps normalize the distributions and allows for more meaningful interpretation of the results. Because the scales were reflected, lower scores indicate higher levels of love on the scales, and negative regression coefficients for age and relationship length indicate *increases* in love, whereas positive coefficients indicate *decreases* in love. For all three regressions, the predictor variables included the continuous variables length of relationship, age, and the length of relationship by age interaction, and the dichotomous variables relationship orientation, marital status, living arrangements, and gender. Interaction terms for relationship length by gender and age by gender were also included. The continuous predictors were centred on the grand mean. A squared term for relationship length was added to take account of curvilinearity for length of relationship, only if it improved model fit.

Passionate love. Hypothesis 1a. predicted that passionate love would be negatively correlated with relationship length, and hypothesis 2 predicted that age would not affect individuals' levels of passionate love. These were tested through a regression analysis using *passionate love* as the dependent variable and length of relationship, age, and age by length of relationship as predictor variables. Additional predictor variables were included for exploratory purposes: relationship orientation, marital status, living arrangements, gender, gender by age, and gender by relationship length. As displayed in Table 3, a significant effect of relationship orientation was found for passionate love, showing that individuals in heterosexual relationships reported higher levels of passionate

love than those in homosexual relationships. No significant effects were found for relationship length or age.

Table 3

Passionate Love Fixed Coefficients

| Model Term | Coefficient | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Intercept | 3.776 | .2986 | .000 | 3.188 | 4.364 |
| Age | .001 | .0083 | .876 | -.015 | .018 |
| Length of Relationship | .001 | .0165 | .964 | -.032 | .033 |
| Heterosexual | -.560 | .2715 | .040 | -1.095 | -.026 |
| Homosexual | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Married | .021 | .1163 | .857 | -.208 | .250 |
| Not Married | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Living Together | -.081 | .1090 | .458 | -.295 | .134 |
| Living Separate | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Female | .152 | .1091 | .165 | -.063 | .367 |
| Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age x Length of Relationship | .000 | .0005 | .616 | -.001 | .001 |
| Age x Female | -.002 | .0094 | .811 | -.021 | .016 |
| Age x Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Length x Female | .015 | .0132 | .260 | -.011 | .041 |
| Length x Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |

Companionate love. Hypothesis 1b. predicted that companionate love would be positively correlated with relationship length, and hypothesis 2 predicted that age would not affect individuals' levels of companionate love. These were tested through a regression analysis using *companionate love* as the dependent variable and length of relationship, age, and age by length of relationship as predictor variables. The abovementioned additional exploratory variables (i.e., marital, gender, etc.) were also included. As Table 4 shows, a significant effect was found for living arrangements, showing that higher levels of companionate love were reported in individuals who lived

with their partner than those who lived separately. Also, a significant effect was found for companionate love and relationship length, showing that as the relationship increased in length, levels of companionate love increased. Additionally, a significant effect was found for the interaction term gender by length of relationship, showing that males in longer relationships had higher levels of companionate love than females in longer relationships. Finally, a significant effect was found for the interaction between age and relationship length, demonstrating that age moderated the relationship between companionate love and relationship length. This means that older individuals in longer relationships had lower levels of companionate love than younger individuals in longer relationships.

Table 4

Companionate Love Fixed Coefficients

| Model Term | Coefficient | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Intercept | 2.527 | .4163 | .000 | 1.707 | 3.346 |
| Age | .011 | .0117 | .351 | -.012 | .034 |
| Length of Relationship | -.086 | .0228 | .000 | -.131 | -.042 |
| Heterosexual | -.332 | .3846 | .390 | -1.089 | .426 |
| Homosexual | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Married | -.075 | .1685 | .658 | -.406 | .257 |
| Not Married | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Living Together | -.319 | .1507 | .035 | -.616 | -.022 |
| Living Separate | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Female | .292 | .1521 | .056 | -.007 | .592 |
| Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age x Length of Relationship | .001 | .0006 | .036 | 8.619E-5 | .003 |
| Age x Female | .002 | .0134 | .897 | -.025 | .028 |
| Age x Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Length x Female | .063 | .0191 | .001 | .026 | .101 |
| Length x Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |

Compassionate love. Hypothesis 1c. predicted that compassionate love would be positively correlated with relationship length, and hypothesis 2 predicted that age would not affect individuals' levels of compassionate love. These were tested through a regression analysis using *compassionate love* as the dependent variable and length of relationship, age, and age by length of relationship as predictor variables. Similarly, the aforementioned additional exploratory variables were also included.

As shown in Table 5, a significant effect was found for gender and compassionate love, suggesting that males have higher levels of compassionate love than females. No significant effects were found for relationship length or age.

Table 5

Compassionate Love Fixed Coefficients

| Model Term | Coefficient | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Intercept | 3.511 | .3874 | .000 | 2.748 | 4.274 |
| Age | .001 | .0108 | .919 | -.020 | .022 |
| Length of Relationship | -.015 | .0215 | .489 | -.057 | .027 |
| Heterosexual | -.402 | .3541 | .257 | -1.100 | .295 |
| Homosexual | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Married | -.006 | .1472 | .966 | -.296 | .283 |
| Not Married | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Living Together | -.174 | .1434 | .225 | -.457 | .108 |
| Living Separate | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Female | .393 | .1415 | .006 | .115 | .672 |
| Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age x Length of Relationship | .001 | .0006 | .250 | .000 | .002 |
| Age x Female | -.004 | .0124 | .760 | -.028 | .021 |
| Age x Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Length x Female | .017 | .0173 | .322 | -.017 | .051 |
| Length x Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |

Mixed model. The mixed model compared trends across the scales. The three love scales were nested within individuals. Two models were computed, one with the scale scores and another with normalised T scores. The purpose of the latter was to account for any effects associated with differences in the means and standard deviations of the scales.

As displayed in Table 6, results showed that over the three scales combined, love increases with relationship length. Results also show that passionate love decreases with age more than companionate love, and that passionate and compassionate love decrease more than companionate love as the relationship increases in length. Additionally, results show that females have lower levels of love in longer relationships than do males. Finally, the triple interaction (age by length of relationship within type of love) shows that with increases in age and length of relationships, the passionate and compassionate scales showed higher levels of love than the companionate scale

Table 6

Mixed Model (Scale Scores)

| Model Term | Coefficient | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|--|----------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-----------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Intercept | 2.341 | .3681 | .000 | 1.619 | 3.064 |
| Age | .010 | .0099 | .297 | -.009 | .030 |
| Relationship Length | -.064 | .0199 | .001 | -.103 | -.025 |
| Female | .240 | .1341 | .074 | -.024 | .503 |
| Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Heterosexual | -.604 | .3373 | .074 | -1.266 | .059 |
| Homosexual | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Married | -.183 | .1460 | .210 | -.470 | .103 |
| Not Married | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Living Together | -.116 | .1338 | .387 | -.378 | .147 |
| Living Separate | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age (Female) | -.002 | .0110 | .865 | -.023 | .020 |
| Age (Male) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Relationship Length (Female) | .032 | .0157 | .040 | .002 | .063 |
| Relationship Length (Male) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age x Relationship Length | .002 | .0006 | .003 | .001 | .003 |
| Passionate Love Index | 1.342 | .0545 | .000 | 1.235 | 1.449 |
| Compassionate Love Index | 1.174 | .0545 | .000 | 1.067 | 1.281 |
| Companionate Love Index | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age (Passionate Love Index) | -.012 | .0043 | .005 | -.021 | -.004 |
| Age (Compassionate Love Index) | -.016 | .0043 | .000 | -.024 | -.007 |
| Age (Companionate Love Index) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Relationship Length (Passionate Love Index) | .069 | .0107 | .000 | .048 | .090 |
| Relationship Length (Compassionate Love Index) | .048 | .0107 | .000 | .027 | .069 |
| Relationship Length (Companionate Love Index) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age x Relationship Length (Passionate Love Index) | -.002 | .0004 | .000 | -.002 | -.001 |
| Age x Relationship Length (Compassionate Love Index) | -.001 | .0004 | .034 | -.002 | -7.143E-5 |
| Age x Relationship Length (Companionate Love Index) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |

A further mixed model was run to account for possible differences in the means and standard deviations of the scales, with the scale scores transformed to T scores (i.e., $M=50$, $SD=10$). This model was meant to see if any differences in the levels of love could be attributed to scale effects rather than true differences. Results are shown in Table 7. It was found that there are higher levels of passionate and compassionate love (compared to companionate love) in the age by length relationship within type of love interaction.

Table 7

Mixed Model (T Scores)

| Model Term | Coefficient | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|--|----------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-----------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Intercept | 4.003 | .0676 | .000 | 3.870 | 4.135 |
| Age | .002 | .0018 | .390 | -.002 | .005 |
| Relationship Length | -.010 | .0037 | .005 | -.017 | -.003 |
| Female | .054 | .0246 | .029 | .006 | .102 |
| Male | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Heterosexual | -.145 | .0620 | .020 | -.266 | -.023 |
| Homosexual | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Married | -.005 | .0268 | .841 | -.058 | .047 |
| Not Married | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Living Together | -.036 | .0246 | .141 | -.085 | .012 |
| Living Separate | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age (Female) | -1.199E-5 | .0020 | .995 | -.004 | .004 |
| Age (Male) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Relationship Length (Female) | .005 | .0029 | .088 | -.001 | .011 |
| Relationship Length (Male) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age x Relationship Length | .000 | .0001 | .006 | 8.907E-5 | .001 |
| Passionate Love Index | .014 | .0099 | .161 | -.006 | .033 |
| Compassionate Love Index | .006 | .0099 | .578 | -.014 | .025 |
| Companionate Love Index | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age (Passionate Love Index) | -.002 | .0008 | .047 | -.003 | -2.443E-5 |
| Age (Compassionate Love Index) | -.002 | .0008 | .004 | -.004 | -.001 |
| Age (Companionate Love Index) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Relationship Length (Passionate Love Index) | .011 | .0020 | .000 | .008 | .015 |
| Relationship Length (Compassionate Love Index) | .006 | .0020 | .001 | .002 | .010 |
| Relationship Length (Companionate Love Index) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |
| Age x Relationship Length (Passionate Love Index) | .000 | 7.8973E-5 | .003 | .000 | -7.968E-5 |
| Age x Relationship Length (Compassionate Love Index) | .000 | 7.8968E-5 | .167 | .000 | 4.580E-5 |
| Age x Relationship Length (Companionate Love Index) | 0 ^a | . | . | . | . |

Discussion

The current study investigated how passionate, companionate, and compassionate love are perceived throughout the course of a romantic relationship and the lifespan. This was examined using a series of self-report questionnaires that assessed participants' levels of these types of love. Results of the mixed modelling optimistically suggest that, overall, love increased with relationship length. Hypothesis 1b, which posited that companionate love and relationship length would be positively correlated, was found to be true, as regression and mixed modelling revealed that the experience of companionate love was affected by relationship length, specifically demonstrating that longer relationships had higher levels of companionate love. However, this affect was moderated by age in the regression analysis; older participants who were in longer relationships felt less companionate love than younger individuals who were in longer relationships. Contrary to both hypothesis 1a, which predicted that passionate love would be negatively correlated with relationship length, and hypothesis 1c, which predicted that compassionate love would be positively correlated with relationship length, results demonstrated that neither passionate nor compassionate love were significantly affected by relationship length. Hypothesis 2 was confirmed, in that age did not have an effect on passionate, companionate, or compassionate love (save for the abovementioned moderating effect).

An effect of gender was found for compassionate love, which showed that males had higher levels of compassionate love than females, and companionate love, which showed that males in longer relationships had higher levels of companionate love than females in longer relationships. An effect of living arrangements was found for

companionate love, which demonstrated that individuals who lived with their partner reported higher levels of companionate love than those who did not. Also, an effect of sexual orientation was found on passionate love, which showed that individuals in heterosexual relationships reported higher passionate love than those in homosexual relationships. Results are discussed in detail in the following sections, first in regard to relationship length and age for each type of love, and then in regard to gender, sexual orientation, and living arrangements, and finally in regard to the results of the mixed model analysis.

Passionate Love

Relationship length. It was hypothesized that passionate love would be negatively correlated with relationship length, as this is the course that popular theories have suggested (e.g., Passionate and Companionate Love Theory (Hatfield & Walster, 1978), Love Styles Theory (Lee, 1973), Triangular Theory of Love (Sternberg, 1986)). Several studies support the idea that passionate love is higher in newer relationships (e.g., Cimbalò, Failing, & Mousaw, 1976; Coleman, 1977; Goldstine et al., 1977; Sprecher & Regan, 1998). In contrast, the current study did not find a significant effect of relationship length on levels of passionate love. Regression analysis demonstrated that the general trend was for passionate love to be negatively correlated with relationship length, but not enough to show a significant effect. Similarly, the mixed model analysis showed that in general, there was less passionate love in relationships compared to companionate love. Although this did not support the hypothesis, some studies have suggested that passionate love does not necessarily decline in longer relationships (Acevedo & Aron, 2009; Acker & Davis, 1992).

A possible explanation for this finding can be found in an idea proposed by Baumeister and Bratslavsky (1999). They suggest that passion is a function of *changes* in intimacy, and that *increases* in intimacy cause passion to rise, but *stability* in intimacy (whether intimacy is high or low) cause passion to be low. They developed this idea from Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory, stating that intimacy is a component of passion, but intimacy is slower to develop than passion; therefore, intimacy and passion do not have a linear relationship; rather, passion may be expressed as a *rate of change* of intimacy. Baumeister and Bratslavsky (1999) suggest that intimacy rises quickly in the beginning of a relationship (as two people get to know each other), and then rises more slowly; this means that newer relationships will have more instances of changes in intimacy, and longer relationships will have higher levels of stable intimacy; but it is possible that intimacy can still increase at times in longer relationships (as partners may reveal aspects of themselves previously unknown to the other). This means that when a change in intimacy occurs, whether in a relationship of two months or a relationship of 20 years, levels of passion will rise. This explanation could account for the fact that a significant effect of relationship length on passionate love was not found. It may be that it is not relationship length that is directly related to changes in this type of love, but rather changes in intimacy levels that can fluctuate anytime throughout the relationship course.

Another reason that the prediction regarding passionate love may not have been realized may have to do with the participants themselves. The study was advertised as a "love study", and perhaps individuals who opted to participate found the study appealing because they had higher levels of love in general. Additionally, participants may have

shown a response bias. As love is highly regarded and valued, participants may be inclined to respond to items regarding love in a socially desirable way. A study by Davies (2001) examined social desirability responding in regard to Lee's (1973) Love Styles Theory. He suggested that some types of love (i.e., eros, storge) are thought of more positively, while others (i.e., ludus) are thought of more negatively, and predicted individuals would respond in a socially desirable fashion regarding the types of love with positive connotations. He also suggested that gender difference in socially desirable responding would emerge, as males and females are thought to have different ideas as to what type of love is more desirable (i.e., pragma for women, ludus for men). Davies (2001) found socially desirable responding for eros and ludus for men, and for agape for women. These findings suggest that participants may have had a response bias while answering questions regarding their levels of love. The abovementioned reasons may account for the fact that there was not a finding of a significant effect of relationship length on experiences of passionate love.

Age. The age range for participants was quite large (18 to 74 years of age), and as hypothesized, age did not affect individuals' experiences of passionate love. Although it is commonly believed that passionate love belongs to the realm of youth, past studies have found results to the contrary (see Barusch, 2008; Fisher, 2004; Knox, 1970). These results are encouraging, and it is hoped that this finding will help dispel the common myth that older adults do not experience passionate love as intensely as younger individuals.

Companionate Love

Relationship length. It was hypothesized that companionate love would be positively correlated to relationship length, as this is the course that has been suggested by previous studies (Hatfield & Walster, 1978; Hays, 1988; Reis & Shaver, 1988) and theories (e.g., Passionate and Companionate Love Theory (Hatfield & Walster, 1978); Love Styles Theory (Lee, 1973); Triangular Theory of Love (Sternberg, 1986)). Using regression, this hypothesis was confirmed, in that participants who were in longer relationships had higher levels of companionate love. This finding is in line with Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory, as he suggests that companionate love consists of intimacy and commitment components, which are expected to increase as a relationship moves through time.

This finding is also supported by a model of intimacy proposed by Reis and Shaver (1988), which describes the process of intimacy as beginning when one reveals personal information about him/herself to a partner, and continuing if the partner responds in a positive fashion. In order for intimacy to occur, one must feel as if he/she has been understood, and that he/she is cared for by the partner. It is expected that intimacy will grow over time; partners will reveal increasingly more intimate information to each other as they get to know each other better, and will continue to feel validated and cared for (Berscheid, 1985). As intimacy is an integral component of companionate love, the time course of this model is applicable to the current findings.

Age. When levels of companionate love were examined in regards to age alone through regression analysis, the hypothesis that age would have no effect on companionate love was realized, meaning levels of companionate love were not

significantly affected by participants' ages. However, the *interaction* between age and relationship length was examined for companionate love, and a moderating effect of age emerged. Specifically, it was found that participants who were in longer relationships *and* were older had significantly *lower* levels of companionate love than participants who were in longer relationships but were younger.

This interaction effect was unexpected and could be due to a variety of speculative reasons and extraneous variables. For example, it is logical to assume that older individuals in longer relationships have experienced most of life's major milestones together, such as marriage, purchasing a first home, having children, retirement, and so on. Perhaps companionate love increased in the beginning of these relationships over time, as novel and exciting experiences such as purchasing a first home and having children likely made couples more intimate and committed to one another. However, after much passage of time, other life experiences would emerge, and perhaps these experiences did not serve to foster intimacy and commitment the way previous experiences did. To illustrate, perhaps a couple met when they were both young adults. They began dating, and as they revealed more of themselves to each other, they both felt valued and cared for, and married a few years later. After this, they bought a house and had children, which served to enforce their commitment to one another. Once the children were grown up and moved out of the house, they realized they had little in common with each other, and not as much reason to stay committed as they did before. This hypothetical situation offers a speculative explanation of the present findings. As this finding was surprising, further research is suggested to see if the results would be replicated.

Compassionate Love

Relationship length. It was hypothesized that compassionate love would be positively correlated to relationship length, as this course has been suggested by previous research (Sprecher & Fehr 2005; 2009). Although results from regression analysis indicated a slight positive correlation between compassionate love and relationship length, the levels were not significant. A possible explanation for the failure to find a significant effect of relationship length on compassionate love is because compassionate love can be thought of as an enduring dispositional personal characteristic (Sprecher & Fehr, 2005). It is possible that some individuals have higher levels of compassionate love, regardless of the target of this love or length of their romantic relationship. In line with this, it has been found that compassionate love is associated with several manifestations of prosocial behaviour, such as caregiving (Giesbrecht, 2009), giving support to others (Smith, 2009), and volunteering (Sprecher & Fehr, 2009). This further suggests that compassionate love may be a part of an individual's personal characteristics, which means that he/she would act compassionately in all areas of life, not just romantic relationships. This also would mean that an individual high in compassionate love would behave highly compassionately throughout the relationship course, regardless of length.

In addition, compassionate love differs from passionate and companionate love in an important way involving the target of this type of love. Passionate love is thought to be felt only towards a target that one feels powerful attraction and closeness towards; companionate love is felt towards a target one feels intimate and close to; compassionate love, on the other hand, can be felt for close partners, but also for complete strangers, and

mankind as a whole (Fehr & Sprecher, 2009). While there was an attempt to account for this issue by measuring compassionate love using a scale specifically meant to measure this type of love for a romantic partner, it could be that compassionate love is not relationship specific, and the idea that it can be felt towards even complete strangers suggests that levels of compassionate love may not be affected by specific relational variables, such as romantic relationship length.

Additionally, response bias also may have played a role in participants' reports of compassionate love, as this type of love is highly valued and esteemed in society. Davies (2001) did find social desirable responding for agape (for females), which is directly comparable to compassionate love. This means that participants may have reported higher levels of compassionate love than what they actually feel. These reasons may account for the nonsignificant findings of relationship length on compassionate love.

Age. As hypothesized, no effect was found for age on compassionate love. This suggests that individuals, regardless of how their age, will experience compassionate love at similar levels throughout the lifespan.

Gender

Although gender was not of main interest to the current study, it was examined to see if it had an effect on passionate, companionate, or compassionate love. It is suggested that gender differences in love exist, as evidenced by popular media that tend to focus on and exaggerate the difference in love styles for men and women (i.e., the popular book *Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus*). An evolutionary account of love suggests that love is experienced differently for the sexes, with men and women

placing importance on different characteristics in their mates to address different evolutionary issues (Buss & Schmitt, 1993).

A socio-cultural perspective suggests that male and female behaviour is determined by traditional gender roles, and this role-specific behaviour operates in romantic relationships. For example, men are expected to be more sexual and less emotionally expressive, and females are expected to be more emotionally expressive and less sexual (Schoenfeld, Bredow, & Huston, 2012).

Previous studies often show conflicting findings when it comes to gender differences in types of love, with some studies showing differences and others showing none. For example, some studies show males experience higher levels of passion (Ahmetoglu et al., 2010; Sumter, Valkenburg, & Peter, 2013), and other studies suggest males and females experience passion equally (Connolly et al., 1999; Hatfield et al., 2008; Shulman & Scharf, 2000). Additionally, some studies show that females have higher levels of companionate love than males (Hatfield et al., 2008, Study 1), but other studies show that there is no difference between the levels of companionate love females feel for their partners and the level of companionate love they perceive their male partners feels towards them (Hatfield et al., 2008, Study 2). As for compassionate love, it is found that females typically have higher levels of compassionate love for all targets (i.e., humanity, strangers, and romantic partners) than do males (Sprecher & Fehr, 2005).

The current study found no effect of gender on passionate love, but an effect was found for compassionate love and companionate love. Results show that men reported higher levels of compassionate love than did women. This was surprising, as other studies (i.e., Davies) suggest women place higher value on compassionate love than men,

and generally have higher levels of compassionate love (Sprecher & Fehr, 2005). Speculatively, it is possible that the males in the current study were atypical in that they felt higher levels of compassionate love than males in general, or that the females in the current study were atypical and felt lower levels of compassionate love than females in general, which would lead to the males having a comparatively higher level of compassionate love. Further research into this area is suggested to gain a clearer understanding of this unexpected finding.

Also unexpectedly, it was found that males in longer relationships had higher levels of companionate love than females in longer relationships. Past studies that have found a gender difference in companionate love usually find the opposite effect: that females have higher levels of companionate love than males (Hatfield et al., 2008). It is important to note that this effect was only found in the interaction between relationship length and gender, so females and males in shorter relationships did not show a difference in their levels of companionate love. This finding could be attributed to the small number of male participants in the study (21.6%). Another study with more equal groups of males and females is suggested to see if this result is replicated.

Living Arrangements

Results demonstrated that individuals who lived with their romantic partners had higher levels of companionate love than those who lived separately from their partners. This finding is logical, and is in line with previous findings involving relationships and cohabitation (Huang et al., 2001; Manning, Cohen, & Smock, 2011). It is thought that living together allows partners to get to know each other better, spend more time with one

another, thereby increasing the likelihood that they will engage in enjoyable activities together and feel a stronger, more affectionate bond.

Relationship Orientation

Results showed that individuals who were in heterosexual relationships reported higher levels of passionate love than those in homosexual relationships. This finding was not expected, as previous studies have found similarities in the way heterosexuals and homosexuals experience love (Bauermeister et al., 2011). This finding may be due to the comparatively small amount of participants who were in homosexual relationships (only 2.6% of the sample were in a homosexual relationship). Further investigation into this finding is warranted, with more equal groups of heterosexual and homosexual participants.

Mixed Model

The mixed model analysis was used to compare passionate, companionate, and compassionate love to each other. Two models were run; the first used unstandardized scores, and the second used T scores to see if the effects found in the first model would be replicated, or to see if they may be due to a scale effect. A scale effect was suspected, as companionate love demonstrated the highest number of significant results, and this scale had a lower mean and lower standard deviation than both the passionate and compassionate love scales. The mixed model analysis showed that, as a whole, levels of love increased as the relationship increased in length. A triple interaction effect (looking at relationship length x age within love) was found in the unstandardized scores for both passionate and compassionate love, but was only found for passionate love in the model

using the standardized score. This suggests that as age and relationship length increase, there is a greater effect on passionate love than there is on companionate love.

Results also demonstrated that passionate love decreased more with age than did companionate love. This finding may be accounted for by the finding that companionate love increased with relationship length, and individuals who are older are likely in longer relationships.

The mixed model analysis also showed that females had lower levels of love in relationships than did males. As mentioned above, this finding was surprising, as previous literature has suggested that females may have higher levels of love than males, especially passionate love (Sprecher & Fehr, 2005) and companionate love (Hatfield et al., 2008). It is suggested that a study involving more equal groups of males and females be conducted to see if this finding is replicated.

Limitations

The most pressing limitation of the current study was the cross-sectional design. Cross-sectional studies only allow for a snapshot of an observation at one particular point in time; this type of study does not give insight into how a construct is experienced and changes through time. As the current study examined love, which is known to fluctuate throughout time, it would have been much more informative if the study was longitudinal. This would have allowed for a deeper understanding, as the types of love could be examined in regards to how they change over time in a specific relationship.

Another limitation of the present study also stems from the cross-sectional design. As the way the different types of love were experienced throughout the life span is of main interest to the study, the relationship between levels of love and age was examined.

However, because this was a cross-sectional design, cohort or period effects may exist. Cohort effects describe the influence that a certain characteristic (i.e., being born in the same year or same span of years) may exert on a variable of interest. Period effects describe the influence that a shared experience (i.e., a war, a famine) may have on a variable of interest (Glenn, 1976). These effects can be problematic, as they may produce results that are not necessarily related to the phenomenon of interest. As a hypothetical example, imagine a researcher is examining attitudes toward food and body image in younger and older individuals using a cross-sectional design. They may find differences that are purely due to cohort and period effects; for example, if the older adults in the study lived through a period when food was scarce and only wealthy individuals had unlimited access to food, they may assess the relationship between food and body image differently than younger individuals (i.e., being heavier is a sign of prestige and success). Younger individuals may have grown up in a time when food is readily available and obesity was thought to be unhealthy and unattractive; being thin is perpetuated by the media as a cultural ideal. The simple fact that these two groups had such different life experiences, and therefore different conceptualizations and thoughts about the constructs being studied, can result in findings that may not be truly meaningful.

Although any researcher examining age must consider cohort effects, they were less of a concern in the present study, as age was not expected to affect levels of passionate, companionate, and compassionate love.

Another limitation is that love was assessed using self-report questionnaires. It has been suggested that love should be studied using other methodology, such as

experience sampling to gain more accurate results, especially when studying different components of love (Graham, 2008; 2011). Another issue that arises from self-reports is response bias, where individuals may fall prone to socially desirable responding. As discussed above, this may have been problematic in the current study, as love is valued and regarded highly. Using different methodology would help remedy the problem of response bias.

Future Directions

Ideas for future research into this area include conducting a similar study using a longitudinal instead of cross-sectional design. An example would be measuring individuals' levels of passionate, companionate, and compassionate love at one point in time, and then at one, two, and three year intervals. This would allow researchers to examine changes in the same relationship over time; if trends are found, this could lead to stronger conclusions regarding the course of love as a relationship moves through time, as it would focus on comparing the same relationship to itself as opposed to comparing different relationships to each other. Similarly, researchers could conduct a longitudinal study that looks at individuals when they first enter into a romantic relationship, and measure their levels of passionate, companionate, and compassionate love at different time intervals. This would give a comprehensive idea of how love is experienced and changes through time from the initial phase of a relationship.

Another idea for future research includes studying levels of love as experienced by both partners of a relationship, using a dyadic design. This would add a complex layer of analysis, as levels of love could be compared within a romantic dyad; one could examine the effect of different or similar levels of love within the couple to the level of

love experienced. For example, perhaps partners who both report similar levels of passionate love report higher levels of passionate love than those partners whose passionate love levels differ significantly from one another.

A final suggestion for future research includes doing a similar study, but with a categorical design. This would involve measuring individuals' levels of the different types of love, and would group individuals into both age and relationship length categories. For example, age categories could include broad categories such as early, middle, and late adulthood, or more specific categories such as 18-23, 24-29, 30-34, etc. Relationship length could also be grouped into broad categories (new, established, long-term), or more specific categories (less than one year; one to two years; three to five years, etc.). This type of design would aid in producing a clear pattern (if one exists) of how love is experienced at different relationship points and throughout the lifespan. It would also allow for clearer understanding of how relationship length and age interact with each other.

In conclusion, the present study examined how passionate, companionate, and compassionate love were experienced throughout the temporal course of a relationship and throughout the lifespan. Results showed that relationship length had no effect on the experience of passionate or compassionate love, but companionate love was found to be positively associated with relationship length. No direct effect of age was found for passionate, companionate, or compassionate love, but a moderating effect of age was found for the relationship between relationship length and companionate love, with older participants in longer relationships showing lower levels of companionate love.

Love is an important area of research, and is related to humans' well-being (Sprecher & Fehr, 2006) and relationship satisfaction (Fehr, 2001). Identifying and understanding how different types of love are perceived in romantic relationships over time and throughout the lifespan can help contribute to knowledge of how love works. Further knowledge into this fundamental human experience can be used to help enhance individuals' lives. Though love has been widely researched, inconsistent, conflicting findings have emerged, especially pertaining to the course that different types of love follow as a relationship progresses throughout time. The present study was conducted with the hope that it would help clarify how passionate, compassionate, and companionate love are experienced by adults at different points in their relationships. Further, examining younger and older individuals allowed for cross-sectional comparisons of how different types of love are experienced throughout the temporal course of a romantic relationship, and for different ages. The inclusion of older adults addresses a need expressed by researchers in both the fields of love and gerontology, as love research generally focuses on younger adults, and gerontology research typically ignores the aspect of love. It is hoped that the abovementioned findings will provide informative results that can be used to help better understand the experience of love throughout the course and lifespan of relationships.

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Appendix A – Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is your date of birth?

MM/DD/YYYY

2. What is your partner's date of birth (if known)

MM/DD/YYYY

3. What sex are you?

Male

Female

4. What type of relationship are you currently in?

Heterosexual

Homosexual

5. In your opinion, how many months have you been in a romantic relationship with your current partner?

6. Are you married to your current partner?

Yes No

7. Are you living with your current partner?

Yes No

Appendix B – Passionate Love Scale

We would like to know how you feel about the person you are currently in a romantic relationship with. Passionate love is defined as “an intense state of longing for union with another”. Some common terms for passionate love are romantic love, infatuation, love sickness, or obsessive love.

Please think of the person whom you are currently in a romantic relationship with *right now*.

Try to describe the way you feel *right now* towards your partner.

Answers range from (1) Not at all true to (9) Definitely true.

1. I would feel deep despair if my partner left me.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

2. Sometimes I feel I can't control my thoughts; they are obsessively on my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

3. I feel happy when I am doing something to make my partner happy.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

4. I would rather be with my partner than anyone else.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

5. I'd get jealous if I thought my partner was falling in love with someone else.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

6. I yearn to know all about my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

7. I have an endless appetite for affection from my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

8. For me, my partner is the perfect romantic partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

9. I sense my body responding when my partner touches me.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

10. My partner always seems to be on my mind.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

11. I want my partner to know me – my thoughts, my fears, and my hopes.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

12. I eagerly look for signs indicating my partner's desire for me.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

13. I possess a powerful attraction for my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

14. I get extremely depressed when things don't go right in my relationship with my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

Appendix C – Companionate Love Scale

We would also like measure how much companionate love you feel for the person you are in a romantic relationship with right now. Companionate love is defined as “the affection and tenderness we feel for those with whom our lives are deeply entwined”. Some common terms for companionate love are affectionate love, tender love, true love, or marital love.

Please think of the person whom you are currently in a relationship with, and tell us how you feel about them *right now*.

Answers range from (1) Not at all true to (9) Definitely true

Decision/Commitment

1. I expect my love for my partner to last for the rest of my life.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

2. I can't imagine ending my relationship with my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

3. I am committed to maintaining my relationship with my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

4. I have confidence in the stability of my relationship with my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

Intimacy

5. I strongly desire to promote the well-being of my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

6. I have a relationship of mutual understanding with my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

7. My partner is able to count on me in times of need.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

8. I feel emotionally close to my partner.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

Appendix D – Compassionate Love Scale

We would also like to measure how much compassionate love you feel for the person you are in a romantic relationship with right now.

Compassionate love is defined as “feelings, cognitions, and behaviours that are focused on caring, concern, tenderness, and an orientation toward supporting, helping, and understanding the other, particularly when the other is perceived to be suffering or in need.”

Answers range from (1) Not at all true to (9) Definitely true

- 1) When I see my partner feeling sad, I feel a need to reach out to him/her.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

- 2) I spend a lot of time concerned with the well-being of my partner.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

- 3) When I hear about my partner going through a difficult time, I feel a great deal of compassion for him/her.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

- 4) It is easy for me to feel the pain (and joy) experienced by my partner.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 definitely true

5) If my partner needs help, I would do almost anything I could to help him/her.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

6) I feel considerable compassionate love for my partner.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

7) I would rather suffer myself than see my partner suffer.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

8) If given the opportunity, I am willing to sacrifice in order to let my partner to me achieve his/her goals in life.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

9) I tend to feel compassion for my partner.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

10) One of the activities that provide me with the most meaning to my life is helping my partner.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

11) I would rather engage in actions that would help my partner than engage in actions that would help me.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

12) I often have tender feelings my partner when he/she seems to be in need.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

13) I feel a selfless caring for my partner.

not at all true of me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true of me*

14) I my partner even when he/she does things I think are wrong.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

15) If my partner is is troubled, I usually feel extreme tenderness and caring.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

16) I try to understand rather than judge my partner.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

17) I try to put myself in my partner's shoes when he/she is in trouble.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

18) I feel happy when I see that my partner is happy.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

19) My partner can trust that I will be there for him/her if he/she needs me.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

20) I want to spend time with my partner so that I can find ways to help enrich his/her life.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

21) I very much wish to be kind and good to my partner.

not at all true 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 *definitely true*

Appendix F – Recruitment Advertisement

Participants need for a psychological study on love! If you would like to participate (or require further information) please contact lovestudy@lakeheadu.ca. In order to participate, you must be 18 or older and currently in a romantic relationship. The study involves a series of online questionnaires. Participate for your chance to win one of five \$10.00 Tim Horton's gift cards!

Appendix G – Cover Letter

Dear Potential Participant:

My name is Katie Lemmetty and I am in my final year of my Master's in Psychological Science, currently working on my Master's thesis. I am conducting a study titled "An Exploratory Study of Passionate, Companionate, and Compassionate Love Thought-out Relationship Course and the Lifespan" under the supervision of Dr. Stones, a faculty member from the department of psychology at Lakehead University. The purpose of this study is to examine how individuals experience love at different ages and points in a relationship's course.

The study involves filling out a collection of online questionnaires assessing demographic information and how you experience passionate, companionate, and compassionate love. These surveys will take about 30 minutes to complete. Your responses will be anonymous and confidential; no identifiable information will be tied to your responses. The data from this project will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in Dr. Stones' office for five years. Only Dr. Stones and I will have access to the data collected from this research.

Your participation in this study does not carry any foreseeable potential risks, however, if you do feel any distress pertaining to this study during the event or following it, you are encouraged to let the experimenters know and help will be provided to you. You may benefit from this study by gaining a greater understanding of how you experience love in your relationship.

If you choose to participate in this study, it is completely voluntary. You may decide to withdraw at any time prior to submitting the questionnaires, or refuse to answer any question if you choose, and you will not be penalized in any way. If you decide to participate, please carefully read the consent form and check yes to provide your consent. If you would like to know the results of the study once it is completed, you may contact Katie Lemmetty any time after December, 2013.

This study has been approved by the Lakehead University Research Ethics Board. If you have any questions, issues, or concerns please feel free to contact either Katie Lemmetty or Dr. Michael Stones. If you would like to speak to someone outside the research team, please contact Sue Wright at the Research Ethics Board at 807.343.8283. The results of the study can be obtained by contacting either Dr. Stones or me via the email addresses below.

Katie Lemmetty
Master's Thesis Candidate
Telephone: 807.627.2909
Email: kdlemme1@lakeheadu.ca

Dr. Michael Stones
Faculty member and supervisor
Telephone: 807.353.8994
Email: mstones@lakeheadu.ca

Research Ethics Board
1294 Balmoral Street - Lower Level 0001
807.343.8283
Email: research@lakeheadu.ca

Appendix H – Consent Form

I have read and understood the cover letter accompanying this form which explains the study “An Exploratory Study of Passionate, Companionate, and Compassionate Love Though-out Relationship Course and the Lifespan” conducted by Katie Lemmetty and supervised by Dr. Michael Stones. I am agreeing to participate in this study. I confirm that I am over the age of 18 and currently involved in a romantic relationship. I am aware that this study will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. I understand that there are no potential risks foreseen to me following my participation in this study. I am aware that I will remain anonymous and there is no way to identify me through my responses. If I should feel emotionally distressed at anytime during or following my participation in this study, help will be made available to me upon request. I am aware that my participation in the study is completely voluntary and I may choose to stop participating at any time, or refuse to answer particular questions, with no consequence to myself. The data obtained from this study will be stored in the psychology department for five years, as per Lakehead University policy. The results of this research will be released to me upon email request to the conductors of this study.

1. By checking yes, I am confirming that I have read the above and that I am volunteering for participation in this study

Yes

No

Appendix I – Debriefing Form

Dear Participant,

Thank you for your participation in our study, “An Exploratory Study of Compassionate, Companionate, and Passionate Love Throughout Relationship Course and the Lifespan”

The purpose of our study is to examine how individuals experience passionate, companionate, and compassionate love at different points in romantic relationships and at different ages.

The online questionnaires you completed included a demographics questionnaire, which was included so we could determine age and length of relationship. You also completed the Passionate Love Scale, the Companionate Love Scale, and the Compassionate Love Scale. These three measures were used to assess the extent to which you feel each type of love towards your romantic partner.

We expect to see that passionate love will be highest in the newest relationships, and companionate and compassionate love will be highest in longer relationships. We also expect that older and younger individuals will not differ in their experience with love; that is, age will not have an effect on the extent to which individuals experience each type of love.

Your responses are anonymous and include no identifiable information. All data from this study will be confidential.

For more information pertaining to this study, please contact Katie Lemmetty (kdlemme1@lakeheadu.ca) or Dr. Michael Stones (mstones@lakeheadu.ca). You may also contact the Research Ethics Board, at 343.8283, if you have any questions or concerns about the experiment.

Thank you!