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Abstract

Love is commonly hypothesized to function as an evolved commitment device, disincentivizing the pursuit of romantic alternatives and signaling this motivational shift to a partner. Here, we test this possibility against a novel signaling-to-alternatives account, in which love instead operates by dissuading alternatives from pursuing oneself. Overall, we find stronger support for the latter account. In Studies 1 and 2, we find that partner quality relative to alternatives positively predicts feelings of love, and love fails to mitigate the negative effects of desirable alternatives on relationship satisfaction—contradicting the classic commitment device account. In Study 3, using a longitudinal design, we replicate these effects and find that changes in partner quality relative to alternatives predict changes in love over time. In Study 4, we replicate the relationship between love and relative partner quality across 44 countries. In Study 5, we find a nearly one-to-one correspondence between the extent to which partner-directed actions are diagnostic of love and reductions in romantic alternatives' attraction to the actor. These results suggest that love may not act as a commitment device in the classic sense by disincentivizing the pursuit of alternatives but by disincentivizing alternatives from pursuing oneself.

Keywords: romantic love, commitment device, quality of alternatives, evolutionary psychology, close relationships

The Function of Love: A Signaling-to-Alternatives Account to the Commitment Device

Hypothesis

1 Unlike all other great apes, humans engage in long-term pair bonding, remaining with the
2 same mate for years or decades at a time (Gavrilets, 2012). Romantic love clearly plays an
3 important role in the proximate development of long-term romantic relationships and has likely
4 done so both across cultures and throughout recorded history (Gottschall, 2008; Jankowiak &
5 Fisher, 1992). Nonetheless, the ultimate function of love remains unclear: What problems, if any,
6 was romantic love designed to solve, and how has this function shaped its design?

7 To date, the literature on the evolved function of love has been dominated in large part by
8 a single account, commonly referred to as the commitment device hypothesis (Frank, 1988;
9 Gonzaga et al., 2008; Campbell & Loving, 2016; Bode & Kusnick, 2021). According to this
10 view, as originally articulated by Frank (1988), love is designed to operate as a *commitment*
11 *device* which stabilizes romantic relationships by disincentivizing the pursuit of romantic
12 alternatives and signaling this motivational shift to a partner.

13 Here, using tests across five studies, we suggest that love may not function as a
14 commitment device in this traditional sense. We begin by offering a summary of the
15 commitment device hypothesis and the corresponding evidence for and against it. We go on to
16 describe a novel commitment device account and suggest that romantic love, rather than
17 disincentivizing one's own pursuit of alternatives, may disincentivize alternatives from pursuing
18 oneself.

19 Frank (1988)'s Classic Commitment Device Hypothesis

20 Romantic love has been defined in a wide variety of ways by both theorists and poets
21 since antiquity. Here, we adopt a broad definition in line with both Frank (1988) and
22 psychological theorists (Sternberg, 1997) of romantic love as a positive emotion toward partners
23 characterized, in part, by feelings of passion, intimacy, and/or commitment.

24 According to the classic commitment device hypothesis, love is an adaptation designed,
25 in part, for motivating complete or partial foreclosure on romantic alternatives (Frank, 1988;
26 Campbell & Loving, 2016). Frank (1988) motivated the commitment device hypothesis with an
27 analogy to a rental market. If both tenants and property owners could search the rental market
28 optimally, finding an apartment would be relatively easy; each tenant would choose to rent from
29 the best available property owner who considers them the best tenant in return, and both tenants
30 and property owners would be content in the knowledge that no superior alternatives were
31 available. In the real world, however, search is constrained: Markets are often too large to search
32 exhaustively, prices may change, and the desirability of any given option may shift over time.

33 These constraints on search create a *commitment problem*. For example, it is in the
34 property owner's best interest, all else equal, to rent their apartment to the highest-paying tenant
35 available, but to evict their current tenant once a sufficiently higher-paying offer comes along.
36 Similarly, it is in a tenant's best interest, all else equal, to select an apartment at the best
37 available price, but to move once a sufficiently more affordable option of similar quality
38 becomes available. Consequently, a rental market in which everyone doggedly pursued their own
39 self-interest would ultimately collapse because neither tenants nor property owners could trust
40 one another to commit long enough to make a rental relationship worthwhile.

41 This crisis is averted by the rental lease. Upon finding a suitable match, the property
42 owner and tenant sign a mutually binding contract locking them into a rental relationship at a

43 fixed price and for a fixed duration—a contract which, if broken, carries hefty fees and penalties.
44 In this way, the lease solves the commitment problem by operating as a *commitment device*,
45 raising the costs of pursuing alternative rental relationships. In so doing, the lease ensures
46 commitment, behaviorally, to the rental relationship by forcing each party to foreclose on
47 alternative rental relationships.

48 What does any of this have to do with love? According to Frank (1988), rental markets
49 and mating markets pose similar challenges. On the mating market, it is in each person's self-
50 interest to remain with a partner only so long as they are the highest quality partner available to
51 them. A rational agent would dissolve their relationship each and every time a sufficiently
52 superior and mutually interested alternative became available (after factoring in exit costs). Yet,
53 people in a market full of self-interested partners would have no reason to take on the risks
54 inherent in starting a relationship. Frequently being forced to switch from one long-term
55 relationship to another wastes valuable resources, such as the time involved in search, the
56 investment needed in each partner, and so on. Why begin a long-term relationship if your partner
57 will leave you as soon as they discover a marginally superior romantic alternative? In this way,
58 long-term mating markets, like long-term rental markets, would likely collapse in the absence of
59 a commitment device locking partners together—regardless of whether the relationship turned
60 out to be optimal.

61 According to Frank (1988), love operates as this commitment device, motivating
62 commitment to a partner on an *irrational* basis by decreasing motivations to pursue alternatives.
63 By hypothesis, a person motivated by love may more easily establish a relationship because their
64 prospective partners can trust them to remain committed even in the face of temptation from
65 alternatives. That is, an individual who decides to commit to a partner solely because that person

66 is the rationally superior option in the moment cannot be trusted to remain committed. However,
67 an individual whose decision is irrationally rooted in love can be trusted to remain committed
68 even if a partner's relative desirability changes. As Frank (1988) writes: "If your wife married
69 you merely because you offered the most favorable exchange possibilities, she would quickly
70 leave you if Tom Selleck bought the house next door and announced his availability...But if she
71 married you because she loved you, there would be at least a reasonable chance she would
72 remain" (p. 196).

73 Some evidence is, indeed, consistent with the hypothesis that love acts as a commitment
74 device in this classic sense. For instance, Gonzaga et al. (2008) found that participants primed
75 with feelings of romantic love more successfully suppressed thoughts of an attractive alternative
76 than control participants. In a similar vein, Maner, Rouby, & Gonzaga (2008) found that
77 participants primed with feelings of love showed reductions in attention to attractive, opposite-
78 sex photographs in a visual dot-probe task. And in studies of "love acts," Buss (1988) found that
79 participants nominated behaviors such as "*She [he] gave up going out with other guys [girls]*" as
80 central to, and indicative of, someone being in love.

81 **Alternatives and Relationship (Dis)satisfaction**

82 These lines of work lend some support to Frank (1988)'s original commitment device
83 hypothesis. Nonetheless, a critical line of evidence casts doubt on the possibility that romantic
84 love disincentivizes the pursuit of alternatives directly: Namely, those with higher quality
85 alternatives report lower satisfaction in their relationships (Conroy-Beam et al., 2016; Rusbult et
86 al., 1998; Le & Agnew, 2003), and satisfaction appears to show a moderate-to-high to correlation
87 with love across studies (Masuda, 2003). Importantly, low levels of relationship satisfaction also
88 appear to motivate the pursuit of these alternatives, predicting infidelity (Shackelford et al.,

89 2008), flirtation with others (O'Farrell et al. 2003), and increased interest in relationship
90 termination (LeBell & Campbell, 2009). Put differently, as romantic alternatives become more
91 appealing, people become both less satisfied with their relationships and more willing to abandon
92 them in favor of these alternatives.

93 On its face, this collection of facts suggests a potential contradiction: Whereas Frank's
94 classic commitment device hypothesis of love predicts that love disincentivizes the pursuit of
95 alternatives, research suggests that relationship satisfaction—a construct well-known to be
96 correlated with love—is acutely sensitive to the quality of alternatives and motivates their
97 pursuit. Understanding the state of the commitment device hypothesis, and the ultimate function
98 of romantic love, requires resolving this apparent contradiction. Here, we consider two
99 hypotheses that may potentially do so.

100 **Romantic Love as a Moderator**

101 One possible resolution, consistent with Frank (1988)'s original commitment device
102 hypothesis, is that the known relationship between the quality of alternatives and relationship
103 satisfaction is attenuated by romantic love. That is, if love is a commitment device as described
104 by Frank (1988), it may “shield” relationship satisfaction against the psychological allure of
105 high-quality alternatives; as a result, satisfaction may remain high among those most in love
106 even in the face of appealing alternatives. Although this moderation account was not specified by
107 Frank (1988) directly, it would successfully reconcile the claim that love functions to decrease
108 interest in alternatives with the existing body of research on the relationship between the quality
109 of alternatives and relationship satisfaction.

110 **The Signaling-to-Alternatives Commitment Device Hypothesis**

111 A more radical possibility is that love does not disincentivize one’s pursuit of romantic
112 alternatives in the first place. Importantly, Frank (1988)’s classic commitment device hypothesis
113 implies multiple subsidiary hypotheses about love’s functional design. In particular, the
114 commitment device hypothesis suggests that love (A) helps to stabilize commitment to romantic
115 relationships by (B) decreasing internal psychological motivations to pursue romantic
116 alternatives and (C) signaling this decreased motivation to a partner (for a discussion, see
117 Gonzaga & Haselton, 2008).¹

118 One possibility, then, is that love may fulfill (A) and (C)—stabilizing commitment and
119 signaling commitment intent to a partner—without intervening on internal motivations to pursue
120 alternatives (B). An adaptation which motivated commitment primarily by regulating
121 intrapsychic responses, and communicating this purely internal shift to partners, could be
122 susceptible to cheaters who might later change their minds. However, love could still
123 successfully stabilize commitment if it motivated behaviors which *credibly* signaled commitment
124 intentions.

125 Signaling theory suggests that signals may attain credibility by producing a cost which
126 only honest signalers can afford (Roberts, 2020). For instance, some prey animals engage in
127 stotting behavior, jumping in the air when a predator is nearby to signal their ability to run

¹ From Gonzaga & Haselton (2008): “By this account, love acts as a commitment device (e.g., Frank, 1988; Sternberg, 1986) motivating individuals to remain committed to the relationship, signaling this intention between romantic partners, and helping individuals avoid the temptation of attractive alternatives.”

128 (Fitzgibbon et al., 1988). Although many unhealthy animals could engage in stotting, doing so
129 would be extremely risky in the event that a predator is undeterred; only a truly healthy animal
130 could afford to waste energy immediately before they may need to escape.

131 In a similar vein, signals of love could attain credibility by producing costs which only
132 those who are genuinely committed to a relationship could afford to pay. For instance, love could
133 motivate the production of a high, initial cost—such as a lavish gift (e.g., Roberts, 2020)—or
134 continually ongoing costs, such as selfless investments in a partner’s welfare (e.g., Quillien,
135 2020). In either case, only an individual who genuinely intends to remain in the long-term could
136 expect to reap maximal returns on these investments (Quillien, 2020).

137 Under a signaling view of the function of love, love could leverage a large range of
138 behaviors in order to stabilize commitment. Any behavior that imposes a cost affordable only by
139 a person sincerely interested in commitment could serve as credible signals of intent and
140 therefore help to solve the commitment problem. However, not all signals provide equal
141 guarantees of long-term commitment. An expensive gift given in private, for example, provides
142 little guarantee that one’s interests are *exclusive*; even an individual who genuinely intends to
143 remain with one partner could still pursue additional partners on the side (e.g., through affairs).
144 We propose one class of signals which might be particularly useful for guaranteeing exclusive
145 commitment: signals of commitment to both partners *and alternatives*.

146 Consider, for instance, a recent real-world example: At the 2024 Paris Olympics, former
147 Olympian Liu Yuchen publicly proposed to his romantic partner. Not only was this a very public
148 gesture broadcast, quite literally, to the entire world, but Yuchen proposed with a ring from
149 Darry Ring—a company which allows customers to purchase only one engagement ring in their
150 lifetime. This gesture provides a credible signal of Yuchen’s commitment intent not because it

151 changes Yuchen's internal psychological motivations (it does not), but because everyone now
152 knows that they can never receive such a ring from Yuchen. Only a person truly interested in
153 committing to a partner over alternatives could afford to foreclose on these alternatives in such a
154 drastic manner. Even if Yuchen decides later that he would rather pursue someone else, he has
155 nonetheless made it harder for himself to do so by broadcasting his singular interest in his current
156 partner over everyone else. And if Yuchen attempts to tip off an alternative by explaining that his
157 signal was disingenuous, the commitment problem simply re-emerges: His chosen alternative is
158 unlikely to pursue him in return because they now know that his professions of commitment can
159 no longer be trusted.

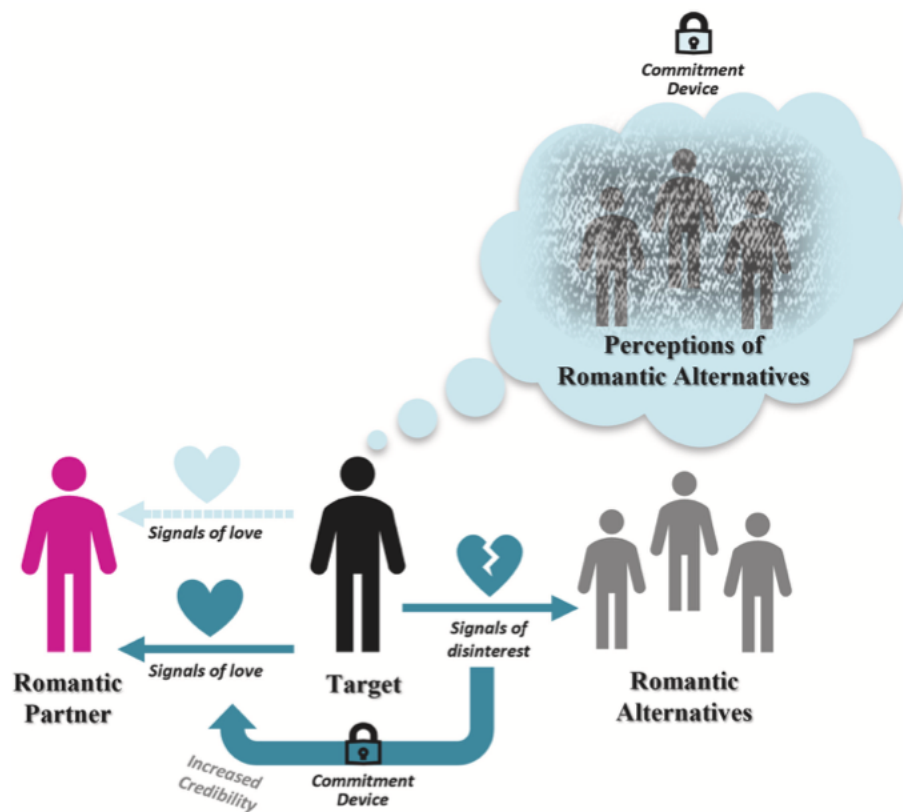
160 Over time, as these signals of disinterest in alternatives mutually escalate, both partners
161 may become uniquely valuable to one other, rendering each party the rationally superior choice
162 relative to available alternatives. Irrational psychological shifts in one's evaluation of
163 alternatives—predicted by Frank (1988)'s classic commitment device hypothesis—may not be
164 necessary.

165 In short, then, love may serve a commitment device function by motivating the
166 production of signals which reduce alternatives' interest in pursuing oneself, and, in so doing,
167 need not intervene on internal motivations at all. In this view, the causal arrow through which
168 love motivates commitment is directly reversed; rather than disincentivizing one's own pursuit of
169 alternatives, love may disincentivize these alternatives from pursuing oneself. To distinguish this
170 possibility from the classic commitment device hypothesis, we refer to it as the *signaling-to-*
171 *alternatives commitment device hypothesis* (or simply the *signaling-to-alternatives hypothesis*;
172 see Figure 1).

173 If, in fact, this signaling-to-alternatives hypothesis were true, and love honestly signals
 174 commitment to both one's partner and alternatives, it suggests a critical prediction: The more
 175 strongly an action is diagnostic of love for one's partner, the more strongly it should dissuade
 176 romantic alternatives from pursuing oneself. We return to this possibility in Study 5.

177 **Figure 1**

178 *Two Variations of the Commitment Device Hypothesis*



179

180 *Note.* A depiction of the hierarchical relationship between commitment devices and the two
 181 commitment device hypotheses of romantic love. The hypotheses differ both in how alternatives
 182 are disincentivized and to whom commitment is signaled.

183 **The Relationship Between Love and High-Quality Alternatives**

184 In addition to these specific predictions unique to each hypothesis, Frank (1988)'s classic
185 commitment device hypothesis and the signaling-to-alternatives commitment device hypothesis
186 make competing predictions about the association between high-quality alternatives and
187 romantic love.

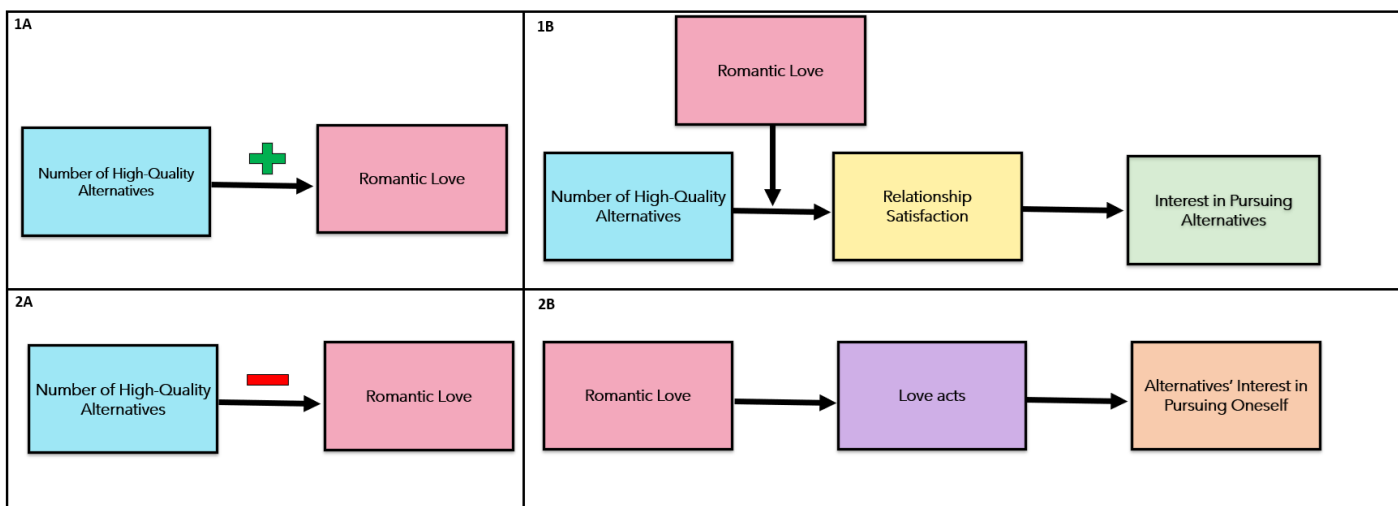
188 If, as the classic commitment device hypothesis suggests, romantic love is an adaptation
189 well-designed for reducing the temptations posed by high-quality alternatives, it should increase,
190 or at least hold constant, as higher-quality alternatives become available. Just as a fridge lock
191 which became *easier* to open when the fridge was full of high-calorie foods would not be
192 effective in reducing temptations to cheat on one's diet, a love adaptation designed to weaken in
193 intensity precisely when temptation is most extreme would not be effective in maintaining
194 commitment. Although a commitment device need not prevent all temptation in order to be
195 effective, a well-designed commitment device should not decrease interest in alternatives *only*
196 when these alternatives are already unappealing.²

² Although Frank (1988) did not specify this prediction directly, it follows naturally from his claim that romantic love is an adaptation well-designed for reducing interest in romantic alternatives. Adaptationist perspectives suggest that one may attempt to identify adaptations by testing for evidence that a trait in-question performs its hypothesized function improbably well—too well, in fact, to have arisen by chance alone (e.g., Tooby & Cosmides, 1992). If love decreases precisely when it is needed most, this would not be consistent with Frank (1988)'s claim that it operates as an adaptation for preventing temptations to defect to these alternatives.

197 By contrast, the signaling-to-alternatives account proposes that rational disinterest in
 198 romantic alternatives motivates honest signals of love. If, as the signaling-to-alternatives
 199 hypothesis suggests, love motivates signals of commitment on a purely rational basis, it should
 200 decrease as more high-quality alternatives become available. The predictions associated with
 201 each of these hypotheses are shown in Figure 2.

202 **Figure 2**

203 *Predictions of Frank (1988) ’s Classic Commitment Device Hypothesis and the Signaling-to-*
 204 *Alternatives Hypothesis*



205

206 *Note.* A depiction of the key predictions made by the classic commitment device hypothesis (1)
 207 and the signaling-to-alternatives hypothesis (2).

208 **The Present Studies**

209 Here, we use measures of partner quality relative to alternatives, relationship satisfaction,
 210 and romantic love to compare the classic commitment device hypothesis and the signaling-to-
 211 alternatives hypothesis across five studies. These accounts make several divergent predictions.

212 First, the classic commitment device hypothesis and the signaling-to-alternatives
213 commitment device hypothesis make competing predictions about the effect of high-quality
214 alternatives on feelings of romantic love. The classic commitment device hypothesis suggests
215 that love is designed to protect against the temptations of high-quality alternatives. If love is to
216 perform this function improbably well, levels of love should increase (or hold constant) as the
217 number of appealing alternatives increases. By contrast, the signaling-to-alternatives hypothesis
218 suggests that those in love rationally signal their interest in committing to a relationship. If so,
219 love should *decrease* as the number of high-quality alternatives increases.

220 Second, Frank (1988)'s classic commitment device hypothesis would seem to make a
221 specific prediction about the role of love in the well-established relationship between relationship
222 satisfaction and the quality of one's partner relative to alternatives. In particular, this hypothesis
223 suggests that the relationship between relative partner quality and relationship satisfaction may
224 be attenuated by feelings of romantic love. Finally, the signaling-to-alternatives hypothesis
225 makes a specific prediction about how acts of love will be perceived by romantic alternatives. In
226 particular, actions thought to be more strongly diagnostic of love should reduce alternatives'
227 interest in pursuing oneself.

228 In Studies 1 and 2, we compared the classic commitment device and the signaling-to-
229 alternatives commitment device accounts across two large samples of romantic dyads. In Study
230 3, we examined changes in love, changes in satisfaction, and changes in partner quality relative
231 to alternatives using a longitudinal design. In Study 4, we examined the generalizability of the
232 relationship between alternatives and romantic love by examining participants across 44
233 countries around the world. And in Study 5, we tested the signaling-to-alternatives commitment

234 device account more directly by examining interest in potential mates who appear to be signaling
235 love to someone else.

236 **Study 1**

237 In Study 1, we used measures of love and relationship satisfaction to compare the classic
238 commitment device hypothesis and the signaling-to-alternatives commitment device hypothesis
239 in a dyadic sample. To assess the quality of one's partner relative to alternatives, we also
240 included a series of questions assessing each participant's ideal partner across 20 traits, their own
241 standing on each trait, and their partner's standing on each trait. We used these scales to compute
242 partner-potential mate value discrepancies (MVDPP), a measure assessing the proportion of
243 alternatives who fit one's preferences less effectively than one's actual partner (for details, see
244 Conroy-Beam, Goetz, & Buss, 2015).

245 To adjust for the potentially confounding effect of partner idealization (e.g., Murray et
246 al., 1996), we computed MVDPP in two ways. First, we computed MVDPP when averaging
247 between self and partner ratings of a partner's traits. Second, we computed MVDPP when
248 relying exclusively on a *partner's ratings* of their own traits. If the relationship between MVDPP
249 and love remains when relying exclusively on a partner's own ratings of the traits they possess,
250 this relationship is unlikely to be explained entirely by an idealizing effect of love on perceptions
251 of a partner relative to alternatives.

252 **Method**

253 *Participants*

254 Participants were $n = 382$ people who were members of $k = 191$ committed, romantic,
255 heterosexual dyads recruited through Qualtrics's survey panel service. A sensitivity analysis

256 indicated that this sample size gave us 80% power to detect a correlation of $r = .14$. Participants
257 were $M = 49.86$ years old on average ($SD = 14.48$) and had been in their relationships for $Mdn =$
258 13 years at the time of participation. Participants were removed if they did not indicate that they
259 were in a relationship, if their partner was unavailable to take the survey, if they completed the
260 survey too quickly, or because one or both members of the dyad did not indicate that they were
261 heterosexual. These data were used previously in [REDACTED FOR BLIND REVIEW].

262 *Materials*

263 **Mate Preferences, Self Traits, and Partner Traits.** Participants completed a 20-item
264 mate preference questionnaire on a 7-point scale with bipolar adjectives at each endpoint (e.g.,
265 “Very Unkind” and “Very Kind”). Participants used this questionnaire to rate their ideal partner
266 (e.g., “How much should your ideal partner like kids?”), themselves (e.g., “How much do you
267 like kids?”), and their actual romantic partner (e.g., “How much does your romantic partner like
268 kids?”).

269 **Relationship Quality.** As measures of relationship satisfaction, participants completed
270 the Quality of Marriage Index (Norton, 1983) and the satisfaction subscale of the Perceived
271 Relationship Quality Components questionnaire (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000). These
272 scales were averaged together to create a composite measure of relationship satisfaction ($\alpha =$
273 $.96$). To assess romantic love, participants completed a version of the Triangular Love Scale
274 (Sternberg, 1997), which assesses romantic love across three dimensions: passion, intimacy, and
275 commitment. Due to a clerical error, we administered the 36-item version of the Triangular Love
276 Scale ($\alpha = .99$; Sternberg, 1997; see Study 1), rather than the 45-item version (Sternberg, 1997;
277 see Study 2). Because the Triangular Love Scale also measures commitment, analyses across
278 individual subscales and analyses omitting the commitment subscale are included in sections 3

279 and 6, respectively, of the supplemental materials. The overall pattern of results remained the
280 same.

281 **Data Processing**

282 To compute MVDPPs, we computed mate preference fulfillment as the Euclidean
283 distance between each participant's preferences and each opposite-sex participant's traits;
284 MVDPP was computed for each participant as the percentile rank of their actual romantic partner
285 within this mate preference fulfillment vector (for details, see Conroy-Beam, Goetz, & Buss,
286 2016). MVDPP therefore provides an estimate of the proportion of people who would fulfill
287 one's mate preferences more poorly than one's current romantic partner. Because both members
288 of the dyad rated their own traits and their partner's traits, we computed these values by
289 averaging self and partner ratings of a partner's traits. To address the possible confounding effect
290 of idealization on perceptions of one's partner, we also re-fit both models when computing
291 MVDPP exclusively on the basis of a partner's own ratings of their traits.

292 **Data Analysis**

293 All variables were standardized prior to running analyses. To directly test the relationship
294 between love and MVDPP, we fit a multilevel model, with participants nested within dyads. The
295 model predicted love from MVDPP, with a random intercept term.

296 The prediction of Frank (1988)'s classic commitment device moderation hypothesis was
297 also tested using a multilevel model nesting within dyads. This multilevel model predicted
298 relationship satisfaction from MVDPP, love, and their interaction, with a random intercept term.

299 **Data Availability:**

300 All analyses were conducted using R version 4.1.2. The data, processing scripts, analysis
301 scripts, and survey materials associated with this research are available
302 at https://osf.io/gfeqr/?view_only=16ef6d1cdb5a4dd2bf32d33114830b48.

303 **Results**

304 Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients are shown in Supplemental Table 1.
305 Because all variables were standardized prior to analyses, coefficient estimates can be interpreted
306 comparably to standardized effect sizes.

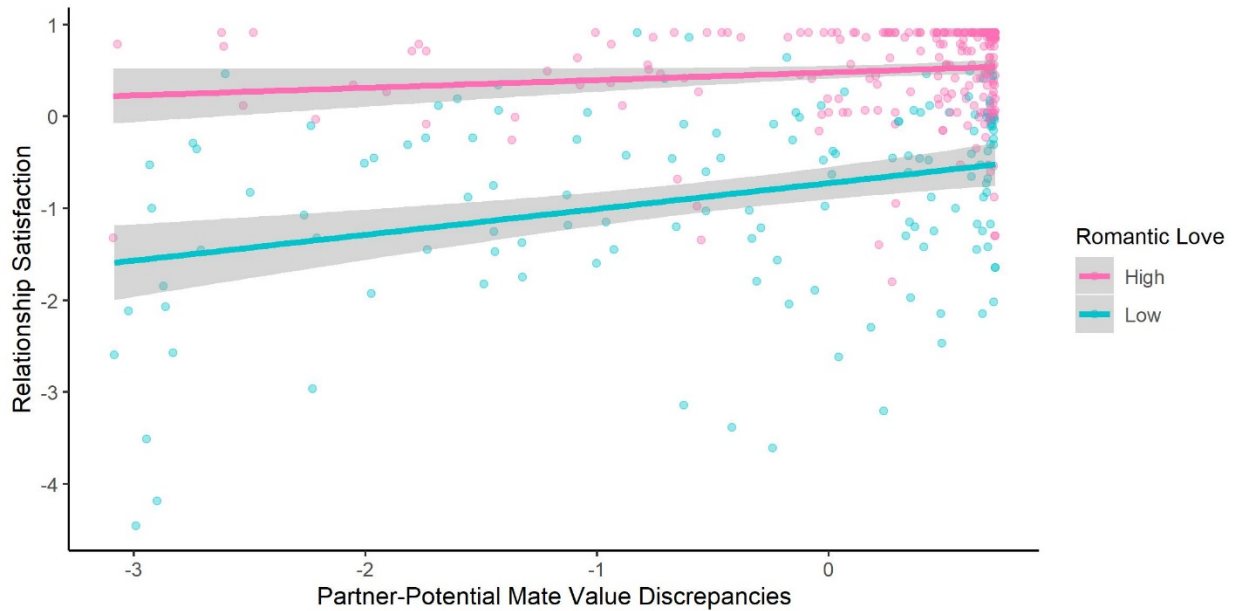
307 First, we examined the relationship between love and MVDPP. High values of MVDPP
308 denote few high-quality alternatives. MVDPP was a significant positive predictor of love ($b =$
309 $.27, SE = .04, p < .001$), supporting the signaling-to-alternatives commitment device hypothesis.
310 More specifically, those participants with higher quality alternatives reported lower levels of
311 romantic love.

312 Next, we tested the possibility, suggested by Frank (1988)'s classic commitment device
313 hypothesis, that love moderates the relationship between partner quality relative to alternatives
314 and relationship satisfaction. In this moderation model, love and MVDPP interacted to predict
315 feelings of relationship satisfaction, $b = -.06, SE = .02, p = .013$. In keeping with a classic
316 commitment device account, love significantly attenuated the relationship between MVDPP and
317 relationship satisfaction. However, a visual inspection of Figure 3 suggested that, because of the
318 positive correlation between MVDPP and love, few participants experienced both high levels of
319 romantic love and low levels of MVDPP simultaneously. Only 19% of participants reporting
320 above-mean levels of love also reported below-mean levels of MVDPP. Thus, MVDPP may be

321 unable to predict relationship satisfaction among those high in love because of insufficient
 322 variation in MVDPP.

323 **Figure 3**

324 *Love, Relationship Satisfaction, and Partner-Potential Mate Value Discrepancies (MVDPP)*



325

326 *Note.* Relationship satisfaction as a function of partner-potential mate value discrepancies
 327 (MVDPP) and romantic love in the commitment device hypothesis. Responses above the mean
 328 are shown in pink, and responses below the mean are shown in blue.

329 The above analyses relied on a measure of MVDPP which averaged self and partner
 330 ratings of a partner's traits. To test against the possibility that the relationship between love and
 331 MVDPP is attributable to those in love idealizing the traits of their partner, we re-examined this
 332 relationship when computing MVDPP exclusively using a partner's own ratings of their traits.
 333 MVDPP once again positively predicted romantic love, $b = .33$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$. In the classic
 334 commitment device moderation model, love did not significantly interact with MVDPP to

335 predict feelings of relationship satisfaction when MVDPP was based on partner ratings, $b = -.04$,
336 $SE = .02$, $p = .087$. Thus, these results suggest that the positive relationship between MVDPP and
337 romantic is unlikely to be entirely attributable to a blinding effect of love on perceived partner
338 quality relative to alternatives.

339 **Discussion**

340 In Study 1, we found consistent support for the signaling-to-alternatives commitment
341 device hypothesis and only mixed support for the classic commitment device hypothesis. In
342 particular, feelings of romantic love were *lower* among participants with higher quality
343 alternatives—precisely those participants whose relationships would most benefit from
344 disinterest in alternatives. Although love did moderate the relationship between the quality of
345 alternatives and satisfaction, this moderation effect was weaker when MVDPP was computed
346 exclusively on the basis of a partner's own ratings of their traits. This pattern of mixed support
347 for the commitment device hypothesis was echoed in two additional studies of individual
348 participants using the same love measure (for details, see supplementary materials, section 4).

349 Additionally, using the dyadic nature of Study 1, we also provided some evidence against
350 the possibility that the relationship between MVDPP and love stems exclusively from those in
351 love idealizing the traits of their partner. The relationship between MVDPP and romantic love
352 remained significant even when computing MVDPP on the basis of a partner's own ratings of
353 their standing on each trait. As a result, the relationship between MVDPP and love appears to be
354 attributable to an effect of relative partner quality on feelings of romantic love—rather than an
355 effect of love on perceptions of relative partner quality.

356 Overall, Study 1 provided strong support for the signaling-to-alternatives commitment
357 device hypothesis and mixed support for the classic commitment device hypothesis. However,
358 this study relied on a specific measure of love: the Triangular Love Scale. Study 2 was therefore
359 conducted to assess the robustness and generalizability of these results to another
360 operationalization of romantic love.

361 **Study 2**

362 Given the mixed results for the classic commitment device hypothesis in Study 1, Study 2
363 examined love using an alternative measure: the love subscale of the Perceived Relationship
364 Quality Components (PRQC) Inventory (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000). Doing so allowed
365 us to examine whether evidence for the two hypotheses generalized across multiple measures of
366 love.

367 **Method**

368 *Participants*

369 Participants were $n = 1,044$ people who were members of $k = 522$ committed,
370 heterosexual, romantic dyads recruited through Qualtrics's survey panel service. A sensitivity
371 analysis indicated that this sample size gave us 80% power to detect a correlation of $r = .09$.
372 Participants were $M = 56.9$ years old on average ($SD = 14$) and had been in their relationship for
373 $Mdn = 27$ years at the time of their participation. Participants were removed because they were
374 not in a heterosexual relationship, because their partner was unavailable to take the survey,
375 because they failed an attention check, or because they completed the survey too quickly.

376 *Measures.*

377 **Partner, Self, and Ideal Partner Traits.** Participants completed a 31-item mate
378 preference questionnaire. This questionnaire assesses 15 traits, each assessed with two questions,
379 and preferred partner age. As in Study 1, participants rated themselves, their actual mate, and
380 their ideal mate along each trait dimension.

381 **Relationship Quality.** The love subscale of the PRQC was used as a measure of
382 romantic love (Fletcher et al., 2000). This is a brief, 3-item measure assessing how much one
383 loves, cherishes, and adores their partner ($\alpha = .94$). Relationship satisfaction was measured using
384 the same materials as those used in Study 1 ($\alpha = .98$).

385 **Data Processing**

386 As in Study 1, MVDPP values were calculated using a Euclidean distance function.

387 **Data Analysis**

388 Analyses performed were identical to those performed in Study 1. All variables were
389 standardized prior to running analyses.

390 **Results**

391 Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients are shown in Supplemental Table 3.
392 Because all variables were standardized prior to analyses, coefficient estimates can be interpreted
393 comparably to standardized effect sizes.

394 As in Study 1, we first examined the relationship between love and MVDPP. MVDPP
395 was a significant and positive predictor of love ($b = .16$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$), supporting the
396 signaling-to-alternatives commitment device hypothesis. Participants with higher quality
397 alternatives reported lower levels of romantic love.

398 Next, we examined the moderation account predicted by the classic commitment device
399 hypothesis. In this model, contrasting with the results found in Study 1, love and MVDPP did not
400 significantly interact to predict relationship satisfaction, $b = -.01, p = .214$. The relationship
401 between satisfaction and MVDPP was not significantly weaker among those more in love with
402 their partner.

403 To fully replicate Study 1 and rule out the potentially confounding effects of partner idealization,
404 we re-ran these analyses when relying exclusively on partners' own ratings of their traits to
405 compute MVDPP. The direct effect of MVDPP on romantic love remained significant ($b = .20,$
406 $SE = .02, p < .001$). We also used partners' ratings of MVDPP to re-examine the moderation
407 model predicted by the classic commitment device hypothesis. Once again, love did not
408 significantly interact with MVDPP to predict feelings of relationship satisfaction, $b = -.02, SE =$
409 $.01, p = .064$.

410 **Discussion**

411 In Study 2, using an alternative operationalization of love, MVDPP was once again
412 positively associated with love—contradicting the predictions of Frank (1988)'s classic
413 commitment device hypothesis. This effect remained even when computing MVDPP exclusively
414 on the basis of a partner's own ratings of the traits they possess. Also in contrast with Frank
415 (1988)'s hypothesis, love did not significantly interact with MVDPP in predicting satisfaction
416 (though we do note that the p -value was $.064$ —close to the arbitrary cutoff of $.05$). Taken
417 together, the results of Studies 1 and 2 more strongly supported the signaling-to-alternatives
418 hypothesis.

440 As in prior studies, MVDPP values were calculated using a Euclidean distance function.
441 An MVDPP difference score was computed by taking Time 2 MVDPP – Time 1 MVDPP.

442 **Data Analysis**

443 All variables were standardized prior to running analyses. Across all analyses, we used
444 multilevel models in which participants were nested within dyads and included a random
445 intercept term.

446 To examine the relationship between love and MVDPP, we predicted Time 2 love from
447 Time 1 love and the MVDPP difference score. To test the main effect of MVDPP change on
448 satisfaction change, we predicted Time 2 satisfaction from Time 1 satisfaction and the MVDPP
449 difference score. To test the moderation account entailed by the classic commitment device
450 hypothesis, we refit this model in two ways. In the first model, we added Time 1 love as an
451 interaction term with the MVDPP difference score. In the second model, we repeated this
452 analysis with Time 2 love. Both models were examined separately because it is not obvious
453 which measure of love should be expected to moderate the effect of MVDPP on satisfaction. It
454 could be that love at Time 1 has a protective effect, mitigating effects of subsequent changes in
455 MVDPP. Alternatively, current feelings of love (i.e., love at Time 2) could shield satisfaction
456 from recent decreases in MVDPP. For this reason, we fit two separate models.

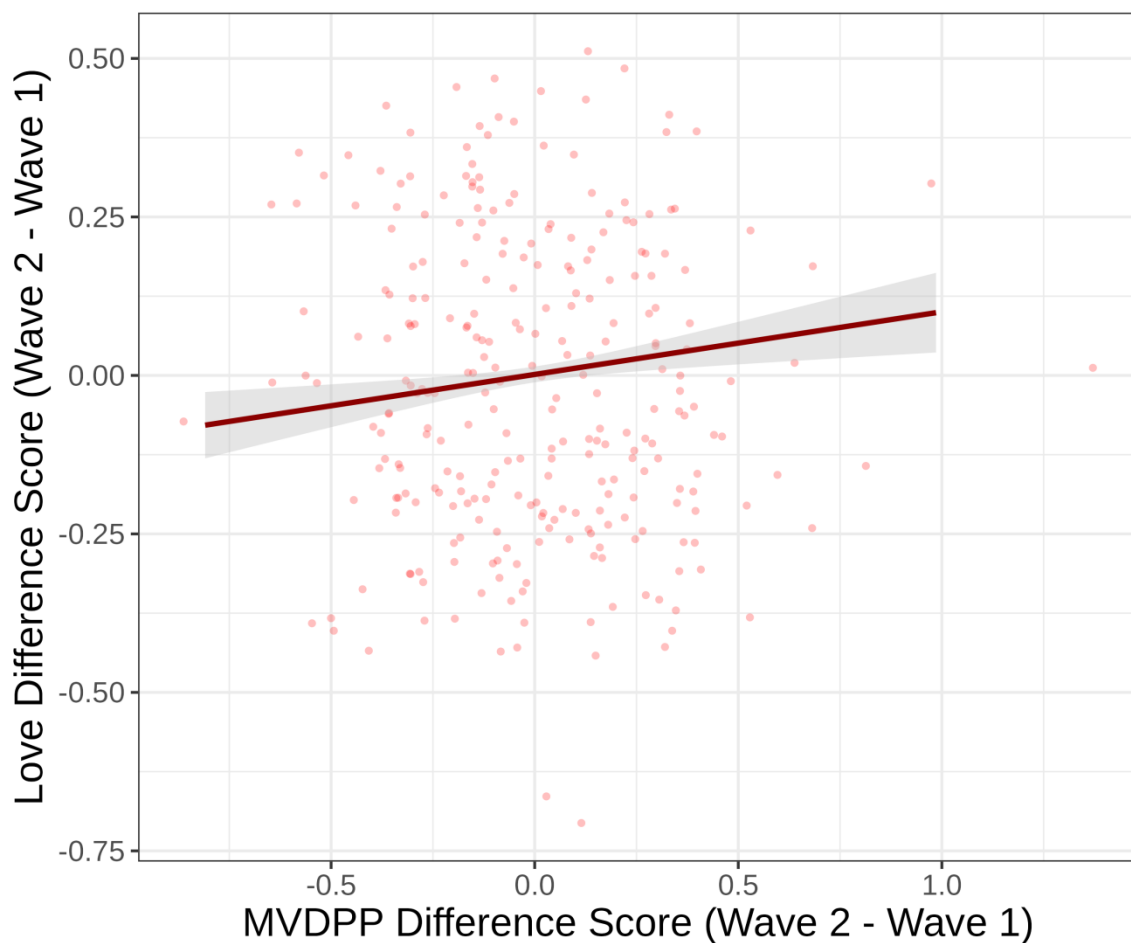
457 **Results**

458 Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients are shown in Supplemental Table 5. All
459 variables were standardized prior to analyses, and, as a result, coefficient estimates can be
460 interpreted comparably to standardized effect sizes.

461 We began by examining the relationship between love and MVDPP. In contrast with the
462 classic commitment device hypothesis, increases in MVDPP between Times 1 and 2 were
463 associated with increases in love, $b = 0.11$, $p < .001$ (Figure 4). This held true even when using a
464 mate's own ratings of their traits to compute MVDPP, $b = 0.14$, $p < .001$. This result indicates
465 that participants felt *less* love as their alternatives rose in quality over time relative to their
466 partner.

467 **Figure 4**

468 *Changes in Romantic Love as a Function of Changes in Partner-Potential Mate Value*
469 *Discrepancies (MVDPP)*



470

471 *Note.* The relationship between changes in MVDPP and changes in romantic love over the
472 course of a year-long longitudinal study. Data shown in the graph are unstandardized.

473 To examine the classic commitment device's moderation model, we first examined the
474 main effect of change in MVDPP on change in satisfaction. As expected, change in MVDPP was
475 a significant positive predictor of change in satisfaction, $b = .14, p < .001$. However, this
476 relationship was not moderated by feelings of love at Time 1, $b = -0.05, p = 0.127$, nor by
477 feelings of love at Time 2, $b = 0.01, p = 0.866$. Once again, this remained true even when relying
478 on a partner's own ratings of their traits to compute MVDPP (all $ps > .140$).

479 At the request of a reviewer, we also examined the commitment device model when
480 pooling the data across Studies 1-3. We ran a multilevel model nesting within dyads in which we
481 examined love, MVDPP, and their interaction as predictors of satisfaction, controlling for the
482 love scale used. Because Study 3 was longitudinal, and Studies 1 and 2 were not, we re-ran the
483 analysis when relying on data from Wave 1 and when relying on data from Wave 2. The results
484 of these pooled analyses revealed that the interaction between love and MVDPP did not reach
485 conventional cutoffs for statistical significance even when pooling the data across Studies 1-3
486 using Wave 1 of Study 3, $b = -.02, p = .090$, or Wave 2, $b = -.01, p = .283$. Thus, even when
487 aggregating the data across Studies 1-3 and controlling for the love scale used, the classic
488 commitment device hypothesis was not supported.

489 **Discussion**

490 In Study 3, the classic commitment device hypothesis was once again not supported;
491 changes in MVDPP did not interact with love to predict changes in relationship satisfaction.
492 Moreover, those whose partners went down in quality relative to alternatives over time—who

515 not administer the mate preference questionnaire or the Triangular Love Scale (Serbia, Ukraine,
516 and Bulgaria) or because they voluntarily left these questions blank. Each study site collected
517 data from both university and community samples. Due to a lack of records from about half of
518 the sites, there is incomplete information about the percentage of each type of sample. From
519 those sites that did keep records ($n = 3824$, 43.4%), a little over half of participants were students
520 ($n = 2142$, 56%). Age of participants ranged from 18-87 years old ($Mdn = 27$, $M = 30.6$, $SD =$
521 11). These data have been used in other work published previously [REDACTED FOR BLIND
522 REVIEW].

523 *Measures.*

524 **Partner, Self, and Ideal Partner Traits.** Participants completed a 5-item questionnaire
525 on their actual long-term mate, their ideal long-term mate, and themselves. Specifically,
526 participants rated themselves and their actual and ideal mates on five traits: kindness,
527 intelligence, health, physical attractiveness, and good financial prospects. All items were rated on
528 bipolar adjective scales ranging from 1 (e.g., very unintelligent) to 7 (e.g., very intelligent).

529 **Love.** Participants completed the 45-item version of Sternberg (1997)'s Triangular Love
530 Scale ($\alpha = .96$). Analyses which omit the commitment subscale are included in section 6 of the
531 supplemental materials.

532 **Data Processing**

533 MVDPP and preference fulfillment were computed using a Euclidean distance function,
534 in keeping with the procedures described in Studies 1 and 2. However, two additional changes
535 were made. First, because the data were collected across cultures, MVDPP was computed
536 exclusively on the basis of potential partners within one's own country. Second, because the data

537 were not dyadic, MVDPP was computed exclusively using one's own ratings of their partner's
538 traits.

539 **Data Analysis**

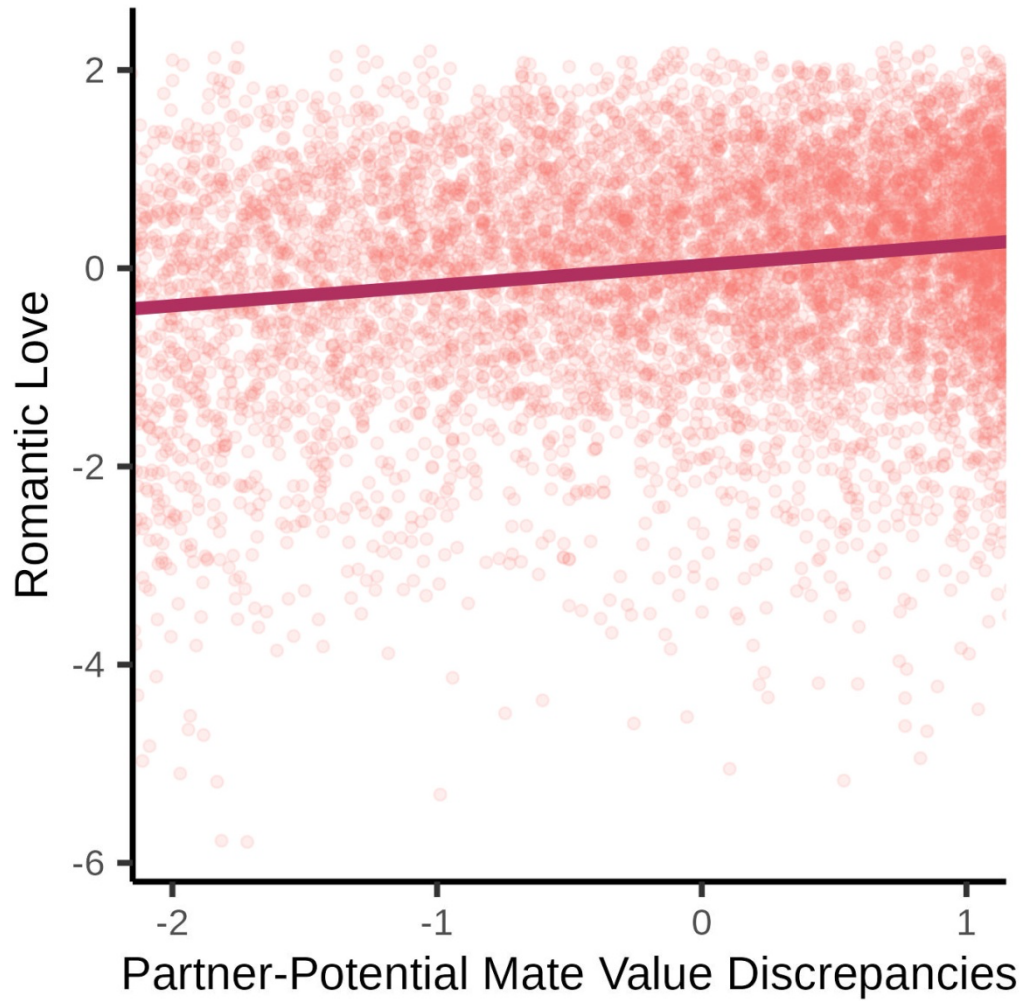
540 Data were analyzed using a multilevel model, with participants nested within country.
541 This multilevel model predicted romantic love from participant MVDPP, with random slope and
542 intercept terms. Romantic love and MVDPP were standardized across countries.

543 **Results**

544 Because all variables were standardized prior to analyses, coefficient estimates can be
545 interpreted comparably to standardized effect sizes. Across cultures, MVDPP positively
546 predicted feelings of love, $b = .21$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$ (see Figure 5). Those participants whose
547 partners were higher in quality relative to alternatives reported significantly greater levels of
548 love. The random slope terms ranged from $b = .08$ in Malaysia to $b = .34$ in Russia, and the
549 random intercept terms ranged from $-.79$ in Pakistan to $.34$ in Slovakia (see Figure 6).
550 Unstandardized mean levels of romantic love are shown in Figure S1.

551 **Figure 5**

552 *Romantic Love as a Function of Partner-Potential Mate Value Discrepancies (MVDPP)*

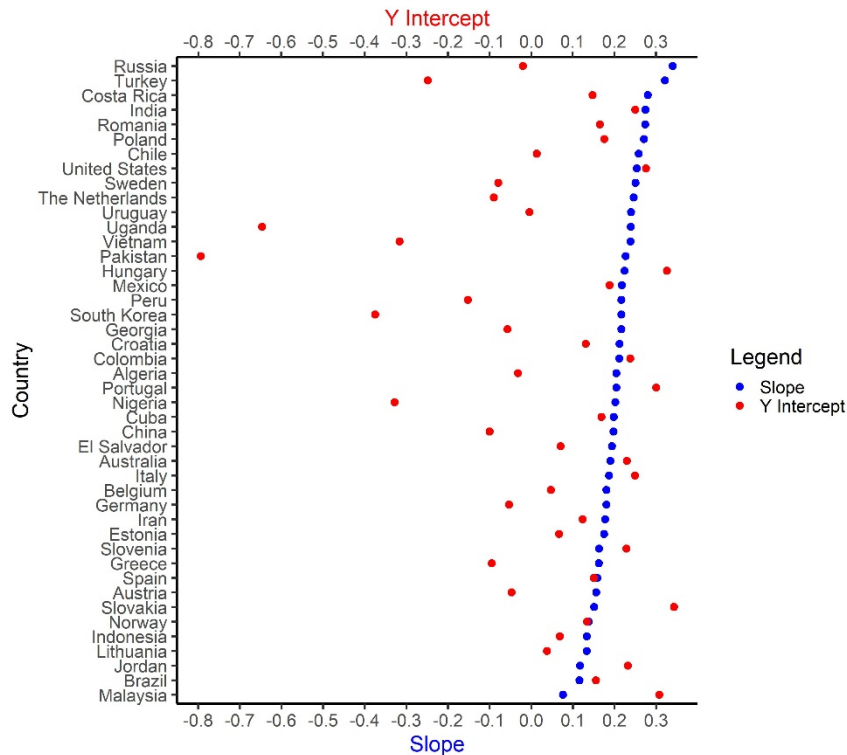


553

554 *Note.* The relationship between MVDPP and romantic love, aggregating across 44 countries.

555 **Figure 6**

556 *MVDPP as a Function of Romantic Love in Study 3*



557

558 *Note.* Results of a multilevel model examining the effect of MVDPP on romantic love nested
 559 within each country. Countries with low slopes, such as Malaysia, tended to also have high
 560 intercepts. One possible explanation for this pattern is that low slopes are attributable to ceiling
 561 effects.

562 **Discussion**

563 The key finding from Studies 1 through 3—that the quality of one’s partner relative to
 564 alternatives is positively associated with romantic love—replicated across 44 countries. Those
 565 individuals with more high-quality alternatives reported lower levels of love in every country
 566 around the world. This would be a peculiar design feature if, as suggested by Frank (1988), love
 567 stabilized commitment by decreasing motivation to pursue alternatives. These results are
 568 consistent with the suggestion that love rationally tracks the quality of a partner relative to

569 alternatives—rather than altering one’s perception of these alternatives through an artificial
570 psychological shift.

571 **Study 5**

572 Across Studies 1-4, we did not find strong support for the classic view that love acts as a
573 commitment device by disincentivizing the pursuit of attractive alternatives. Contrary to the
574 hypothesis, those with more high-quality alternatives reported lower levels of both love and
575 satisfaction. Do these findings suggest that love is not, in fact, a commitment device?

576 Study 5 explored the possibility that behavioral signals of love may stabilize commitment
577 indirectly—without the need for additional adjustments to one’s perceptions of, or reactions to,
578 available alternatives. In this view, signals of love reduce the interest of romantic alternatives,
579 honestly signaling one’s commitment to a partner. Thus, under this signaling-to-alternatives
580 account, love may not act as a commitment device in the traditional sense—by disincentivizing
581 *one’s own* pursuit of romantic alternatives—but by motivating the production of behavioral
582 signals which disincentivize these *alternatives* from pursuing oneself.

583 To test this possibility, Study 5 asked single participants to evaluate a series of behaviors
584 potentially associated with love in a between-subjects design. In the *love condition*, participants
585 rated the extent to which each of these actions communicated feelings of love. In the *attraction*
586 and *pursuit conditions*, participants rated the extent to which each of these acts, when directed
587 toward someone else, would affect their attraction toward, or pursuit of, the target in-question.
588 We predicted a close correspondence between the extent to which an action is diagnostic of love
589 and the extent to which that action, when directed toward someone else, should reduce third-
590 party observers’ attraction toward, and pursuit of, the target in-question.

591 **Method**

592 *Participants*

593 Data were collected online from $n = 253$ single participants (146 female, 5 nonbinary, 2
594 who preferred not to say) recruited through Prolific. On average, participants were $M = 41.62$
595 years of age ($SD = 15.39$). Because our analyses only required an average love diagnosticity
596 rating for each item (rather than individual responses for each participant), we recruited fewer
597 participants in the love condition ($n = 53$) than in the attraction condition ($n = 102$) or pursuit
598 condition ($n = 98$). Participants were removed if they failed to correctly complete an attention
599 check, if they did not indicate being single, or if they failed to answer any of the core questions
600 in the condition to which they were assigned.

601 *Measures*

602 **Behaviors Associated with Love.** To measure behavioral signals of love, we adapted 22
603 of the items from Buss (1988)'s 40-item scale of love acts. One additional item, writing a song
604 for the target, was created by the authors.

605 **Love, Attraction, and Interest in Pursuit.** Participants were randomly assigned to one
606 of three conditions in a between-subjects design. In the love condition, participants considered a
607 target named Alex performing each behavior toward a potential love interest named Taylor. For
608 each behavior, participants rated their confidence that Alex was in love with Taylor given that
609 Alex performed the behavior in-question toward Taylor. In the attraction condition, participants
610 rated the extent to which their attraction toward a romantic interest would change if that person
611 performed the behavior in-question toward Taylor. In the pursuit condition, participants rated the
612 extent to which their interest in pursuing a romantic interest would change if that person

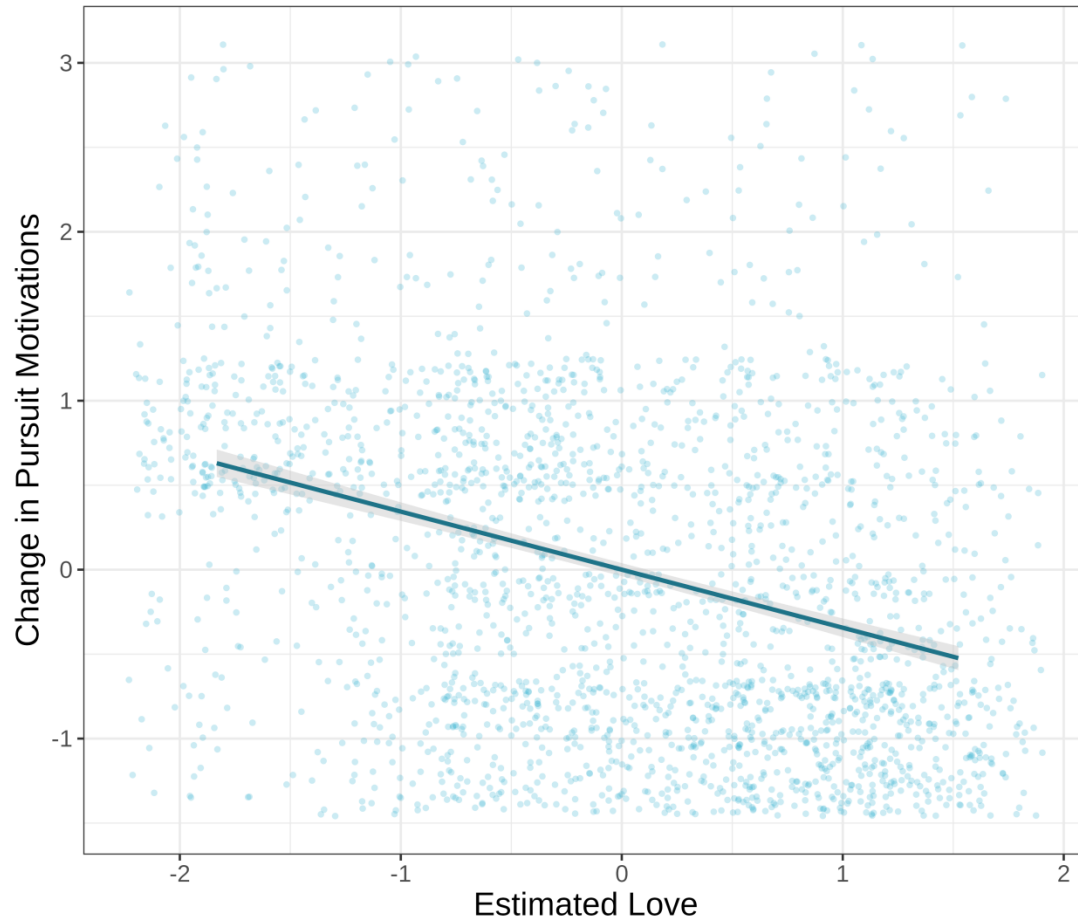
613 performed the behavior in-question toward Taylor. All behaviors were rated on a bipolar scale
614 from 1 (e.g., “I would be extremely confident that Alex is NOT in love with Taylor”) to 7 (e.g.,
615 “I would be extremely confident that Alex is in love with Taylor).

616 **Data Processing and Analysis**

617 Data were analyzed using multilevel models nesting within subjects. The multilevel
618 models predicted attraction to the target and interest in pursuing the target across each love act
619 from mean love ratings for each item computed from participants in the love condition, with
620 random intercept terms. For each love act, we computed the mean love rating across subjects.
621 Mean love ratings, attraction ratings, and pursuit ratings were standardized prior to analyses.
622 However, because all conditions used a 7-point scale, we also report the unstandardized slopes in
623 the interest of transparency.

624 **Results**

625 In keeping with a signaling-to-alternatives account of love, the results revealed that love
626 was a significant negative predictor of both attraction to the target, $b = -.30, p < .001$, and interest
627 in pursuing the target, $b = -.34, p < .001$ (see Figure 7). When the data were left unstandardized,
628 the results revealed slopes approaching -1 for both attraction ($b = -.93$) and pursuit ($b = -1.08$).
629 Thus, these analyses suggest that each 1-point increase in the love conveyed by a given item was
630 associated with an approximately 1-point decrease, on average, in others’ pursuit of, and
631 attraction toward, targets performing that behavior toward someone else. In fact, despite the use
632 of a between-subjects design, the item-level correlation between ratings of love and pursuit
633 ratings as well as attraction ratings were nearly perfect: $r = -.91$ for pursuit ratings and $r = -.85$
634 for attraction ratings.

635 **Figure 7**636 *Motivations to Pursue a Target as a Function of Estimated Love in Another Person*

637

638 *Note.* Results of a scatterplot depicting the relationship between ratings of the extent to which
639 one's interest in a target would change if they performed a given love act toward someone else
640 and the estimated magnitude of love conveyed by each act. In keeping with the signaling-to-
641 alternatives hypothesis, the results suggest that behaviors thought to be more diagnostic of love
642 were associated with reductions in the desire to pursue a target when the target directed these
643 behaviors toward someone else.

644 **Discussion**

668 known relationship between the quality of one's partner relative to alternatives and feelings of
669 relationship satisfaction. A second possibility, which we refer to as the signaling-to-alternatives
670 commitment device hypothesis, suggests that love stabilizes commitment not by disincentivizing
671 one's own pursuit of alternatives but by disincentivizing these alternatives from pursuing
672 oneself.

673 Across a series of studies, we found stronger support for the latter account. Studies 1 and
674 2 revealed that, in contrast with Frank (1988)'s classic commitment device hypothesis, the
675 relationship between the partner quality relative to alternatives and relationship satisfaction was
676 not consistently attenuated by romantic love.³ In Study 3, using a longitudinal design, we once
677 again found no evidence of moderation and found that those whose partners decreased in quality
678 relative to alternatives over time reported lower levels of love. Importantly, these effects did not
679 appear to be attributable to a power issue; even when pooling the data across Studies 1-3, the
680 moderation effect predicted by the classic commitment device hypothesis remained non-
681 significant.

682 In Study 4, using a cross-cultural sample, we found that those whose partners were low in
683 quality relative to alternatives reported lower levels of love across all of the 44 countries in the
684 sample, providing cross-cultural evidence against the classic commitment device hypothesis and
685 supporting the view—suggested by the signaling-to-alternatives commitment device
686 hypothesis—that love rationally tracks the quality of one's partner relative to alternatives. And in

³ Though Studies 1 – 4 all tested the moderation relationship predicted by the classic commitment device hypothesis, this relationship was supported only in Study 1 (when using a conventional cutoff for statistical significance); even in this case, it was not clear whether this reflected a true moderation effect or a restriction of range owing to the strong correlations between satisfaction, love, and relative quality of alternatives.

687 Study 5, we found that the extent to which a given behavior was diagnostic of love predicted loss
688 of interest in, and reduced attraction toward, a target directing that behavior toward someone
689 else; this latter phenomenon was not predicted by the classic commitment device hypothesis but
690 directly supports the signaling-to-alternatives commitment device account introduced here.

691 Importantly, these effects do not appear to be attributable exclusively to partner
692 idealization. We assessed relative partner quality by computing partner-potential mate value
693 discrepancies (MVDPP), a value which reflects the proportion of romantic alternatives who fit
694 one's preferences less optimally than one's actual partner. In Studies 1 and 2, we found that the
695 positive relationship between partner quality relative to alternatives and romantic love remained
696 even when relying on partner A's ratings of their traits to compute MVDPP and partner B's
697 ratings of love. And in Study 3, using a longitudinal dyadic design, we found that *changes* in
698 partner A's ratings of their quality over time predict *changes* in partner B's feelings of love.
699 Thus, partner idealization did not appear to fully explain the results observed in the present
700 investigation.

701 In summary, evidence across five studies revealed only mixed support for the classic
702 commitment device hypothesis but strong support for the signaling-to-alternatives commitment
703 device hypothesis: Those with more high-quality alternatives relative to their partner report
704 decreases in love, and acts of love appear to serve as honest signals of commitment by
705 dissuading alternatives from pursuing oneself. Thus, in contrast with Frank (1988)'s classic
706 commitment device account—suggesting that love may disincentivize the pursuit of romantic
707 alternatives—the results of the present studies suggest instead that, consistent with the signaling-
708 to-alternatives commitment device hypothesis, love may disincentivize these alternatives from
709 pursuing oneself.

710 **A New Solution to the Commitment Problem**

711 This hypothesized shift in the causal arrow of the commitment device hypothesis raises a
712 key, unanswered question: How, under a signaling-to-alternatives account, could the
713 commitment problem be solved? If love does not promote irrational changes in one's evaluations
714 of alternatives, why would a rational agent honestly signal their intention to remain in a
715 relationship in the first place?

716 Here, we have suggested that mutual signaling may render both partners increasingly
717 valuable to one other over time. Just as many researchers have suggested feedback cycles in
718 partner value and investment (Tooby & Cosmides, 1996; Murray et al., 2006; Conroy-Beam,
719 2021), acts of love could promote commitment through an iterative process of mutual signaling.
720 For instance, partner A's signals of love may honestly signal commitment to B, increasing A's
721 value to B relative to available alternatives. Partner B may now be rationally more inclined to
722 signal love to A, further increasing their value to A and motivating still more signaling from A in
723 return. Through this iterative process, two partners may become increasingly locked in over time,
724 with each party increasingly less likely to succeed in attracting a rival and, as a consequence,
725 increasingly valuable to their partner relative to available alternatives. Because each partner
726 genuinely increases in value over time, love may produce signaling and subsequent changes in
727 commitment on a purely rational basis; an irrational, lease-like psychological shift may not be
728 necessary. In this way, love under the signaling-to-alternatives account could solve the
729 commitment problem without also producing artificial shifts in one's evaluations of romantic
730 alternatives.

731 **Limitations and Future Directions**

732 Despite the strengths of this research, there were several limitations worth noting. One
733 methodological challenge inherent in testing these models is that the relationship between self-
734 reports of love and partner quality relative to alternatives poses a directionality issue: love could
735 decrease perceptions of partner quality relative to alternatives, or partner quality relative to
736 alternatives could calibrate love. In Studies 1 and 2, using dyadic datasets, we found that *self*-
737 ratings of one's quality across traits predicted *partner*-ratings of love—suggesting that
738 idealization, though potentially still affecting the ratings of some traits, cannot fully account for
739 the effects observed here.

740 Additionally, it is possible that Frank's alternative suppression effects do exist in the
741 early stages of relationship formation but wane as commitment is further stabilized by other
742 processes. Such effects would not be observable in the relatively established couples we sampled
743 here, but could be apparent in more nascent relationships. Future research is needed to explore
744 the dynamics of love and commitment over time.

745 In Study 5, we found promising evidence for a signaling-to-alternatives account of
746 romantic love; the extent to which a behavior was diagnostic of love predicted reductions in
747 attraction toward and interest in pursuing a romantic alternative directing these behaviors toward
748 others. Although these results are highly suggestive, they represent only a preliminary step in this
749 direction, and more research in this area is needed. For instance, although high-cost signals, such
750 as writing a love ballad, may rarely be performed except by those in love even those very deeply
751 in love may not necessarily need a signal that is maximally costly. Future research should
752 investigate when those in love are most likely to employ high-cost signals such as these and
753 when lower cost signals may instead be preferred.

754 Moreover, whereas we have focused on the potential for *broadcast* signals to stabilize
755 commitment, these need not be the only behaviors motivated by love. For instance, even
756 relationship-internal love acts, such as obsessively doting over a partner, could signal
757 commitment: One cannot be seriously interested in pursuing alternatives when devoting nearly
758 all their time and energy on their beloved. In a similar vein, offers to “run away” with a partner
759 could serve as honest signals of commitment in that a person willing to separate themselves from
760 available alternatives is unlikely to pursue them.

761 Nonetheless, the possibility remains that some acts of love may arise for reasons not due
762 to signaling. For instance, in a perfectly monogamous relationship, one’s own reproductive
763 success is directly tied to the reproductive success of a partner (for a discussion, see Conroy-
764 Beam, Goetz, & Buss, 2015; Aktipis et al., 2018). Consequently, acts of love which benefit a
765 partner offer indirect fitness benefits to oneself—even when these acts go unnoticed by a partner.
766 Indeed, these shared fitness payoffs could also help to explain the observed association between
767 love and the relative quality of alternatives: As alternatives become harder to attract, acts of love
768 which benefit a partner become increasingly beneficial to oneself. Future research should
769 examine those acts of love unlikely to be explained by signaling alone.

770 Additionally, although we suggest that an artificial psychological shift in one’s evaluation
771 of alternatives may not be necessary under a signaling-to-alternatives account, the present results
772 did not test this possibility directly. Consequently, it remains possible that both phenomena—
773 signals directed toward alternatives and artificial psychological shifts in evaluations of these
774 alternatives—may still be occurring.

775 Finally, whereas we focused our analysis on relationship satisfaction—in light of the
776 large literature on quality of alternatives and satisfaction (e.g., Rusbult et al., 1998)—there also

777 exists a substantial literature on subjective feelings of commitment (e.g., Crawford et al., 2003).
778 Future research would benefit from exploring the relationship between the subjective sense of
779 commitment and putative commitment device adaptations. As a preliminary step in this
780 direction, we examined the commitment device moderation model exploratorily when replacing
781 relationship satisfaction with subjective commitment (see supplementary materials, section 5)
782 and found that the overall pattern of results remained the same.

783 **Conclusion**

784 The evolved function of romantic love is a surprisingly underexplored question. Here, we
785 compared Frank (1988)'s classic commitment device hypothesis with a novel, signaling-to-
786 alternatives commitment device hypothesis. In contrast with the classic commitment device
787 hypothesis, a positive association emerged between the quality of one's partner relative to
788 alternatives and romantic love across 44 countries and three dyadic samples from the United
789 States. Also in keeping with the signaling-to-alternatives commitment device hypothesis, the
790 extent to which a behavior was diagnostic of love correlated with changes in alternatives' interest
791 in pursuing the target. These results raise the intriguing possibility that romantic love may not
792 operate as a commitment device in the classic sense: Rather than disincentivizing one's *own*
793 pursuit of alternatives, acts of love may disincentivize *alternatives* from pursuing oneself.

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