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It has been proposed that individuals develop models of premarital relationships based on their preferred ways of experiencing love with another person. This study attempted to operationalize the concept of relationship models to determine if individuals differ in how they expect their feelings of love to develop over the course of a future premarital relationship. Two-hundred college students completed a questionnaire consisting of two parts. The first part asked them to evaluate their anticipated experience of love, conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence, for three different levels of involvement in a future premarital relationship. The second part consisted of a series of attitudinal and behavioral measures. Cluster analysis was

used to type individuals on the basis of their anticipated feelings of love across the three involvement levels. The relationship dimensions of conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence and the attitudinal and behavioral measures were used to differentiate the types. Four love Types were derived. Individuals comprising each of these Types were identified as adopting either a developmental, couple-oriented, expedient, or cautious model of love. Significant Type X Involvement Level interactions were revealed for each of the relationship dimensions. Individuals comprising each of the Types were found to significantly differ on romanticism, self-monitoring, age at first date, and cohabitation. A significant Sex X Type interaction was found for need for inclusion. Finally, significant sex differences emerged for romanticism, self-monitoring, and reward values.

Development of a Typology of Premarital
Relationship Models

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DEVELOPMENT OF A TYPOLOGY OF PREMARITAL RELATIONSHIP MODELS

I. INTRODUCTION

Within our culture individuals encounter two different, but very related messages. The first message is that marriage is a preferred and more valued state to remaining single. Marriage is viewed not only as a rite of passage into adulthood, but also as an indication to others that one is psychologically and interpersonally stable. A second message is that individuals marry because they are in love. Love and marriage are integrally linked within our culture. Even in this day of the automobile, the old saying "love and marriage...go together like a horse and carriage" still seems equally applicable.

This cultural emphasis upon love as a prelude to marriage has been termed the romantic love complex (Waller, 1939). Individuals are inundated daily with images characterizing romantic relationships and romantic individuals. The following anecdotes help to illustrate some of the characteristics associated with the romantic love complex:

There is only one person with whom one can fall in love. My sister Kay says there is more than one person in the world for you. Maybe she is right, but I'm sure that

there is one person that is best for me. There has to be. Even if there were ten people in the world I could love, I'm sure that one of them would make me happiest. And he's the only one I want (Schwartz, Merten, Behan & Rosenthal, 1980, p. 85).

Love at first sight. We met at the coffee shop where some of us kids used to hang out. I guess we knew right away because we began to go steady right after. We just fell in love right away (Rubin, 1976, p. 51).

Emotional thrill. We just knew right away that we were in love. We met at a school dance, and that was it. I knew who he was before. He was real popular; everybody liked him. I was so excited when he asked me to dance, I just melted (Rubin, 1976, p. 52).

Complete involvement and exclusiveness. The things we do together aren't fun intrinsically--the ecstasy comes from being together in the doing. Take her out of the picture and I wouldn't give a damn for the boat, the lake, or any of the fun that goes on out there (Cuber & Harroff, 1965, p. 55).

While these anecdotes may appear to be passages from a romance novel, they are in fact statements provided by individuals describing their expected or past experience within an intimate heterosexual relationship. Thus, the romantic love complex should not be discussed in the abstract as an ideal type, but rather as a cultural perspective of love which individuals draw upon to explain their future

or current experience in an intimate relationship.

The premarital period has been viewed as a time in which individuals test their compatibility as a couple prior to marriage. Some researchers investigating mate selection have considered partners' compatibility of intrapersonal needs and values as important dimensions by which individuals evaluate the progress of their relationships (Kerckhoff & Davis, 1962; Murstein, 1970, 1976). Although these criteria may be important for some individuals, they are not components of a cultural view of romantic love which asserts that love can conquer all. For those individuals who personally adopt such a cultural view of romantic love, the issues of need and value compatibility may not be the most salient criteria for selecting a marital partner. Rather, simply experiencing a premarital relationship as being congruent with one's beliefs about love may be influential enough to move that relationship to marriage.

The emphasis upon love and marriage projected within our culture is shared by many individuals. Less than three percent of men and women in a current steady dating relationship said they would never marry (Hill, Rubin & Peplau, 1976). Furthermore, in a recently conducted poll, over 80% of men and women indicated they would never marry unless they were in love (Adler & Carey, 1980).

Considering the number of individuals who envision love and marriage as being a part of their future, it would seem relevant to better understand the various ways

individuals want to experience love within a developing premarital relationship. Such an investigation could be an important step toward better understanding the mate selection process. Conceptual and empirical works concerning individuals' beliefs about love have primarily focused on the romantic love complex and the investigation of various correlates of romanticism. These areas will be reviewed to develop implications for investigating individuals' expected experiences of love within a premarital relationship.

Romantic Love Complex

The romantic love complex asserts that falling in love is a highly desirable basis for marriage (Goode, 1959). This cultural perspective of love is considered to have an important influence upon individuals' beliefs about love. As Krain (1977) suggests, individuals' beliefs about love are largely determined by the extent to which they have been socialized in the predominant cultural belief pattern concerning love and loving relationships. Generally, this socialization process is considered to result in the adoption by individuals of one of two divergent beliefs about love, the romantic and pragmatic perspectives.

The romantic individual believes that true love lasts forever, does not make sense, clouds one's judgement, only comes once in a lifetime, and overcomes differences in social class, race, custom, or religion. On the other

hand, the pragmatist rejects these ideals and believes that it is important to consider the shared interests of partners, that economic concerns are more important than passion, that parents should advise their children about dating, and that one can marry without being in love.

The media plays an important role in projecting to members of a specific culture the prevailing cultural beliefs concerning a set of feelings such as romantic love (Andreyeva & Gozman, 1981). Popular magazines, movies, songs, and books consistently emphasize the romantic aspects of heterosexual love relationships. Most Americans are probably well aware of these romantic images. Yet, not all individuals are considered to readily accept these cultural images within their own system of beliefs concerning love relationships. In an attempt to better understand the possible differences between those individuals who readily accept a romantic view of love and those who endorse a pragmatic perspective a number of studies have been conducted.

Correlates of Romanticism

Sex Differences

A popular stereotype depicting sex differences in the experience of love in premarital relationships suggests that women are impulsive and somewhat foolish in the ways of the heart, while men are the more reasonable and sensible party (Kanin, Davidson & Scheck, 1970). Yet, studies

investigating sex differences in romanticism contradict this popular stereotype. Men, as compared to women, have been found to fall in love more quickly (Huston, Surra, Fitzgerald & Cate, 1981; Kanin et al., 1972; Knox & Sporakowski, 1972; Rubin, Hill, Peplau & Dunkel-Schetter, 1980), to rate the desire to fall in love as a more important reason to enter a relationship (Hill, Rubin & Peplau, 1976) and to outscore women on romanticism regardless of dating commitment (Knox & Sporakowski, 1972). However, once in love, women tend to experience more of the stereotypic emotions associated with romantic love, e.g. wanting to run, jump, and scream, trouble concentrating, and euphoria (Kanin et al., 1970).

Personality

In addition to investigating sex differences in romanticism, several studies have also related various personality measures to one's view of love. Measures of locus of control indicate that those with an internal orientation report experiencing romantic love as less mysterious, volatile, and idealistic than externals (Dion & Dion, 1973; Munro & Adams, 1978). Furthermore, individuals low in self esteem describe their past love experiences as being more intense and less superficial, predictable and controllable (Dion & Dion, 1975). On the other hand, highly defensive individuals indicate experiencing romantic love less frequently and report their experiences as being more guarded

than less defensive persons (Dion & Dion, 1975). Spaulding (1970) found that romantic men appear to evidence some tendency toward psychological disturbance. Romanticism for men was positively correlated with submissiveness, abasement and unhappiness, and negatively related to a well established personality and self concept. Romantic women, however, tended to be nurturant, inclusive, energetic, and to exhibit little sign of psychiatric impairment. However, Dean (1961) found that romantic women tend to be emotionally maladjusted, though the correlation was low. Cunningham and Anthill (1981) found that for both men and women, romanticism was positively related to femininity, while masculinity showed no relationship.

Values and Premarital Relationship Experiences

Measures of romanticism have also been related to personal values and premarital relationship experience. Romantic individuals tend to be fairly religious, politically conservative, economically conservative, and family oriented (Spaulding, 1970). Romanticism is negatively related to acceptance of premarital sex, extramarital sex and cohabitation (Cunningham & Anthill, 1981). In addition, romantics tend to have had fewer previous sexual experiences than non-romantic individuals (Cunningham & Anthill, 1981).

Problems with the Romanticism Concept

Although the studies cited previously suggest some important areas to investigate in determining the various ways individuals seek to experience love in a premarital relationship, three problems associated with the romanticism concept must be discussed. First, the media's depiction of the romantic love complex has been operationalized, through romanticism measures, to reflect the power of the "state of being in love." That is, the cultural image of love has been viewed as one which suggests that love can overcome such differences between partners as racial, ethnic, and religious backgrounds. Such a definition for individuals' beliefs in love reflects a sociological interpretation of love. It is important, however, to also consider that cultural images associated with the romantic love complex include the dynamics by which one loves and is loved within a relationship. Partners are depicted as disclosing intimate information, expressing affection, and negotiating sexual behavior regardless of their similarity or dissimilarity in racial, ethnic, or religious backgrounds. However, the dynamic interplay between partners associated with the romantic love complex has been neglected in previous romanticism studies. As Krain (1977) has suggested, individuals develop their beliefs about love based upon the prevailing cultural images of love and love relationships. It would seem important then, to better understand the

social-psychological aspects of individuals' beliefs about love.

Second, the conceptual and empirical work concerning individuals' beliefs about love is based on the proposition that the romantic love complex is the only representation of love depicted within our culture. Spaulding (1970) argues that, since the romantic love complex is the most predominant cultural representation of love, considerable segments of our population should be expected to adopt this view. However, a number of researchers have suggested that love means different things to different people (Laswell & Laswell, 1976; Pam, Plutchik & Conte, 1975). Laswell and Laswell (1976), for instance, have suggested that there exist six conceptually distinct definitions of love. Yet, their research supporting these different definitions has been seriously questioned (Murstein, 1980). Unfortunately, then, although our culture emphasizes the need to love one's partner, empirical attempts to define this concept have been largely unsuccessful. This difficulty to empirically derive definitions of love applicable for the majority of individuals has led many researchers to suggest that there are probably as many definitions of love as there are people (Cunningham & Anthill, 1981; Murstein, 1976).

Third, current use of the romanticism concept does not allow for a determination of an individual's desire to develop and maintain an intimate relationship with a future partner. Although the terms intimacy and love are

frequently used interchangeably, intimate relationships are developed and maintained because of partners' investments, commitment, and attachment (Kimmel, 1979). Many individuals may seek to love or be loved within their relationships, yet not wish to exert the time and energy required for developing an intimate partnership. Indeed, individuals vary greatly in the extent to which they like physical intimacy and enjoy disclosing personal information to others (Huston, 1974). Yet, frequently social psychologists studying individuals' reasons for marriage overestimate the extent to which intimacy is a desired component (Huston & Levinger, 1978). This criticism may also be applied to many researchers investigating individuals' beliefs about love. For instance, Knox and Sporkowski's (1972) romanticism scale was unidimensional with the extremes of the continuum representing romantic and conjugal views of love. These researchers considered a conjugal view of love to reflect an individual's desire to seek bodily, emotional, and intellectual identification with a partner. These same criteria have been viewed as essential components of an intimate relationship (Dahms, 1974). Yet, it would be difficult to argue that an individual who rejects an item such as, "when love hits you know it," is expressing a desire to seek an intimate relationship. Knox and Sporkowski (1972), however, considered an individual who rejected this item to be endorsing a conjugal view of love, and thus an intimate partnership. Furthermore, there is little reason

to suggest that the romantic individual, by endorsing this item, is not interested in developing an intimate relationship. Thus, it would seem apparent that an individual's desire for intimacy may be a very idiosyncratic variable and one not directly tapped by romanticism measures.

Interest in the topic of romanticism has been in large part due to a concern that romantic views of love would result in individuals becoming disillusioned after marriage (Hobart, 1958a). However, romanticism has been found to help propel couples into marriage (Rubin, 1973) and to correlate positively with marital adjustment (Spanier, 1972). These studies would appear to suggest that individuals may structure the dynamics of their relationships such that they are able to maintain their romantic views of love. The problems with romanticism outlined earlier, however, precludes a full understanding of how individuals envision experiencing love within the context of a developing relationship. Given the importance our culture places on love and marriage most individuals expect to be involved in a loving relationship (Casler, 1969). However, considering the variability in individuals' definitions of love and desires for intimacy, the point at which they expect to experience love and the degree to which they emphasize other aspects of a developing relationship may be quite different. The concept of relationship models has been advanced to provide a better understanding of the different types of

relationships individuals desire so as to experience their views of love.

Relationship Models

Recently, it has been suggested that individuals construct mental images of an ideal relationship which would support their preferred ways of experiencing love and intimacy with another person (Schwartz et al., 1980). These mental images do not simply represent a type or state of a relationship. Rather, an individual is considered to develop a model for a future relationship which is a loose scenario or dramatic plot that provides one the order in which various things should take place and how a couple should interact (Schwartz et al., 1980). Thus, such models emphasize the process of intimate relationships rather than viewing relationships as static phenomena. Individuals, however, do not simply develop their models for ideal premarital relationships in isolation from their environments. Rather, any given culture provides its members with a limited repertoire of relationship scenarios (Forgas & Dobosz, 1980). Individuals draw upon these available social models and incorporate scenarios which most appropriately encompass their own desires for experiencing a relationship with their partners.

Schwartz et al. (1980) were the first researchers to have conceptualized premarital relationship models. Their work is based on a fifteen year study of one woman's

premarital love relationships. They suggested that four models of close relationships are operative within our culture. Each of these models emphasize to varying degrees the cultural values of autonomy and solidarity. Individuals are considered to prefer one model over the others on the basis of their own personal desires for autonomy and solidarity. A recent study has indicated that these specific values are important criteria for assessing the desirability of a love relationship. Cochran and Peplau (Note 1) asked individuals to rate the importance of 22 features of love relationships (e.g. revealing personal feelings, sharing activities with one's partner, having separate friends, and seeking equality within the relationship). A factor analysis of these specific features revealed two dominant themes, dyadic attachment and personal autonomy. Thus, this study would appear to support the validity of utilizing the values of autonomy and solidarity as a framework for conceptualizing premarital relationship models.

The four models identified by Schwartz et al. (1980) are romantic love, status-game, self-realization, and communion. The romantic love model emphasizes many of the characteristics associated with the romantic love complex. Individuals adopting a romantic love model consider dating as a first step toward love and marriage. Sex, love, and marriage are closely intertwined. Fidelity to the

relationship is considered of utmost importance. One's partner is described as trusting, loyal, and dependable. Consequently, individuals who adopt a romantic love model do not believe they need to closely monitor their partners. Furthermore, the romantic love relationship is one which emphasizes the inseparability of the couple (Orlinsky, 1979). Partners should think alike, feel alike, and act on their environment as a couple. Conflict is not envisioned as being a component of this relationship. Rather, if any problems do arise, they will go away without the couple having to resolve them.

Whereas the romantic love model emphasizes the couple, individuals endorsing a status-game model consider their own needs first. Satisfaction with the relationship is largely dependent upon what rewards each individual brings into the relationship. The importance individuals adopting a status-game model place upon the reward aspects of their relationships is very similar to many of the principles of social exchange theory. According to Burns (1973), social relationships are based upon an exchange of mutually rewarding activities in which the receipt of a needed commodity (e.g. goods, money, status) is contingent on the supply of a favor in return. If individuals find they are giving more rewards to their partners than they are receiving in return, they may start to evaluate the relative attractiveness of other alternative relationships (Scanzoni, 1979). This continual evaluation of what rewards one is

putting into and getting out of the relationship is very characteristic of individuals adopting a status-game model. These individuals closely monitor themselves and others to determine if the rewards their partners currently offer or can supply in the future will enhance their own status. Sex is considered as its own reward and need not be contingent upon relationship commitment. Consequently, individuals accepting such a model do not fall in love, but rather view love as contingent upon a history of rewarding exchanges with their partners.

The self-realization and communion models are considered mixed models (Schwartz et al., 1980). That is, while these models may also be characterized by the values of exchange and solidarity, the extent to which each model emphasizes these values differs. In the self-realization model, individuals view solidarity as subordinate to the value placed upon autonomy. Partners are committed to the relationship only insofar as it does not impinge upon their own individual needs and personal development. Work, family, and friends may take precedence over the commitment to the relationship. Individuals adopting a self-realization model emphasize their need for privacy. Full self-disclosure to one's partner is not necessary nor expected to benefit the relationship.

The communion model, on the other hand, emphasizes the solidarity aspects of the relationship. However, unlike the romantic love model, wherein love and commitment just

happen, individuals adopting a communion model consciously decide to commit themselves to their partners. This commitment means loving one's partner in a complete and irrevocable manner. Once the commitment of each partner to the relationship becomes evident sexual intimacy is permissible. Commitment to the relationship also entails full self-disclosure. Partners should not withhold any information from each other.

Although Schwartz et al. (1980) posit several characteristics of individuals' models of relationships, these characteristics are based on only one woman's love relationships, and as such may not be salient for many other individuals. However, the results of two additional studies yield various evaluative dimensions along which individuals may develop their models of premarital relationships.

Relationship Dimensions

Forgas and Dobosz (1980) attempted to determine the characteristics individuals utilize for differentiating among twenty-five types of close heterosexual relationships (e.g. a one-night sexual encounter, an adulterous affair, a short but mutual love). They identified three basic dimensions by which individuals evaluated these various types of relationships. The first dimension reflected the relative desirability of the relationship. The second dimension was indicative of love and commitment. The third dimension was sexuality, which contrasted platonic relationships with

physical and sexual types of relationships.

In addition to deriving these dimensions, Forgas and Dobosz (1980) investigated individual differences in the perception of these relationship types. They found that females were more concerned with the desirability, love, and commitment aspects of these relationships than men, while men were more responsive to the sexuality dimension. Individuals with fewer sexual experiences, those currently involved in a relationship, and those more idealistic in their views of love were more sensitive to the love and commitment dimension. Furthermore, individuals characterizing themselves as introverts and fearful of negative evaluation emphasized the desirability dimension, while extroverts were more responsive to the sexuality dimension.

Whereas Forgas and Dobosz (1980) investigated individuals' perceptions of various types of heterosexual relationships, Braiker and Kelley (1979) sought to identify the various dimensions premarital couples experienced prior to marriage. Before identifying these dimensions, however, Braiker and Kelley (1979) asked couples to divide their premarital experience into discrete time periods which they considered representative of the development of their relationships. Three discrete time periods emerged: casually dating, seriously dating, and engaged. On the basis of couples' retrospective accounts of their premarital relationship experience, four principle dimensions were derived. The first dimension indicative of love reflects the degree

to which individuals make attributions regarding their feelings of love, belonging, closeness and attachment towards their partner. The second dimension, termed maintenance, refers primarily to the extent to which partners communicate with one another. The third dimension was referred to as conflict and negativity and reflected the degree to which couples experienced overt behavioral conflict and communicated negative feelings to one another. The fourth dimension indicative of ambivalence was considered to reflect individuals' feelings of uncertainty about continuing the relationship.

Braiker and Kelley (1979) also investigated the extent to which these dimensions changed over the developmental course of the relationship. Love showed incremental changes as the relationship moved from casual dating to marriage. Maintenance behaviors also showed a similar pattern as love, but the increase was more gradual. On the other hand, the reported degree of conflict-negativity increased substantially from casual to serious dating and leveled off thereafter. Contrary to the reported increases in the other three dimensions, ambivalence about the relationship followed a decreasing pattern from casual dating to marriage.

One important aspect of the relationship models concept is that individuals develop scenarios associated with the various ways in which they would like their relationship to develop over time. The Braiker and Kelley (1979) study

provides information regarding the salient dimensions along which couples evaluate their experiences in premarital relationships. These dimensions should also be relevant for looking at individuals' expected experiences in future premarital relationships. However, it is also important to consider that individuals' scenarios associated with their future premarital relationships may differ in the extent to which these dimensions will be experienced at different points in the relationship. A recent study by Cate (1979) examined the various ways couples move to marriage and differences among couples in their experience of these relationships.

Pathways to Marriage

Cate (1979), utilizing a retrospective data gathering technique, traced the developmental course of premarital relationships into marriage. Each member of a couple, who were married for the first time and less than one year, was asked to graphically represent changes in their commitment from the time they first met to the time they married. On the basis of these graphs Cate (1979) identified three types of courtship trajectories. The accelerated courtship began at the highest chance of marriage and moved quickly to marriage. The prolonged courtship was characterized by a slow and turbulent movement to marriage. The intermediate courtships fell between the accelerated and prolonged in the rate this type of courtship moved to marriage.

Furthermore, of all three courtship styles, the intermediate courtships evidenced the smoothest movement to marriage.

In addition to developing courtship trajectories, Cate (1979) attempted to determine if these relationship types differed in their experience of love, conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors. Individuals in prolonged and intermediate relationships felt they experienced more love for their partners at each of the first two stages of dating, than individuals in accelerated relationships. With regard to the experience of conflict, individuals in prolonged relationships reported more conflict throughout their relationships than did individuals in either accelerated or intermediate relationships. Furthermore, individuals in accelerated relationships reported significantly lower levels of maintenance behaviors than individuals in either prolonged or intermediate relationships. The difference in maintenance behaviors was evident throughout the premarital period. However, the courtship types did not differ in reported maintenance behaviors in marriage.

Purpose of the Present Study

Given the importance our culture places on love, the purpose of the present study is to determine if individuals differ in how they expect their feelings of love for a partner to develop over the course of a future premarital relationship. Although it is proposed that individuals will vary in how they expect their feelings of

love to change in a developing relationship, no specific typology is being hypothesized. To empirically determine if differences in expectations regarding love exist, individuals will be typologized on the degree to which they expect their feelings of love to change during the premarital periods of: dating, but do not identify as a couple, seeing each other and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage. Furthermore, since it has been shown that premarital relationships develop along several important dimensions, other than just love, the derived love types will be differentiated on the basis of individuals' expectations regarding the development of conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors. Individuals' expectations regarding the development of these relationship dimensions will also be considered in terms of the same three periods of a future premarital relationship at which love will be assessed. In addition to differentiating the love types in terms of individuals' expectations regarding conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors, the derived types will also be differentiated on the basis of individuals' self esteem, sex role identity, exchange orientation, self-monitoring behavior, association between sex-love-marriage, interpersonal needs, romanticism, dyadic trust, reward values, previous premarital relationship experience and gender.

II. THE METHOD

Overview

The focus of the present study was threefold:

(a) to construct a typology of individuals' expectations regarding the development of their feelings of love in a future premarital relationship, (b) to differentiate these types in terms of how individuals expected conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors to change over the course of a future premarital relationship, and (c) to investigate differences between these types based on gender, prior premarital relationship experience, and several personality and attitudinal measures. Cluster analysis of the relationship dimension of love, evaluated for three different periods of a premarital relationship, was used to typologize individuals. Repeated measures analysis of variance was then employed to differentiate the derived types on the basis of individuals' expectations regarding changes in conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors across three different periods of a future relationship. The derived types were then differentiated in terms of individuals' self esteem, sex role identity, exchange orientation, self-monitoring behavior, association between sex-love-marriage, interpersonal needs, romanticism, dyadic trust, reward values,

premarital relationship experience and gender.

The participants for this study were 200 university undergraduate students. Participants were administered a series of questionnaires which consisted of two parts (see Appendix A for instructions to the participants). The first section asked participants to evaluate their expected experience on the various relationship dimensions for three different periods of a premarital relationship: (a) dating, but do not identify as a couple; (b) seeing each other and identify as a couple; and (c) certain the relationship would end in marriage. The second part consisted of a series of measures which assessed a number of attitudinal and behavior variables. These variables, as well as the dimensions of conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence, were used to differentiate and describe the love types derived from the cluster analysis. Since there has been no previous research conducted directly investigating individuals' models of premarital relationships, these attitudinal and behavioral variables were selected based on: (a) previous research conducted investigating correlates of romanticism and individual differences in relationship perception; and (b) the descriptive work by Schwartz et al. (1980) outlining characteristics associated with the various relationship models. The variables of self esteem, sex role identity, locus of control, and interpersonal needs were selected to differentiate the types since previous research has shown them to be associated with romantic views of

premarital relationships. Previous research has also shown romanticism and premarital relationship experience to be related to differences in individuals' perceptions of heterosexual relationships. These variables were included to differentiate the types. Furthermore, on the basis of the descriptions of the various characteristics associated with the relationship models, the variables of exchange orientation, self-monitoring, association between sex-love-marriage, dyadic trust, and reward values were used to differentiate the types.

The following data analyses were conducted. First, a typology of individuals based on their expected experiences of love, across the three premarital periods, was constructed by a cluster analysis. Second, a series of repeated measures analyses of variance were conducted to differentiate the derived types in terms of individuals' expectations regarding conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence, as measured at three different periods in a future premarital relationship. Third, where appropriate, chi-square analyses or analyses of variance were run to determine if differences between types existed with regard to various individual assessments.

Participants

The participants for this study were 200 undergraduate and graduate students (100 males, 100 females) from a large state-supported university in the Northwest region of

the United States. The sample consisted of volunteers recruited from classrooms and dormitories and was composed of students representing virtually all of the academic disciplines. The average age of the participants was 20.5. At the time of this study approximately 30% (60) of the participants were not dating, 34% (67) were casually dating one or more people, and 36% (71) were either seriously dating one person, cohabitating or engaged. Two participants did not respond to this item.

Measures

Relationship Dimensions

To assess participants' expected experiences in a premarital relationship which culminates in marriage, Braiker and Kelley's (1979) relationship dimensions scale was used. This scale is comprised of 25 items and assesses the relationship dimensions of love, conflict, maintenance behaviors and ambivalence. This scale was developed following a factor analysis of a larger pool of items derived from 20 married couples' descriptions of their premarital relationships. Subsequent to the development of this scale, reliability and validity assessments have not been conducted. However, the fact that these items load on different factors gives support for the homogeneity of the items and the construct validity of the scale. These items have been used primarily to assess married individuals' prior experiences

during the premarital period of their relationships. Therefore, in their original form, these items were phrased in past tense. Since this study was concerned with individuals' expectations regarding a future relationship, the items were changed to future tense (e.g. "To what extent did you have a sense of belonging with your partner" was changed to "To what extent would you have a sense of belonging with your partner").

Participants were asked to complete this scale once for each of the following relationship periods: (a) when you would be seeing each other, but would not yet consider yourselves as a couple; (b) seeing each other and would identify as a couple; and (c) certain the relationship would end in marriage. The sets of questions provided the participants for each of the relationship periods were identical. However, to control for the possibility of ordering effects one-half of the participants responded to this scale starting from the first period of the relationship through to the last period, and one-half of the participants responded to this scale starting with the last period of the relationship through to the first period.

Love. The dimension of love was assessed by ten items (see items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 17, 19, 21, and 23, Appendix B) of the Braiker and Kelley (1979) relationship dimension scale. These items reflect individuals' feelings of closeness, belonging and attachment. Participants were asked to indicate on a nine point Likert scale of 1 (not

true at all) to 9 (very true) the degree to which each feeling would be representative of their future relationships. Scores could range from 10 to 90.

Conflict. Conflict was measured by five items on the Braiker and Kelley (1979) relationship dimension scale (see items 3, 5, 12, 24, 25, Appendix B). The conflict items are designed to measure overt behavioral conflict and communication of negative feelings. Participants were asked to indicate on a nine point Likert scale the extent to which these items would represent their behavior in a future relationship. The possible range of scores for this subscale was 5 to 45.

Maintenance Behaviors. Five items from the Braiker and Kelley (1979) relationship dimension scale (see items 2, 8, 11, 14, and 22, Appendix B) were used to measure this dimension. These items tap communication and self-disclosure. Participants indicated on a nine point Likert scale the extent to which they would engage in maintenance behaviors in a future relationship. Possible range of this scale was from 5 to 45.

Ambivalence. This dimension was measured by five items from the Braiker and Kelley (1979) relationship dimension scale (see items 6, 9, 15, 18, and 20, Appendix B). These items tap feelings of uncertainty about continuing the relationship and concerns about loss of independence. Participants indicated on a nine point Likert scale the

degree to which they perceived themselves feeling ambivalent about their relationship.

Self Esteem

The short form of the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (TSBI, Helmreich & Stapp, 1974) was used to measure the participants' self esteem (Appendix C). This form of the TSBI was developed following a factor analysis of the original 32-item scale (Helmreich, Stapp & Ervin, 1974). The short form of the TSBI is comprised of 16 statements which assess an individual's level of self confidence and competence in social situations. Previous research on romanticism has shown self esteem to be related to individuals' beliefs about romantic love. Therefore, it was expected that self esteem would differentiate the types based on participants' expected experiences in a future romantic relationship.

Participants rated themselves for each item on a five point Likert scale which varies from "not at all characteristic of me" to "very characteristic of me." Responses were scored 1 to 5 and six items needed to be reverse scored such that high scores reflected greater self esteem. The range of possible scores could be 16 to 80.

The TSBI has been shown to be internally consistent, Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$. Furthermore, evidence for the construct validity of the TSBI has been established in

several experimental investigations of interpersonal attraction (c.f. Helmreich, Aronson & LeFan, 1970).

Sex Role Identity

The short form of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI, Bem, 1974) was used to measure participants' sex role identity (Appendix D). This short form contains half the items of the original BSRI and was developed following a factor analysis of the original instrument (Bem, 1978). The BSRI treats masculinity and femininity as two independent dimensions and allows for the classification of individuals as masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated. Previous research has shown that the more stereotypic feminine individuals considered themselves to be, the more likely they were to hold a romantic view of intimate relationships. Masculinity scores, however, were not related to romanticism. The BSRI was expected to differentiate the types with participants scoring higher on femininity being more likely to fall into one type than those who attributed fewer stereotypic feminine characteristics to themselves.

The BSRI is comprised of three sets of ten adjectives which are considered characteristic of stereotypic men, stereotypic women, and socially desirable for both men and women. Participants were asked to indicate on a seven point Likert scale how often these characteristics describe themselves. The scale ranges from 1, "never or almost never true," to 7, "always or almost always true." Scores on the

masculinity items were summed to yield a masculinity score (range 10 to 70) and scores on the femininity items were summed to yield a femininity score (range 10 to 70). Sex role identity for each participant was based on these two scores.

The masculinity and femininity subscales of the BSRI have high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha for the masculinity subscale = .86, and for the femininity subscale = .80). Test-retest reliability over a four week period has also been found to be high (masculinity $r = .90$, femininity $r = .90$). The BSRI has also been correlated with other masculinity-femininity measures. These measures were developed to assess sex role based on a different theoretical framework than the BSRI. There is little relationship between the BSRI and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey masculinity-femininity subscale. The correlations for males and females on the masculinity and femininity scores of these measures ranged from $r = .06$ to $r = .15$. The relationship between the California Psychological Inventory masculinity-femininity subscale and the BSRI was slightly higher. Correlations between these scales for both males and females ranged from $r = .42$ to $r = .27$. However, since none of the correlations are particularly high, it would appear the BSRI is assessing an aspect of sex roles not directly tapped by either of these other masculinity-femininity measures. Construct validity for the BSRI has also been established through several experimental studies.

These studies are discussed in Bem (1975) and Bem and Lenny (1976).

Exchange Orientation

Milardo and Murstein's (1979) Exchange Orientation Scale (EOS) was used to measure the degree to which participants seek reciprocity in their intimate relationships (Appendix E). Exchange orientation is defined as the degree to which individuals seek reciprocity from their partners in goods, services, privileges and demonstrations of affection. Highly exchange oriented individuals closely monitor the relative balance of exchanges, reject others' individuality of expression and are generally unaware that others' personal needs may be qualitatively different from their own. Exchange orientation was expected to differentiate the types with a highly exchange oriented individual being less likely to emphasize the love and commitment aspects early in the relationship than an individual less exchange oriented.

The EOS is comprised of 13 statements. This scale was originally developed to assess individuals' exchange orientations in their current marital or peer relationships. Therefore, for the purposes of this study some of the statements were changed to reflect participants' exchange orientation with a partner in a future premarital relationship. Those statements concerning exchanges with peers were not altered. Participants were asked to indicate on

a five point scale the degree to which the statements represented their opinions. The scale ranges from 1, "strongly agree" to 5, "strongly disagree." All items, except for item 2, were scored in the direction of low exchange orientation. Participants' exchange orientations were derived by summing these items, with a possible range of scores from 13 to 65.

Corrected split-half reliability for the EOS is .87. Studies utilizing the EOS have found exchange orientation to be negatively related to couples' commitment to their relationship and marital adjustment (Milardo & Murstein, 1979; Murstein, Cerreto & MacDonald, 1977).

Self-monitoring Behavior

Participants' self-monitoring behavior was measured by the use of Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring (SM) Scale (see Appendix F). The social psychological construct of self-monitoring is concerned with individuals' expressive behavior and self presentation. Self-monitoring individuals are those who are concerned with the social appropriateness of behaviors in various situations, are particularly sensitive to others' expressions and self presentations, and utilize these cues to guide their own behavior. The SM scale was expected to differentiate the types. Considering the construct of self-monitoring, high self-monitoring individuals were expected to be more cautious and to more seriously evaluate their relationships in the early dating

stages than low self-monitoring individuals. Therefore, high self-monitoring individuals will be less likely to expect to disclose intimate information, to feel less committed to the relationship and to be more ambivalent about the relationship, in the early dating stages than low self-monitoring individuals.

The SM scale consists of 25 items which participants will answer either true or false. The items were scored in the direction of high self-monitoring. For approximately half the items, agreement was scored as high self-monitoring; for the remainder, disagreement was scored as high self-monitoring. The participant received one point for each score indicative of high self-monitoring. The items were summed to yield a total score which could range from 0 to 25.

The SM scale has a Kuder-Richardson-20 general estimate of reliability of .70, and a test-retest reliability over a four week period of $\underline{r} = .83$. Discriminant validity for the SM scale suggests that this measure is relatively independent of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale ($\underline{r} = -.18$, $\underline{p} < .01$), and Christie and Geis's Machiavellianism Scale ($\underline{r} = -.09$, ns).

Association Between Sex-Love-Marriage

To determine the degree to which participants associate sex, love and marriage, Weis's (1979) SLM scale

was included (see Appendix G). Considering previous conceptual and empirical work on relationship models and romanticism, the SLM scale was expected to differentiate the derived types. Individuals who associated sex, love and marriage would be expected to emphasize the love and commitment aspects of their relationships, and to be less likely to become sexually involved with their future partners than individuals who disassociated these aspects of a relationship.

The SLM scale is comprised of eight items. Participants were asked to indicate on a five-point scale how well each statement reflected their opinions. The scale ranges from 1, "strongly agree," to 5, "strongly disagree." Three items were reverse scored to maintain response directionality. The eight items were summed to yield a total score, with a possible range of 5 to 40. High scores reflected disassociation between sex, love and marriage.

The internal consistency of the SLM is high, Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$. As evidence of its construct validity, the SLM scale has been found to correlate positively with permissive attitudes towards extramarital sex (Weis & Slosnerick, 1981).

Interpersonal Needs

Participants' interpersonal needs were assessed using Schutz's (1958) Fundamental Interpersonal Relations

Orientation Behavior Scale (FIRO-B, see Appendix H). The FIRO-B is based on Schutz's three-dimensional theory of interpersonal behavior. This theory posits that individuals characteristically orient themselves to others along the following dimensions: inclusion (I), affection (A), and control (C). The interpersonal need for inclusion is defined as the need to establish and maintain satisfactory relationships with others in terms of interaction and association. Control as an interpersonal need is seen as reflecting an individual's need to establish and maintain satisfactory relationships with people with respect to power and control. The interpersonal need for affection is defined as the need to establish and maintain satisfactory relationships with others in terms of love and affection.

Each of these dimensions can be evaluated by individuals in terms of the behaviors they typically express towards others (e) and the behaviors they want from others (w). However, since this study was concerned with participants' expected experiences with a future premarital partner, only those items reflecting what individuals want from others were included. Therefore, this measure was used to tap three separate aspects of interpersonal behavior: wanted inclusion behavior (W^I), wanted control behavior (W^C), and wanted affectional behavior (W^A).

Considering previous research on romanticism and personality, it was expected that the variable of interpersonal needs will differentiate the types. For instance,

an individual high in need for inclusion will feel more committed to the relationship and give more to the relationship than an individual with little need to maintain a satisfying relationship. It could also be expected that individuals who wanted to be controlled by others will be less likely to try to assert their independence, change their partners, and communicate negative feelings to their partners than individuals with a high need to assert their power.

The FIRO-B is comprised of 27 items. For each of the three aspects of interpersonal behavior, a separate scale of nine items has been developed. The items comprising these scales have been Guttmanized. This technique of cumulative scale analysis constructs items regularly decreasing in popularity such that any individual will accept items sequentially to a given point, and then reject the remainder. The participants were assigned three scale scores, each equal to the number of items selected, with a possible range of scores from 0 to 9 for each scale. The possible responses for each of the 27 items range from 1 to 6. On most of the 27 items, more than one of the possible alternative responses may be selected and still be accepted for the scale on which the item is based. For example, for the item "I am easily led by people," the responses "usually," "often" and "sometimes" all characterized a participant's need for expressed inclusion behavior. As such, any of these three possible responses were scored as

a "one" for this item.

The FIRO-B has been shown to be reliable with a reproducibility index of .93 and above for each of the three subscales. Test-retest reliability for this measure ranged from 50% agreement to 70% agreement in responses over a one week period. In addition, a number of studies have established the concurrent and construct validity of the FIRO-B (Schutz, 1958).

Romanticism

To measure participants' romanticism, a revised version of the Hobart (1958b) Romanticism Scale was used (see Appendix I). It was expected that romantic individuals will fall into a different type than non-romantic individuals. Romantic individuals will feel more love and commitment toward their future partners and less ambivalence about their relationships than non-romantic individuals.

This romanticism scale is comprised of nine statements to which participants will either agree or disagree. Five statements are stated in a romantic direction and four in a non-romantic direction. The number of responses congruent with a romantic ideology were summed to yield the participant's romanticism score.

The Hobart (1958b) Romanticism Scale, or items derived from it, has been used frequently in studies assessing individuals' romantic beliefs. These studies provide evidence for the construct validity of this scale.

Romanticism has been found to correlate positively with other measures of romantic love, as well as predict couples' progress toward marriage (Cunningham & Anthill, 1981; Rubin, 1973).

Dyadic Trust

To measure participants' level of interpersonal trust, Larzelere and Huston's (1980) Dyadic Trust Scale (DTS) was used (see Appendix J). Dyadic trust refers to an individual's perception of the benevolence and honesty of a significant other toward the individual making the judgment. The variable of dyadic trust was expected to differentiate the types. Individuals who emphasized the autonomy aspects of their relationships will be more likely to feel trusting of their partners than individuals concerned with maintaining a couple identity.

The DTS is comprised of eight statements. Participants rated their perceived level of trust on a seven point Likert scale which varies from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Five of the statements required reverse scoring. The total trust score was obtained by summing across all eight statements.

The DTS was developed to assess individuals' level of trust for their partner in an ongoing intimate relationship. Therefore, statements comprising this scale are referenced in the present tense. For the purposes of the present study, these statements were phrased to measure

level of trust for one's partner in a future relationship.

The reliability of the DTS is very high ($\underline{r} = .93$); the DTS does not correlate with social desirability response bias. Furthermore, the construct validity of the DTS has been established by its positive associations with measures of love, depth of self-disclosure, and relationship status (Larzelere and Huston, 1980).

Reward Value

The Gordon (1978) Relative Exchange Values of Interpersonal Resources (REVIR) scale was used to measure participants' values associated with seven resources: money, goods, services, sex, love, status, and information (see Appendix K). This measure is designed to assess an individual's values regarding these resources in three independent areas (wish, work and spouse). Since this study was concerned with participants' expectations regarding a close relationship, only the spousal area was assessed. The typology derived was expected to be differentiated on the relative value participants assigned to these various resources. For instance, an individual who put greater emphasis on the love and commitment aspects of the relationship was expected to assign less value to money, goods, services and status than would individuals who considered autonomy to be of greater relative importance.

The REVIR spousal subscale is comprised of 21 paired resources. The participants were required to choose one

resource as being more valued within each of the pairings. Each resource is paired once against all other resources. Total scores for each resource were based on the number of times the participant had selected that resource as being more preferred. Therefore, if the participant selected a particular resource every time, in each of the pairings, that resource was given a total score of six. The total score for each resource can range from zero to six.

The correlations of each area (wish, work and spouse) with the overall total score for each scale on the seven resources supported the internal consistency of the REVIR. Pearson's r generally ranged from .70 to .90. Only the resource of sex in the work area fell outside this range ($r = .53$). The REVIR also has good stability over time. The mean test-retest correlation for the seven resource scales over a two-week interval was $r = .79$. The REVIR has been shown to be independent of social desirability. Correlations between each of the seven resources and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale were all non-significant. The concurrent, predictive and construct validity of the REVIR have also been established (c.f. Gordon, 1978).

Premarital Relationship Experience

To assess participants' premarital relationship experiences, a number of items were developed (see Appendix L). It was expected that previous premarital experience

will differentiate the types. Individuals inexperienced in intimate relationships were expected to anticipate less conflict occurring in the relationship and feel less ambivalent about the relationship than individuals who had been involved in a greater number of prior serious relationships.

The relationship experience items were designed to tap the participant's age of first dating experience, number of previous serious relationships, how recently they have broken up a serious relationship, overall satisfaction with previous serious relationships, sexual experience, number of people dated in the previous year, perceived difficulty in finding dates, perceived availability of potential dating partners, physical attractiveness, and expected future date of marriage.

Procedure

Data collection took place during the spring and summer of 1982. The participants were volunteers from various courses and dormitories on campus. Participants were recruited in several ways. First, prior to the dismissal of several classes, the researcher briefly described the purpose of the study. Individuals who wished to participate either completed the questionnaire at the end of class or came to the office of the Department of Family Life and completed the questionnaire there. Second, prior to the beginning of several classes flyers were

distributed to class members which described the purpose of this study. Those individuals who wished to participate also completed the questionnaire, either at the end of their class or in the Department of Family Life's office.

Finally, participants were also recruited from several dormitories on campus. The researcher had a table set up outside of the main dining hall, utilized by residents from several dormitories. Flyers were distributed at this table and those individuals who were interested in participating either completed their questionnaire in the main lobby of the dormitory or in their dormitory room. Permission for the researcher to attend classes, or to distribute flyers outside of classrooms and in dormitories, was granted by the proper authorities on campus. All individuals contacted by the researcher were informed prior to participating that the questionnaire required approximately 45 minutes to complete and that their responses were confidential. In addition, individuals were also informed that their willingness to participate in the study entitled them to be included in a raffle. Since the questionnaires were distributed in the various formats previously discussed, five different cash prizes were offered to the winners in each raffle. The raffling procedure was as follows: Those individuals who participated, upon completing their questionnaire, filled out a form providing their name and a phone number where they could be contacted. These forms were then deposited by the participant in a metal container. Names

were drawn blindly by the researcher. The winners in each raffle were contacted and their cash prize distributed to them. A total of \$225 was thus distributed.

Data Analysis

Cluster analysis was used to typologize individuals. These types were derived on the basis of participants' scores on the relationship dimension of love at three different stages of a future premarital relationship. Following the construction of the typology, a series of repeated measures analyses of variance were conducted to differentiate the types in terms of the participants' scores on conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence. These relationship dimensions were also assessed at three different periods of a future premarital relationship. For each of these analyses the types served as the independent grouping variable. In addition, sex was also included as a grouping variable for each of these analyses. The dependent variables were participants' scores on conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence. The repeated measures factor was relationship stage. The derived types were also differentiated on the basis of the participants' scores on a number of attitudinal and behavioral measures. To determine if the types differed with regard to these various measures a series of two-way analyses of variance and chi-square analyses were conducted. For each of the two-way analyses of variance, the types and sex served as the independent

grouping variables. For the chi-square analyses the types served as the independent variable. The dependent variables were either the participants' scores, assessed either as a continuous variable or dichotomized at the median, on self esteem, exchange orientation, self-monitoring behavior, association between sex-love-marriage, interpersonal needs, romanticism, dyadic trust, reward values, and previous premarital relationship experience. Two-way analyses of variance were also run on the participants' separate masculinity and femininity scores, and a chi-square analysis was conducted on their combined masculinity and femininity scores to determine if the types differed with regard to sex role identity. A chi-square analysis was also conducted to determine if the types differed on the basis of gender.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview of Statistical Analysis

For the purposes of this study, the data analysis was conducted in several phases. The first phase entailed grouping individuals on the basis of their expected feelings of love in a future premarital relationship, as assessed by Braiker and Kelley's (1979) love scale. Cluster analysis was used to group individuals with similar love scores as measured at three different time periods in an anticipated future relationship. The second phase compared the derived types on the Braiker and Kelly (1979) scales of ambivalence, conflict, and maintenance. Each of these relationship dimensions was also assessed for three levels of involvement. Therefore, repeated measures analyses of variance were performed to compare the types on these dimensions.

In the final phase of data analysis, the derived types were differentiated on the basis of (a) dyadic trust, (b) sex role, (c) self-esteem, (d) exchange orientation, (f) interpersonal needs, (g) association between sex-love-marriage, (h) romanticism, (i) self-monitoring, (j) reward values, and (k) previous premarital relationship experience.

Only those variables which were found to differentiate the derived types or for which significant sex differences were revealed will be presented and discussed.

Analysis of Love Scores Constructing the Love Typology

Cluster analysis refers to an objective technique for organizing relatively similar objects into a small number of homogeneous groups (Bailey, 1975). Any one group derived from a clustering procedure is comprised of members more similar to one another on some observed characteristic than they are to the members of any other group. Thus, on the one hand, clustering seeks to group similar objects and at the same time to partition or divide a set of objects into mutually exclusive classes (Krippendorff, 1980). The objects which are grouped on the basis of their similarities and differences may be either variables or individuals. Regardless, however, of whether groups are formed on the basis of individuals or variables, any technique used to group objects together should be: (a) capable of delineating natural clusterings, if such clusters do in fact exist, (b) capable of including all the cases from which they are developed, and (c) able to derive clusters which are mutually exclusive, permitting each case to be assigned to one and only one cluster (Miller & Olson, Note 2).

Cluster analysis has been used in a number of studies investigating the area of premarital relationship development. Surra (Note 3), for instance, used cluster analysis to develop a typology of courtship styles, based upon how individuals perceived the development of their relationship from the time they first met their partner to the time they married. In another study, Lloyd (1982) developed a typology using cluster analysis, representing various patterns of premarital relationship dissolution. Finally, Christopher (1982) typed individuals on the basis of the progression of their sexual behavior over the course of a current premarital relationship. Although each of these studies utilized cluster analysis in an attempt to type individuals on the basis of their previous premarital experience, this procedure seemed a particularly fruitful method to typologize individuals on the basis of their expected experience in a future premarital relationship.

In this study, the objects grouped were individuals, or cases, rather than variables. The characteristics on which individuals were grouped were their expected feelings of love assessed at three points in time for a future partner. Thus, each stage at which a respondent evaluated their expected feelings of love served as a single variable. Since three separate stages of a future relationship were measured, the clusters of individuals were based on a total of three variables, or three love scores. The types

derived were comprised then, of individuals who had similar score profiles on love across the three relationship stages.

The BMDP2M (Dixon, 1981) statistical software computer program was used to perform the cluster analysis of individuals (cases). This program utilizes a hierarchical clustering technique in which each case was considered as a separate cluster. Cases were joined on the basis of their degree of similarity on their three love scores. The distance measure used to assess the degree of similarity between cases was the Euclidian distance. Furthermore, cases and/or clusters of cases were joined until all of the cases had been amalgamated into a single cluster.

The first attempt at clustering cases revealed that the groups which formed differed significantly as to the order in which respondents had completed the Braiker and Kelley (1979) love scales. Approximately 100 of the respondents (Group A) completed the Braiker and Kelley (1979) love scales in the order of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage, while 100 of the respondents (Group B) completed the love scales in the reverse direction. T-tests comparing Group A and Group B indicated that these groups significantly differed on their love scores at the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple, $t(198) = 7.03$, $p < .001$, dating and identify as a couple, $t(198) = 5.76$, $p < .001$, and certain

the relationship would end in marriage, $t(198) = 7.46$, $p < .001$. The group means on love for each relationship stage are reported in Appendix M, Table 1. As indicated in this table, Group A had consistently higher mean love scores than Group B at each of the three relationship stages. Since the bias contributing to the ordering effect was systematic, the raw love scores for each group were standardized separately. A second cluster analysis was performed using these standardized love scores.

Prior to discussing the cluster analysis of these standardized scores, it is important to consider that the clustering procedure does not result in a distinct set of groups being defined. Rather, the clustering technique employed in this study resulted in a hierarchical arrangement of cases and/or clusters of cases based on the order in which they were amalgamated throughout the cluster analysis. At the last step of the clustering procedure all of the cases were amalgamated into one group. As such, several methods were employed in this study so as to derive the most distinct groups possible, in which the individuals in each group were more similar to each other on their three love scores, than they were to those individuals in any other group.

A tree diagram was developed to determine when the amalgamation of cases and/or cluster of cases should be stopped and a set of distinct groups defined. This diagram

detailed each step of the clustering procedure. The clustering procedure appeared to break down at step 181. At this step of the clustering procedure, six distinct groups had been formed. After this step the clustering procedure began to agglomerate these clusters prior to adding an appreciable number of cases or clusters of cases. By step 195 of this analysis, only four additional cases had joined any of these groups, while five of the six clusters had already been agglomerated to form one large cluster. These six clusters contained a total of 176 cases. Thus, 24 cases were defined as outliers. The 176 cases clustered in this analysis were divided among the six groups as follows:

A = 12 cases, B = 62 cases, C = 23 cases, D = 25 cases, E = 27 cases, and F = 27 cases. Furthermore, the amalgamation of cases within these groups and those defined as outliers appeared to have been conducted independently of any bias due to ordering effects, $\chi^2 (6) = 12.59$, ns.

Once these six groups had been identified, it was of interest to determine if any of these groups could be collapsed. The decision as to which of the six groups formed in this analysis could be collapsed was made on the basis of two criteria. First, a one-way analysis of variance was run comparing the six groups as to their mean love scores (for each of the three relationship stages). Post-hoc analyses of the groups' mean love scores were then conducted to determine which means significantly differed.

The means of any two groups which did not significantly differ on at least two of the three relationship stages were possible candidates to be collapsed. The second criteria imposed for collapsing any two groups required these groups to have been amalgamated during the clustering procedure in sequence. As mentioned previously, of the six groups formed prior to step 181 of the cluster analysis, five of the six groups had been amalgamated by step 195 into one cluster. Therefore, the exact sequential order in which each of these groups joined one another was determined on the basis of the tree diagram.

The analysis of variance indicated the groups significantly differed in the amount of love expected in a future relationship for the stages of: (a) seeing each other, but do not identify as a couple, $F(5,175) = 52.59$, $p < .001$, (b) seeing each other and identify as a couple, $F(5,175) = 37.26$, $p < .001$, and (c) certain the relationship would end in marriage (see Appendix N, Tables N-1, N-2, N-3). The means for these groups, at each involvement level, are contained in Appendix O, Table O-1. Post-hoc comparisons were conducted on these means using Scheffe's (1953) multiple-comparisons method. A total of 30 post-hoc mean comparisons proved to significantly differ. On the basis of the number of times each of the groups significantly differed from one another and the sequence in which these groups were amalgamated several groups were collapsed.

Groups E, A, and F were combined to form a single group. Furthermore, groups B and D were also collapsed into a single group. Group C, however, was retained as a distinct group.

As mentioned previously, the clustering technique attempts to minimize the variation among cases comprising a cluster, and maximize the differences between clusters. Collapsing any of these clusters tends to increase the dissimilarities among cases, comprising a new group, and decrease the differences between groups. Therefore, the last method employed, prior to the identification of groups for the final typology, determined if: (a) any of the cases which had been collapsed into a new group should be defined as an outlier, and (b) any of the cases previously defined as outliers could now be added to either of these two new collapsed groups. The mean love scores for these two collapsed groups for each relationship stage were plotted on paper. Cases comprising these collapsed groups and those previously defined as outliers were compared against these group means with regard to the relative patterning of their love scores across the three relationship stages. A panel of two judges were asked to indicate whether the patterning of any cases were discrepant enough to be removed from their group or to be retained as an outlier. These judges agreed that four cases, from the collapsed groups, should be removed from the group and defined as an outlier.

Of the 24 cases previously defined as outliers, the judges identified only two cases which should be retained as an outlier. A total of 22 cases were considered then, to be similar enough to possibly be joined. These cases appeared similar in patterning to group A. However, it was also noted that while these cases did appear similar in their patterning of scores, their love scores for each of the three relationship stages tended to be consistently lower than the means on love for group A. The means on love for these cases at the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 29.2, 54.5, and 75.1. Both judges agreed that this group should be retained as a separate group. Therefore, on this basis, a fourth group was formed. This group to be identified as group D contained 22 cases.

Describing the Types

Four groups were identified as comprising the love typology following the cluster analysis and subsequent post-hoc procedures. These groups contained a total of 194 cases with six cases identified as outliers. The number of cases comprising Types I, II, III, and IV were 66, 83, 23 and 22, respectively. To provide a basis for describing the types, a 2 x 3 x 4 (Sex x Involvement Level x Type) analysis of variance was performed on the group love means.

Involvement level, i.e., relationship stage, was treated as a repeated measures factor. Furthermore, given the number of previous findings concerning sex differences in the experience of love (Huston, et al., 1981; Kanin, et al., 1972, Knox & Sporakowski, 1972; Rubin, et al., 1980), sex was included as an independent variable. When appropriate, post-hoc comparisons were performed to determine which means were significantly different.

The repeated measures analysis of variance revealed a number of significant differences (see Table 1). No significant differences by sex, however, were found. The repeated measures analysis of variance revealed a significant main effect for involvement level. For the sample as a whole the means on love for the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 46.9, 67.1 and 80.5, respectively. According to these data, individuals expected their feelings of love toward a partner to increase as the relationship became more committed. Previous studies investigating ongoing relationships have also found love to increase the more involved individuals became (Braiker & Kelley, 1979; Huston, et al., 1981; Rubin, 1973). Although individuals in this study were required to assess their feelings of love in a future relationship, it is not surprising that their projections would also show such an increasing pattern. Our culture

Table 1
Analysis of Variance by Type on Love

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F-ratio</u>
Type (A)	3	10,192.42	95.83***
Gender (B)	1	.26	.25
A X B	3	26.40	.86
Error	186	106.36	
Involvement Level (C)	2	33,699.90	620.1***
A X C	6	1,945.49	35.8***
B X C	2	13.32	.25
A X B X C	6	54.16	1.00
Error	372	54.35	

***p < .001.

emphasizes the importance of love as a necessary component of any developing romantic relationship. Furthermore, as Kazak and Reppucci (1980) suggest, romantic love is commonly viewed as an essentially linear process. Thus, it would seem expected that this view of love would be reflected in respondents' projections of their feelings toward a future partner.

A significant main effect for Type was also found with regard to love (see Table 1). Post-hoc examination of the mean scores for those individuals in each of the Types revealed all the Types to significantly differ from one another.¹ The means, in increasing order, for Type IV, I, II and III individuals were 52.9, 59.8, 67.7 and 80.4, respectively. The finding that the post-hoc tests revealed individuals from each of the Types to significantly differ indicates that the collapsing of groups did not ameliorate differences between those groups initially derived from the clustering procedure. More importantly, this finding indicates that individuals do differ in the extent to which they expected to experience feelings of love for a future premarital partner. Type III individuals expected to feel a very high degree of love for a future partner, as compared to individuals comprising the other Types. With a maximum score of 90 possible on the Braiker and Kelley (1979) love

¹All post-hoc tests for the remainder of this thesis were conducted using the LSD test at the .05 level of significance.

scale, Type III individuals' mean love score of 80.4 reveals the extent to which they expected feelings of closeness and attachment to be dominant components of their future premarital relationship. On the other hand, individuals in all the other Types appeared to envision love assuming a less central role in a future relationship. When comparing Type III and IV individuals, the differences between these individuals' expectations concerning love becomes even more apparent. Type IV individuals appear to envision feelings of closeness and attachment for a partner to be less characteristic of their involvement in a future relationship. Furthermore, the degree to which Type III and Type IV individuals differ in their expectations concerning love could be interpreted to suggest that Type IV individuals place less importance on love as a component of a premarital relationship. Such an interpretation would support the idea that individuals may differ in the extent to which they desire or expect intimacy in a relationship (Askham, 1976; Huston, 1974). However, it is important to consider that such a suggestion applies a qualitative dimension to a finding which is associated only with the quantity or amount of love expected in a future premarital relationship. If the mean differences by Type reflected individuals' expectations concerning their feelings of love, as measured at only one point in time in a premarital relationship, such an interpretation would seem warranted.

However, the mean differences by Type were derived by averaging participants' expectations of love across three different time periods of a future relationship. As Cunningham and Anthill (1981) suggest, both the quality and quantity of individuals' feelings of love for a partner may change greatly over the developmental course of a relationship. To better determine how individuals comprising the four Types expected their feelings of closeness and attachment for a partner to change over the course of a premarital relationship, it is important to consider how these individuals might differ at each of the three relationship stages. On the basis of these comparisons, possible qualitative inferences concerning the relative importance individuals place on love in a developing premarital relationship can possibly be made.

Types were found to not only differ significantly across all three relationship stages, but also a significant Type X Involvement level interaction was found (see Table 1). Figure 1 displays the mean love scores for individuals comprising each of the Types plotted by involvement level. Post-hoc examination of the means for the individuals in each of the Types indicated that they were significantly different from each other at the first two levels of involvement. Although the significant Type X Involvement level interaction occurred at the stage of certain the relationship would end in marriage, post-hoc

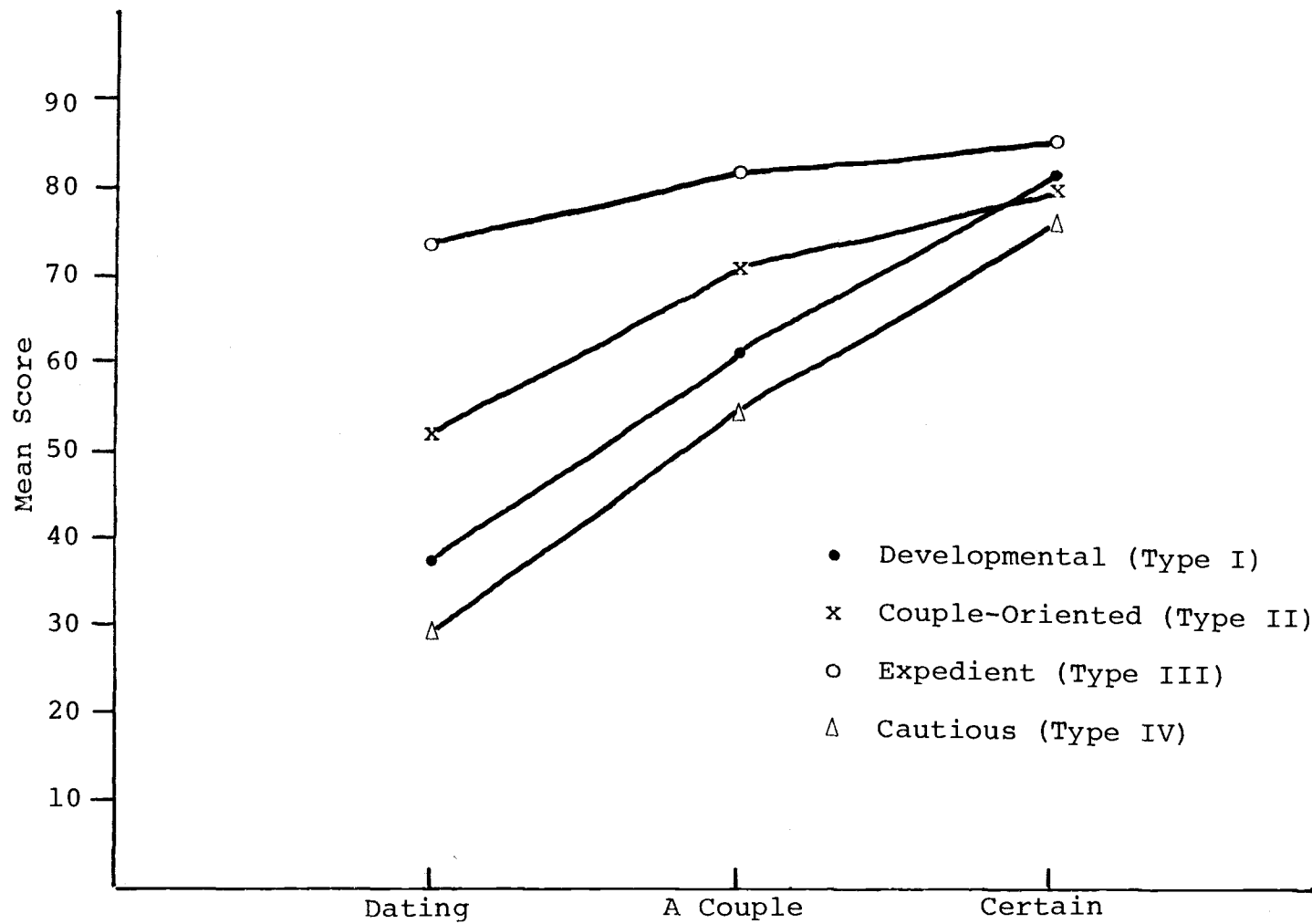


Figure 1. Plotted Means of Love by Involvement Level

examination of these means indicated that Type I and II individuals did not significantly differ. However, both Type I and II individuals did significantly differ from Type III and IV individuals, and Type II and IV individuals also significantly differed from each other. In presenting the differences between those individuals comprising each of the Types, as to involvement level, each Type will be compared with all other Types separately.

The mean love scores for Type I individuals at the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 37.3, 60.9, and 81.2, respectively. The expected development of love for the individuals comprising this Type, over the three relationship stages, evidenced an almost perfect linear pattern. When the relative change in Type I individuals' mean love scores from the first stage of dating to the stage of dating and identify as a couple, and from the second stage to the stage of certain the relationship would end in marriage were compared against the total change in love across all three involvement levels this developmental trend became more evident. Approximately 54% of the total change in love occurred from the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple to the stage of dating and identify as a couple, while 46% of the total change in love occurred from the stage of dating and identify as a couple to certain the relationship would end

in marriage. Thus, it would appear Type I individuals foresaw their expected feelings of love toward a partner progressively increasing as the relationship became more committed. For the remainder of this thesis, individuals comprising Type I will be referred to as adopting a "developmental model" of love.

Type II individuals' love means for the involvement levels of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 51.7, 71.3 and 80, respectively. Type II individuals expected to feel a fairly high amount of love toward a partner early in the relationship. However, individuals comprising this Type exhibited a somewhat different patterning of love across the three involvement levels than did individuals adopting a developmental model of love. Approximately 69% of the total change in love occurred between the first two involvement levels, while only 31% of the total change occurred between the stages of dating and identify as a couple and certain the relationship would end in marriage. Thus, although individuals in this Type expected to feel a somewhat high amount of love for their partner at the first dating stage, it would appear that once identifying themselves as committed to a relationship served as an important determinant for their feelings of love. Individuals comprising this Type will be referred to as maintaining a "couple-oriented" model of love for

the remainder of this thesis.

The means on love for Type III individuals at the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 74, 82, and 85.3 respectively. As Figure I indicates, Type III individuals, as compared to those individuals in any other Type, expected to feel more love for their future partner at all three relationship stages. These differences between Type III individuals and those in the other Types, were most dramatic at the first involvement level. The amount of love Type III individuals expected to feel toward a partner at this involvement level was twice as great as that expected by Type I and Type IV individuals and almost 25% greater than Type II individuals. It is almost as if Type III individuals were endorsing the "love at first sight" phenomena. Furthermore, these individuals' expected feelings of love continued to increase across the next two levels of involvement. However, since their mean love score was so high at the first dating stage, the relative change in Type III individuals' mean love score for the next two levels of involvement was not as dramatic as that evidenced by those individuals in the other Types. With the relatively high degree of love expected in a future premarital relationship by Type III individuals, these individuals will be referred to, for the remainder of this thesis, as having

adopted an "expedient model" of love.

Type IV individuals' means on love for the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 29.2, 54.5, and 75.1 respectively. As Figure I indicates, although the individuals comprising this Type evidence a patterning of mean love scores similar to those individuals' maintaining a developmental model of love, their expected feelings of love were consistently lower at each relationship stage. Furthermore, Type IV individuals' expected feelings of love were significantly lower at each of the three relationship stages than were any of the other Types. The most dramatic differences between individuals from each of the Types, in terms of their expected feelings of love, appeared between those individuals comprising Type IV and those adopting an expedient model of love. Type IV individuals expected to feel significantly less love for their future partner at all three relationship stages than did expedient individuals. In fact, Type IV individuals mean love scores, as compared to expedient individuals, were 61% lower at the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple and 34% lower at the stage of dating and identify as a couple. However, for the stage of certain the relationship would end in marriage Type IV individuals' mean love score of 75.1, although significantly different, was only 8% lower than that of the expedient group. Thus,

although Type IV individuals expected to feel less love for their partner throughout the relationship than did expedient individuals, the differences between these groups decreased greatly the more involved the relationship became. It would be difficult, however, on the basis of these differences alone to suggest that Type IV individuals placed less importance on love in the context of a developing relationship than did expedient individuals, especially since their mean love score was relatively high once they were certain the relationship would end in marriage. According to Cunningham and Anthill (1981) many individuals may monitor their feelings of love for a partner on the basis of rewards received in the past or expected to be received in the future, while other individuals' feelings of love may not be based on such reward contingencies. Thus it could be suggested that the degree of involvement or the history of the relationship may have been a more important factor in Type IV individuals' expected feelings of love than it was for expedient individuals. Therefore, for the remainder of this thesis, Type IV individuals will be referred to as having adopted a "cautious model" of love.

Differentiating the Love Types

Relationship Dimensions by Love Type

One purpose of this study was to differentiate the derived Types (based on individuals' expectations concerning the development of love in a future premarital relationship) along the Braiker and Kelley (1979) relationship dimensions of conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence. That is, it was of interest to determine how these dimensions might have been expected to change over time in the development of a future marital relationship based on the expectations individuals had concerning the development of love. Significant differences were found by Type for each of these relationship dimensions. However, no significant sex differences were found.

Conflict. Although no main effect was found for conflict with regard to Type, a significant main effect for involvement level emerged (see Table 2). The participants' means on conflict for the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 16, 18, and 20, respectively. Post-hoc analyses of these means indicated each mean to be significantly different from all others. Overall, as these means indicate, the participants' expected conflict to increase as the relationship became

Table 2
Analysis of Variance by Type on Conflict

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F-ratio</u>
Type (A)	3	121.85	1.58
Gender (B)	1	38.24	.49
A X B	3	83.66	1.08
Error	186	77.26	
Involvement Level (C)	2	813.39	60.90***
A X C	6	117.52	8.80***
B X C	2	3.36	.25
A X B X C	6	18.77	1.41
Error	372	13.36	

*** $p < .001$.

more committed. However, the greatest increase in conflict occurred from dating to identifying as a couple and tended to level off after that. This finding is in agreement with previous studies investigating the development of conflict in relationships which moved to marriage (Braiker and Kelley, 1979; Cate, 1979). Both of these studies found conflict to show the most dramatic increase between casual and serious dating and to level off during engagement and on into marriage. Braiker and Kelley (1979) have suggested that one reason for conflict evidencing an increase between casual and serious dating is that during casual dating individuals emphasize the discussion of areas of commonality and avoid sources of disagreement with their partner. However, as the relationship becomes more serious and individuals' investment in the relationship increases, they tend to decrease their presentation of a false self (Heiss, 1962). Thus, with increasing intimacy there is a greater likelihood that individuals' personal attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors will be expressed and come into conflict with those of their partner.

Considering these explanations for the reported increase in conflict between casual and serious dating among couples retrospectively back on their relationship, it is somewhat surprising that the participants in this study, prospecting into the future, would also report such an increase to occur at two comparable dating stages. There

is little doubt that in our culture the ideal relationship is one which is perceived as devoid of conflict. When given the opportunity to prospect into the development of a future relationship it could be expected that this cultural ideal would be evident in individuals' reports. That is, it would have seemed likely that the participants in this study would have expected sources of disagreement to be minimal in a future relationship. However, as these findings indicate, individuals may be more realistic in their expectations concerning the occurrence of conflict in close relationships than the cultural ideal suggests.

A significant Type X Involvement Level interaction was also found for conflict (see Table 2). Figure 2 illustrates this particular interaction. However, post-hoc analyses of the means indicated that individuals from each of the Types differed significantly only at the first involvement level. Individuals from each of the Types did not significantly differ at the next two involvement levels. For the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple the means for these individuals were, in increasing order, cautious (12.9), developmental (15.4), couple-oriented (18.4), and expedient (20.7). Each of these means were found to significantly differ at this stage.

It is interesting to note that expedient individuals, as compared to those from all other Types, expected the highest amount of conflict to occur at the stage of dating,

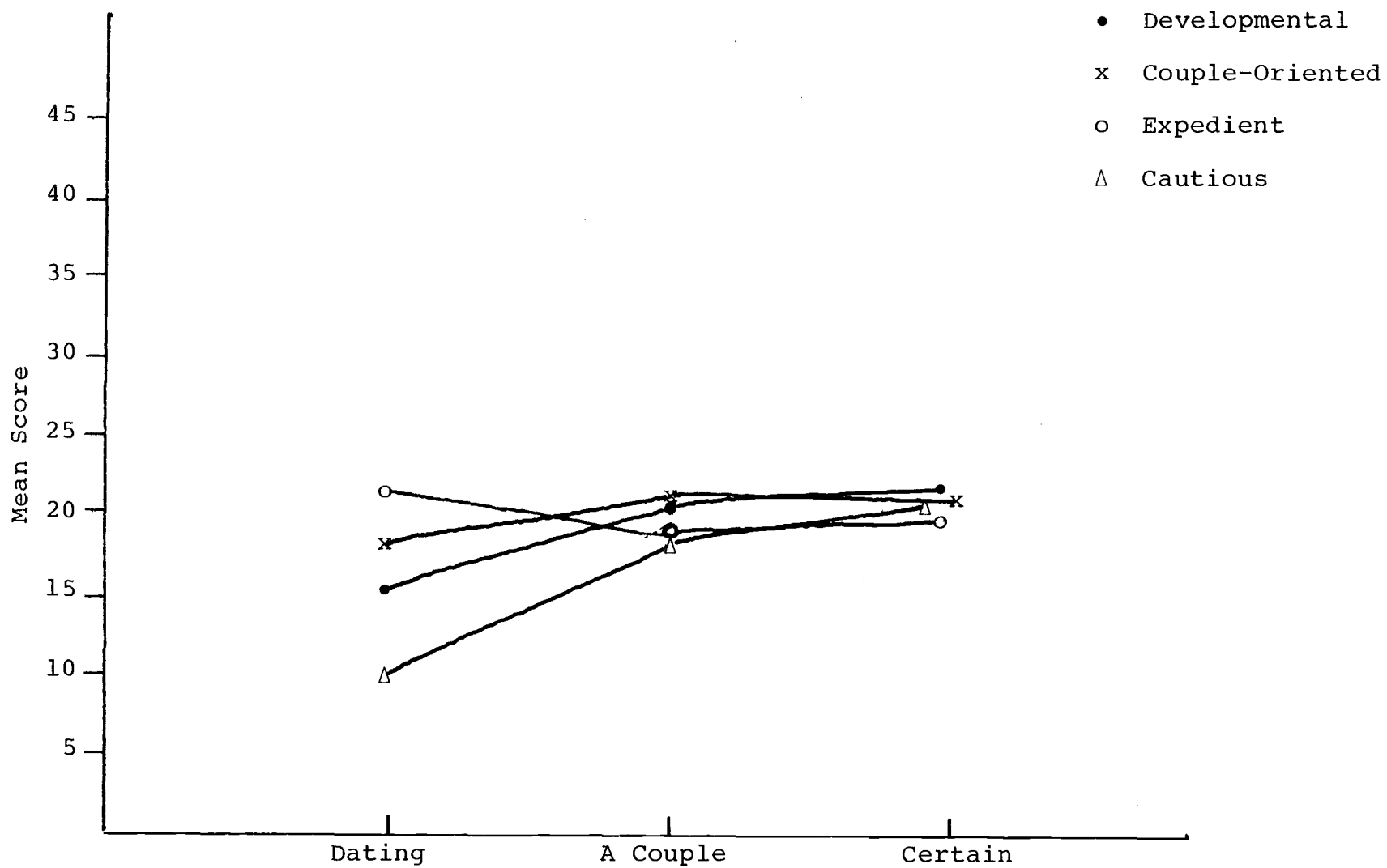


Figure 2. Plotted Means on Conflict by Involvement Level

but do not identify as a couple. These individuals expected to not only feel a very high amount of love for their partner early in the relationship, but also to experience a fairly high amount of conflict. At first, it may seem somewhat contradictory that individuals could expect to experience high amounts of both love and conflict in a future premarital relationship. However, as Braiker and Kelley (1979) report, there is no relationship between the amount of love individuals feel toward their partner and the amount of open conflict and negative affect which they may experience in their relationship. Cate (1979), for instance, found high amounts of both conflict and love to be characteristic of one of the types of premarital relationships, prolonged relationships, identified in his study. The high levels of conflict experienced by prolonged couples did not inhibit them from marrying. It would appear also, that expedient individuals do not expect conflict to be deleterious to the eventual movement of their relationship to marriage. As suggested previously, expedient individuals appeared to be endorsing the "love at first sight" phenomena. This orientation toward close relationships has been one generally associated with the belief that conflict is at a minimum early in the relationship. However, given the high amount of conflict expedient individuals expected during the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple, it would appear that they are not fully endorsing such an

orientation. Rather, expedient individuals appear to expect to develop a relationship with a partner very quickly. That is, these individuals anticipate achieving a high degree of interdependency with a future partner. The extent to which expedient individuals expect to quickly develop a highly interdependent relationship is further suggested by the high levels of maintenance behaviors they anticipated in their relationship (as will be reported in the next section).

Unlike expedient individuals, cautious individuals did not expect conflict to be very characteristic of their relationship during the initial dating stage. This finding is in keeping with these individuals' expectations to experience a relatively low amount of love, for a future partner, during this period of their relationship. Feelings of love have been found to be associated with giving emotional and moral support and being interested in the affairs of the loved person (Swensen, 1972). Individuals deeply in love view their own well-being and that of their partner as intimately tied together (Huston & Burgess, 1979). This mutual dependency, characterized by feelings of love, increases the likelihood that conflict may occur. However, individuals who are not dependent on another person do not experience conflict with that person (Braiker & Kelley, 1979). Thus, since cautious individuals did not anticipate feeling much love for or being dependent on their partner

during the early premarital period, it is not surprising that they also expected to experience relatively little conflict.

Maintenance Behaviors. A significant main effect for maintenance behaviors was revealed for involvement level (see Table 3). Post-hoc analyses indicated that maintenance behaviors were expected by the participants to change significantly across all three levels of involvement. The means on maintenance behaviors for the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 22.9, 30.9, and 36.1, respectively. This linear developmental trend of increasing maintenance behaviors has also been found in previous studies investigating the development of premarital relationships (Braiker & Kelley, 1979; Cate, 1979). These studies were based, however, on married couples' reports as to their actual engagement in maintenance activity. It is important to consider that the findings of this study, with regard to maintenance behaviors, are based on the participants' expected communication behavior. The Braiker and Kelley (1979) maintenance scale is considered to reflect an individual's engagement in communication behaviors to reduce costs and maximize the rewardingness of the relationship (Braiker & Kelley, 1979). There is little doubt that communication has almost become, within our culture, synonymous with the

concept of close relationships. Close relationships are increasingly being viewed as requiring work on the part of the couple to maintain and enhance mutual satisfaction. One needs only to visit a local bookstore to note the abundance of popularized books devoted to assisting couples increase satisfaction with their relationships through communication. It would appear that the participants in this study foresee the necessity for and importance of communicating with their partner to maintain the continued development of a mutually satisfying future relationship.

A significant main effect for Type and an Involvement Level X Type interaction were found for maintenance behaviors (see Table 3). The means, in increasing order, for Type IV, I, II, and III individuals were 59.8, 67.7, 80.4, and 53.0, respectively. Post-hoc analyses of these means for the main effect by Type indicated that expedient individuals expected to engage in significantly more maintenance behaviors than individuals in any of the other Types. Cautious individuals, on the other hand, expected to engage in significantly fewer communication activities than those individuals from all the other Types. The means on maintenance behaviors for developmental and couple-oriented individuals did not significantly differ from each other. Most of the differences between individuals from each of the Types occurred at the first two involvement levels. Figure 3 illustrates the mean maintenance scores

Table 3
Analysis of Variance by Type on
Maintenance Behaviors

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F-ratio</u>
Type (A)	3	1,586.56	27.86***
Gender (B)	1	14.16	.25
A X B	3	100.64	1.77
Error	186	56.95	
Involvement Level (C)	2	5,447.98	349.40***
A X C	6	293.57	18.83***
B X C	2	8.44	.54
A X B X C	6	4.83	.31
Error	372	15.60	

***p < .001.

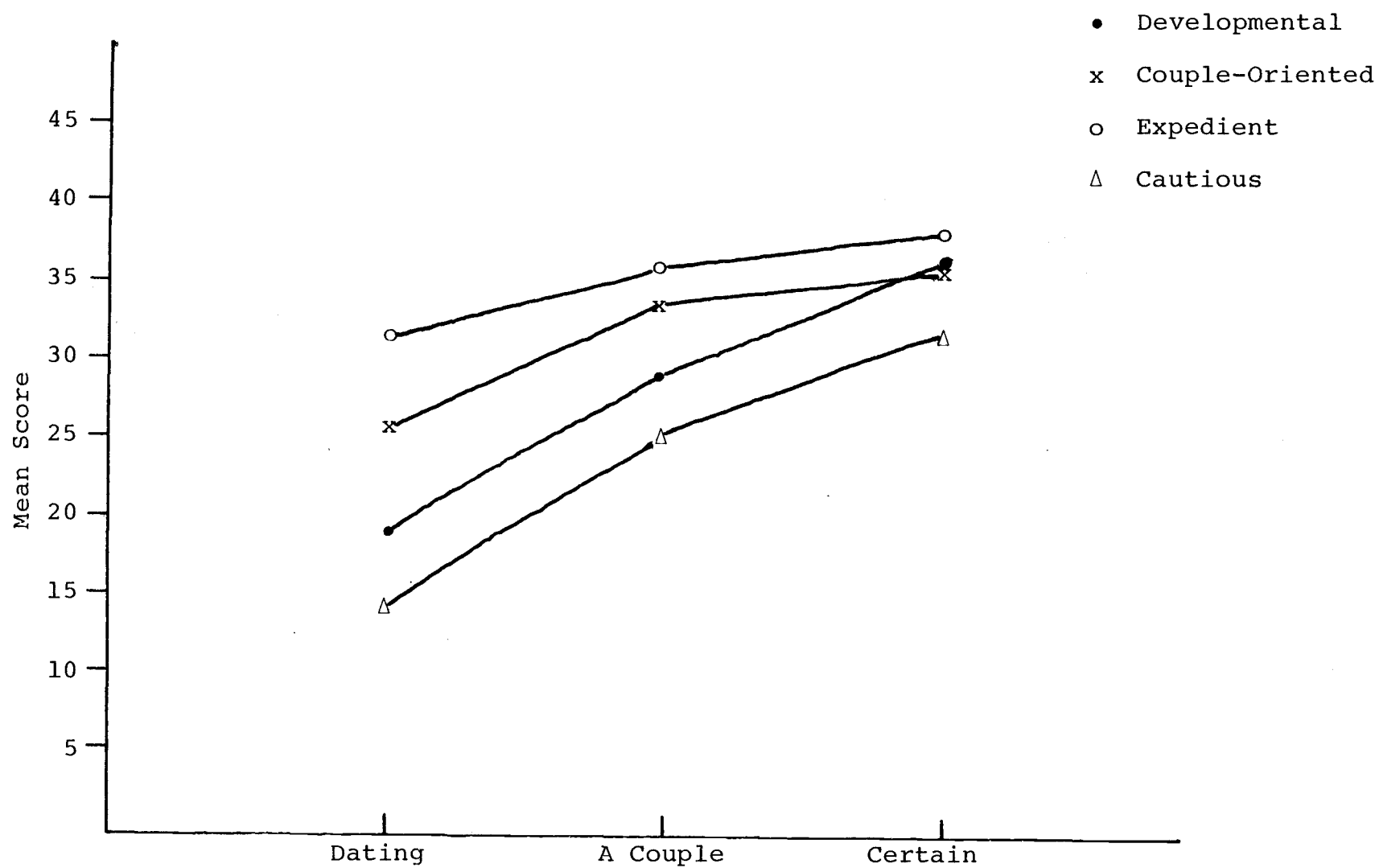


Figure 3. Plotted Means on Maintenance Behaviors by Involvement Level

for individuals from each of the Types plotted by involvement level. Post-hoc analyses of the means on maintenance behaviors for the Involvement Level X Type interaction indicated that the individuals from each of the Types significantly differed from one another at the first two levels of involvement. The means on maintenance behaviors for cautious, developmental, couple-oriented, and expedient individuals, for the state of dating, but do not identify as a couple were 14.5, 19.2, 25.1, and 32.8, respectively. For the stage of dating and identifying as a couple, the ordering of the means on maintenance behavior for the individuals in each of the Types, from lowest to highest, was the same as that at the first involvement level. The means on maintenance behaviors for the second involvement level were 25.0, 28.7, 32.6, and 36.1. Post-hoc analyses of the participants' means on maintenance behaviors for the third involvement level showed that cautious individuals expected to engage in significantly fewer maintenance activities when they were certain the relationship would end in marriage than did those individuals in any of the other Types. Developmental, couple-oriented, and expedient individuals did not significantly differ from each other at this involvement level. The means on maintenance behaviors for the stage of being certain the relationship would end in marriage for cautious, couple-oriented, developmental, and expedient individuals were 33.8, 36.1, 36.1, and 37.7,

respectively. It is interesting to note how closely these findings concerning participants' anticipated engagement in maintenance activities parallel their expected feelings of love for a partner. The ordering of the means on love and maintenance behaviors for those individuals in each of the Types was the same for each of the first two involvement levels. Although expedient individuals did not significantly differ from developmental and couple-oriented individuals on expected maintenance behaviors at the third involvement level, as they had on love, their maintenance behavior mean was the highest. Furthermore, cautious individuals, as compared to those individuals in the other Types, expected to feel not only less love for their partner, but also to engage in less maintenance activities in a future relationship.

The items comprising the Braiker and Kelley (1979) maintenance behavior scale are associated with couple communication in two areas: (1) the disclosure of personal feelings and needs, and (2) discussions designed to improve the quality of the relationship. A number of authors have written extensively as to the important role self-disclosure assumes in the development of premarital relationships (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Reiss, 1960; Roloff, 1981). Generally, these authors see self-disclosure as increasing feelings of intimacy and love between partners. Furthermore, as Altman and Taylor (1973) suggest, self-disclosure

not only serves to increase feelings of love between individuals, but also the depth and breadth of the disclosure is based largely on the degree of closeness the couple has achieved. The more involved the couple is the more likely they are to discuss intimate topics related to their personal feelings and needs. With regard to the findings of this study concerning the participants' expected involvement in maintenance activities, it would appear that the more love the individuals in each of the Types expected to feel toward a partner the more likely they anticipated disclosing intimate information. Furthermore, the findings on maintenance behaviors can also be related to the participants' expectations concerning the occurrence of conflict in a future relationship. As Braiker and Kelley (1979) suggest, conflict may serve to motivate constructive work on and the discussion of problems which the couple may have encountered. For instance, considering the relative amount of conflict individuals in each of the Types expected to occur at the first involvement level, it is not surprising that the ordering of their means on love and maintenance behaviors was the same for this dating stage. However, as reported previously, individuals from each of the Types did not differ in the amount of conflict they expected at the next two involvement levels. Yet, the individuals from each of the Types significantly differed on maintenance behaviors for the second involvement level, and cautious individuals

expected to engage in significantly fewer maintenance behaviors at the third involvement level. One would have to question then, if the participants, especially cautious individuals, anticipated engaging in enough maintenance activities to resolve the conflict they expected to occur in a future relationship.

Ambivalence. A significant main effect for involvement level was revealed for the dimension of ambivalence (see Table 4). The participants' means on ambivalence for the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, dating and identify as a couple, and certain the relationship would end in marriage were 21.1, 20.4, and 15.3, respectively. Post-hoc analyses of these means indicated that the participants expected to feel significantly less ambivalence about their relationship during the stage at which they were certain the relationship would end in marriage than at either of the two previous stages. Participants' expected feelings of ambivalence during the stages of dating, but do not identify as a couple, and dating and identify as a couple, however, did not significantly differ at these involvement levels. The participants expected to feel less uncertain and ambivalent about their relationship the more involved they were with their partner. These findings concerning the general decline in feelings of ambivalence as the relationship became more committed were virtually identical to that reported to have occurred

Table 4
Analysis of Variance by Type
on Ambivalence

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F-ratio</u>
Type (A)	3	791.28	9.85***
Gender (B)	1	52.94	.66
A X B	3	118.98	1.48
Error	186	80.34	
Involvement Level (C)	2	986.84	39.80***
A X C	6	129.13	5.21***
B X C	2	10.14	.41
A X B X C	6	27.04	1.09
Error	372	24.78	

***p < .001.

by the couples in Cate's (1979) and Braiker and Kelley's (1979) studies. Both studies found ambivalence to be highest during the casual and serious dating stages and to decline into marriage.

Premarital relationships have one of two culturally prescribed endpoints; either they culminate in marriage or they eventually terminate (Braiker & Kelley, 1979). Individuals' feelings of ambivalence are related to the uncertainty they may feel in choosing one of these possible endpoints for their relationship. Those individuals who eventually marry have apparently resolved these feelings at some point in their premarital relationship. As Braiker and Kelley (1979) state, dissonance theory would suggest that the decision to marry may both precede and motivate a decrease in feelings of ambivalence. Based on the findings of this study it would appear that the reduction in ambivalence would occur once the individuals were certain the relationship would end in marriage.

In addition to involvement level differences on ambivalence, a significant main effect for Type and an Involvement Level X Type interaction were also revealed for this dimension (see Table 4). With regard to the main effect for Type, post-hoc examination of the means indicated that expedient individuals expected to feel significantly less ambivalence (14.5) in a future premarital relationship than developmental (20.6) or cautious (21.2) individuals.

Expedient and couple-oriented (18.1) individuals did not differ in terms of their expected feelings of ambivalence. Furthermore, the means on ambivalence for couple-oriented, developmental, and cautious individuals did not significantly differ. Post-hoc examination of the Involvement Level X Type interaction means indicated that expedient individuals expected to feel significantly less ambivalence than any of the other Types at all three involvement levels. The post-hoc tests also revealed that couple-oriented individuals expected to feel significantly less ambivalence than developmental and cautious individuals at the stages of dating and identify as a couple, and certain that the relationship would end in marriage. Developmental and cautious individuals did not significantly differ with regard to their expected feelings of ambivalence at any of the three involvement levels. Figure 4 illustrates this particular interaction. The mean for expedient individuals during the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple was 17.3 versus 20.7 for cautious individuals, 21.6 for couple-oriented individuals and 21.8 for developmental individuals. For the stage of dating and identify as a couple the mean for expedient individuals was 14.5 versus 18.6 for couple-oriented individuals, 23.5 for developmental individuals, and 24.0 for cautious individuals, while for the stage of certain that the relationship would end in marriage the mean was 11.6 versus 14.1, 16.6 and 18.9.

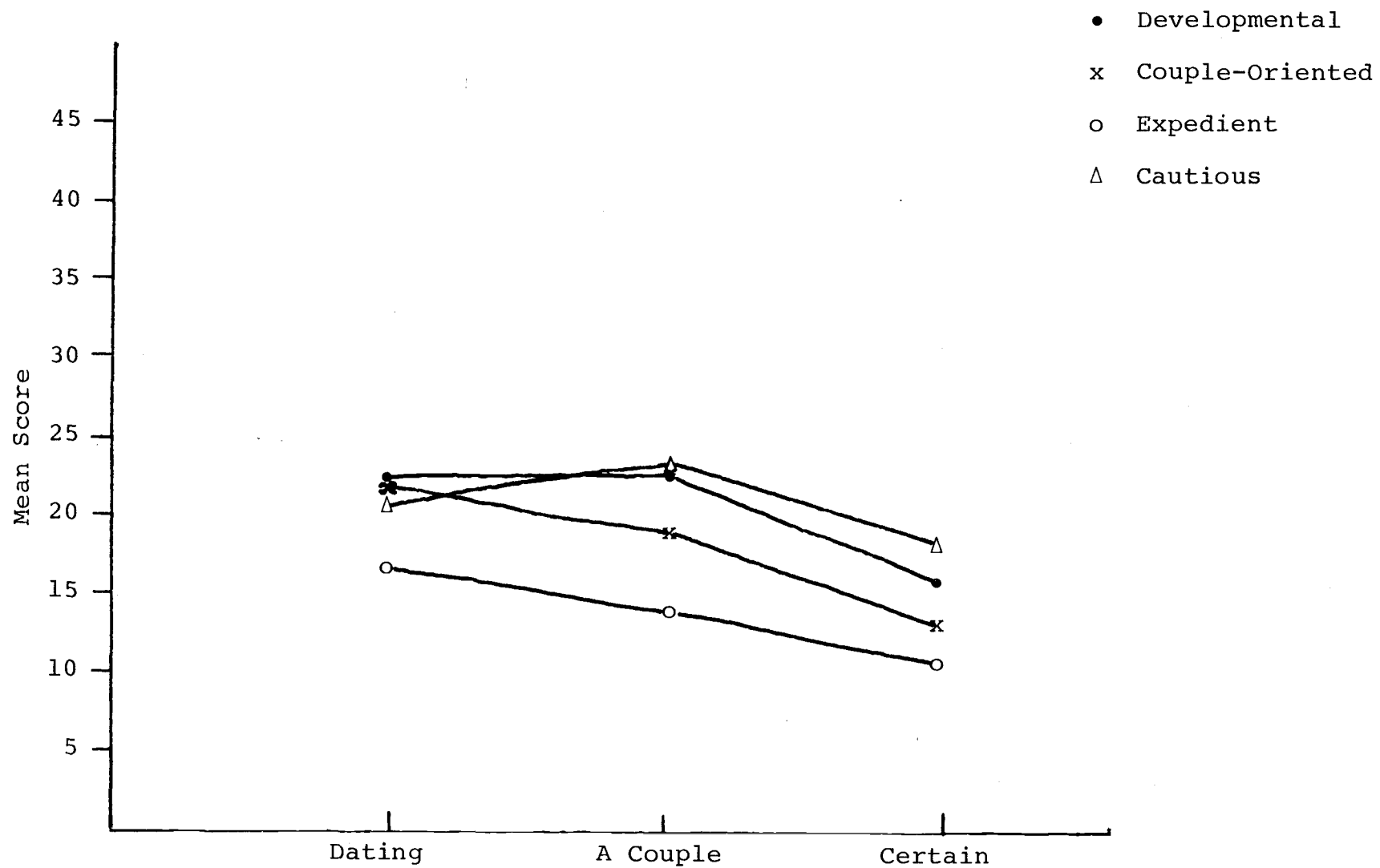


Figure 4. Plotted Means for Ambivalence by Type

The items comprising the ambivalence scale are considered to reflect individuals' confusion concerning their feelings regarding their partner and their lack of certainty over continuing in the relationship (Braiker & Kelley, 1979). Braiker and Kelley (1979) have suggested that such feelings of ambivalence represent an important aspect of intrapersonal conflict. This internal conflict may result from individuals' attempts to balance their desire for personal independence with their desire for establishing and maintaining an intimate relationship. Individuals in close relationships must continually "walk the path between counterdependency and overdependency...and resolve the dilemma between interpersonal enmeshment and personal isolation" (Levinger, 1977:155). The goals of attachment and autonomy are not considered to be mutually exclusive alternatives, rather they are viewed as independent dimensions along which individuals can vary greatly in the extent to which they value each (Cochran & Peplau, Note 1). These dimensions of personal autonomy and attachment can be related to the findings of this study concerning individuals' expected feelings of love and ambivalence in a future relationship. Considering expedient individuals' expectations to experience high amounts of love for a future partner, it is not surprising that they also expected to experience relatively low levels of ambivalence regarding their feelings toward their partner or their desire to continue in the relationship.

It could be suggested that these individuals may place a higher value on attachment than on personal autonomy. Furthermore, as mentioned previously, the decision to marry may serve to enhance concomitantly a reduction in feelings of ambivalence. Since expedient individuals expected to feel a high amount of love for their partner very early in the relationship, it would appear that they also envisioned committing themselves to their relationship very early. Couple-oriented individuals would appear to expect to commit themselves to their partner at a later point in the relationship than do expedient individuals. Couple-oriented individuals' expected feelings of love increased greatly once they had identified their future premarital relationship as a couple relationship. Also, their feelings of ambivalence, as compared to developmental and cautious individuals decreased at this stage. Thus, it would appear from the increases in love and decline in feelings of ambivalence at the stage of dating and identify as a couple that the issue of personal autonomy and attachment was resolved for couple-oriented individuals once they anticipated identifying themselves and their partner as a couple. On the other hand, expected feelings of ambivalence increased from the previous stage for developmental and cautious individuals once they had identified their relationship as a couple relationship. Although the love scores for both these Types were higher once they were

involved in a couple relationship, this did not decrease their feelings of ambivalence. The intrapersonal conflict associated with the decision as to continue or terminate a relationship which Braiker and Kelley (1979) have discussed, would appear to be reflected in developmental and cautious individuals' expectation to increase both their feelings of love and ambivalence during the first two levels of involvement. Furthermore, although both developmental and cautious individuals expected their feelings of ambivalence to decrease once they were certain the relationship would end in marriage, their ambivalence means were still significantly higher than those for expedient and couple-oriented individuals. It would appear then, that developmental and cautious individuals may have placed greater emphasis on personal autonomy than did couple-oriented and expedient individuals.

Love Types by Personality, Relationship Attitudes, and Premarital Relationship Experience

The final purpose of this study was to differentiate the derived love Types on the basis of a number of personality, relationship attitude, and premarital relationship experience measures. These comparisons between the Types were undertaken to identify personal characteristics associated with individuals' expectations regarding the development of love in a future premarital relationship.

The derived Types were found to significantly differ on romanticism, self-monitoring behavior, age at first date, and cohabitating experience. Significant sex differences were also revealed for romanticism, self-monitoring behavior, and reward values. In addition, significant Sex X Type Interactions were found for need for inclusion and reward values.

Romanticism. To determine if the individuals comprising each Type differed in the extent to which they held romantic beliefs about love, the participants' romanticism scores were dichotomized at the median. Significant differences on romanticism emerged on the basis of Type, $\chi^2 (3) = 11.18, p < .01$. Of all of the individuals comprising the expedient group, 61% held romantic beliefs. Furthermore, it would appear that the label of nonromantic could be well applied to both developmental (68%) and cautious (73%) individuals. Couple-oriented individuals, however, were fairly equally split with regard to romanticism with 52% being romantic versus 48% nonromantic.

The revised version of Hobart's (1958b) Romanticism Scale, utilized in this study, is designed to tap the extent to which individuals adhere to the cultural ideal associated with love relationships. As Cunningham and Anthill (1981) suggest, nearly all members of our society are familiar with the media's image of romance. This image is one which suggests that once people find the right

partner falling in love is the logical result. Considering expedient individuals' expectations to experience a high amount of love for their partner early in a relationship, it is not surprising that they, too, as compared to the other Types, are the most romantic. Thus, expedient individuals not only appear to adhere to this cultural image of love in close relationships, but they also expect to act it out in a future premarital relationship. Furthermore, it would appear on the basis of their low ambivalence scores that expedient individuals expect to find that one true partner.

Although expedient individuals' expectations regarding their future experience of love and ambivalence fit this cultural image of romantic relationships, their expected experience of conflict and maintenance behavior do not. Spanier (1972) suggests that an individual with highly romanticized notions about close relationships is likely to be less realistic and more idealistic regarding their involvement. This would suggest that romantic individuals expect little conflict with their partner and thus, little need to engage in maintenance activities. However, expedient individuals as compared to all other Types expected to not only experience significantly more conflict early in their future relationship, but also anticipated engaging in significantly more maintenance behaviors at the first two involvement levels. It would appear then that expedient

individuals adhere, only in part, with the romanticized notions of close relationships projected within our culture.

As compared to romantics, nonromantic individuals are viewed as being more realistic with respect to their beliefs concerning the "power of love" in close relationships. Non-romantic individuals are considered to take into account such factors as economic security and parental advice in the selection of a marital partner. As indicated by the findings of romanticism with regard to Type, developmental and cautious individuals were more likely to be non-romantic than were expedient or couple-oriented individuals. The previous findings concerning developmental and cautious individuals' expectations regarding the development of love can be related to their general lack of adherence to the romantic ideal. As noted previously, the general patterning of love scores, across all three levels of involvement, for both developmental and cautious individuals was very similar. Although cautious individuals' love scores were significantly lower than developmental individuals, at each stage, the individuals comprising both of these Types expected their feelings of love to develop in an almost perfect linear fashion. This progressive development in feelings of love could reflect their concern for evaluating the appropriateness of their future partner as a marriage mate. For instance, the item "economic security should be carefully considered before selecting a

marriage partner," which is contained in Hobart's (1958b) Romanticism Scale is one, which if viewed in its broad context, requires a great deal of information and insight into a premarital partner. As many college students can certainly attest to, there is a great deal of variability in the abilities of pre-medical and pre-law majors. While on the surface these majors may connote future economic security, other factors such as intelligence, motivation, emotional stability, or ability to work with people can have a far greater influence on economic achievement. Factors such as these are not generally readily discerned with only surface contact with a dating partner. Furthermore, developmental and cautious individuals may not only be realistically concerned with evaluating their partner, but also realistically testing the compatibility of their own personal goals with those of their relationship. As the findings on ambivalence discussed earlier indicated, developmental and cautious individuals expected to feel significantly more ambivalent than expedient or couple-oriented individuals, at the last two involvement levels. The sense of realism currently ascribed to nonromantic individuals may be based on a broader set of issues than simply evaluating the social characteristics of their partner. That is, for these individuals the process of achieving increasing levels of interdependence with their future partner is one which they expected to enter and maintain with some degree

of uncertainty.

Significant differences by sex were also revealed concerning romanticism. The means on romanticism, for males and females, were 4.72 and 3.73, respectively. Males were found to be significantly more romantic than females, $t(191) = 3.43, p < .001$. This finding of males holding more romanticized beliefs concerning love than females is supported by a number of other studies (Huston et al., 1981; Knox & Sporkowski, 1972; Rubin, 1973; Rubin et al., 1980). Rubin (1973) has suggested that this sex difference in romantic beliefs about love attests to the mate selection process as being a more serious matter for women than for men. Even today, women's achieved social status depends to a large extent on their husbands (Cunningham & Anthill, 1981). For this reason, men can afford to be more romantic, while women must be more practical or rational in their selection of a marriage partner.

Self-monitoring. To determine if the Types differed with regard to self-monitoring the participants' scores on Snyder's (1974) Self-monitoring Scale were dichotomized at the median. Significant differences by type were found on the basis of self-monitoring, $\chi^2(3) = 8.13, p < .05$. Approximately 59% of the individuals comprising the developmental group and 61% of those in the expedient group were high self-monitors. On the other hand, only 42% and 32% of the individuals in the couple-oriented and cautious

groups, respectively, were high self-monitors.

The social psychological construct of self-monitoring is concerned with individuals' ability to monitor their own behavior and that of others in social situations (Snyder, 1980). Individuals who are concerned with how they present themselves to others and adjust their own behavior on the basis of cues from the social environment are considered to be high self-monitors. Unlike high self-monitors, low self-monitoring individuals are not so concerned with the social appropriateness of their behavior, but rather tend to express themselves in terms of how they feel (Snyder, 1980). It was previously suggested that high self-monitoring, as compared to low self-monitoring individuals, would have expected to experience less love early in the development of a future premarital relationship. That is, since high self-monitoring individuals are concerned with evaluating their own behavior and that of others it seemed unlikely that they would have anticipated investing themselves in a future relationship until they were certain their partner was committed to them, and thus, feeling and expressing love was an appropriate response.

Although the individuals comprising the Types were found to differ in terms of self-monitoring, this finding is somewhat inconclusive as to how high and low self-monitoring individuals vary in their expectations regarding the development of a future premarital relationship.

The expedient group, as compared to all other Types, contained the highest percentage of individuals identifying themselves as high self-monitors. On the other hand, the highest percentage of individuals identifying themselves as low self-monitors were found among the cautious group. As the findings concerning individuals' expectations regarding the development of their feelings of love indicated, compared to all the Types, expedient individuals expected to feel the highest amounts of love and cautious individuals the lowest amounts of love. Thus, if only the expedient and cautious groups are considered, it would appear that high self-monitoring, as compared to low self-monitoring individuals, anticipated feeling more love throughout the development of a future premarital relationship. Yet, a fairly high percentage of developmental individuals also identified themselves as high self-monitors. As compared to expedient individuals, developmental individuals expected to feel significantly less love in a future premarital relationship. It would appear then, that high self-monitors, as a group, differed in terms of how they expected their feelings of love to develop. As Snyder (1974) reports, high self-monitoring individuals are very good at controlling their emotional expressions to create the impressions they wish to make. Furthermore, not only can high self-monitors control their own emotions, but they also have more insight, than low self-monitoring individuals, into the

possible strategies for influencing the affective responses of others (Brothen, 1977). The extent to which high self-monitoring individuals may exert self-control versus other-control with regard to the expression of emotions, such as love, may depend largely on their perception of relationships, in general, and the relative speed or quickness with which they would like to become involved with a future partner. It would seem that the findings concerning romanticism, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors, previously discussed, could be drawn upon to better understand the differences between expedient and developmental individuals' use of self-monitoring skills.

As reported earlier developmental individuals were fairly nonromantic in their beliefs about love. Since the majority of these individuals in this group identified themselves as high self-monitors, it could be suggested that they expect to use their self-monitoring skills to evaluate their partner in terms of such factors as economic security or social background. As mentioned previously, the more positive these evaluations become the more these individuals would expect to increase their feelings of love. Expedient individuals, on the other hand, were romantic in their beliefs about love. For these individuals their self-monitoring skills could be used so as to continue to reinforce to their partner their feelings of love. That is, these individuals may monitor their own behavior in such a

way to be certain they are saying and doing the things a person in love is expected to undertake.

Developmental individuals were also found to anticipate feeling more ambivalent throughout the development of a future relationship than were expedient individuals. Considering the high degree of ambivalence developmental individuals' expected to feel, these individuals may use their self-monitoring skills in an attempt to determine the degree to which they wished to invest themselves in a relationship. For these individuals, their expectations regarding the development of their feelings of love could be based largely upon how they anticipated their partner acting toward them. As Snyder (1980) suggests, high self-monitoring individuals are extremely adept at evaluating the intentions of others. Thus, for the high self-monitors in the developmental group, if they perceived their partners as being invested in the relationship and in love with them, then they expected to reciprocate in kind and to the same degree. Whereas, high self-monitors in the developmental group might emphasize their monitoring skills to evaluate their partner, it could be suggested that those in the expedient group anticipate drawing upon their monitoring skills to control their partner's feelings. These individuals expected to fall in love quickly with their partner. As such, their monitoring skills could be used as a means toward influencing their partner's affective

responses in such a way as to motivate their partner to matching their expectation to feel a high amount of love early in the relationship. Furthermore, as mentioned previously, expedient individuals expected to experience significantly more conflict, than any of the other Types, at the first involvement level. It would appear then, that expedient individuals did not anticipate their attempts to control their partners' feelings or the development of a future relationship to occur without some problems.

Another means for considering differences between developmental and expedient individuals' use of their monitoring skills is with regard to their anticipated involvement in maintenance behaviors. One important aspect several of the items comprising the Braiker and Kelley (1979) maintenance scale taps is self-disclosure. Generally, the literature associated with the role of self-disclosure in close relationships has emphasized the norm of reciprocity. This norm suggests that the continued development of a relationship depends largely upon the extent to which a couple engages in reciprocal or matching exchanges of intimate disclosures. Altman and Taylor (1973) have gathered a great deal of empirical support for this proposition. However, it is important to consider that the norm of reciprocity emphasizes the role of self-disclosure at the dyadic level, and fails to consider an individual's intentions for advancing or reciprocating an intimate

disclosure. As Morton and Douglas (1981) have suggested, self-disclosure can be used to manipulate the partner to like oneself, or to reciprocally disclose interests and intentions concerning the relationship. In a sense, both of these suggestions are concerned with individuals' ability to establish control over the development of their relationship. It is at this level of relational control that the high self-monitors in the developmental and expedient groups may differ in their strategies for self-disclosing.

Expedient, as compared to developmental individuals, expected to engage in significantly more maintenance work at the first two involvement levels. It could be suggested then, that these individuals anticipated self-disclosing as a means to motivate their partner to love them as much as they expected to love their partner. These individuals establish relationship control through their use of self-disclosure as a means toward moving the relationship toward increasing levels of interdependence quickly. Unlike expedient individuals, developmental individuals may utilize self-disclosure with the intent of determining their partners' interests and intentions regarding the relationship. These individuals did not want to become involved too quickly. These individuals are more guarded in their expectations regarding their involvement in a future relationship than are expedient individuals. As

such, developmental individuals may utilize self-disclosure as a means toward ensuring that their investment in a future relationship is protected.

Significant differences by sex were also revealed with regard to self-monitoring, $t(192) = 2.37, p < .05$. The self-monitoring means for this sex difference indicated that self-monitoring was more characteristic of males (12.98) than of females (11.68). This finding is surprising for two reasons. First, few studies have either investigated or reported sex differences in self-monitoring behavior. However, based on the number of studies having considered the construct of self-monitoring it would have appeared that individuals' self-monitoring behavior was independent of sex. Second, most of the research associated with self-monitoring has been devoted to more clearly defining this construct and investigating the behavioral consequences of self-monitoring. These studies have primarily been conducted within laboratory settings and have generally not investigated the relationship to or consequences of self-monitoring in close relationships. In explaining these sex differences, it could be suggested that the purpose and design of this study may have influenced the participants' responses to the items on Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring Scale. This scale is designed to assess individuals' perceptions of their behavior in social situations, regardless of the type of people with whom they

are interacting. However, many of the other measures included in this study were concerned with individuals' expectations regarding their involvement with a specific individual, i.e., a romantic partner. Since males are traditionally expected to take the lead in social dating situations, they may have responded to the items on this scale accordingly.

Cohabitation. Significant differences by Type were revealed with regard to the incidence of cohabitation ($\chi^2 (3) = 15.72, p < .01$). Both expedient and cautious individuals were found to be more likely to have experienced a premarital cohabitating relationship than were either developmental or couple-oriented individuals. Approximately 36% of the individuals comprising the expedient group and 29% of those comprising the cautious group had experienced at least one cohabitating relationship, while of those individuals in the developmental and couple-oriented groups only 6% and 12%, respectively, had experienced such a relationship. Furthermore, it is important to note that only nine of the participants in this study were found to be currently involved in a cohabitating relationship. It would appear then, for the majority of the participants, that this item is reflecting a cohabitating relationship which had broken up, rather than one in which they are currently involved. Therefore, this finding of Type differences with regard to participants' cohabitating

experience will be discussed in terms of the past rather than current impact of cohabitation on the individuals' comprising each of the Types' expectations regarding a future premarital relationship.

Studies in the area of cohabitation have investigated a number of different aspects associated with this lifestyle. These studies have concentrated primarily on differentiating cohabitators from non-cohabitators on such factors as sex role attitudes, personality, personal and family background, levels of commitment, and religiosity (c.f. Macklin, 1978). Of these many areas investigated with regard to cohabitation, only one, sex-role attitudes, was specifically considered in this study. As Newcomb (1981) reports, cohabitators have been found to be more androgynous than non-cohabitators. If a contrast between cohabitators and non-cohabitators had been undertaken, in this study, with regard to their sex role attitudes such differences as Newcomb (1981) cites may have been revealed. However, the Types, derived in this study, did not significantly differ in terms of their sex role attitudes, $\chi^2 (9) = 5.24$, ns. Due to the non-significant differences between individuals comprising each of the Types on sex role, and the relative lack of comparability in the variables measured in this study and previous cohabitating research, it is difficult to determine why expedient and cautious individuals were more likely, than developmental and couple-oriented

individuals to have experienced a cohabitating relationship.

It is, however, of interest to note that almost one-third of the individuals in both the expedient and cautious groups had experienced a cohabitating relationship. As may be recalled, of all the Types, expedient individuals expected to experience the highest amounts of love and maintenance behaviors and to feel the least ambivalent, while cautious individuals expected to experience the lowest amounts of love and maintenance behaviors as well as to be the most ambivalent. Therefore, this finding is of interest since, of the four Types, expedient and cautious individuals evidenced the greatest disparity in their expectations regarding the development of a future premarital relationship. Kimmel (1979) has suggested individuals entering into a new relationship bring with them their unique developmental history of relationship experience. It would seem that individuals, too, may, to some degree, depict their history of relationship experience when projecting into their involvement in a future relationship. It might be suggested then, that cautious and expedient individuals may have had a somewhat different experience in their cohabitating relationship. Not all individuals are similarly affected by their cohabitating experience (Ridley, Peterman & Avery, 1978). Some individuals may leave a cohabitating relationship viewing their experience as having been a positive one, while others may dissolve

their relationship frustrated and personally dissatisfied with their experience. Considering the relatively high amount of ambivalence and low amount of love cautious individuals expected to experience in a future relationship, it could be suggested that these individuals' past experience with cohabitation may not only have been less than satisfying, but also may have left them somewhat uncertain about establishing a future close relationship. However, since the quality of the participants' cohabitating experience was not assessed in this study, such a suggestion should be considered as speculative at best.

The impact of the cohabitating experience on individuals has also been considered with regard to the effect such an experience can have on an individual's ability to satisfactorily maintain future close relationships. Cohabitation is one type of close relationship which can serve to prepare some individuals for marriage (Ridley et al., 1978). Ridley et al. (1978) have suggested that the cohabitating experience can offer individuals the opportunity to learn not only the importance of communication skills, but also provide individuals the opportunity to develop and practice these skills. It could be suggested that it is with respect to communication skills that cautious and expedient individuals may have most importantly differed in their experience of a cohabitating relationship. As mentioned previously, expedient individuals expected to

engage in significantly more maintenance behaviors in a future relationship than did cautious individuals. Furthermore, of all the Types, cautious individuals expected to engage in the lowest amount of maintenance work. It could be questioned then, if the cohabitating relationships experienced by cautious individuals had provided them the opportunity to learn the importance of communication and problem-solving skills.

Age at First Date. To determine if the types differed with regard to age at first date, a chi-square analysis was conducted. The original item assessing the participants' age of first dating experience was comprised of a total of ten possible responses (see Appendix K, item #1). To assist in making the results of the chi-square more interpretable these responses were collapsed to reflect the participants' first dating experience at specific grade levels, i.e., junior high school, high school, or college. Furthermore, since only three participants had never dated this response was not included in the chi-square analysis. The Types were found to significantly differ in terms of age at first date, $\chi^2 (6) = 13.21, p < .05$. Table 5 displays this particular crossbreak. As indicated in Table 5, expedient individuals were more likely, than individuals in any other Type, to have experienced their first date during junior high school. Approximately 41% of the expedient individuals had dated during junior high school,

Table 5
Age at First Date by Type

Type	Junior High		High School		College	
	<u>n</u>	%	<u>n</u>	%	<u>n</u>	%
Developmental	13	20	49	74	4	06
Couple-oriented	10	13	64	81	5	06
Expedient	9	41	13	59	0	00
Cautious	2	10	15	75	3	15

while of those individuals in the developmental, couple-oriented, and cautious groups, only 20%, 13%, and 10%, respectively, had also dated during this time period.

Relatively few studies have related age at first date to other aspects of individuals' attitudes or behaviors in close relationships. Those studies which have considered age at first date have primarily focused on relating it to individuals' sexual experiences in premarital relationships. It has been reported that the earlier individuals had dated, the more sexually experienced they tended to be (Bell & Chaskes, 1970; Ehrmann, 1959). However, the Types were not found to differ with regard to past sexual experience, $F(3,194) = 1.17$, ns. In addition, although studies investigating individuals' beliefs about love have not included age at first date, they have considered the relationship between individuals' previous dating experience and romanticism. Cunningham and Anthill (1981) found that the more significant relationships individuals had experienced the less romantic they tended to be. Furthermore, individuals who had cohabitated tended to be less romantic than those who had not (Cunningham & Anthill, 1981). Yet, as previously reported expedient individuals were generally romantic in their beliefs about love and more than one-third had experienced a cohabitating relationship. If one considers age at first date to provide an indication as to individuals' overall history of dating

experience, then it would appear that expedient individuals' early dating experiences did not make them less romantic. More importantly, it would appear that early dating may have increased the amount of love expedient individuals' expected in a future relationship relative to the amount of love expected by individuals in the other Types. It may be suggested that the specific methodology employed in this study may have enhanced the likelihood that such a finding would have occurred.

The participants in this study were required to project into a future relationship in terms of their anticipated feelings of love. It could be suggested then, that the basis upon which these individuals made their projections was with regard to their previous relationship experiences. Farber (1980) suggests, that adults' conceptualizations of loving relationships are derived to a large extent from their dating experiences during adolescence. There is little doubt but that adolescent dating relationships may be characterized as highly romantic (Spanier, 1972). As such, given the fact that a higher percentage of individuals in the expedient group, as compared to those in the other types, had experienced a pre-adolescent dating relationship, their future projections regarding love may have incorporated these romantic experiences.

Interpersonal Needs. A significant Type X Sex Interaction was revealed for need for inclusion,

$F(3,194) = 3.56, p < .05$. Appendix P, Table 1, contains the means for this particular interaction. Post-hoc analyses of these means indicated that the females in the expedient and cautious groups had a significantly lower need for inclusion, than did those males in both of these Types. Although females, in the developmental and couple-oriented groups, reported a greater need for inclusion, than did their male counterparts, these means did not significantly differ.

The need to be involved or affiliated with others is considered to be more characteristic of females than males (Center, 1975). However, as the Type by Sex Interaction means on need for inclusion indicate, just the opposite was found to be true of males and females in the expedient and cautious groups. As compared to males and females in the developmental and couple-oriented groups, expedient and cautious females indicated the lowest need for inclusion, while expedient and cautious males indicated the highest need for inclusion. In explaining these findings it may be relevant to consider the participants' scores on the BSRI femininity subscale. Given that need for inclusion has been viewed as being somewhat sex-linked, it may be important to consider the extent to which males and females attributed other stereotypically feminine characteristics to themselves.

In addition to their low need for inclusion,

expedient and cautious females also tended to have fairly low femininity scores on the BSRI. Expedient and cautious females' femininity means on this scale were 5.19 and 5.30, respectively, as compared to developmental (5.44) and couple-oriented (5.80) females. In fact, expedient and cautious females' femininity means were lower than those for developmental (5.47), couple-oriented (5.42), and expedient (5.74) males, but were somewhat higher than the mean femininity score for cautious (5.03) males. Thus, given that expedient and cautious females considered themselves to be less feminine, than most of the other participants in this study, it is not surprising that they were also less likely to attribute to themselves a traditionally feminine characteristic such as need for inclusion.

Despite the feminine sex-linked nature of need for inclusion, expedient and cautious males, compared to all other males and females, indicated the highest need for inclusion. Yet, expedient and cautious males were very divergent in the extent to which they considered other stereotypic feminine traits as being characteristic of themselves. It is apparent from the femininity means, for males and females in each of the Types, that expedient males had the second highest and cautious males the lowest mean scores on femininity. At first it may seem somewhat discrepant that cautious males, as compared to expedient males, characterized themselves as being far less feminine,

but also endorsed to a similar degree their need to be involved in others' activities. However, it is important to consider that need for inclusion speaks little to the quality of the interaction an individual seeks. To some extent this may be inferred from the degree to which an individual makes self-attributions regarding feminine qualities. Femininity has traditionally been associated with an individual's expressive orientation (Parsons & Bales, 1955). Characteristics related to such an orientation include being considerate, sensitive, and understanding of others. It could be suggested then, that expedient males' high need for inclusion may be related to their interest and concern for personally relating with others. On the other hand, cautious males' high need for inclusion may reflect their desire to simply be engaged in these social activities, rather than for establishing personal relationships which might evolve from such interaction.

The items comprising the FIRO-B inclusion subscale are concerned with assessing individuals' interests in having others initiate interaction with them. Individuals' desires to be involved in others' social activities has some interesting ramifications with regard to dating relationships. The traditional dating scenario of the male picking up his date at her residence is far less common today. Currently, dating primarily involves individuals congregating in groups from which the majority gradually pair-off

(Murstein, 1980). As Knox and Wilson (1981) suggest, one of the best ways to meet members of the opposite sex is through the establishment of relationships with same-sex peers. It would appear then, that individuals' social networks can play an integral role in enhancing their opportunities for finding dating partners. Although the participants' need for inclusion does not directly provide an index as to the quantity or quality of their social networks, it does provide some insight into their general orientation toward being involved in their network's social activities. As such, participants' need for inclusion can be considered, with regard to dating relationships, to reflect their general accessibility as a dating partner. If social networks are an important component of dating today, then individuals with little desire to be involved in such social activities could, in a sense, be removing themselves from the dating marketplace. It could be suggested then, given expedient and cautious females' relatively low need for inclusion, that they may be a less accessible date for prospective male partners than are developmental and couple-oriented females.

Reward Values. The REVIR scale was utilized, in this study, to assess the participants' reward values associated with the resources of goods, information, love, money, services, sex, and status. A significant Sex X Type interaction was revealed for the resource of goods.

In addition, a significant main effect for sex was found for each of the resources of money, status, and information.

Prior to presenting and discussing these findings, it is important to note that previous research with the REVIR scale has not revealed sex differences in terms of individuals' reward values (Gordon, 1975). However, the fact that Gordon (1975) did not find sex differences in reward values is somewhat surprising. Previous research concerning the traits individuals seek in dating or marital partners has tended to show that small, but consistent, sex differences do exist (Peplau & Gordon, 1981). Our culture encourages and reinforces sex-linked asymmetries in the qualities or characteristics males and females should seek in a romantic partner (Bernard, 1972; Peplau, 1976). Considering a partner's ability to provide resources of money or status, to be a characteristic of that partner, one would expect sex differences to emerge with regard to reward values. However, given the contradictory findings of this and Gordon's (1975) study, with regard to sex differences in reward values, it would appear that further studies need to be conducted to clarify this issue.

A significant Sex X Type interaction was revealed for goods, $F(1,194) = 2.70$, $p < .05$. Appendix Q, Table 1 displays the means for this particular interaction. Post-hoc analyses of these means indicated that expedient males placed significantly less value on the resource of

goods, than did expedient females. Males and females, in each of the other Types, did not significantly differ in terms of the reward value they placed on goods.

Goods are considered to encompass all types of material objects (Foa & Foa, 1974). Gordon (1975) has reported that individuals who place a high value on goods tend to be concerned with living a comfortable existence. He further suggests that valuing goods represents a materialistic and hedonistic approach to life. With regard to the findings of this study, it is difficult to determine why expedient males placed significantly less value on goods, than did expedient females. One possible suggestion is that these males may place less value on the material resources they could obtain from a marital partner, as compared to expedient females. In considering this suggestion, it may be relevant to look at expedient males' and females' respective reward value scores associated with one additional resource, services. Foa and Foa (1974) in describing their model of interpersonal resources have considered the resources of goods and services as the most concrete or tangible rewards individuals can obtain from others. Since goods and services are both concrete rewards, the relative reward value expedient individuals assigned to each should provide an index as to their degree of materialism. That is, if expedient males, as compared to expedient females, are less materialistically oriented with

regard to the resources a spouse could provide, they should under-emphasize both services and goods, relative to their female counterparts. However, the mean scores on services for expedient males and females was 3.19 and 2.57, respectively. Although these means did not significantly differ, it would appear that expedient males do not place less reward value than expedient females, on the concrete or material resources a spouse could provide. Rather, the differences between expedient males and females, in terms of their degree of materialism, would appear to be associated with the type of reward each was considering. It might be posited then, that the finding of significant differences between expedient males and females, in terms of the reward value they associated with goods, may be a spurious finding. Such a suggestion would seem plausible given the number of contrasts which were made on the REVIR measure. Since sex was included as a grouping variable, for each of the analyses on the seven interpersonal resources, a total of 28 Type X Sex comparisons were made. Given the number of contrasts undertaken, the likelihood of finding at least one significant difference was greatly enhanced. Therefore, the finding of differences between expedient males and females, with regard to goods, is considered to be a spurious finding, rather than one which reveals true differences between the sexes in this group.

Significant sex differences were found for money,

$F(1,194) = 22.30$, $p < .001$, status, $F(1,194) = 12.79$, $p < .001$, and information, $F(1,194) = 14.90$, $p < .001$. The mean scores on money, for males and females, indicated that females (3.57) placed significantly greater value on this resource than did males (2.46). Females also emphasized, to a greater extent than males, the potential rewards a partner could provide them in terms of status. The mean scores on status, for males and females, were 2.59 and 3.48, respectively. However, the mean scores on information, for males and females, indicated that males (3.15) placed significantly greater value on this resource, than did females (2.21).

Prior to discussing these findings, with regard to sex differences on money, status, and information, it is important to consider what the mean scores reported above indicate. The REVIR scale utilizes a forced-choice format in which each of the seven resources is compared, at only one time, against all others. Each time a participant selected any one resource as more preferred, the participant received a score of one for that resource. Therefore, males' and females' mean scores on money, for instance, indicate the average number of times they selected that resource as more preferred against all other resources, including status and information. As such, the participants' mean scores on these resources are not independent. For instance, the mean score on money and status, for males, indicates that

when these resources were paired against information, males were likely to select information as more preferred. On the other hand, when status and money were paired against information, females were likely to consider status and money as more preferred than information. Therefore, since the participants' scores for these resources are relative, past studies would seem to provide a better basis upon which to discuss these sex differences, in reward values, for the resources of money and status, rather than information.

Peplau and Gordon (1981) have suggested that traditional assumptions associated with men assuming primary responsibility as the family breadwinner are increasingly being challenged. As women assume greater participation in the labor force their role as economic contributor to the family is becoming more accepted. However, this study's findings of sex differences in the reward of status and money would appear to suggest that the participants may still be viewing males as assuming primary responsibility as the breadwinner. Previous research has indicated that women generally give greater importance, than men, to the occupational abilities of a prospective marital partner (e.g. Burchinal, 1964; Hudson & Henze, 1969). Traditionally, women have been taught to seek a marital partner who is occupationally successful (Peplau & Gordon, 1981). The resources of money and status, which the females in this study emphasized more so than males, would appear to reflect

their desire for an occupationally successful mate. Men, on the other hand, have traditionally been raised to expect to be the primary breadwinner. For many men, the fact that their wife works may be very threatening to them and an indication that they have failed in their role as sole provider. Several studies have been conducted in an effort to investigate the extent to which working wives may create stress for husbands (Burke & Weir, 1976; Orden & Bradburn, 1969; Scanzoni, 1970). While the findings of these studies are somewhat inconclusive, generally it has been considered that the long term consequences of wives' employment on their husbands is not deleterious. However, Booth (1979) suggests that both men and women may undergo some initial stress when women begin to work. If such initial stress does occur, it would seem that males and females equally valuing the status and money which could be achieved from wife's working would alleviate such stress. Changing economic conditions are increasingly forcing many otherwise reluctant women to seek employment outside the home. However, it would seem that unless the males and females in this study work towards reprioritizing their values regarding money and status, it could be suggested that they may experience some initial stress if the wife's employment becomes an economic necessity in their future marriages.

Integrative Summary

The findings of this study may be reviewed in three respects: (a) the identification of a typology associated with individuals' expectations regarding the development of their feelings of love in a future premarital relationship, (b) the comparison of the derived love Types on the basis of individuals' expectations regarding the development of conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence, in a future premarital relationship, and (c) the differentiation of these love Types with respect to a number of attitudinal and personality measures.

Prior to the construction of the love Typology eventually arrived at in this study the participants' love scores were found to significantly differ with regard to the order in which they had responded to the Braiker and Kelley (1979) love scales. Following further analyses of this ordering effect it was decided to standardize the participants' raw love scores separately, based on the order in which they had completed the love scales. Analyses subsequent to the standardization of scores appeared to indicate that this procedure removed this ordering effect.

Cluster analysis was used to group individuals with similar expectations regarding the development of their feelings of love. The participants' expected feelings of love were assessed for three levels of involvement of an anticipated future premarital relationship. Four Types

were identified following the cluster analysis and subsequent post-hoc procedures. Based on their relative patterning of love scores, across the three levels of involvement, the individuals comprising each of the Types were identified as adopting either a developmental, couple-oriented, expedient, or cautious model of love. Developmental individuals were found to expect their feelings of love to progressively increase the more committed their future relationship became. Couple-oriented individuals were found to expect to experience a fairly high amount of love toward their partner early in a developing future relationship. However, the relative change in these individuals' love scores across the three relationship stages appeared to indicate that being involved in a committed relationship was an important criteria for their expected feelings of love. As compared to all the other Types, expedient individuals were found to expect to feel the highest amounts of love throughout the development of a future premarital relationship. On the other hand, cautious individuals were found to expect to experience less love, as compared to all the other Types, across all three levels of involvement. Although these individuals anticipated feeling a fairly high amount of love for a future partner, once they were certain the relationship would end in marriage, their anticipated feelings of love were still significantly lower than all the other Types at this

involvement level.

The individuals comprising each of the Types exhibited a number of interesting differences as to how they expected to experience each of the relationship dimensions of conflict, maintenance behaviors, and ambivalence. Although no significant main effect for Type with regard to conflict emerged, individuals in each of the Types were found to significantly differ in the amount of conflict they expected during the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple. Surprisingly, expedient individuals expected to experience the highest amount of conflict, at this stage, compared to individuals in the other Types. These individuals expected then, to not only feel a high amount of love for their partner early in a future dating relationship, but also to experience a fairly high amount of conflict. Cautious individuals, compared to those in the other Types, expected to experience the lowest amount of conflict during the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple. Given the fairly low amount of love these individuals expected to feel toward a partner, at this stage, it was not surprising that they also expected to experience relatively little conflict. For the other Types, couple-oriented individuals were found to expect to experience more conflict than developmental individuals, during the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple, but significantly less than that expected to occur for

expedient individuals.

With regard to maintenance behaviors, cautious individuals were found to expect to engage in significantly less maintenance work in a future relationship, than did those individuals in each of the other Types. Furthermore, individuals in the expedient group were found to expect to engage in significantly more maintenance activities in a future relationship, as compared to those individuals in the developmental and couple-oriented Types. Developmental and couple-oriented individuals, however, were not found to significantly differ with regard to their expectations associated with their maintenance behavior in a future pre-marital relationship.

The participants' expectations regarding the development of their feelings of ambivalence were also found to differ on the basis of Type. Expedient individuals were found to expect to experience less ambivalence in a future relationship than those individuals comprising either the developmental or cautious groups. Expedient and couple-oriented individuals, however, did not differ in the amount of ambivalence they expected to feel in an anticipated future relationship. Furthermore, couple-oriented, developmental, and cautious individuals were not found to significantly differ on ambivalence.

Significant Type or Sex X Type interactions were revealed with regard to romanticism, self-monitoring, need

for inclusion, reward values, cohabitating experience, and age at first date. Expedient individuals could be characterized as holding romantic beliefs concerning love, as well as being high self-monitors. Furthermore, 36% of the individuals in the expedient group were found to have experienced a cohabitating relationship while 41% of these individuals stated that they had begun dating during junior high school. With regard to the sex differences which were revealed, for the individuals comprising this group, expedient females were found to have a significantly lower need for inclusion, than expedient males. In addition, expedient males were found, as compared to expedient females, to place less reward value on the resource of goods. This finding, however, was considered to be spurious rather than to reveal true differences between expedient males and females in terms of the reward value they placed on goods. Developmental individuals could be characterized not only as non-romantic concerning their beliefs in love, but also to be high self-monitors. The individuals comprising the couple-oriented group were found to be fairly equally divided in terms of their beliefs concerning love. However, these individuals could be characterized as low self-monitors. Cautious individuals were found to be fairly nonromantic, as well as being low self-monitors. Furthermore, 29% of the individuals in this group indicated that they had experienced a cohabitating relationship. Cautious

males and females were also found to significantly differ with regard to their need for inclusion. Females, in the cautious group, were found to have a lower need for inclusion than cautious males.

Significant sex differences were also found for romanticism, self-monitoring, and reward values. Males, as compared to females, were found to be more likely to characterize themselves as romantic and as high self-monitors. Females, on the other hand, were found to be more likely to place greater value on the resources of money and status, than males, while males placed greater value on the resource of information.

IV. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study provides a beginning step toward empirically evaluating the concept of relationship models. Although this study was based on the theoretical work of Schwartz et al. (1980), no specific love typology was expected to be derived. In this regard then, the love typology which was derived and subsequent findings were not considered to either validate nor invalidate the relationship models suggested by Schwartz et al. (1980). Rather, this study attempted to operationalize the concept of relationship models, and provide possible empirical support for their existence.

It would appear that the findings of this study associated with one of the four love Types, the expedient Type, would provide the best basis upon which to consider the concept of relationship models. Expedient individuals' expectations regarding the development of a future close relationship tended to consistently differ from those individuals in the other Types. Furthermore, for those measures which did serve to differentiate the Types, expedient individuals were found to differ, from the other participants in this study, on each of these measures. As such, the findings associated with these individuals would

appear to offer some insight into several areas. First, several authors have suggested that romantic individuals may be very unrealistic about close relationships. Although expedient individuals were found to hold relatively higher romantic beliefs about love than individuals in the other Types, their expectations concerning the development of a future premarital relationship would appear to contradict some of the assumptions these authors have made. Second, it has been argued that the extent to which individuals adhere to the cultural ideology of love may have little or nothing to do with their feelings of closeness and attachment for a past or current romantic partner. This argument has been based on studies which have indicated that the more experienced individuals are with close relationships, the less likely they are to maintain romantic beliefs concerning love. Yet, expedient individuals were found, as compared to those individuals in the other Types, to not only hold relatively higher romantic beliefs about love, but also to have been more likely to have dated at an earlier age and to have experienced a cohabitating relationship. Moreover, despite their history of relationship experience and apparent adherence to the cultural ideology of love, expedient individuals also anticipated developing a highly close and attached relationship with a future romantic partner. These findings could be interpreted to suggest that expedient individuals' history of relationship

experience may have enhanced their belief that the characteristics associated with the cultural ideology of love could be realized in a close and attached relationship. Third, it will be suggested that expedient individuals may be adopting a relationship model not directly tapped by the romanticism measure employed in this study.

Although the findings of this study, related to those individuals comprising the expedient Type, were considered to provide possible insight into the concept of relationship models, several problems were encountered in the development of the four love Types. The problems which were revealed suggest that this study may have been limited in its ability to adequately operationalize and explore individuals' relationship models. The difficulties encountered, however, were in themselves significant findings. As such, they provide a basis upon which to offer suggestions for further research in the area of relationship models.

Implications Regarding Romanticism

Family sociologists and marriage and family therapists have taken a great deal of interest in better understanding individuals' beliefs about love. To a large extent, this interest has been in the form of expressed concern that individuals who endorse a cultural ideology of romantic love may be very unrealistic in their expectations

concerning close relationships (de Rougemont, 1963).

Romantic individuals have been characterized as expecting to be involved not only with the perfect or ideal partner, but also in a problem-free relationship. As such, there is little need to engage in any communication directed toward changing the partner or to improve the quality of the relationship (Friedlander & Morrison, 1980). Furthermore, conflict is generally not expected by romantics to occur in their relationship. For these individuals, love and conflict tend to be incompatible elements of a close relationship (Schwartz et al., 1980). Although the extent to which romantics are unrealistic in their expectations concerning close relationships has been assumed to exist, it has not been directly tested. Given the purposes of this study, this hypothesized relationship between romanticism and unrealistic expectations could not be fully explored. However, the findings associated with expedient individuals' expectations regarding a future premarital relationship would call to question some of the assumptions surrounding this hypothesis.

As may be recalled, expedient individuals were found to hold relatively higher romantic beliefs concerning love, than those individuals in any of the other Types. Thus, these individuals were endorsing a cultural ideology which asserts that as long as a couple is in love they can overcome any possible differences in their needs, values,

or socio-economic background. On this basis, a number of researchers would have suggested that expedient individuals are unrealistic in their expectations concerning close relationships. Since this study assessed these individuals' expectations along four important relationship dimensions, it would have been expected that they would have anticipated experiencing a high amount of love and low amounts of ambivalence, conflict, and maintenance behaviors. These individuals, compared to those individuals in any of the other love Types did, as predicted, expect to experience significantly more love and less ambivalence in a future relationship. It would appear on the basis of their scores on these dimensions that expedient individuals did not anticipate feeling confused about getting involved with or quickly attached to a future premarital partner. Contrary to what was expected, however, expedient individuals anticipated experiencing significantly more maintenance behaviors, for the first two levels of involvement, and significantly more conflict, at the first level of involvement, than those individuals in any of the other love Types. Since the first level of involvement was the only stage at which the types differed, with regard to conflict, expedient individuals' expectations concerning this dimension are indeed surprising. Given that romantic individuals have been considered to view love and conflict as incompatible aspects of a relationship, expedient individuals'

expectations regarding these dimensions would appear to challenge this assertion. It would appear then, despite expedient individuals' romantic beliefs, their expected experience in a future relationship envisions not only problems occurring, but also the necessary maintenance work to change themselves or their partner to improve the quality of the relationship.

It would seem, given the findings discussed above, that expedient individuals' romantic beliefs were not fully adequate in predicting their relationship expectations. These individuals' beliefs concerning love might be considered to be represented in their anticipated feelings of love and ambivalence in a future premarital relationship. Forgas and Dobosz (1980), for instance, have found that romantic individuals tend to emphasize the love and commitment aspects of close relationships. However, expedient individuals' romantic beliefs were not adequate in predicting their expectations concerning their experience of conflict and maintenance behaviors in a future relationship. Conflict and maintenance behaviors have been found to be important dimensions of close relationships. As such, if individuals' romantic beliefs were truly indicative of the extent to which they are unrealistic about close relationships, romanticism measures should be able to predict individuals' expectations concerning these relationship dimensions. However, it

could be suggested that romanticism measures may be too limited in their focus to fully provide an accurate index as to individuals' relationship expectations.

Romanticism measures appear to be primarily assessing the extent to which individuals believe that their feelings of love will allow them to overlook problems with their partner. In other words, being in love may make a person more accepting of a partner, than if that individual were not in love. However, the degree to which an individual may be unrealistic needs to be addressed more specifically at a relationship level. The power of love may not be enough to accept a relationship wherein self-disclosure, problem-solving, and sexual interaction are at a minimum. Given that these relationship aspects are considered on the Braiker and Kelley (1979) conflict and maintenance behavior scales, it might be speculated that expedient individuals were sensitive to these relationship issues. That is, in responding to these items, expedient individuals could be considered as possibly taking into account their future partner's role in engaging in conflict and communication behaviors. However, in responding to the items comprising the romanticism, love, and ambivalence scales these individuals need not have had to consider how their partner might think, feel, or act toward them. Rather, expedient individuals' relatively high scores on romanticism and love, and their low scores with regard to

ambivalence, might be viewed as providing an indication as to these individuals' ideal preferences for experiencing a close relationship. These ideals may be viewed as being subjectively based, and developed independently of their expectations concerning their partners' behavior in a close relationship. On the other hand, relationship issues such as conflict and maintenance work are not totally under their control, but dependent upon their relationship with their partner. It could be suggested that expedient individuals are realistically aware not only that problems may occur in a relationship, but also that they cannot be in total control of them, nor how these problems are resolved. As such, their realization that they cannot be in total control of any future interaction may be reflected in their higher scores for conflict and maintenance behaviors, than would have been predicted on the basis of their romantic beliefs.

The possible relationship between expedient individuals' romantic beliefs and their expectations regarding a future premarital relationship may also be considered with regard to their history of relationship experience. Previous research in the area of romanticism shows that individuals who have experienced a number of significant relationships or a cohabitating relationship tended to be less romantic than those individuals less experienced with close relationships (Cunningham & Anthill,

1981). These findings have been interpreted to suggest that the more experienced individuals are with close relationships, the more realistic they become in their beliefs about love (Knox & Sporakowski, 1972). However, this study found that despite expedient individuals' romantic beliefs about love they were the most likely to have experienced a cohabitating relationship and to have begun dating at an earlier age, than those individuals in any of the other Types. It would seem that the question might be posed, "How, despite their history of relationship experience, could expedient individuals still maintain their romantic beliefs in love, as well as expect to develop a highly interdependent relationship with a future premarital partner." To better answer this question it may be important to consider past research investigating the relationship between romanticism and individuals' feelings of love for a past or current partner.

Cunningham and Anthill (1981) have argued that a distinction needs to be made between romanticism and romantic love. These authors consider romanticism to reflect the extent to which individuals' beliefs in love represents an adherence to the cultural ideology of love. On the other hand, these authors suggest that romantic love represents an attitude or an index as to individuals' feelings toward their past or current relationship partner. This distinction has been made to refute a commonly held

view that individuals' beliefs in love, as projected through the media, are indicative of their real life romantic experiences.

This distinction between romanticism, as a belief in love, and romantic love, as an attitude toward one's partner, is an interesting conceptual distinction. However, past research has indicated that individuals in ongoing relationships may not make this distinction. Both Cunningham and Anthill (1981) and Rubin (1973) have found measures of romanticism and romantic love to be positively correlated for individuals in ongoing dating or marital relationships. One possible suggestion for these findings is that once individuals have established a satisfying interdependent relationship, their beliefs in the power of love can be readily substantiated through their interaction with their partner. It could be further suggested that if this relationship between romantic love and romanticism exists for individuals in ongoing relationships, then it might also exist for some individuals who have previously experienced such satisfying relationships. It might be considered that individuals who have experienced highly satisfying interdependent relationships may not only endorse romantic beliefs about love, but also may realistically expect to experience such highly interdependent relationships in the future. Thus, it may be suggested that expedient individuals' past history of relationships

may have shaped both their beliefs in love and their expectations regarding the development of a close and attached future relationship. Furthermore, given these individuals' history of relationship experience it is likely that they had encountered conflict within them and learned the importance of working on maintaining a satisfying relationship. It might be considered that these individuals' expectations concerning the relationship dimensions of conflict and maintenance behaviors may reflect their previous experiences in close relationships. Of course, since this study did not assess the participants' degree of satisfaction with previous relationships, these suggestions are highly speculative.

The findings associated with expedient individuals' expectations regarding a future premarital relationship might also be interpreted to suggest that these individuals are adopting a model of love distinct, in part, from the cultural ideology of love. This possible new relationship model would seem to be one which has incorporated many of the previous notions associated with the power of love, but one that has also tempered these beliefs with the realities of establishing close interdependent relationships. Under this model, if two people truly love each other, they can overcome any difficulties they may encounter. However, the realities of close relationships reflected in some cultural representations of love are:

(a) that problems do indeed occur, and (b) despite the intrinsic advantage an individual may have by being in love, couples need the communication and problem-solving skills necessary to adequately handle these conflict issues.

An important aspect associated with the concept of relationship models is that individuals draw from the existing cultural images of loving relationships in developing their own model. Given that the items comprising the romanticism measure employed in this study is a shortened version of a scale developed almost 40 years ago (Gross, 1944), it is not surprising that expedient individuals' romantic beliefs did not fully predict their relationship expectations. One would have to assert that the characteristics of love and loving relationships of 40 years ago may not be representative of current images of love. At that time a great many pressures came to bear on individuals to marry within their racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic group. The power of love was considered as the only force which could draw a couple together despite these pressures. Over time, however, the importance of individuals being committed to their social group has lessened. Today, the value of individual autonomy has taken on increasing significance. The images of the power of love are seen now as the only force which can bridge the barriers between two autonomous individuals. Falling in

love is still an image represented within our culture. However, love is viewed less as an endstate and more as the beginning of a process, the elements of which include the necessity for couples to work toward achieving a mutually satisfying interdependent relationship. Whether expedient individuals' relationship model represents one posited by Schwartz et al. (1980) remains largely to be determined in future studies. Yet, it would seem that the cultural ideology of romanticism is not fully adequate in explaining these individuals' expectations for a future premarital relationship.

Limitations of the Data

Several problems were encountered in the construction of the love Types. These problems obviously have served to limit the data. The first problem was associated with the finding of an ordering effect on the basis in which the participants completed the love scales. As previously mentioned, those participants who completed the love scales beginning with the stage of dating, but do not identify as a couple and working forward to the stage of certain that the relationship would end in marriage had consistently higher love scores than those participants who completed these scales in the reverse order. The finding that the love scores of these two groups varied consistently, across each stage, would suggest that the participants were

showing developmental change in their expected feelings of love. Regardless of the order in which the participants completed these love scales, the change in their expected feelings of love was in the direction which would have been predicted. Their feelings of love increased the more committed the relationship became. This would suggest, despite the ordering effect, that the participants were not randomly responding to these love scales. If the ordering effect had been pronounced enough to inhibit the participants from showing developmental change in their expected feelings of love, one or more of these groups' mean love scores would have deviated from this predicted pattern of higher amounts of love the more committed the relationship.

In an attempt to eliminate this ordering effect, the mean love scores for each of the three levels of involvement, based on the order in which the participants completed the love scales, were standardized separately. Although this served to distribute the order in which these measures were presented randomly, across the love Types, it is still difficult to determine the error associated with this ordering effect. Since individuals tend to avoid giving extreme responses, it appeared that the participants' love scores for the first involvement level presented served as an anchor for their subsequent responses. The participants' love scores at the next two involvement

levels either increased or decreased depending on the stage at which they started. This might suggest that these items, which are primarily social-psychological in nature, may not have been concrete enough for them to evaluate with regard to the developmental progression of a future relationship. It cannot be determined if the amount of love, at each stage, or the relative change in love, across the stages, is an accurate reflection of the participants' expected feelings. As such, questions associated with the reliability of the participants' love scores must be considered.

In general, problems also exist with regard to cluster analysis. Hierarchical clustering procedures do not result in a discrete number of groups, but rather these methods develop a hierarchical arrangement of individuals and groups (Edelbrock & Achenbach, 1980). At the last step of the clustering procedure all of the cases and/or clusters of cases were joined. Therefore, it was up to this researcher to determine when the clustering procedure should be stopped and the clusters formed prior to that step retained as distinct groups. This decision was made by graphically representing each step of the clustering procedure and determining at which step a set of clusters appeared to be joining indiscriminantly prior to adding any additional cases. While this decision may be considered somewhat arbitrary, there are currently no statistical

techniques for determining when a set of clusters has been formed which reflect the data set's structure.

Another issue associated with cluster analysis is in determining the validity of the final solution. Cluster analysis will always give a solution even if it is not a good solution (Filsinger, McAvoy, & Lewis, 1982). Therefore, determining the validity of the love Types was a critical issue. Unlike with discriminant analysis, there were no prior groups with which to determine if the love Types were valid. Furthermore, given the exploratory nature of this study, there was little prior research with which to predict differences between the derived love Types. Although this study did appear to derive a set of distinct groups which significantly differed on love, they did not differ on many of the validation measures. Given the number of measures employed for validating the derived Types, several of the measures which did differentiate the Types could have occurred by chance. The validity of these love Types, given the nature of cluster analysis, will require their replication in further research.

A third limitation of the data concerns the generalizability of the findings. This study utilized only college students. As such, the findings of this study can only be considered as representing their expectations concerning the development of their feelings of love in a future relationship. Moreover, the problems associated

with the ordering effect affects the generalizability of these findings. The clusters which were derived in this study would not most likely recur in a sample wherein such ordering effects were not a factor. Therefore, even though this study may be considered as only representing college students, it may be limited in its generalizability to them.

Implications for Future Research

This study attempted to operationalize the concept of relationship models. This concept is based on the assumption that individuals maintain an ideal image of a close relationship. This relationship ideal is associated with not only the interaction between partners but also includes expectations as to how the relationship will develop over time. The problems associated with understanding individual or relationship development over time are numerous. Cross-sectional, longitudinal, and retrospective interview methods have been employed to better determine development over time. Each of these methods have limitations in their ability to accurately assess developmental phenomena (c.f. Fitzgerald & Surra, Note 4). These designs, however, are attempting to study the time dimension with regard to individuals or couples who have or are undergoing changes in their life experiences. The concept of relationship models is associated with looking

at individuals' expectations regarding future experiences. As such, the development of an accurate methodology for investigating developmental change, which has not yet occurred for the individual, is a critical issue. The method employed in this study was based on the assumption that the reported experiences of married couples who had already moved through the premarital period of their relationship would also be applicable for individuals who had yet to experience a relationship which had moved to marriage. The problems this study encountered may indicate that such an assumption was not valid. In a sense, this study may have taken the concept of relationship models and employed measures too refined to fully capture individuals' future expectations. It would seem then that to better understand the components of individuals' expectations associated with the development of a premarital relationship that future studies utilize an interview technique. These interviews could be semi-structured. However, it would be important that at the beginning stages of the interview process that the interviewee be allowed the opportunity to describe their expectations associated with the development of a future relationship, with little interruption or probing. A beginning question might be, "I am interested in how you expect a future premarital relationship to develop; describe for me as well as you can how you think you and your partner would feel and act toward each

other, from the time you first meet to the time you marry." If the interviewee has difficulty in responding to this question the interviewer might use probing questions developed from previous studies investigating the characteristics of couples' interaction in ongoing relationships. However, an attempt should be made to keep probing at a minimum. The interview method has been suggested as the best possible means for determining the elements or characteristics individuals associate with the development of their own future relationship. Extensive probing may serve to bias the interviewee toward applying characteristics to their future relationship on the basis of the questions posed by the interviewer, rather than describing these characteristics with regard to their own relationship expectations. The data gathered from this interview might be employed in the development of measures to more directly assess the expectations of individuals who have not yet married. These measures could be used in a similar methodology as was employed in this study. However, it would seem important that such measures attempt to include as many behavioral characteristics associated with couple-interaction as possible. The ordering effects which were encountered in this study might be eliminated if more concrete characteristics of a relationship are used, rather than the social-psychological dimensions considered in this study. These measures could be used on

different populations. For instance, it might be of interest to determine if high school students have different expectations associated with the development of a pre-marital relationship than do college students, or if individuals who have never married differ from divorced persons in their expectations. Of even greater importance would be in determining the extent to which individuals may realize their expectations in a future relationship. Such a study would entail assessing individuals' expectations prior to their involvement in an ongoing close relationship, and then following them up to the point at which they are seriously dating. At that time the individual could retrospect back on their relationship utilizing the same measures in which they had previously prospected into a future relationship. This would provide valuable insight into the current debate associated with the role of individual variables in predicting dyadic processes.

This study would also seem to have indicated problems related to current romanticism measures. The concept of romanticism has been considered in this study to not provide an accurate assessment of individuals' expectations for a close relationship. Moreover, if counselors are interested in investigating the extent to which individuals are unrealistic, future studies might attempt to develop such measurements. Eidelson and Epstein (1982) have recently published a scale for assessing

dysfunctional relationship beliefs. This scale has been validated with marital couples. Such a scale could also be developed for individuals who have not yet married and assess unrealistic expectations associated with premarital relationships. On the basis of individuals' beliefs a number of measures utilized in this study would seem applicable for investigating factors associated with these beliefs.

This study has explored the concept of individuals' models of premarital relationships. The problems this study encountered has provided the opportunity to consider other possible alternatives for investigating this concept. Whether the Types derived in this study are valid must be considered in future studies. However, continued effort needs to be made in an attempt to understand this concept and the relevance individuals' expectations have in predicting their future experience.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE PARTICIPANTS

In this questionnaire we are interested in finding out what you realistically expect to occur in a premarital relationship. We know people want many different things out of their relationships. We are not interested in finding out how you think other people's relationships develop, but rather we are interested in how you realistically expect your own relationship to develop.

This questionnaire is comprised of two parts. In the first part, you will be asked to respond to several questions concerning how you think you will feel and act in a future relationship. You will be asked to respond to these questions for three different time periods of a future relationship. In the second part of the questionnaire, you will be asked to respond to several questions concerning various attitudes and opinions you may have.

APPENDIX B

BRAIKER AND KELLEY (1979) RELATIONSHIP DIMENSIONS

The following questions are items concerning aspects common to many premarital relationships. Think about how you would realistically expect your relationship to develop between you and a future partner. Do not think about an ideal partner or an ideal relationship when responding to these items. Rather, think about what you realistically expect to occur in a future relationship.

Please answer these questions for the time period in your future relationship when you would be seeing each other, but would not yet consider yourselves to be a couple.

Remember, you are responding to these items in terms of how you realistically think you would be feeling about and interacting with a future partner when you were seeing each other, but had not yet identified as a couple.

The following questions are items concerning certain aspects common to many premarital relationships. Think about how you would realistically expect your relationship to develop between you and a future partner. Do not think about an ideal partner or an ideal relationship when responding to these items. Rather, think about what you realistically expect to occur in a future relationship.

Please answer these questions for the time period in your future relationship when you would be certain the relationship would end in marriage.

Remember, you are responding to these items in terms of how you realistically think you would be feeling about and interacting with a future partner when you would be certain the relationship would end in marriage.

The following questions are items concerning certain aspects common to many premarital relationships. Think about how you would realistically expect your relationship to develop between you and a future partner. Do not think about an ideal partner or an ideal relationship when responding to these items. Rather, think about what you realistically expect to occur in a future relationship.

Please answer these questions for the time period in your future relationship when you would be seeing each other and identify as a couple.

Remember, you are responding to these items in terms of how you realistically think you would be feeling about and interacting with a future partner when you would be seeing each other and identify as a couple.

1. To what extent would you have a sense of "belonging" with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

2. To what extent would you reveal or disclose very intimate facts about yourself to your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

3. How often would you and your partner argue with one another?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

4. How much would you feel you "give" to the relationship?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

5. To what extent would you try to change things about your partner that bother you (e.g. behaviors, attitudes, etc.)?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

6. How confused would you be about your feelings toward your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

7. To what extent would you love your partner at this stage?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

8. How much time would you and your partner spend discussing and trying to work out problems between you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not time at all						A great deal of time		

9. How much would you think about or worry about losing some of your independence by being involved with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

10. To what extent would you feel that the things that happen to your partner would also affect or be important to you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

11. How much would you and your partner talk about the quality of your relationship--e.g. how good it is, how satisfying, how to improve it, etc.?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Never							Very often	

12. How often would you feel angry and resentful toward your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Never							Very often	

13. To what extent would you feel that your relationship is somewhat unique compared to others you'd been in?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

14. To what extent would you try to change your own behavior to help solve certain problems between you and your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

15. How ambivalent or unsure would you be about continuing the relationship with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not unsure at all						Extremely unsure		

16. How committed would you feel toward your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all						Extremely		

17. How close would you feel to your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not close at all						Extremely close		

18. To what extent would you feel that your partner demands or requires too much of your time and attention?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all						Very much		

19. How much would you need your partner at this stage?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all						Very much		

20. To what extent would you feel "trapped" or pressured to continue in this relationship?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all						Very much		

21. How sexually intimate would you be with your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all						Very much		

22. How much would you tell your partner what you want or need from the relationship?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Very little						Very much		

23. How attached would you feel to your partner?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

24. When you and your partner argue, how serious would the problems or arguments be?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not serious at all							Very serious	

25. To what extent would you communicate negative feelings toward your partner--e.g. anger, dissatisfaction, frustration, etc.?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all							Very much	

APPENDIX C

TEXAS SOCIAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

The following items ask you to describe your reactions and feelings when you are around other people. Each item has a scale marked with the numbers 1 through 5. On this scale, a 1 means "not at all characteristic" of you, while a 5 means "very characteristic" of you. For each item, circle the number which best describes how characteristic the item is of you.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Not at all				Very much
	characteristic				characteristic
	of me				of me
1. I am not at all likely to speak to people until they speak to me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I would describe myself as self confident.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel confident of my appearance.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am a good mixer.	1	2	3	4	5
5. When in a group of people, I have trouble thinking of the right thing to say.	1	2	3	4	5
6. When in a group of people, I usually do what the others want rather than make suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I am in disagreement with other people, my opinion usually prevails.					
8. I would describe myself as one who attempts to master situations.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Other people look up to me.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I enjoy social gatherings just to be with people.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I make a point of looking other people in the eye.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I cannot seem to get others to notice me.	1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | I would rather not have very
much responsibility for other
people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | I feel comfortable being
approached by someone in a position
of authority. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | I would describe myself as
indecisive. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | I have no doubts about my social
competence. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX D

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

Following are a number of personality characteristics. Please use these characteristics to describe yourself. Indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never True				Always or Almost Always True		
1. Independent		_____		17. Sensitive to the needs of others		_____
2. Gentle		_____		18. Moody		_____
3. Adaptable		_____		19. Aggressive		_____
4. Has leadership abilities		_____		20. Eager to soothe hurt feelings		_____
5. Tender		_____		21. Reliable		_____
6. Conscientious		_____		22. Willing to take a stand		_____
7. Assertive		_____		23. Understanding		_____
8. Compassionate		_____		24. Secretive		_____
9. Conceited		_____		25. Defends own beliefs		_____
10. Dominant		_____		26. Affectionate		_____
11. Warm		_____		27. Tactful		_____
12. Conventional		_____		28. Willing to take risks		_____
13. Strong personality		_____		29. Loves children		_____
14. Sympathetic		_____		30. Truthful		_____
15. Jealous		_____				
16. Forceful		_____				

APPENDIX E

EXCHANGE ORIENTATION SCALE

Please read each statement carefully and circle the number which you believe most adequately represents your opinion.

1. It would not matter if people I love did less for me than I for them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

2. If my partner needed assistance with the carrying out of his/her responsibilities, I would resent it because I don't ask anyone to help with my responsibilities.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

3. If I felt that I had been injured in some way by my partner, I would find it hard to forgive him/her even if he/she was sorry.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

4. I am apt to hold a grudge if I feel a friend or loved one has not fulfilled an obligation of our relationship.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

5. I feel that I provide more than my share in making a relationship with a friend or loved one work.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

6. My partner's caring for me would exert a kind of restrictive power over me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

7. My partner's relationship with others sometimes would make him/her neglect me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

8. Although I will work hard for my family in many ways, I worry that I will be taken for granted more than I ought to be.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

9. I often wish my friends and loved ones would show more acknowledgement when I do or say things to them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

10. I feel resentment if I believe I have spent more on a friend's present than he/she has spent on mine.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

11. My feelings for my partner will be based on his/her accomplishments.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

12. I sometimes feel that I am not fully appreciated by my loved ones.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

13. I feel uncomfortable if someone does me a favor and I can't repay him/her.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

APPENDIX F

SELF MONITORING SCALE

The statements on the following pages concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. If a statement is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, circle the "T". If a statement is FALSE or NOT USUALLY TRUE as applied to you, circle the "F".

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. T F
2. My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes and beliefs. T F
3. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things others will like. T F
4. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. T F
5. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information. T F
6. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people. T F
7. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues. T F
8. I would probably make a good actor. T F
9. I rarely need the advice of friends to choose movies, books, or music.
10. I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am. T F
11. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone. T F
12. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention. T F
13. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons. T F

- | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|
| 14. | I am not particularly good at making other people like me. | T | F |
| 15. | Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time. | T | F |
| 16. | I am not always the person I appear to be. | T | F |
| 17. | I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor. | T | F |
| 18. | I have considered being an entertainer. | T | F |
| 19. | In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else. | T | F |
| 20. | I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting. | T | F |
| 21. | I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations. | | |
| 22. | At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going. | T | F |
| 23. | I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should. | T | F |
| 24. | I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end). | T | F |
| 25. | I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them. | | |

APPENDIX G

SLM

Please circle the number which best represents your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

1. A man can't have a satisfactory and satisfying sex life without being in love with his partner.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

2. A woman can't have a satisfactory and satisfying sex life without being in love with her partner.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

3. Sexual intercourse is best when enjoyed for its own sake, rather than for the purpose of making love.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

4. A successful and satisfying sexual partnership cannot be established unless the sex partners are quite willing to limit all the sexual intercourse they have to each other.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

5. Sexual intercourse with someone other than the regular sex partner can bring about an improvement in the sexual relationship of the established pair.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

6. Sexual intercourse is better--more enjoyable, intense, and satisfying--if the sex partners are married to one another.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

7. Casual sexual intercourse with a variety of sex partners can be as satisfying as intercourse that is limited to an established sex partnership.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

8. Sex thoughts about someone other than the sex partner during intercourse with the partner is a form of unfaithfulness.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	

APPENDIX H

INTERPERSONAL NEEDS

For each statement below, decide which of the following answers best applies to you. Write the number of your answer on the line to the left of each statement. Please be as honest as you can.

- | | | |
|-----------------|-----------|--------------|
| 1. Usually | 2. Often | 3. Sometimes |
| 4. Occasionally | 5. Rarely | 6. Never |
-

- ___ 1. I let other people decide what to do.
- ___ 2. I like people to invite me to things.
- ___ 3. I let other people control my actions.
- ___ 4. I like people to act close toward me.
- ___ 5. I like people to invite me to join their activities.
- ___ 6. I let other people strongly influence my actions.
- ___ 7. I like people to act cool and distant toward me.
- ___ 8. I like people to include me in their activities.
- ___ 9. I like people to act close and personal with me.
- ___ 10. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.
- ___ 11. I am easily led by people.
- ___ 12. I like people to act distant toward me.

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

- | | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|----------------|
| 1. Most people | 2. Many people | 3. Some people |
| 4. A few people | 5. One or two people | 6. Nobody |
-

- ___ 13. I let other people decide what to do.
- ___ 14. I let other people take charge of things.
- ___ 15. I like people to invite me to things.
- ___ 16. I like people to act close and personal with me.
- ___ 17. I like people to invite me to join in their activities.
- ___ 18. I like people to act close toward me.
- ___ 19. I let other people control my actions.
- ___ 20. I like other people to include me in their activities.
- ___ 21. I like people to act cool and distant toward me.
- ___ 22. I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions.
- ___ 23. I like people to act friendly toward me.
- ___ 24. I am easily led by people.
- ___ 25. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.
- ___ 26. I like people to act distant toward me.
- ___ 27. I let other people strongly influence my actions.

APPENDIX I

HOBART ROMANTICISM SCALE

Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by checking (X) the appropriate space.

Agree Disagree

- | | | |
|-------|-------|---|
| _____ | _____ | 1. Lovers ought to expect a certain amount of disillusionment after marriage. |
| _____ | _____ | 2. To be truly in love is to be in love forever. |
| _____ | _____ | 3. As long as they at least love each other, two people should have no trouble getting along in marriage. |
| _____ | _____ | 4. A person should marry whomever he/she loves regardless of social position. |
| _____ | _____ | 5. Lovers should freely confess everything of personal significance to each other. |
| _____ | _____ | 6. Economic security should be carefully considered before selecting a marriage partner. |
| _____ | _____ | 7. Most of us could sincerely love any one of several people equally well. |
| _____ | _____ | 8. A lover without jealousy is hardly to be desired. |
| _____ | _____ | 9. One should not marry against the serious advice of one's parents. |

APPENDIX J

DYADIC TRUST SCALE

Please respond to these questions as they apply to what you expect from a partner when you are certain the relationship will end in marriage. (Circle the appropriate response.)

1. My partner will be primarily interested in his (her) own welfare.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree		

2. There will be times when my partner cannot be trusted.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree		

3. My partner will be perfectly honest and truthful with me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree		

4. I feel that I will be able to trust my partner completely.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree		

5. My partner will be truly sincere in his (her) promises.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree		

6. I feel that my partner might not show me enough consideration.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

7. My partner will treat me fairly and justly.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree		

8. I feel that I will be able to count on my partner to help me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree		

APPENDIX K

RELATIVE EXCHANGE VALUE OF
INTERPERSONAL RESOURCES

Please circle the response that best reflects your preference for each of the following statements.

If I had my choice between two otherwise similar people, I would prefer to marry . . .

1. (a) someone who would make me feel important
(b) someone very intelligent.
2. (a) someone extremely affectionate
(b) someone who would make me feel important
3. (a) someone for whom I would feel sexual attraction
(b) someone extremely affectionate
4. (a) someone helpful to have around
(b) someone for whom I would feel sexual attraction
5. (a) someone with whom I could share a life of wealth and luxury
(b) someone helpful to have around
6. (a) someone who could contribute to the financial security of the family
(b) someone with whom I could share a life of wealth and luxury
7. (a) someone extremely affectionate
(b) someone very intelligent
8. (a) someone for whom I would feel sexual attraction
(b) someone who would make me feel important
9. (a) someone helpful to have around
(b) someone extremely affectionate
10. (a) someone with whom I could share a life of wealth and luxury
(b) someone for whom I would feel sexual attraction
11. (a) someone who could contribute to the financial security of the family
(b) someone helpful to have around

12. (a) someone who could contribute to the financial security of the family
(b) someone for whom I would feel sexual attraction
13. (a) someone with whom I could share a life of wealth and luxury
(b) someone extremely affectionate
14. (a) someone helpful to have around
(b) someone who would make me feel important
15. (a) someone for whom I would feel sexual attraction
(b) someone very intelligent
16. (a) someone helpful to have around
(b) someone very intelligent
17. (a) someone with whom I could share a life of wealth and luxury
(b) someone who would make me feel important
18. (a) someone who could contribute to the financial security of the family
(b) someone extremely affectionate
19. (a) someone who could contribute to the financial security of the family
(b) someone who would make me feel important
20. (a) someone with whom I could share a life of wealth and luxury
(b) someone very intelligent
21. (a) someone who could contribute to the financial security of the family
(b) someone very intelligent

APPENDIX L

PREMARITAL RELATIONSHIP

EXPERIENCE

Please indicate your response to the following items by placing an "X" in the appropriate blank.

1. How old were you when you went out on your first date?

<input type="checkbox"/> never dated	<input type="checkbox"/> 17
<input type="checkbox"/> 10 or younger	<input type="checkbox"/> 18
<input type="checkbox"/> 11-13	<input type="checkbox"/> 19
<input type="checkbox"/> 14-15	<input type="checkbox"/> 20
<input type="checkbox"/> 16	<input type="checkbox"/> 21

2. What is the total number of persons whom you have dated?

<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 11-20
<input type="checkbox"/> 1-5	<input type="checkbox"/> 21-30
<input type="checkbox"/> 6-10	<input type="checkbox"/> 31-50

3. What is the total number of persons with whom you have "gone steady" (dated exclusively)

<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 3-5
<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 6-10
<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 11 or more

4. How long ago did your last steady relationship end?

<input type="checkbox"/> never gone steady	<input type="checkbox"/> 3 months- 6 months
<input type="checkbox"/> 1 week-4 weeks	<input type="checkbox"/> 7 months- 1 year
<input type="checkbox"/> 5 weeks-11 weeks	<input type="checkbox"/> over a year ago

5. At the present time, are you

___ not dating

___ dating more than one person

___ casually dating one person

___ seriously dating one person

___ cohabitating

___ engaged

___ married

6. In general, how satisfied are you with the dates you are having now? (If not dating skip to question 7)

very
dissatisfied: ___:___:___:___:___:___:___:very
satisfied

7. If you wanted to, how easy or difficult would it be for you to find a date?

very
difficult: ___:___:___:___:___:___:___:very
easy

8. Please indicate which of the following sexual behaviors, if any, you have ever engaged in. (Check all that apply)

___ holding hands

___ kissing

___ touching or fondling

___ heavy petting (stimulation of breasts or genitals)

___ petting to orgasm

___ sexual intercourse

___ oral sex

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

1. Age _____
2. Class Standing
 - a. Freshman
 - b. Sophomore
 - c. Junior
 - d. Senior
 - e. Graduate
 - f. Other (please specify) _____
3. Gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
4. Major _____
5. School
 - a. Liberal Arts
 - b. Science
 - c. Agriculture
 - d. Business
 - e. Education
 - f. Engineering
 - g. Forestry
 - h. Home Economics
 - i. Other (please specify) _____

APPENDIX M

GROUP MEANS FOR ORDERING EFFECT

Table M-1
Means on Love by Order and
Involvement Level

Order	Involvement Level		
	Dating	A Couple	Certain
A	54.4	71.4	83.6
B	40.0	62.8	76.3

APPENDIX N

ANOVA FOR INITIAL CLUSTERS

Table N-1

Analysis of Variance on Love at the
Dating Stage (Initial Groups)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F-ratio</u>
Group	5	25,745.29	5,149.06	52.59***
Error	170	16,643.16	97.90	
Total	175	42,388.45		

*** $p < .001$.

Table N-2

Analysis of Variance on Love at the A
Couple Stage (Initial Groups)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F-ratio</u>
Group	5	9,202.36	1,840.47	37.26***
Error	170	8,396.36	49.39	
Total	175	17,598.73		

*** $p < .001$.

Table N-3
 Analysis of Variance on Love at the
 Certain Stage (Initial Groups)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F-ratio</u>
Group	5	4,381.24	876.25	36.87***
Error	170	4,040.01	23.76	
Total	175	8,421.25		

***p < .001.

APPENDIX O

MEANS FOR INITIAL CLUSTERS

Table O
Means on Love by Initial Groups
and Involvement Level

Group	Involvement Level		
	Dating	A Couple	Certain
A	45.50	57.90	75.75
B	50.42	72.53	82.63
C	74.00	82.00	85.35
D	55.80	68.56	71.40
E	36.90	63.07	86.85
F	34.10	60.33	78.10

APPENDIX P

MEANS ON NEED FOR INCLUSION BY SEX

Table P-1
Means on Need for Inclusion
by Type and Gender

Type	Males	Females
Developmental	6.31	6.35
Couple-oriented	5.78	6.67
Expedient	7.19	4.57
Cautious	6.90	4.50

APPENDIX Q

MEANS ON GOODS BY SEX FOR
EXPEDIENT INDIVIDUALS

Table Q-1
Means on Reward Value for Goods
by Type and Gender

Type	Males	Females
Developmental	2.62	1.51
Couple-oriented	1.70	1.50
Expedient	1.00	2.29
Cautious	2.00	2.00