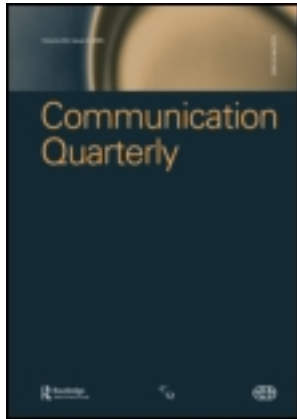


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# Intentional Jealousy-Evoking Behavior in Romantic Relationships as a Function of Received Partner Affection and Love Styles

Alan K. Goodboy, Sean M. Horan, & Melanie Booth-Butterfield

*This study examined how (a) affection received from a partner and (b) love styles (i.e., eros, ludus, storge, pragma, mania, and agape) predicted the use of jealousy-evoking behaviors in romantic relationships. Participants were 197 undergraduate students currently involved in a committed romantic relationship, who completed a survey reporting on their partners' expressions of affection and their own perceived love styles and uses of jealousy evocation in their relationships. Results indicated that (a) after controlling for relationship length, the amount of affection received from a partner was inversely correlated with the use of jealousy-evoking behaviors, and (b) after controlling for relationship length and received affection, the ludus and mania love styles remained positive predictors of jealousy-evoking behavior. No other love styles were significant predictors.*

*Keywords:* Affection; Jealousy; Love Styles

Experiencing and communicating emotional and behavioral jealousy in romantic relationships is a pervasive and powerful interpersonal phenomenon. Jealousy is considered an emotional state that involves the threat of loss to a potential rival (Teismann & Mosher, 1978). Therefore, jealousy involves a social triad where a real

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or imaginary extradyadic individual poses an outside threat to an established relationship, which frequently results in a culmination of fear, anger, and sadness (Guerrero & Andersen, 1998; Harmon-Jones, Peterson, & Harris, 2009; Pines, 1998). Indeed, research suggests that a couple's first big fight is frequently a result of jealousy concerning an ex-partner or former rival (Siegert & Stamp, 1994). Highly jealous partners tend to report relational dissatisfaction and lower levels of relational commitment (e.g., Andersen, Eloy, Guerrero, & Spitzberg, 1995; Bevan, 2008; Dainton & Gross, 2008), high levels of partner and relational uncertainty (Bevan, 2006; Theiss & Solomon, 2006), lower self-esteem (DeSteno, Valdesolo, & Bartlett, 2006), and fewer feelings of romantic love (Russell & Harton, 2005). Although jealousy, in some form, is present in many relationships (DeSteno et al., 2006), research suggests that men experience more cognitive jealousy (i.e., thinking jealous thoughts), whereas women are more likely to experience behavioral jealousy (i.e., acting jealous) and overtly communicate feelings of jealousy (Aylor & Dainton, 2001; Russell & Harton, 2005). In terms of rival characteristics, men report more jealousy when a rival is high in social dominance, physical dominance, and social status, whereas women report more jealousy when a rival is physically attractive (Dijkstra & Buunk, 2002). Romantic partners also tend to experience more jealousy when romantic threats are perceived from rival strangers as opposed to friends (Russell & Harton, 2005).

Communication patterns following the experience of jealousy tend to be quite predictable. Guerrero, Andersen, Jorgensen, Spitzberg, and Eloy (1995) discovered that general communicative responses to jealousy are either directed at the partner or rival, are used for discovery or repair purposes, and are positively or negatively valenced. Moreover, these responses included surveillance (i.e., keeping tabs on a partner), compensatory restoration (i.e., doing special things, and attempting to be a better partner), manipulation attempts (i.e., attempting to make the partner jealous in return), rival contacts (i.e., confronting potential rivals), and violent behavior (i.e., throwing objects and slamming doors). More important, Guerrero et al. highlighted that jealous partners are capable of strategically and intentionally returning the favor; a jealousy eye for a jealous eye. As previously mentioned, Guerrero et al. revealed one common communicative reaction involves engaging in intentional behaviors to evoke jealousy with their partner (i.e., manipulation attempts). As Guerrero et al. stated, "flirting with an attractive rival can be a ploy used to show the partner how it feels to be jealous, and, in turn, to make the partner realize that s/he cares enough to feel jealous" (p. 296). However, partners who use these manipulation strategies elicit the most negative types of emotions from their targeted partner (Yoshimura, 2004) and promote relationship-specific rumination (Carson & Cupach, 2000) and relational uncertainty about the self, partner, and relationship (Bevan & Tidgewell, 2009).

### Evoking Jealousy

Despite potential negative repercussions, romantic partners may try to purposely make their partners jealous. Bell and Buerkel-Rothfuss (1990) found that jealous

partners use secret tests of entrapment including triangle tests (i.e., manipulating the rival or partner in an attempt to obtain relationship information from either party). As Bell and Buerkel-Rothfuss (1990) explained, “one common triangle test is the use of another person to make the partner jealous. One might casually mention the amorous advances of a potential competitor, for instance. The partner’s response to such jealousy-evoking actions is presumably informative of his or her degree of love and commitment” (p. 66).

More important, research suggests that jealousy-evoking behavior may be widespread. Brainerd, Hunter, Moore, and Thompson (1996) reported that 84% of the participants in their study used jealousy-inducing behaviors at least once during their relationship such as talking about past relationships or current relationships, flirting, dating, or having sexual contact with another. Likewise, Cayanus and Booth-Butterfield (2004) reported that 59.6% of their sample tried to evoke jealousy from their relational partner using either personal action attempts (e.g., wearing sexy clothing), verbal attempts (e.g., talking about an attractive rival), or vicarious attempts (e.g., having an opposite sex friend answer a phone call), whereas Sheets, Fredendall, and Claypool (1997) found that 73% of their sample admitted to using jealousy evocation. To organize such communicative behaviors, Fleischmann, Spitzberg, Andersen, and Roesch (2005) proposed a jealousy induction model positing that partners who evoke jealousy have reasons for doing so. These reasons are strategic goal orientations (i.e., reward or revenge motivations), which lead to jealousy induction tactics including relational distancing (i.e., making plans without including the partner, spending time with friends separately from the partner, being vague about plans, phone calls, or social networks), flirting facade (i.e., leaving out pictures with other people to be found, spending time with others in the couple’s favorite places, leaving fake numbers around to be found), and relational alternatives (i.e., talking about past relationships, talking about other people, comparing the partner to past relationships). Fleischmann et al. discovered that these jealousy induction tactics typically lead to a partner response orientation (i.e., aggression, withdrawal, improvement), which ends in either a change in efficacy or relational improvement.

Moreover, Dainton and Gross (2008) extended the work of relational maintenance through an investigation of negative maintenance behaviors—that is, the negative behaviors partners engage in to keep their relationship in a desired state. Evoking jealousy was one of six negative behaviors they discovered, and such behaviors were related negatively to perceptions of relational satisfaction.

Despite the compelling evidence that individuals attempt to purposely make partners jealous in the face of negative outcomes, only a few studies have ascertained *why* some couples are more likely to engage in such behavior. First, Fleischmann et al. (2005) found that partners evoke jealousy on purpose for relational rewards (i.e., test the relationship, increase self-esteem, increase rewards, improve the relationship, or create fun) or relational revenge (i.e., to teach a partner a lesson, to extract revenge, or to punish). Second, Brainerd et al. (1996) revealed that partners who use psychological and physical aggression, and have a high need for control are prone to using jealousy-inducing behaviors. Third, Cayanus and Booth-Butterfield (2004) found

that partners possessing a strong exchange orientation (i.e., expects reciprocity of relational rewards) especially in a relatively new relationship, are more likely to engage in jealousy-evoking behavior. Fourth, Sheets et al. (1997) discovered that jealousy evocation was used to gain partner attention, increase commitment, and ensure mate-retention.

The results from the aforementioned studies collectively suggest that jealousy evocation tends to be an exercise of relational power and control, spurred by selfish desires to seek information, reap benefits, or restore perceived equity. However, what remains unknown is whether the desire to intentionally evoke jealousy from a partner is dampened by prosocial relational expressions, specifically through communicated messages of love and affection in romantic relationships. As previously noted, Fleischmann et al. (2005) revealed in their Jealousy Induction Model that the use of jealousy induction tactics are preceded by partners' strategic goal orientation, consisting of reward or revenge motivations. Thus, it is likely the love and affection influencing such motivations and are initial causes or suppressors of jealousy-evoking behavior, situated in the Fleischmann et al. framework. The negative maintenance behavior typology, of which jealousy induction is a part (Dainton & Gross, 2008), further supports Fleischmann et al.'s argument—namely, partners' affectionate messages are likely related to their reward and revenge motivations, as maintenance scholars would contend that jealousy induction is enacted to restore equity in the relationship. Thus, considering jealousy induction within the constraints of their model suggests that affectionate communication and jealousy may be related processes.

### **Affectionate Communication**

Feelings of affection are composed of internal “warmth and fondness toward someone” (Andersen & Guerrero, 1998, p. 59), which can be expressed via affectionate communication; composed of messages that convey “feelings of fondness, support, and love” (Floyd, 2006, p. 47). Recently, a comprehensive theory of affectionate communication was proposed. Because this theory proposes five postulates, and numerous subpostulates (many of which relate to physiological functioning and evolutionary survival), a brief summary of the theory follows accompanied by a review of relevant relational affection research. Affection Exchange Theory (AET; Floyd, 2001) is grounded in an evolutionary perspective and views affectionate messages to be relational resources that foster long term survival. Because affection is a resource, affectionate communicators are considered to be attractive mates who are afforded more reproductive opportunities. As a result of these increased opportunities, affectionate communicators are more likely to have children; attractive mates should rear attractive children who will subsequently be viewed as attractive mates. More important, affectionate communication is argued to aid the body in responding to stress, and numerous correlational and experimental studies support this argument through measurements of stress indicators (e.g., lower cholesterol,

cortisol, blood pressure, and heart rate; for a review, see Floyd, 2001). As just one example, highly affectionate communicators report lower levels of stress (Floyd, 2002), and self-reported expressed affection was related to lower levels of glycosylated hemoglobin, a stress-related factor (Floyd, Hesse, & Haynes, 2007).

Relevant to this inquiry is postulate 3a of AET, which argues that “affectionate communication serves the superordinate motivation for viability by promoting the establishment and maintenance of significant human pair bonds” (Floyd, 2006, p. 165). Essentially, affectionate communication is considered to be a relational resource that benefits relational perceptions and, therefore, should reduce jealousy evocation. A number of studies serve to support this notion. For example, individuals in affectionate relationships report greater feelings of satisfaction (Floyd, 2002; Floyd et al., 2005; Gullede, Gullede, & Stahmann, 2003; Horan & Booth-Butterfield, 2010) and commitment (Horan & Booth-Butterfield, 2010). Similarly, affection represents a significant marital interaction (Dainton, 1998) and is related to ease of conflict resolution (Gullede et al., 2003). More important, a 13-year study of married couples revealed that a decline in affectionate communication discriminated between divorced and stably married couples (Huston, Caughlin, Houts, Smith, & George, 2002). Consistent with Huston et al., problems with affectionate communication are one of the main reasons why couples report seeking marital therapy (Doss, Simpson, & Christensen, 2004). Clearly, affectionate communication is important for the development of relational perceptions. Collectively, research on affectionate communication reveals that it is related to a host of positive outcomes, including enhanced relational qualities, and we suspect that affectionate messages will be related negatively to jealousy-evoking behaviors. Postulate 3a and its related research inform this prediction. For example, it is theoretically predicted that affectionate messages enhance pair bonds, and recent studies have provided much support for this claim. Horan and Booth-Butterfield (2010) principally tested this postulate, operationalizing “pair bonds” in the form of commitment and satisfaction. Their obtained positive relationships among affectionate communication and commitment and satisfaction, along with the other studies linking affection with longitudinal persistence/termination (Huston et al., 2002) and marital therapy (Doss et al., 2004), demonstrate clear support that affectionate communication is related to the nature of relational bonds. Because commitment and satisfaction are favorable experiences, it seems unlikely that partners would intentionally engage in behaviors that would jeopardize such states. For example, someone who feels committed and satisfied would be unlikely to attempt to evoke jealousy because partners may react negatively, damaging their commitment, satisfaction, and relational equity. In contrast, from an equity perspective (Adams, 1965), a partner feeling less committed and satisfied may evoke jealousy as a way to restore equity and relational balance. Given that affectionate messages are related positively to relational commitment and satisfaction (Horan & Booth-Butterfield, 2010) and considering that jealousy induction is a relational maintenance behavior that is related negatively to relationship satisfaction (Dainton & Gross, 2008), it is unlikely that content partners who

receive sufficient affection from their significant other would purposely evoke jealousy. Accordingly, *H1* is proposed:

*H1: The amount of affection received from a partner is correlated inversely with intentional jealousy-evoking behavior directed toward that partner.*

## Love Styles

As Rubin (1970) noted, "love is generally regarded to be the deepest and most meaningful of sentiments" (p. 265), but everyone does not view it quite the same way and there are several ways of classifying love. Emanuele, Brondino, Pesenti, Re, and Geroldi (2007) noted that "Lee's classification scheme of loving styles is of particular interest inasmuch as it has generated considerable research activity and widely used measurement instruments" (p. 816). Based on Lee's (1973) typology of love styles, Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) operationalized and validated a measure (Borello & Thompson, 2001) of six unique ways in which partners experience romantic love: *eros*, *ludus*, *storge*, *pragma*, *mania*, and *agape*. *Eros* lovers desire intense passion, physical attraction and beauty, and strong commitment. *Ludus* lovers perceive that love is a strategic game that can be manipulated with little emotional intensity. *Storge* lovers believe that love develops over time from strong friendships. *Pragma* lovers adopt a logical and planned perspective toward love where they search for partners who match desired criteria. *Mania* lovers tend to be obsessive and possessive lovers who experience strong attachment toward a partner. *Agape* lovers believe in altruistic and sacrificial love where they put their partner's needs before their own. More importantly, Emanuele et al. found that love styles have a genetic basis by revealing differences in neurotransmitter gene polymorphisms associated with self-reported love styles. Specifically, the *eros* and *mania* love styles revealed genetic loadings with different polymorphisms, suggesting that neurophysiology may predispose certain individuals to experience and express love distinctly. Therefore, partners do not necessarily choose their love styles, but are, instead, partly influenced by biology. Such important, fundamental differences may impact subsequent jealousy induction, and additional research can provide a basic understanding of processes regarding such negative communication behavior.

Based on previous research, two love styles are likely to elicit intentional jealousy-evoking behavior. Research suggests that *ludus* and *mania* lovers may be motivated (for different reasons) to evoke jealousy. *Ludus* lovers tend to have unsatisfying relational experiences. For example, *ludus* lovers desire less closeness in relationships (Goodboy & Booth-Butterfield, 2009), prefer low commitment (Aron & Westbay, 1996), want less affection and intimacy (Kanemasa, Taniguchi, Daibo, & Ishimori, 2004), report low levels of relationship satisfaction (Fricker & Moore, 2002), and tend to remain single (Montgomery & Sorell, 1997). Moreover, *ludus* lovers tend to engage in promiscuous and extradyadic sexual behavior. For instance, *ludus* lovers dislike affectionate and romantic sexual experiences (Frey & Hojjat, 1998), have

numerous sexual partners and are more sexually active (Hensley, 1996; Sprague & Kinney, 1997), engage in more coercive sexual behavior (Russell & Oswald, 2002), and are prone to cheating (Wiederman & Hurd, 1999).

Because ludus lovers are inclined to play relational games (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) and avoid commitment and closeness (Aron & Westbay, 1996; Goodboy & Booth-Butterfield, 2009), we suspect they are more likely to use evoking jealousy behaviors in relationships to create relational distance and maintain their game-playing desires. Indeed, Levine, Aune, and Park (2006) revealed that ludus love was correlated positively with the use of numerous secret tests, including triangle tests. Frequently, triangle tests involve intentionally inducing jealousy through communication with a potential rival to elicit an observable partner reaction (Bell & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1990). Therefore, the following hypothesis is posited:

*H2: After controlling for received affection, ludus love will remain a positive predictor of intentional jealousy-evoking behavior directed toward a romantic partner.*

Mania love may serve as a similar, but unique, predictor of evoking jealousy behavior. Mania lovers tend to have troubled relationships because they possess an anxious-ambivalent attachment style (Feeney & Noller, 1990), experience more jealousy and envy (Kanemasa et al., 2004), engage in unwanted pursuit behavior after a breakup (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Palarea, Cohen, & Rohling, 2000), tend to be hypercompetitive (Ryckman, Thornton, Gold, & Burckle, 2002), and report low levels of overall wellness (Shurts & Myers, 2008). Because mania lovers are very dependent on their partners and tend to be possessive because of their high levels of uncertainty concerning relationships, jealousy-evoking behavior, then, may serve as an information-seeking function (instead of a game). Levine et al. (2006) found that mania lovers also use secret tests, including endurance tests, which involve efforts to confirm that the relationship will be long lasting. Jealousy-evoking behavior (e.g., flirting with another person) might serve as an endurance test to signify lasting commitment—that is, partners who become upset over jealousy inductions might be perceived as highly committed by the mania lover. Indeed, Sheets et al. (1997) revealed that 24% of their sample evoked jealousy to increase their partner's commitment. Given the nature of mania love, which is characterized by high levels of uncertainty and doubt, it is likely that jealousy evocation serves this function. Therefore, the following hypothesis is posited:

*H3: After controlling for received affection, mania love will remain a positive predictor of intentional jealousy-evoking behavior directed toward a romantic partner.*

However, the remaining love styles are unlikely to predispose partners to evoke jealousy. Eros and agape love styles tend to foster positive relational development. For instance, eros love is positively correlated with passion (Aron & Westbay, 1996), positive feelings about the relationship (Kanemasa et al., 2004), overall wellness (Shurts & Myers, 2008), and relationship satisfaction (Sprague & Kinney,



1997), whereas agape love is positively correlated with commitment (Aron & Westbay, 1996), affection (Kanemasa et al., 2004), and relationship satisfaction (Lin, 2005). In addition, agape love is preferred most by partners (Hahn & Blass, 1997) and is most common in marital relationships involving children (Montgomery & Sorell, 1997). Because eros and agape love fosters satisfying and committed relationships, we suspect that these lovers may not be motivated to evoke jealousy given they have little need to increase relational rewards or obtain revenge (Fleischmann et al., 2005). Furthermore, pragma and storge lovers, which are more functional forms of love, value comforting skills in relationships (Kunkel & Burleson, 2003), which would not be achieved through intentional jealousy evocation. Likewise, storge love is uncorrelated with the use of secret tests in romantic relationships, whereas pragma lovers value direct communication (Levine et al., 2006). Because storge love develops romantically from long-lasting friendships and pragma lovers are looking for a love prototype, it is unlikely that either of these lovers possess a desire to evoke jealousy. Therefore, the following hypothesis is posited:

*H4: After controlling for received affection, ludus love, and mania love, the eros, agape, pragma and storge love styles will not predict additional variance in intentional jealousy-evoking behavior directed toward a romantic partner.*

## Method

### *Participants*

Participants were 197 undergraduate students (92 men, 104 women, & 1 unreported) enrolled in introductory communication studies courses at a large, Northeastern university. Ages ranged from 18 to 30 years ( $M = 19.81$ ,  $SD = 1.89$ ). All participants were currently involved in a committed romantic relationship. These relationships were required to be monogamous, and casual dating relationships were excluded from data analysis. The length of relationships ranged from 2 to 71 months ( $M = 18.91$ ,  $SD = 14.78$ ).

### *Procedure and Instrumentation*

Participants completed a survey that measured perceptions of the tendency to evoke jealousy with a romantic partner, the amount of affectionate communication received from a partner, and self-reported love styles. The survey included the Evoking Jealousy Scale (Cyanus & Booth-Butterfield, 2004), the Affectionate Communication Index (Floyd & Morman, 1998), and the Love Attitudes Scale (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), along with demographic items.

The Evoking Jealousy Scale is 18 items and measures the extent to which a romantic partner intentionally engages in jealousy-evoking behaviors. Some sample items include, "I try to make my partner jealous by talking to an ex-boyfriend/girlfriend," and "I try to make my partner jealous by pretending to be interested in another person." Responses are solicited via a 7-point Likert-type format ranging from 1 (*never*)

to 7 (*always*). Cayanus and Booth-Butterfield (2004) reported a previous reliability coefficient of .95. In this study, the obtained Cronbach's alpha was .92 ( $M = 43.46$ ,  $SD = 19.29$ ).

The Affectionate Communication Index is a 19-item, Likert-type scale that measures affectionate communication through three subscales: verbal expressions, non-verbal expressions, and supportive affection (Floyd & Morman, 1998). Responses were solicited using a 7-point response format ranging from 1 (*never or almost never do this*) to 7 (*always or almost always do this*). Sample items include: "say I love you," "hold his/her hand," and "praise his/her compliments." Previous reliability coefficients have been .86 for the verbal subscale, .87 for the nonverbal subscale, and .74 for the supportive affection subscale (Floyd & Morman, 2001). In this study, obtained Cronbach's alphas were .76 ( $M = 34.11$ ,  $SD = 6.16$ ), .83 ( $M = 50.06$ ,  $SD = 8.25$ ), and .72 ( $M = 22.86$ ,  $SD = 3.61$ ), respectively. In the original presentation of this scale, the authors contended that, due to the correlations among the factors, the scale can be treated as three unique factors, or researchers can elect to sum the scale (Floyd & Morman, 1998). Due to concerns pertaining to the overlap between the scales (e.g., Horan & Booth-Butterfield, 2010), we elected to sum the scale. Inter-correlations between the subscales were  $r = .65$  between the verbal and nonverbal subscales,  $r = .65$  between the verbal and supportive affection subscales, and  $r = .78$  between the nonverbal and supportive affection subscales ( $p < .001$ ). The overall Cronbach's alpha for the summed scale was .89 ( $M = 101.59$ ,  $SD = 15.23$ ).

The Love Attitudes Scale is a 42-item, Likert-type scale that asks participants to report on the love styles in their relationships. The scale measures six types of love styles: eros, ludus, storge, pragma, mania, and agape. Responses were solicited using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Sample items include, "My lover and I became physically involved very quickly" (eros), "I can get over love affairs pretty easily and quickly" (ludus), "The best kind of love grows out of a long friendship" (storge), "I consider what a person is going to become in life before I commit myself to him/her" (pragma), "When I am in love, I have trouble concentrating on anything else" (mania), and "I would rather suffer myself than let my lover suffer" (agape). Previous reliability coefficients for this scale have been as follows: .73 for the eros subscale, .74 for ludus, .81 for storge, .82 for pragma, .77 for mania, and .83 for agape (Levine et al., 2006). In this study, obtained Cronbach's alphas were as follows: eros ( $M = 28.13$ ,  $SD = 4.21$ ;  $\alpha = .74$ ), ludus ( $M = 16.27$ ,  $SD = 6.16$ ;  $\alpha = .83$ ), storge ( $M = 22.12$ ,  $SD = 5.40$ ;  $\alpha = .77$ ), pragma ( $M = 19.19$ ,  $SD = 5.97$ ;  $\alpha = .81$ ), mania ( $M = 20.93$ ,  $SD = 5.27$ ;  $\alpha = .75$ ), and agape ( $M = 26.16$ ,  $SD = 5.12$ ;  $\alpha = .84$ ).

## Results

Because length of the relationship (in months) was inversely correlated with evoking jealous behavior ( $r = -.15$ ,  $p < .05$ ), relationship length was controlled for as a covariate in subsequent analyses. *H1* predicted that the amount of affection received from a partner would be related inversely to the use of evoking jealousy behaviors. Results of a partial

**Table 1** Correlations Between Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Jealousy evocation	—						
2. Affection received	-.23**	—					
3. Eros love	-.20**	.52***	—				
4. Ludus love	.42***	-.37***	-.38***	—			
5. Storge love	-.03	.17*	.07	.00	—		
6. Pragma love	.13	.14	.23**	.13	.23**	—	
7. Mania love	.10	.14	.34***	-.12	-.01	.31***	—
8. Agape love	-.24**	.46***	.46***	-.36***	.10	.11	.38***

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$  (two-tailed).

correlation, controlling for relationship length, revealed this hypothesis was supported ( $r = -.22$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Intercorrelations between all variables are presented in Table 1.

$H2$  and  $H3$  posited that the ludus and mania love styles would be able to predict the use of evoking jealousy behaviors after controlling for affection received, whereas  $H4$  predicted that the remaining love styles would not predict additional variance. These hypotheses were examined using hierarchical multiple regression analyses. Relationship length was entered into the first block, and because  $H1$  was supported and the tendency to evoke jealousy was inversely related to the amount of affection received from a partner, affection received was entered as the second block to control for variance explained by this variable. After controlling for affection received, the two love styles predicted in  $H2$  and  $H3$  (i.e., ludus and mania love) were entered as the third block of predictor variables. The fourth block consisted of the remaining love styles, which were not expected to significantly contribute to the regression (i.e., eros, agape, pragma, and storge), as predicted in  $H4$ . Overall, results indicated that the addition of the love style variables improved the ability of the regression model to predict the use of evoking jealousy behaviors. A significant model was obtained,  $F(8, 187) = 7.11$ ,  $p < .001$  ( $R^2 = .23$ ). In the first block ( $R^2 = .02$ ), relationship length was a significant and negative predictor ( $\beta = -.15$ ),  $t = -2.12$ ,  $p < .05$ . In the second block ( $\Delta R^2 = .05$ ,  $R^2 = .07$ ), affection received was a significant and negative predictor ( $\beta = -.22$ ),  $t = -3.06$ ,  $p < .01$ . In the third block ( $\Delta R^2 = .14$ ,  $R^2 = .21$ ), ludus love ( $\beta = .39$ ),  $t = 5.61$ ,  $p < .001$ ; and mania love ( $\beta = .16$ ),  $t = 2.40$ ,  $p < .05$ , were significant and positive predictors. No additional love styles were statically significant predictors in Step 4 (i.e., eros, agape, pragma, or storge). Therefore,  $H2$ ,  $H3$ , and  $H4$  received support.

## Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine if romantic partners' intentional use of jealousy-evoking behavior in their relationship was dependent on the amount of affection they received from that partner and perceived love styles. Collectively, the results revealed that jealousy evocation is influenced by both affection and love in

the relationship—that is, the findings indicated that romantic partners' use of jealousy evocation is correlated inversely with the amount of affection received, whereas the ludus and mania love styles positively predicted jealousy evocation after controlling for affection. These findings indicate that jealousy evocation is influenced by both the behaviors enacted by a romantic partner and one's own individual differences.

Collectively, two conclusions can be drawn about the findings obtained in this study. The first conclusion is that affectionate communication provides a buffer for jealousy-evocation tendencies. This may be explained by overall interpersonal satisfaction that is fostered through receiving affection on a regular basis. Because affectionate communication in relationships is associated with a host of positive relational characteristics including relationship satisfaction, self-esteem, mental health, happiness, liking, and love (Floyd, 2002; Floyd et al., 2005; Gullede et al., 2003; Horan & Booth-Butterfield, 2010), it is likely that jealousy-evocation attempts are unneeded because the relationship is currently in a stable and desired state. For instance, Floyd et al. (2009) discovered that marital and cohabiting couples who increased their romantic kissing improved their levels of perceived stress, total serum cholesterol, and relationships satisfaction, once again supporting AET's argument that affectionate messages enhance stress responses. Furthermore, research suggests that intentional jealousy inducement is often used for mate retention (Buss, 1988) and relational improvement (Fleischmann et al., 2005). Therefore, the data suggest that a lack of affection would increase jealousy-evoking behavior, likely motivated by relational improvement and retention motivations. Relationally satisfied and affectionately satiated couples may not have such intentions, which would suppress jealousy-evoking behavior. Accordingly, the results support AET's proposition that affectionate communication does, indeed, enhance relational bonds.

The second conclusion is that ludus and mania lovers are likely to use jealousy-evoking behavior, even if they receive adequate amounts of affection from their partner. Because ludus lovers are inclined to play relational games and approve of deception and manipulation to keep their partners uncertain about the relationship (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), it is not surprising that jealousy evocation is used as one of many tactics to maintain this type of love. In fact, ludus lovers frequently have other partners outside of the relationship (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986; Hensley, 1996; Sprague & Kinney, 1997; Wiederman & Hurd, 1999) and prefer low levels of intimacy, commitment, and closeness (Aron & Westbay, 1996; Goodboy & Booth-Butterfield, 2009; Kanemasa et al., 2004). Jealousy-evoking behavior, then, may serve as a dual function for ludus lovers to continue game playing desires to maintain relational uncertainty while also ensuring low levels of relational intimacy, commitment, and closeness.

Mania lovers were also likely to use jealousy-evoking behavior in their relationships. However, because mania lovers are very emotional, dependent, and uncertain about commitment (Feeney & Noller, 1990; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), these lovers may be testing the relationship in an effort to obtain relationship assurances. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) revealed that mania lovers tend to worry about their

romantic relationship and will “sometimes do stupid things to get his/her attention back” (p. 396). Jealousy evocation may be one of these “stupid things” performed to confirm the nature of the relationship for these uncertain lovers. Research on jealousy evocation/induction supports the contention that partners use these behaviors to feel better about the relationship. As Sheets et al. (1997) found, the most common reason (87%) of jealousy evocation was to gain their partner’s attention, and the second most common reason (24%) was to increase commitment. Considering that mania lovers are regularly seeking attention from their partner and hoping to increase commitment, jealousy evocation is likely performed to feel better about the relationship (i.e., assuming the partner reacts to the evoking jealousy attempt in a desirable manner). Moreover, Sheets et al. also noted that jealousy evocation rarely leads to breakups. Fleischmann et al. (2005) concluded that romantic jealousy serves simultaneously as a “potent double-edged sword of relational emotions” (p. 70), serving a relationally functional and dysfunctional purpose. Overall, it may be that ludus lovers evoke jealousy for a dysfunctional purpose (i.e., to play relational games and create distance), whereas mania lovers evoke jealousy for a functional purpose (i.e., to reassure themselves and increase relational commitment). Either way, although jealousy evocation has little effect on overall relationship stability and can potentially yield relational benefits (Buss, 1988; Fleischmann et al., 2005), it is likely to cause conflict and fighting (Sheets et al., 1997). Such a paradox does indeed make jealousy evocation a double-edged sword.

As in any study, this study has limitations. The main limitation of this study involves the reliance on self-report measurement and potential biases in reporting. It is possible that social desirability bias played a role in the data collection. Participants may have been tentative to fully report their tendency to use jealousy-evoking behavior in the relationships. Some of the items from the Evoking Jealousy Scale, which ask participants threatening questions reflecting their tendency to flirt with others in front of their partner, talk about potential rivals, and so on, may have yielded lower summed scores, although the measure was highly reliable. Another limitation involves the college student sample. It is quite probable that married couples use jealousy evocation less and differently than college students in committed relationships. Therefore, future research might involve collecting paired dyadic data (ideally married couples) using self- and other reports of evoking jealousy behavior to match perceptions that are potentially influenced by social desirability. Although we attempted to provide control variables, two additional control variables may be of importance. Controlling for relational satisfaction (i.e., relational bonds) would have been another important control. Also, the measurement of attachment styles would have provided for more control because attachment is related to love styles (e.g., Fricker & Moore, 2002) and experiencing jealousy (Sharpsteen & Kirkpatrick, 1997; Wigman, Graham-Kevan, & Archer, 2008). Therefore, future research should also control for attachment when measuring the tendency to use jealousy-evoking behaviors in romantic relationships.

Despite these limitations, the results collectively suggest that affection and love do play important roles in romantic partners’ likelihood of using jealousy evocation in

the relationship. Relational scholars should continue to examine the (dys)functional paradox of evoking jealousy to further ascertain whether this intentional behavior does more to help or hurt committed relationships.

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