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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jennifer G. Clement entitled "Value Similarity and Its Relationship to Interpersonal Relationship Quality and Identity: Perceptions of Self, Partner, and Ideal Partner." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.

Warren Jones, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Teresa Hutchens, Suzanne Kurth, John Lounsbury

Accepted for the Council:

Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

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Value Similarity and Its Relationship to Interpersonal Relationship Quality and Identity:

Perceptions of Self, Partner, and Ideal Partner

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jennifer G. Clement

December 2008

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all the formative influences in my life. With enormous gratitude I thank Iayesus Almasih, for life, breath, and eternal faithfulness. To my parents, Dr. John R. Clement and Mrs. Martha R. Clement, for the incredible amount of effort involved in raising me and their unfailing and loving support through all my endeavors, my deepest appreciation. To my beloved, Wolfgang McLachlan, for his encouragement and never ending belief that I could accomplish this work as well as the gift of his cherished love, my love always and forever. To all my friends and family, you are the best and I thank you.

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ABSTRACT

The exploration of interpersonal relationships has led to the recognition that similarity has played a large role in the relationship quality, e.g. satisfaction, of dyads, specifically romantic dyads. Three categories of similarity have been shown to best predict satisfaction: communication, attitudes, and values. This study examined the actual, perceived, and ideal value similarity of heterosexual romantic dyads at the University of Tennessee and assessed relationship quality which included satisfaction, intimacy, trust, and social provisions. Using stepwise regressions and Pearson Product correlations this study determined that actual, perceived, and ideal value similarity significantly predicted the relationship quality of the individual and the couple. Results showed that no difference was found between actual similarity and perceived similarity in their ability to significantly predict relationship quality. This study primarily explored the relationships of values of the self, partner, and ideal partner in order to further understand relationship quality and identity. Intraindividual and dyadic correlations were formed to assess the degree of similarity of values for each gender and the couple. Results demonstrated that ideal value perceptions were significantly and positively related to relationship quality and also revealed a gender difference. For example, when an individual's rating of their partner was correlated with the rating of an ideal partner for each gender, results demonstrated a gender difference where only male correlations significantly predicted relationship quality. Possible implications for future research concerning value similarity, gender differences, and identity were then discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures and Tables.....	p vi-viii
Introduction.....	p 1
Methods.....	p 26
Results.....	p 38
Discussion.....	p 61
References.....	p 74
Appendix A: Informed Consent.....	p 91
Appendix B: Figures and Tables.....	p 93
Appendix C: Correlations	p 112

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Tables

1. Means for the Rokeach Value Survey.....	39
2. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Intimacy	46
3. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Attachment.....	46
4. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Attachment.....	46
5. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Nurturance.....	47
6. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Nurturance.....	47
7. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Satisfaction (RAS)	47
8. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Satisfaction (RAS)	48
9. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Satisfaction (RAS)	48
10. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Partner Trust.....	49
11. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Guidance	49
12. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Integration.....	51
13. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Intimacy	51
14. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Partner Trust.....	53

15. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Alliance.....	53
16. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Alliance.....	53
17. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Guidance.....	54
18. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Integration.....	54
19. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Reassurance of Worth.....	55
20. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Reassurance of Worth.....	55
21. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Intimacy.....	56
22. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Attachment.....	56
23. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Guidance.....	56
24. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Partner Trust.....	59
25. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Alliance.....	59
26. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Reassurance of Worth.....	59
27. Demographic Information.....	98
28. Value Ranks by Gender.....	99
29. Descriptive Statistics for Social Provisions Subscales by Gender.....	100
30. Terminal Responses Correlated with Relationship Assessment Scale.....	101

31. Terminal Responses Correlated with Inclusion of Other in Self Scale	102
32. Terminal Responses Correlated with Trust Inventory	103
33. Terminal Responses Correlated with Alliance Subscale	104
34. Terminal Responses Correlated with Attachment Subscale	105
35. Terminal Responses Correlated with Guidance Subscale	106
36. Terminal Responses Correlated with Nurturance Subscale.....	107
37. Terminal Responses Correlated with Integration Subscale	108
38. Terminal Responses Correlated with Reassurance of Worth Subscale	109
39. Attachment Correlations with RAS	110
40. Correlations of Trust Inventory with RAS.....	111

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The formation and maintenance of all dyadic relationships, and specifically romantic relationships, has been the focus of researchers from several social science disciplines. With respect to romantic relationships, researchers have explored the initial attraction phase, the commitment phase, and the termination phase in search of significant predictors of relationship development, continuation, and quality. Initially, the constructs of complementarity, defined as need fulfillment by a partner being opposite in some way (Winch, 1955), and similarity, defined as congruence or agreement (Newcomb, 1956), were explored as predictors of attraction and then commitment, or in their absence, termination. Research has shown that the former, described by the popular adage “opposites attract,” functions primarily in the realm of personality in dimensions such as dominance/submissiveness; exhibiting only modest significance (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997). Similarity, described by the adage “birds of a feather flock together,” has been so strongly supported by research that a significant body of literature has been dedicated to its study. The exploration of similarity has identified several significant domains that predict satisfaction; including, communication, attitude, and specifically value similarity. This study reviewed the literatures of communication, attitude, and value similarity; value similarity was further explored in the hopes that it would increase our understanding of relationship satisfaction. In order to better understand the relationship quality of romantic dyads the value perspectives of the self, the partner, and an ideal partner were obtained from each individual. The study of these perspectives also increased our knowledge of mate selection and perceptions of identity.

Similarity

Newcomb (1956) conducted ground-breaking work in attraction between college students who were selected to live together for one semester. As part of a longitudinal study, participants were periodically administered questionnaires which assessed personal attitudes and preferential liking. Results showed that stronger attraction correlated with the perception of agreement concerning personally relevant issues. This observation, that perceived agreement was stronger than actual agreement, has proven to be a consistent predictor of attraction. Thus Newcomb suggested his AB—X model in which actual similarity (A) should lead to perceived similarity (B) and then to attraction (X). Curry & Kenny (1974) have argued that this system maintained cognitive balance among the three constructs as interdependent variables, creating an interactive relationship.

Byrne (1971) further suggested a method, a hypothesis, and a model for studying similarity. Methodologically, Byrne used the *bogus-stranger* situation where participants were given a list of attitudes on a variety of issues that either matched or differed from the participant's own attitudes. Based on the perception of similarity or dissimilarity, the participants then rated their level of attraction to the bogus stranger. Thus, Byrne suggested the similarity-attraction hypothesis; people who exhibit greater similarity were more attracted to each other (Byrne, Ervin, & Lamberth, 1970). This finding was explained by the reinforcement model which held that the discovery that someone else shared one's attitudes was reinforcing (Byrne & Clore, 1970).

DeWolfe and Jackson (1984) found support for the reinforcement model by exposing participants to similar or dissimilar others who made arguments regarding serious social concerns, e.g. capital punishment. Results showed that those who were

perceived as being more similar in attitude received more positive reports. Thus if a participant who believed that capital punishment was unnecessary was exposed to an individual who held the same belief, it was reinforcing to him/her. In addition, it was shown that reinforcement was enhanced when the other reasoned from a stronger moral or principled position. For example, if an individual argued that capital punishment was justified because in taking a life they forfeited their own, this would be perceived as more reinforcing than simply arguing that criminals “get what they deserve.”

Much of the relevant research in similarity has involved either strangers or friendships in initial stages (Newcomb, 1956, Byrne, 1971, Byrne & Clore, 1970), but a second body of work developed involving the measurement of similarity in existing relationships. One of the first areas of research in this regard involved personality similarity. For example, Terman and Bottenweiser (1935) assessed various aspects of personality and found that couples who similarly reported lower neuroticism also reported being happier. Research into personality similarity has continued and more recently, Caspi and Herbener (1990) found that being married to a similar other encouraged constancy in the intraindividual organization of personality attributes throughout middle age, demonstrating stability across time. Thus a spouse who is similar in personality will reinforce their partner’s personality.

With respect to similarity, researchers have tested a variety of constructs ranging from personality to demographics, e.g. socioeconomic status (Terman & Bottenweiser, 1935; Zamsky, 1997). Typical results suggest that similarity among friends, family, and romantic dyads was a contributing factor in attraction in those kinds of relationships. Similarity has also been shown to predict satisfaction, or the quality of relationships, with

the most significant predictors of satisfaction between dyadic participants being the following: communication, attitudes, and values. However, the relationship of similarity to satisfaction has been shown to depend partially on how similarity was defined and measured (Hebb, 2005). Perceived similarity has been defined as the degree to which an individual assumes similarity with another concerning a construct, e.g. values. By contrast, actual similarity has been defined as the degree to which the individuals are genuinely similar. Although both significantly predict satisfaction in relationships, perceived similarity typically accounts for greater variance in satisfaction. Therefore similarity in communications, attitudes, and values has often been studied by comparing actual and perceived similarity and their effect on relationship satisfaction (Byrne & Blaylock, 1963; Curry & Kenny, 1974; Grau & Bierhoff, 1998; Hebb, 2005).

Communication Similarity

There has been difficulty operationalizing aspects of communication, such as motivations, skills, and behaviors. However, Burleson and Denton (1997) provided the following definitions that have helped to clarify what communication entails.

Communication ‘motivation’ refers to the person’s intentions and goals-to what the person wants to do or is trying to do. Motivations may be either positive or negative with respect to others.... ‘Communication skill’ refers to the ability or capacity to realize communicative goals during the course of an interaction.

Communication skills are acquired abilities that involve using various interpretive and symbolic resources in the effort to achieve certain social outcomes....

‘Communication behavior’ refers to the verbal and non-verbal actions that the speaker actually emits and that are observable by others. (p. 887)

Because they may be more easily observed and quantified more research has been conducted on communication behaviors and skills.

Cappella and Palmer (1990) noted that an important influence on the similarity of communication behaviors was the stage and type of a relationship, e.g. early friendship, late courtship. Mas, Alexander, & Turner (1991) assessed the communication behaviors of delinquent adolescents from both low and high-conflict families and found increased verbal defensiveness in delinquents who shared high-conflict backgrounds. Holtzworth-Munroe, Smutzler, & Stuart (1998) studied distressed couples who were similar because of a violent and distressed husband and found increased male demand-female withdraw, mutual blame, and avoidance as well as decreased constructive communication behaviors.

Burleson (1994) studied existing friendships among children and found similar communication skills in both the expression and control of emotions. Children were also shown to be more attracted to peers who exhibited similar social skills. Similar communication skills influenced conversational satisfaction, e.g. enhancing the simple joy of talking by being more alike (see also Burleson & Samter, 1996; Cappella & Palmer, 1990). Roommates who reported similarity in increased desire or willingness to communicate, higher competency in interpersonal communication, and lower verbal aggressiveness also reported greater satisfaction and liking of each other (Martin & Anderson, 1995).

Brink (1977) showed that even a simple attempt at a conversation enhances attraction. Using the bogus-stranger situation for a control group and actual conversation for the experimental group, interpersonal attraction was enhanced even for participants

who disagreed with each other as long as actual conversations took place. When the participants were only allowed to present written arguments, it did not result in increased attraction. Interestingly, Cappella and Palmer (1990) showed that both verbal and non-verbal behaviors can have mediating effects on the perception of similarity that either increase or decrease attraction.

Burleson and Samter (1996) also studied the role of similarity in specific communication skills among friendship pairs. Specifically, skills such as comforting, conflict management, celebration, and encouragement were modest predictors of attraction as well as relational satisfaction. The authors suggested that it was the ability to discuss emotions, plans, dreams, and concerns using similar communication skills as well as a similar level of skill that enhanced attraction and the development of friendships. Waldron and Applegate (1998) suggested that communication skills assist in the formation of attraction and showed that similarity in persuasive tactics increased partner attractiveness and satisfaction. It is possible that attraction was increased because the similarity facilitated agreement in communication. Burleson and Denton (1992) showed that non-distressed, satisfied couples were more similar in their level of communication skills and effectiveness than distressed couples or randomly generated couples. It was suggested that attraction was enhanced because of the enjoyable interactions encouraged by similar communication skills.

Communication, and specifically communication skills, has been shown to significantly correlate with relationship satisfaction in friendships (Burleson & Samter, 1996), roommates (Martin & Anderson, 1995), and romantic dyads (Burleson & Denton,

1992). As mentioned previously, however, communication is only one of three similarity constructs that significantly predict satisfaction.

Attitude Similarity

An attitude has been defined as “a belief and feeling that can predispose our response to something or someone” (Meyers, 2007, p. 101). In order to assess the relevance of attitude similarity for interpersonal attraction, Byrne (1971) created an attitude scale. The 56-item Likert-type scale assessed opinions on issues ranging from political to religious to the military draft, reflecting the social conditions at the time of its creation. Researchers who have subsequently employed the scale often adapted it to include temporally-relevant issues (Hendrick, 1981; Yaffee, 2002).

Byrne (1971) studied attitude similarity and found that it was the degree of similarity that positively and significantly affected interpersonal attraction within a dyad; conversely, the degree of dissimilarity resulted in decreased attraction. Rosenbaum (1986) noted that attitude dissimilarity has the “potential” to result in repulsion, with greater degrees of dissimilarity correlating with greater repulsion. Byrne’s (1971) “bogus-stranger” situation has shown that an individual need not be physically present to be “attractive”, but simply perceived as similar. Greater degrees of similarity in attitudes have been shown to significantly predict greater attraction (Perkins, 1977).

Since Byrne’s pioneering work, studies of attitude similarity have been wide-ranging, involving a variety of interpersonal contexts such as athletic teams (Lancaster, Royal, & Whiteside, 1995), parent-child relationships (Starrels, 1992), and romantic dyads (Grau & Bierhoff, 1998). These studies have been primarily focused on interpersonal relationships, which may be classified as group or dyadic.

Group attitude similarity. In order to examine group attitude similarity, social circles of increasing interpersonal closeness have been identified for individuals interacting with members of a group. For example, on the outer edges of interpersonal closeness have been such relationships as team memberships. Lancaster et al. (1995) evaluated high school athletes' attitude similarity and desire to join a hypothetical college team; increased attitude similarity with the team was significantly correlated with greater desire to join. In a slightly closer circle, relationships with college classmates were examined by LaGaipa and Werner (1971) where it was shown that it was higher levels of attitude similarity, that best predicted liking, attraction, and a desire to become friends.

Even closer relationships such as close friends and kinships were examined by Parks and Schaller (2004) whose data suggested that attitude similarity may have served as a cognitive heuristic for "kinship selection"; participants were attracted to attitudinally similar others in a magnitude primarily associated with family. Thus close friends were often viewed as "extended family" because of the similarity in attitudes. At the innermost circle of group memberships would be relationships within the family. For instance, the intergenerational "passing" of attitudes has included elders such as parents, guardians, or siblings and has been shown to instill certain modes of behavior and belief systems into younger generations. Data on transmission of attitudes have been supported by Starrels (1992) where single mothers' attitudes toward their own employment best predicted their adolescents' attitudes toward maternal employment as opposed to parent-children closeness or nurturance. However, these results should be interpreted cautiously because parents are the primary formative influences on children and thus the measure of similarity may have been confounded.

Satisfaction. Less research has been conducted in the realm of individual satisfaction with group relationships. Nonetheless, Castore and Murnighan (1978) have shown that individual satisfaction with group decisions was influenced by attitude similarity, although it was mediated by the magnitude of agreement necessary within the group, e.g. majority versus unanimous. Majority decisions tended to result in greater satisfaction with the group. Attitude similarity has also been shown to positively increase the effectiveness of small group communication outcomes and subsequently satisfaction (Elliott, 1974).

Dyadic attitude similarity. Within dyads, attitude similarity studies may be organized into friendship, sibling, parent-child, and romantic dyads. Friendships have been shown to exert enormous influence in children as young as seven or eight years old where it has been shown that attitudinal similarity is strongest in same-sex friendships; even extending to similar sexual prejudice (Erwin, 1985). This sexual prejudice was evident in that boys preferred the company of other boys over members of the opposite sex, and vice versa. McGlothlin & Killen (2005) have shown that, among children, perceptions of racial attitude similarity, as well as the likelihood of having inter-racial friendships, were influenced by the amount of inter-racial contact children have had, especially in school settings. The more a child has been exposed to inter-racial encounters, the more similar their racial attitudes became to members of that race and the more likely they were to have inter-racial friendships.

Within sibling dyads, similar attitudes toward leisure such as enjoying the same games have been reported (Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2000). This was possibly due to exposure to the same home environment. Rowe (1983) studied siblings' perceived

restrictiveness or permissiveness of the home environment and found similar attitudes. For example, siblings tended to hold the same negative attitude when they perceived their environment as restrictive. Numerous studies have involved parent- child attitude similarity and its relation to such concepts as: perceptions of child-rearing behavior (Lanz, Scabini, Vermulst, & Gerris, 2001), the application of religiosity (Clark, Worthington, & Danser, 1988), and attitudes toward romantic love (Inman-Amos et al., 1994).

Romantic dyads have been traditionally comprised of dating, co-habiting, and married couples; generally the stronger the similarity, the longer the relationship has been shown to last (Medling & McCarrey, 1981). Medling and McCarrey (1981) reported a highly significant statistical relationship of attitude similarity and longevity of relationships. Grau and Bierhoff (1998) demonstrated that attitude similarity regarding commitment and romantic love predicted the stability of the dyadic relationship. Similar results have been found even in individuals who have been divorced and remarried; couples who reported greater attitude similarity also reported greater happiness (Pasley, Ihinger, & Coleman, 1984). Buunk and Boseman (1986) demonstrated that, although couples may perceive a substantial degree of similarity in attitudes, such similarity need not exist in reality. Whether actual similarity is present or not, perceived similarity has been demonstrated even in such difficult situations as couples' infidelity.

Satisfaction. To examine dyadic satisfaction, researchers have studied the relationships of mentor-protégé, friendship, parent-child, and romantic partners. Mentor-protégé interpersonal satisfaction, as studied by Ensher et al. (2002), demonstrated that perceived attitudinal similarity was a stronger predictor of protégé satisfaction with their

mentors than was demographic similarity. Mentor satisfaction has also been shown to correlate with perceived attitudinal similarity independent of gender (Schappell, 1990).

Erwin (1985) studied childhood friendships and found that attitude similarity and satisfaction were stronger in existing dyads and were not influenced by sex differences. However, occasionally influences have had a negative effect on satisfaction. Under circumstances where friendship dyads with high attitude similarity were forced into social comparison, satisfaction actually decreases (Gasiorek, 1989), e.g. the participant was told that they scored higher or lower than their friend which resulted in decreased satisfaction. This result was significant even when compared to participants who exhibited middle levels of similarity.

The transmission of attitudes from parent to child has been shown to affect satisfaction. Adolescents who were encouraged to be involved with family decision-making, have shown marked attitude similarity and subsequently satisfaction with parents even six years later (Brody, Moore, & Gleib, 1994). However, it has also been shown that parental transmission of attitudes did not occur in relation to love attitudes (Inman-Amos, 1994). In fact, decreased satisfaction was reported when attempts to transmit failed.

For married couples, attitude similarity has been found to predict couple marital satisfaction (Luo, 2005); greater similarity predicted greater satisfaction. Couple satisfaction has been found to be influenced by attitude similarity in religious orientation as well (Craddock, 1991). Grau and Bierhoff (1998) assessed couples' attitude similarity and found that it predicted satisfaction a year later, demonstrating stability over time. However, gender differences have been observed where only husbands showed the expected connection between similarity and marital satisfaction (Sano, 2002).

Research in attitude similarity has included many facets of perception and multiple relationships. Attitude similarity has predicted satisfaction in working groups (Elliott, 1974), mentor-protégé relationships (Ensher et al., 2002), friendships (Erwin, 1985), parent-child dyads (Brody et al., 1994), and romantic dyads (Craddock, 1991; Gaunt, 2006). In addition, across relationship type, the following attitudes have emerged as specific significant predictors of satisfaction: attitudes toward communication (Plechaty, 1987), attitudes toward love (Hendrick, 1981), attitude toward women/gender roles (Aube & Koestner, 1995), and traditional versus egalitarian family roles (Walker, 1983).

Value Similarity

The study of value similarity began in the research of interpersonal attraction, mostly from the foundational work of Milton Rokeach (1973). Values have been defined as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence,” (Rokeach, p. 5). One of the earliest values measures, the Rokeach Value Survey, sought to refine this definition by using a rank-ordering system of two separate types of values: terminal and instrumental. Traditionally, terminal values have been referenced as end-states, e.g. world peace, salvation, freedom; instrumental values have been modes of conduct, e.g. honest, humorous, clean. Many values scales have since been modeled on Rokeach’s work (Gendre, Dupont, & Schwartz, 1992) and thus this definition of values has been deemed as acceptable for the current proposed study. Research involving value similarity has explored interpersonal relationships and thus can be separated into group and dyadic subdivisions.

Group value similarity. Although there have been studies involving group value similarity such as that found in working environments, there has been little research involving other types of groups, e.g. athletic teams. Nonetheless, Schultz (2004) has shown that leader-group value similarity predicted performance when the values of the leader strongly correlated with the values associated with the organization. Research has also shown that when an individual perceived similarity in values with another member of the group, that perception occasionally operated as a negative influence. For instance, when participants were exposed to perceptions of similarity with group members who “failed to perform” on a verbal task, then satisfaction decreased (Stephan & Beane, 1978). Thus group memberships can facilitate both perceptions of success or satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction in an individual.

Satisfaction. Studies which addressed group satisfaction focused on the work place (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996; Lukowski, 2004; Meglino et al., 1991). Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins (1989) studied the actual and perceived value similarity among workers, supervisors, and managers and then assessed both job and social satisfaction. Results showed that higher perceived value similarity better predicted increased job and social satisfaction than actual similarity, although both predicted satisfaction. Lukowski (2004) found similar results and added that higher actual and perceived similarity had been found to influence “life” satisfaction demonstrating that job value similarity can influence not only satisfaction with work but overall satisfaction.

Dyadic value similarity. With respect to dyads, research has examined the role of value similarity for mentor-protégé, friend, parent-child, and romantic couples. In a study by Ortiz and Gilson (2005) it was shown that mentoring outcomes, such as protégé

performance, were influenced by value similarity and were mediated by interpersonal comfort with, and commitment to, the mentor. Precker (1952) has studied the relationship between advisors and students and found that communication of similar values was an important component of leadership effectiveness and student satisfaction.

Research by Precker (1952) has shown friendship selection to be based on the degree of value similarity; reciprocal choices influenced the strength of value similarity. This implied that the mutual choice to pursue friendship may act as a reinforcer for value similarity. Lea and Duck (1982) hypothesized that friendship development was linked to not only the degree of value similarity in a dyad, but also to its uniqueness, such as rare talents.

Another dyad of interest has been parents and children, especially in relation to the transmission of values. Whitbeck and Gecas (1988) reported that the strongest predictor of the intergenerational transmission of values was the child's accurate perception of the parent's socialization values. Boehnke, Hadjar, and Baier (2007) have shown that value transmission best occurred when parents and children were unfamiliar with the zeitgeist of their particular society. Therefore children who accepted the values of their generation were less likely to accept their parents' values.

In studying married couples, Roest, et al (2006) hypothesized that value transmission between spouses was influenced by similarity in social positions, such as status or power, and that transmission would take place over time. However, the results indicated that similarity in social positions was not significant, but that transmission over time contained a dynamic component. Transmission occurred most frequently when both spouses felt they could transmit values. Skaldeman and Montgomery (1999) found that

married couples reported greater perceived value similarity than divorcees. When couples who had exhibited perceived value similarity divorced they indicated that their value systems then developed in directions different from their former spouses.

Satisfaction. Within dyadic satisfaction, the value similarity of counselors, friends, family members, and romantic partners has been studied. The overall level of communication effectiveness was studied as the ability to transmit information in an understandable format to an audience and was shown to be influenced by value similarity within the supervisor-counselor relationship where higher value similarity increased effectiveness (Lemons, 1974). Fraga (2003) has shown that the cultural value similarity of Hispanic clients and counselors was a better predictor of satisfaction than ethnic similarity.

Hill and Stull (1981) studied the values of same-sex friendships over time where data showed a significant gender difference. Only among women who chose their roommates and were friends apriori did value similarity appear as an important component of the friendship. These friendship dyads also reported higher self-disclosure, greater closeness, greater likelihood of future contact, more time spent interacting, and greater liking and satisfaction with the other member of the dyad. Among friends, Hebb (2005) demonstrated that perceived value similarity predicted female satisfaction regardless of the gender composition of the friendship dyad.

An interesting study of sibling value similarity was conducted by Dorfman and Mertens (1990). The authors recruited retired siblings and found that value similarity with the sibling closest in age significantly predicted overall “life” satisfaction as well as “family” satisfaction. This effect was shown to be influenced by distance and frequency

of contact as well, which suggested that maintenance of value similarity may require interpersonal contact. Norris, Kuiack, & Pratt (2004) studied value transmission from grandparent to grandchild through the process of storytelling and found it to be a process that not only maintained relationships between generations, but that correlated with increased satisfaction.

Between spouses, value similarity was found to only weakly co-vary with marital adjustment early in marriage; however, it functioned as a significant correlate later in marriage (Medling & McCarrey, 1981). Results also indicated that higher value similarity correlated with the fulfillment of the partner's social and role needs, i.e. caretaker role for women. Hebb (2005) evaluated the value similarity and relationship satisfaction of romantic dyads using the Rokeach Value Survey and surprisingly found that actual similarity outperformed perceived similarity as a predictor of satisfaction for both terminal and instrumental values. Instrumental values were also found to be more strongly correlated with satisfaction than terminal values. These findings indicate that the satisfaction of romantic dyads may be significantly predicted by similar values. Thus value similarity has demonstrated a significant positive effect on satisfaction in the workplace, e.g. co-workers (Adkins et al., 1996), supervisors and counselors (Lemons, 1974), friends (Hill, & Stull, 1981), family members (Dorfman & Martens, 1990; Norris, Kuiack, & Pratt, 2004), as well as romantic dyads (Hebb, 2005; Hurley, 2003).

As previously mentioned, values can be transmitted from one generation to the next, often from parent to child (Whitbeck and Gecas, 1988), but also transmitted between spouses, although in a more dynamic and symbiotic fashion (Roest, et al 2006). This transmission implies a formative process between partners that could be construed

as identity work, or at the least an influence on identity formation and maintenance. Indeed, the work of Roest et al (2006) has commonalities with the work of Drigotas, Rusbult, Wieslquist, and Whitton (1999) who hypothesized that spouses or close partners “sculpt” each other’s identity through not only their behavior, but their perceptions. Their results showed that partner affirmation encouraged self-movement toward the ideal self. The belief of a significant other, that one could become what one wished to be, motivated the individual to actively become their ideal, a process the authors referred to as the “Michelangelo phenomenon.” Drigotas (2002) continued exploring the Michelangelo phenomenon and demonstrated a link to personal well-being and a correlation with satisfaction. Thus investigations of ideal conceptions have primarily explored the perspectives of ideal selves and ideal mates as well as their relationship to numerous constructs.

The Ideal Self and the Ideal Mate

Czaja (1975) explored the relationship of age, self to ideal self, and life satisfaction across six cohorts ranging from ages twenty to seventy-five. Results showed that with increasing age, the correlation between self and ideal self increased and subsequently correlated with higher life satisfaction. This was reasonable as an individual would most likely be pleased at approaching their own ideal. The converse was also tested; greater discrepancy between self and ideal self was associated with lower life satisfaction. Diverse research has continued in this field (Bargh, McKenna, & Fitzsimmons, 2002; Helson, Stewart, & Ostrove, 1995; Hitlin, 2003; Howard, 2000) and studies have expanded to include the construct of the ideal partner or mate (Acetelli, Kelly, & Weiner, 2001; Mangus, 1936; Williamson, 1965).

Conceptions of the ideal partner have been explored in relation to stability, gender, personality, and even satisfaction. Acetelli, Kelly, and Weiner (2001) conducted a study of dyadic perception of the ideal marriage and the ability to perceive from the partner's perspective. Results indicated that actual similarity was not influenced by the passage of time, implying a stable component. They also found that understanding one's partner was not nearly as predictive of satisfaction as agreeing on what was important to their ideal of marriage.

Gender differences are readily apparent in perceptions of the ideal partner. Williamson (1965) found that perceptions of the ideal mate are more influenced by gender than by class or religion. Women were shown to be more exacting in what they perceived would constitute an ideal mate than were men. For instance, women desired economic stability, intelligence, a desire for family, status, etc, at significantly higher levels than men. Men exhibited significance only in physical attractiveness and a preference for mates who were closer in age. Mangus (1936) found that college women's ideal husband was mostly modeled from their current male friends rather than their fathers, as the author originally posited. Murstein (1971) investigated marital choice of a partner as a function of self-acceptance, which was defined as higher agreement between perceptions of the actual self and ideal self. Results showed a gender effect where male and female choice of a partner was influenced by actual similarity of self-acceptance, but female choice was also strongly influenced by perceived similarity.

Regan (1998) studied the willingness to settle, defined as the minimum standard, participants would accept regarding two ideals: the ideal casual-sex partner and the ideal romantic long-term partner. Interestingly, both genders were unwilling to compromise

the physical attractiveness of their ideal casual sex partners or to compromise the interpersonal warmth, responsiveness, sense of humor, or social skills of their ideal romantic partner. Women were willing to compromise on physical attractiveness for romantic partners whereas men were more willing to accept casual sex partners from a broader age range. Results also showed that women's perception of their own value as a potential partner, casual or romantic, positively correlated with their standards of an ideal partner, demonstrating a preference for similarity. Cramer & Schaeffer (1996) tested gender differences in ideal mate selection using mating strategies. Men tended to assign more value to traits signaling reproductive ability, such as attractive or young. Women tended to assign more value to resource capacity, such as earning potential or education. When attraction/fertility and resource potential were controlled for, then perceptions of ideal for both genders converged on such traits as intelligent, motivated, and loyal.

Udry (1965) presented a summary of the literature findings on ideal mate perceptions and offered two sources: shared cultural images and personality needs. The author then suggested that shared cultural images were a less likely source given the enormous individual variation in ideal mate preferences. He studied perceptions of engaged couples concerning ideal mates and compared them with the perceptions of unengaged singles who were matched on personality variables. Results showed that for men and women the correlations between the self and ideal mate were significantly different from the correlations between the self and the actual mate. These findings suggested that actual mate selection had no significant relationship with ideal perceptions. Similar results were obtained by Klohnen and Mendelsohn (1998) who added that for both males and females, couple similarity in personality was positively

correlated to self-liking, e.g. satisfaction with the self, closer self-ideal self-perception. The authors suggested that the tendency to view one's partner as similar to one's ideal self could function as a protective or coping mechanism in response to the realization that compromises are necessary when selecting a mate. These studies argue against perceptions of the ideal as predictive of mate selection suggesting that the relationship of perception and choice may be more complex than originally hypothesized.

Karp, Jackson, & Lester (1970) studied engaged women and posited that mate selection would be influenced by two factors: first, the majority of personality traits would be homogamous, matching the mate to the self. Second, when the actual self was different from the ideal self, then the mate would be viewed as favoring the ideal self; results supported both hypotheses. An interesting question raised by the authors concerned whether an individual chose a mate and then adjusted their ideal perceptions to match the mate or whether he or she selected a mate based on the perceived goodness-of-fit to the ideal self. Meyer & Pepper (1977) studied the personality needs of young married couples concerning self, ideal self, spouse, and ideal spouse. All couples exhibited similarity in their ideal ratings; however, well-adjusted couples displayed greater similarity in self and spouse ratings. The personality needs of affiliation, aggression, autonomy, and nurturance demonstrated the highest significance for well-adjusted couples. The authors suggested that actual similarity of needs was a better predictor of marital adjustment than the similarity of ideal ratings. A gender difference was found by Sharan (1978) where women reported more stringent requirements for an ideal mate when asked to rate the essential personality traits of an ideal man. The author noted that this result might have been due to the higher ethical standards that women are

expected to uphold. However, Rytting, Ware, & Hopkins (1992) had participants select the personality type of their ideal mate. Male and female participants chose personality types that were extraverted, decisive, and trusted their feelings, demonstrating a significant similarity in preference for the ideal mate.

Murstein and Beck (1972) studied marital adjustment, e.g. satisfaction, in young married couples and found that the perceived similarity of an individual's ideal self to their ideal spouse for both husbands and wives was significantly related to marital adjustment. However, there was no significant relationship between the actual similarity of the husbands' and wives' ideal selves and marital adjustment. Drigotas (2002) studied dating couples over time to find that partners influenced the perception of the ideal for each other, even to the point of encouraging actions to fulfill the ideal by affirming the partner's ideal, which increased satisfaction.

Thus the literature involving ideal selves and ideal mates has produced mixed results with various studies showing significant relationships and others demonstrating a lack of significance. A possible explanation for this phenomenon might be that gender was exerting an influence or perceived similarity could have outperformed actual similarity. Therefore the actual similarity of ideal selves could have little to no impact, but the perception of similarity to an ideal could be as much of a formative influence (Karp, Jackson, & Lester, 1970) on ideal perceptions as it has also been on interpersonal satisfaction (Murstein & Beck, 1972).

Relationship Quality

The relationship quality or overall happiness, of a relationship can be measured from multiple perspectives. A well researched perspective has been satisfaction.

Satisfaction can be viewed as a measure of the success of a relationship, especially since the lack of satisfaction has been reported as a cause of failure in a relationship (Levinger, 1966). Participants can be observed by researchers and assessed on satisfied behaviors such as relaxed posture, engaged attention, animated speech, and smiling (Cappella & Palmer, 1992). Questionnaires can be given that pointedly ask participants to report whether they are satisfied or to rate their satisfaction (Hendrick, 1988). Relationship quality can also be assessed for each gender or a dyad through the self-report of the fulfillment of various needs such as intimacy, trust, and social provisions.

Intimacy has been defined as an affectionate closeness or ability to self-disclose that can encompass mental, emotional, or physical aspects (Hegelson, Shaver, & Dyer, 1987). An individual can be satisfied with a relationship without being intimate and vice versa, but it is assumed that greater satisfaction occurs when both are present. Intimacy has been found to significantly correlate with satisfaction in friendships (Hobfoll, Nadler, & Liberman, 1986) as well as marital dyads (Tolstedt & Stokes, 1983).

Trust, or confidence in another's character or abilities, has been considered an integral component of the formation and maintenance of relationships (Couch, Adams, & Jones, 1996). Trust has been shown to be an integral component in communication (Mellinger, 1956) and its lack, such as infidelity, has been shown to lead to dissatisfaction and divorce (Young, Griffin-Shelley, Cooper, O'Mara, & Buchanan, 2000). It has been found to be significantly related to satisfaction in such diverse relationships as ice skating partners (Walin, 2002) and marriages (Korinek, 2001).

Maslow (1970) posited in his hierarchy of needs that one of the important steps toward a fulfilled and satisfied life was to have a sense of belonging. In this regard,

Weiss (1974) has proposed that there are six social provisions that may be satisfied by engaging in a relationship. These were attachment, reliable alliance, integration, guidance, reassurance of worth, and opportunity for nurturance. Attachment was defined as an emotional tie that provides a sense of safety and can extend to sexual ties. Reliable alliance was described as the sense that the other can be trusted to provide help as needed. Integration was shown by a shared sense of friendship, e.g. likes/dislikes, values, attitudes, or activities; whereas guidance was described as the ability to provide advice as needed. Reassurance of worth was identified as the sense that the other sees the individual as valuable and capable. The opportunity for nurturance was identified as a sense that the other is in need of the individual's care and support. These provisions can be met, and are often met, by more than one individual; indeed it might even take an entire social network. Cutrona and Russell (1987) found individuals experienced greater stress if fewer social provisions were being met and Cutrona (2004) even suggested that perhaps marriages were broken as a result of a lack of the fulfillment of social provisions for an individual or both members of the dyad.

The study of satisfaction has been of interest to researchers in domains as diverse as the workplace where happy individuals exhibit better work performance (Shore & Martin, 1989) and dating relationships where individuals professed a stronger sense of commitment to a significant other (Melcher, 1989). Research has explored a multitude of constructs that influence interpersonal satisfaction and similarity has been a consistently significant correlate; of the multitude of categories within similarity the best predictors have been communication skills, attitudes, and values.

Supportive Analyses

The author of the current proposed study performed two sets of analyses while exploring similarity and its relationship to satisfaction. First, a correlational study was performed to determine which of several constructs best predicted relationship quality. Constructs included trust, social provisions, communication skill similarity, and intimacy and all variables correlated significantly at the $p < .05$ level. However, after performing a step-wise regression it was shown that communication skill similarity did not contribute as significantly; other constructs such as partner trust (.43) and attachment (.44) were the most significant. This demonstrated that while similarity in communication skill was a significant predictor of satisfaction, it was not the best predictor. Second, a meta-analysis was performed to determine whether attitude similarity or value similarity best predicted satisfaction. Although attitude similarity slightly outperformed value similarity (.17 vs. .13 respectively), the attitude measures and definitions used were diverse and it was difficult to select a measure that would consistently predict satisfaction and might be applicable to the current study. Results also showed that attitude similarity exhibited no gender difference $t(33) = 1.01, p = .32$; whereas value similarity significantly showed a gender effect, $t(32) = 2.15, p < .05$. This would seem to indicate that measures of value similarity are more sensitive to gender differences than attitude similarity scales. In addition, the Rokeach Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973) was a consistently significant predictor of satisfaction (.09, $p < .01$) and therefore a measure that might be used for the current study.

Thus the literature and supportive analyses have established a relationship between value similarity and interpersonal satisfaction in various types of relationships,

including romantic dyads (Hebb, 2005). This study continued the examination of the value similarity of romantic dyads with a focus specifically on the perceptions of the values of the ideal partner. For example, the relationships of the values of the self to the ideal partner as well as an individual's perception of their partner with their ideal partner were explored. Further, whether a similarity existed in romantic couples' preference for an ideal mate was investigated. Finally gender differences in value similarity were assessed in the examination of a relationship to not only individual and couple satisfaction, but to other measures of relationship quality such as intimacy, trust, and social provisions.

CHAPTER 2

Method

Research has shown similarity, specifically the similarity of values, to be a significant influence on the satisfaction of romantic relationships (Curry & Kenny, 1974; Gaunt, 2006, Hebb, 2005). Research has also demonstrated that value similarity may be operationalized in different ways. Common examples have been actual similarity, i.e. the dyadic congruency of values between two relationship partners, and perceived similarity, i.e. the congruency between one person's ratings of the partner's values with their own values. Actual and perceived similarity have been shown to significantly predict relationship satisfaction in romantic dyads (Hebb, 2005); however, the predictability of other definitions of similarity with interpersonal satisfaction have yet to be explored. The current study addressed this omission in the literature as well as provided the opportunity to replicate previous findings with respect to the relationships of actual and perceived similarity with satisfaction and other measures of relationship quality.

Procedure

Information regarding participation was presented in several undergraduate psychology classes through verbal announcements and was made available through the Human Participation in Research website. Research was conducted at a laboratory of the University of Tennessee where researchers had prepared questionnaires for participants. Researchers explained the study, distributed the questionnaire, answered questions, and oversaw each session.

Participants

Participants were college students and members of heterosexual romantic dyads, i.e. dating, engaged, or married. Students who participated were awarded nominal course credit. Participants were asked to come as a couple to a laboratory where the researcher gave detailed instructions regarding the procedure as well as answered any pertinent questions. Both members of the couple were asked to complete identical questionnaires containing biographical questions and various measures. Also, they were asked to refrain from discussion with each other until the questionnaires were returned and the session was completed. Informed consent was obtained from all participants (see Appendix A). The sample consisted of 83 heterosexual couples, yielding a total of 166 participants. Ages for men ranged from 18 to 30, with 80% being between 18 and 21 ($M = 20.73$, $SD = 2.83$). Ages for women ranged from 18 to 35, with 88% being between 18 and 21 ($M = 19.78$, $SD = 2.42$). Among male participants 85.5% reported their ethnicity as Caucasian/White; 6% as African-American; 2.4% as Hispanic; 2.4% as Asian; and 2.4% as Other. Among female participants 86.2% reported their ethnicity as Caucasian/White; 5% as African-American; 1.2% as Hispanic; 5% as Asian; and 2.5% as Other (see Table B1).

The college classification of men was 25.9% freshman; 29.6% sophomores; 21% juniors; 7.4% seniors; and 16% graduates. Women were 41% freshman; 27.7% sophomores; 10.8% juniors; 14.5% seniors; 4.8% already graduates; and 1.2% did not respond. Men reported their relationship type as 8.6% dating; 80.2% boyfriend/

girlfriend; 6.2% engaged; 2.5% married; and 2.5% other. Women reported their relationship type as 8.6% dating; 79% boyfriend/girlfriend; 6.2% engaged; 2.5% married; and 2.5% other. Thus approximately 85% of couples were dating or boyfriend/girlfriend.

Length of relationship ranged from 1 month to 8.5 years. Eighty percent of female participants reported that their relationship had lasted less than 26 months, whereas 80% of male participants reported that their relationship had lasted less than 25 months. Thirty-six men, 43.4%, reported having thought about ending the relationships as compared to 27 women, 32.5%. Twelve men and twelve women, 14.5%, reported that they were cohabitating.

Questionnaire

Each questionnaire included biographic questions, multiple versions of the Rokeach Value Survey, (Rokeach, 1973), and measures of relationship quality which took participants approximately 30 minutes to complete. Biographical questions included age, sex, classification, ethnicity, relationship type, length of relationship, whether they had thought of ending the relationship, and whether they were co-habitating.

Respondents were asked to complete the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) from each of three perspectives. Specifically, participants were asked to rate themselves, their partner, and their ideal partner on the items of the RVS. The perspectives were counterbalanced to control for order effects. The correspondences among these perspectives were used to operationalize similarity in the present study as discussed below. Finally respondents were asked to complete the Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, 1988), the Inclusion of Other in Self (Aron, Aron, & Smollen, 1992), the Social Provisions Scale

(Cutrona & Russell, 1984, Weiss, 1974) and the Trust Inventory (Couch, Adams, & Jones, 1996) to assess relationship quality.

Value Measure and Operationalized Variables

Rokeach Value Survey. The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) developed by Milton Rokeach (1973) consisted of 36 items divided into two separate types of values: terminal and instrumental. Terminal values refer to end-states, e.g. a world at peace, whereas instrumental values reference modes of conduct, e.g. honesty. Items were rank ordered in terms of importance within each domain of values. The RVS has been used with adults rather than children on the assumption that values have not had the opportunity to solidify until late adolescence. Among college students, alpha reliability has ranged from .78 to .80 for the 18 terminal values and .70 to .72 for the 18 instrumental values (*Mental Measurements Yearbook*, 2008) suggesting internal reliability. Extensive evidence has supported the validity of the RVS (e.g. Hebb, 2005; Thompson, Levitov, & Miederhoff, 1982).

Rokeach (1973) argued that terminal and instrumental values have been, “Functionally interconnected systems, wherein all the values concerning modes of behavior are instrumental to the attainment of all the values concerning end states....[but] The reliabilities of terminal value systems are without exception found to be higher than those obtained for instrumental value systems” (pp. 12, 326). Sikula (1970) further noted that the similarity of terminal values was indicative of interpersonal harmony. However, instrumental values, or modes of conduct, measured aspects of behavior whereas terminal values, or end states, measured beliefs. Subsequently, Rokeach raised the question that modes of conduct may be more susceptible to change than end states.

For these reasons, it was decided to focus exclusively on the terminal values subscale in this research.

Value Similarity and Congruence. For the present study, six relevant similarity/congruence variables were selected from the various pairwise combinations of the three RVS rankings. Four variables were dyadic whereas two were intraindividual, i.e. ratings correlated from the same individual. The dyadic variables were as follows: (a) *actual similarity*, i.e. the correlation of each participants' self-ranking with that of the partner; (b) *hypothetical similarity*, i.e. the correlation between each member of the dyad's ideal partner-ranking; (c) *ideal congruence*, i.e. the correlation of each participants' self-ranking with that of the partner's ideal partner-ranking; and (d) *rating accuracy*, i.e. the correlation of each participants' ranking of the partner with the partner's self-ranking. When the correlation reflected women's ranking of self and men's rankings of ideal partner it was termed *female ideal congruence* whereas the correlation of men's ranking of self with women's ranking of ideal partner was termed *male ideal congruence*. When the correlation reflected the correlation of women's ranking of partner with men's ranking of self was termed *female accuracy* whereas men's rankings of partner and women's ranking of self it was termed *male accuracy*. Thus these variables indexed the degree to which dyadic partners were actually similar in terminal values, the degree to which they converged in the values they ideally seek in a partner, and the degree to which their rankings of their partners' values were consistent with the partner's self view, respectively.

Two intraindividual variables were also assessed. First, *perceived similarity*, i.e. the correlation between each participant's self-ranking and their ranking of the partner's

values, reflected the degree to which participants viewed their own values and those of their partner as similar. Perceived similarity was calculated separately for men and women yielding *male* and *female perceived similarity*. Second, *ideal similarity*, the correlation between participants' rankings of partner's values and their ranking of the ideal partner values, indexed the degree to which participants perceive their current partner as embodying the order of values they viewed as ideal in a partner. Again, the variable was constructed for each gender yielding *female* and *male ideal similarity* (see Figures B1, B2, & B3).

Relationship Quality

Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS). Four instruments were used to assess interpersonal satisfaction or the quality of the relationship. Hendrick's RAS (1988), a 7-item, 5-point Likert-type scale, was designed to measure a subjective interpretation of a close or intimate relationship and thus has often been used as a measure of satisfaction. Internal reliability has ranged between .86 and .91 (Vaughn & Matyastik-Baier, 1999). Several studies support the validity of scale interpretations (Hebb, 2005; Inman-Amos, et al, 1994); scores have ranged between 5 and 35 with higher scores indicating greater satisfaction.

The Inclusion of Other in Self Scale (IOS). The IOS (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992), an instrument that has been used to reflect intimacy in dyadic relationships, consisted of sets of circles that progressed in seven stages from barely touching edges to almost complete overlap. Participants were asked to select the pair of circles that best identified their current relationship. This instrument has been primarily used as a measure of intimacy but the authors demonstrated that it also correlated significantly with

measures of relationship satisfaction. Alphas have ranged from .87 for within family dyads to .95 for romantic relationships when test-retest and alternate forms were used. Intimacy scores have ranged between 1 and 7 with higher scores indicating greater intimacy.

The Social Provisions Scale (SPS). The SPS (Cutrona & Russell, 1984), a 24-item, five-point Likert-type scale, was also administered to participants as a measure of satisfaction. This scale, composed of six subscales, measured qualities associated with interpersonal involvement. The subscales were: Reliable Alliance, Attachment, Guidance, Opportunity for Nurturance, Social Integration, and Reassurance of Worth. The total scale alpha has been .91 with subscale alphas ranging from .65 to .76 (Cutrona & Russell, 1987). Each subscale consisted of 4 items which produced a potential score of 20 for each subscale; higher scores indicating greater fulfillment of the social motive. Research has shown that being in a romantic dyad can significantly fulfill the social need of attachment (Weiss, 1974).

The Trust Inventory (TI). The TI (Couch, Adams, & Jones, 1996), a 40-item, 5 point Likert-type measure, was comprised of 2 subscales with twenty items each: *Global Trust*, a generalized tendency to trust people; and *Partner Trust*, trust for a specific person, usually a significant other. The Global Trust subscale has exhibited an internal reliability of .91 and the Partner Trust subscale has exhibited an alpha of .92. Although both global and partner trust may have an effect, Couch et al (1996) demonstrated that partner trust was the better predictor of dyadic relationship satisfaction. Potential scores have ranged from 20 to 100 for each subscale, with higher scores indicating greater trust.

Hypotheses

On the basis of previous research (Hebb 2005, Gaunt, 2006) it was expected that both actual similarity and perceived similarity would be directly related to the various indicators of relationship quality. Also on the basis of previous research (Hebb, 2005, Yaffee, 2002) it was expected that perceived similarity would be more strongly related to relationship quality than actual similarity. Previous research (Sharan, 1978) also supported the expectation that greater hypothetical similarity would be more strongly related to relationship quality than actual congruence in a manner following the actual and perceived similarity distinction. Finally, although the literature does not provide a specific hypothesis, it was logical to expect that greater rating accuracy, or actual knowledge, of one's partners' values would be associated with higher relationship quality. Presumably, the better one knows the partner, the greater the number of opportunities to be rewarding and the fewer the opportunities to make mistakes. Whether such expectations would yield significant gender differences or would function in a similar fashion for both men and women has not been demonstrated in the extant literature.

Hebb (2005) demonstrated a significant relationship between actual and perceived similarity with relationship satisfaction for friendships and romantic dyads. However, Hebb only used the RAS to assess satisfaction; the current study replicated the relationship of actual and perceived similarity with the RAS and expanded the measures of relationship quality to include intimacy, social provisions, and trust. The following hypotheses addressed these relationships.

Hypothesis 1a: There will be a positive relationship between the actual similarity and perceived similarity of all dyads.

Hypothesis 1b: There will be a positive relationship between the actual similarity of all dyads and measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 1c: There will be a positive relationship between male and female perceived similarity and measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 1d: There will be a difference in the relationships of male and female perceived similarity with measures of relationship quality and the actual similarity of all dyads with measures of relationship quality.

Much of the literature addressing ideal congruence has dealt with the congruence of the self and ideal self (Gough, Lazarri, & Fioravanti, 1978; Hanlon, Hofstaetter, & O'Connor, 1954), but has not explored the potential relationships within a romantic dyad. The following hypotheses addressed this lack.

Hypothesis 2a: There will be a positive relationship between the actual similarity and ideal congruence of all dyads.

Hypothesis 2b: There will be a positive relationship between female ideal congruence and measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 2c: There will be a positive relationship between male ideal congruence and measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 2d: There will be a difference in the relationships of male and female ideal congruence with measures of relationship quality and the actual similarity of all dyads with measures of relationship quality.

Klohnen and Luo (2003) examined the relationship of actual similarity and ideal similarity of personality on attraction, but did not explore the relationship of actual and ideal similarity. The literature has not yet established a relationship between actual and ideal similarity and no research has been conducted to date on actual and ideal value similarity. The following hypotheses sought to assess this relationship.

Hypothesis 3a: There will be a positive relationship between the actual similarity and ideal similarity of all dyads.

Hypothesis 3b: There will be a positive relationship found between male ideal similarity and measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 3c: There will be a positive relationship between female ideal similarity and measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 3d: There will be a positive relationship between hypothetical similarity and measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 3e: There will be a difference in the relationships of male and female ideal similarity with measures of relationship quality and the actual similarity of all dyads with measures of relationship quality.

The literature has established a relationship between actual and perceived similarity (Curry & Kenny, 1974; Hebb, 2005); however, the relationship of perceived and ideal similarity has yet to be explored. Although both have been found to predict attraction in attitudes and conversational partners (Buunk & Boseman, 1986; LaPrelle, Insko, Cooksey, & Graetz, 1991) the relationship of perceived and ideal value similarity to satisfaction has not been researched. The following hypotheses sought to assess these relationships.

Hypothesis 4a: There will be a positive relationship between perceived similarity and ideal similarity for all dyads.

Hypothesis 4b: There will be a positive relationship between male perceived similarity and male and female ideal similarity.

Hypothesis 4c: There will be a positive relationship between female perceived similarity and male and female ideal similarity.

Hypothesis 4d: There will be a difference in the relationships of male perceived similarity and ideal similarity and female perceived similarity and ideal similarity to measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 4e: There will be a difference in the relationships of male and female ideal similarity and measures of relationship quality.

Rating accuracy was considered a measure of how well one partner knew the other. A significant relationship between rating accuracy and perceived similarity has been established (Zalesny & Highhouse, 1992). However, the relationship of rating accuracy and ideal similarity has not yet been established and thus the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 5a: There will be a positive relationship between rating accuracy and ideal similarity for all dyads.

Hypothesis 5b: There will be a positive relationship between male rating accuracy and ideal similarity.

Hypothesis 5c: There will be a positive relationship between female rating accuracy and ideal similarity.

Hypothesis 5d: There will be a difference in the relationships of male rating accuracy with ideal similarity and female accuracy with ideal similarity.

Hypothesis 5e: There will be relationships between male and female rating accuracy with measures of relationship quality.

Hypothesis 5f: There will be a difference in the relationships of male and female rating accuracy and measures of relationship quality.

The nature of interpersonal relationships has been shown to be complex; the research in both similarity and identity has reflected this complexity (Acitelli et al, 2001; Condon & Crano, 1988; Hebb, 2005; Inman-Amos et al, 1994; Karp et al, 1970; Sunnafrank, 1992). However, continuous and careful study will improve our understanding of mate selection, conceptions of ideal partners, as well as relationship quality. The hypotheses addressed in this study contributed to this undertaking.

CHAPTER 3

Results

The study of romantic dyadic satisfaction has led researchers to explore a multitude of possible predictors and correlates. A recent area of research has been the effect of the similarity of values on satisfaction, yet no studies have assessed value similarity with multiple measures of relationship quality. The current study addressed this lack and assessed how different perspectives of value similarity, i.e. actual, perceived, and ideal, were related to satisfaction, intimacy, trust, and social provisions.

Descriptive Statistics

Rokeach Value Survey. The Rokeach Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973) measured values through rank ordering (1-18) and thus produced means and frequencies (see Table 1). Means for Happiness ranged from 3.22 to 4.10 for both genders and all perspectives indicating that it was commonly selected for the highest ranks. Means for True Friendship ranged from 4.96 to 6.23 indicating it was the next highest value ranked. For the lowest ranked value, National Security, means ranged from 13.69 to 15.17. The next lowest ranked values were Social Recognition, means ranged from 13.16 to 14.73, and A World of Beauty, means ranged from 12.63 to 14.87.

Similar results were found in the frequency of rankings for values when the first three and last three ranks for the perspectives of self, partner, and ideal partner were examined (see Table B2). First, Happiness was consistently ranked by both genders as the first value for all three perspectives; it was also consistently ranked second for males. Second, National Security was consistently ranked by both genders as the second lowest value for all three perspectives; both genders ranked National Security as the lowest

Table 1 Means for Rokeach Value Survey

	Male			Female		
	Self	Partner	Ideal	Self	Partner	Ideal
A Comfortable Life	7.70	8.16	7.89	8.76	6.79	8.87
An Exciting Life	9.31	9.84	8.72	10.31	9.15	9.94
A Sense of Accomplishment	8.70	10.60	10.40	9.12	8.13	9.72
A World at Peace	12.42	12.51	12.54	12.77	13.01	13.62
A World of Beauty	14.49	12.63	14.43	13.38	14.87	14.43
Equality	10.47	9.82	9.67	10.23	10.96	9.29
Family Security	8.43	7.83	8.99	7.27	8.20	8.30
Freedom	7.48	8.43	9.22	8.58	8.10	10.50
Happiness	3.84	4.05	3.71	3.34	4.10	3.22
Inner Harmony	8.70	8.59	7.94	9.71	10.49	9.04
Mature Love	8.94	7.12	7.54	7.29	7.54	4.72
National Security	13.88	14.27	15.00	15.05	13.69	15.17
Pleasure	10.66	10.56	9.40	10.89	9.00	10.18
Salvation	9.61	9.73	10.15	9.95	11.16	10.46
Self-respect	6.95	7.26	7.09	6.10	6.85	5.80
Social Recognition	13.75	13.16	13.51	13.51	13.26	14.73
True Friendship	5.77	5.22	5.07	4.96	6.23	4.32
Wisdom	9.46	10.67	9.40	9.40	9.73	8.75

value for two of the three perspectives. Third, out of a possible 18 values, only four values were consistently selected for both the three highest and the three lowest values. Fourth, although the frequencies accounted for 12-37% of the sample's highest and lowest rankings, there was a significant amount of variability present in the responses. Lastly, there has been a change over time in what values are considered most and least important. When Rokeach (1973) assessed values the highest ranked values for the self were A World at Peace, Family Security and Salvation. A World at Peace was ranked first, second, or third by 48% of men and 57% of women. Family Security was ranked first, second or third by 34% of men and 35% of women; Salvation was ranked first by 17% of men and 26% of women. An Exciting Life and Pleasure were assessed for the lowest ranked values. An Exciting Life was ranked 16th, 17th, and 18th by 42% of men and 40% of women; Pleasure was ranked 16th, 17th, and 18th by 36% of men and 43% of women. Therefore whereas values have been shown to be stable over time for an individual, perhaps values alter from generation to generation.

Relationship Assessment Scale. Scores from male satisfaction ($M = 28.14$, $Mdn = 28$, $SD = 4.76$, $SE = .52$, $Variance = 22.61$) and female satisfaction ($M = 28.51$, $Mdn = 29$, $SD = 4.55$, $SE = .50$, $Variance = 20.74$) were combined to create a couple score. Satisfaction scores from the RAS (Hendrick, 1988) ranged between 5 and 35 for individuals and 31 and 69 for couples, with higher scores indicating greater satisfaction. Hendrick (1998) reported a mean of 29.14 for satisfaction scores when she assessed 125 couples and the results of the current study were not significantly different.

Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale. Scores for male intimacy ($M = 5.07$, $Mdn = 5$, $SD = 1.36$, $SE = .15$, $Variance = 1.85$) and female intimacy ($M = 4.79$, $Mdn = 5$, $SD =$

1.47, $SE = .16$, $Variance = 2.17$) were combined to create a couple score. Intimacy scores from the Inclusion of Other in Self (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992) ranged between 1 and 7 for individuals and 5 and 14 for couples, with higher scores indicating greater intimacy. Aron et al (1992) reported $M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.48$, for intimacy scores when they assessed 208 participants and the results of the current study were not significantly different.

Trust Inventory. Scores for male partner trust ($M = 43.69$, $Mdn = 44$, $SD = 12.25$, $SE = 1.36$, $Variance = 150.14$) and female partner trust ($M = 42.46$, $Mdn = 43$, $SD = 12.52$, $SE = 1.37$, $Variance = 156.69$) were combined to create a couple score. Scores from the Partner Trust subscale ranged from 20 to 83 for individual partner trust and 41 to 141 for couple partner trust. Scores for male global trust ($M = 70.66$, $Mdn = 72$, $SD = 10.36$, $SE = 1.14$, $Variance = 107.40$) and female global trust ($M = 73.88$, $Mdn = 75$, $SD = 9.67$, $SE = 1.06$, $Variance = 93.60$) were also combined to create a couple score. Scores from the Global Trust subscale varied from 40 to 96 for individual global trust and 109 and 174 for couple global trust, with higher scores indicating greater trust. Couch et al (1996) reported $M = 73.02$, $SD = 13.70$, for Partner Trust scores when they assessed 167 participants and reported $M = 71.34$, $SD = 11.39$, for Global Trust scores when they assessed 175 participants; the results of the current study were not significantly different.

Social Provisions Scale. Scores for male social provisions ($M = 97.54$, $Mdn = 99$, $SD = 12.46$, $SE = 1.39$, $Variance = 155.14$) and female social provisions ($M = 100$, $Mdn = 100$, $SD = 10.78$, $SE = 1.20$, $Variance = 116.29$) were combined to create a couple score. Scores from the Social Provisions Scale (Cutrona & Russell, 1984) ranged from 6 to 20 for each subscale for individuals and 16 to 40 for couples, with higher scores

indicating greater fulfillment of the social need (see Table B3 for the descriptive statistics for each subscale). Dolbier and Steinhardt (2000) reported a mean of 84.8 for social provisions scores, but used a four-item Likert-type format. However, similar percentages of responses were observed with 83% in the current study and 84.8% in the previous study.

Data Organization

The assessment of dyads necessitated a unique organization of the data, and thus a brief exposition. Within couple correlations were formed for actual, rating accuracy, and hypothetical similarity that were then correlated to male, female, and couple relationship quality. These within couple variables were created by correlating male and female responses to the rating of terminal values in order that a couple's response could be assessed. This was accomplished by first correlating various perspectives of male and female ratings of the terminal values to become a single variable; thus a correlation was created for each dyad. For example, for couple number one the male rating to the eighteen terminal values was correlated with the female rating to produce a correlation of .64; this was done for all couples. When all dyads had been correlated for actual, perceived, and hypothetical similarity, these correlations were used to assess the relationship of value similarity to relationship quality.

Within gender correlations were calculated in a similar manner. For example, a male's rating of his partner was correlated to his rating of an ideal partner to produce an individual correlation for male ideal similarity; when all individual correlations for male ideal similarity were formed they were collectively considered male ideal similarity. There were six within couple correlations and four within gender correlations that

resulted in a total of ten correlations which could then be assessed for their relationship to relationship quality (see Figure B4). For each measure of relationship quality individual responses were summed as per scoring procedures for each scale for each gender to produce male and female relationship quality which could then be correlated to value similarity. Male and female scores were also summed to produce a couple, or dyadic, total that allowed for the assessment of the relationship of value similarity and couple relationship quality.

Analyses

Two sets of analyses were performed to test the relationship of value similarity to measures of relationship quality. First, since the Rokeach Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973) was a rank-ordered instrument, the strength of relationships were determined for each dyad and gender using Spearman's rho correlations for the terminal subscale. In order to view the couple as a dyadic unit, individual responses were correlated to form actual and hypothetical similarity, ideal congruence, and rating accuracy responses. Actual similarity was assessed by the correlation of each member of the dyad's rating of self for values. Hypothetical similarity was assessed by correlating the male and female's ideal partner ratings. Ideal congruence was assessed by correlating the individual's rating of self with their partner's rating of an ideal partner, e. g. female ideal congruence. Rating accuracy was assessed by correlating the individual's rating of partner with their partner's rating of self, e. g. male rating accuracy.

Within gender correlations were also calculated for male and female perceived similarity, as well as male and female ideal similarity. Perceived similarity was assessed by correlating one member's rating of self with their own rating of their partner's values,

i.e. female perceived similarity. Ideal similarity was assessed for within-subjects by correlating the individual's rating of their partner's values with their own ratings of an ideal partner, i.e. male ideal similarity.

The use of Spearman's Rho correlations necessitated the application of a non-parametric test to assess differences. Wilcoxon two- related-samples tests were also performed to test for a difference between types of similarity as well as genders (Wilcox, 2004). All similarity variables were related to relationship quality using Pearson product correlations and can be found in Tables B5 through B12. In addition, the Attachment subscale of the SPS and the Partner Trust subscale of the TI were inter-correlated with the RAS (Tables B13 & B14) demonstrating construct validity.

Second, multiple stepwise regressions were performed to determine which model best predicted male, female, and couple relationship quality using male, female, and couple responses to terminal values as independent variables. Independent variables were all relevant value similarity correlations: actual, hypothetical, ideal congruence, rating accuracy, perceived, and ideal similarity as independent variables with all the measures of relationship quality as dependent variables. The Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, 1988), Inclusion of Other in Self Scale (Aron et al, 1992), Social Provisions Scale (Cutrona & Russell, 1984), as well as the Trust Inventory (Couch et al, 1996) were used as dependent variables. Stepwise regressions have been used as statistical tools to eliminate independent variables that were unable to uniquely predict the dependent variable and to identify the predictive variables. A model applying linear regression uses least squares to allow for the statistical modeling of an independent

variable and its ability to predict a dependent variable, thus for the current study, it identified whether similarity in values predicted relationship quality.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. A significant relationship was found between actual and perceived value similarity. Actual similarity correlated with female perceived similarity $r = .49, p < .01$, and male perceived similarity, $r = .40, p < .01$. Hypothesis 1a was confirmed.

Eighteen significant correlations, 60%, were found between actual similarity and relationship quality demonstrating a pattern of significant relationships between actual similarity and relationship quality (See Appendix C; Correlation 1). When stepwise regressions were performed actual similarity was a significant predictor of relationship quality for couple intimacy, female attachment, couple attachment, male nurturance, and couple nurturance (see Tables 2-6). Actual similarity was related to couple relationship quality as well as the fulfillment of social needs. Hypothesis 1b was confirmed.

Twenty-six significant correlations, 43%, were found between perceived similarity and relationship quality demonstrating a pattern of significant relationships between perceived similarity and relationship quality (See Appendix C; Correlations 2 & 3). Stepwise regressions revealed that female perceived similarity was not a significant predictor of relationship quality. However, male perceived similarity was a significant predictor of relationship quality for male, female, and couple satisfaction, as well as couple trust and female guidance (see Tables 7-11) which demonstrated significant male, female, and couple relationship quality. Hypothesis 1c was confirmed.

Table 2

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Intimacy
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Actual similarity	10.12	1,77	3.18	2.90	.34**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .11.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Attachment
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Actual similarity	6.68	1,78	2.58	2.77	.28**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .07.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Attachment
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Actual similarity	8.89	1,78	2.98	5.76	.32**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .09.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Nurturance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Actual similarity	5.07	1,75	2.25	2.88	.25*

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .05.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 6

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Nurturance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Actual similarity	6.73	1,74	2.60	4.80	.29**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .07.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 7

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Satisfaction (RAS)
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male perceived similarity	17.94	1,78	4.23	7.35	.44**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .18.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Satisfaction (RAS)
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male perceived similarity	11.35	1,78	3.37	5.82	.36**
Step 2					
Male perceived similarity	9.60	2,78	2.95	4.99	.31**
Female rating accuracy			2.64	5.08	.26**
Step 3					
Male perceived similarity	8.24	3,78	3.62	6.53	.40**
Female rating accuracy			2.13	7.21	.39**
Male ideal congruence			-2.15	-5.84	-.27*

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .12; for Step 2 Adjusted R^2 = .18; for Step 3 Adjusted R^2 = .22.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 9

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Satisfaction (RAS)
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male perceived similarity	19.13	1,78	4.37	13.17	.43**
Step 2					
Male perceived similarity	13.68	2,78	3.97	11.74	.40**
Female rating accuracy			2.61	8.75	.26*

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .19; Adjusted R^2 for Step 2 = .25.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Partner Trust
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Female rating accuracy	8.17	1,77	2.86	26.61	.31**
Step 2					
Female rating accuracy	7.37	2,77	2.50	22.68	.27**
Male perceived similarity			2.45	19.85	.26*

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .09; for Step 2 Adjusted $R^2 = .14$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 11

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Guidance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male perceived similarity	14.27	1,78	3.78	3.62	.39**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .15.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

When actual and perceived similarity correlations were assessed using the Wilcoxon two-related-samples test there was no significant difference in relationship quality between actual and male perceived similarity, $Z = -.24$, $p > .05$, but a significant difference was found for actual and female perceived similarity, $Z = -4.54$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 1d was partially confirmed.

Hypothesis 2. A significant relationship was found between actual similarity and ideal congruence. Actual similarity correlated with female ideal congruence, $r = .76, p < .01$, as well as male ideal congruence, $r = .65, p < .01$. Hypothesis 2a was confirmed.

Eighteen significant correlations, 60%, were found between female ideal congruence and relationship quality demonstrating a pattern of significant relationships (See Appendix C; Correlation 4). However, stepwise regressions revealed that female ideal congruence was a significant predictor of relationship quality for only couple integration (see Table 12). Hypothesis 2b was confirmed.

A significant relationship was not found between male ideal congruence and measures of relationship quality. Only three significant correlations, 10%, were demonstrated (See Appendix C; Correlation 5). Stepwise regressions revealed that male ideal congruence was a significant predictor of relationship quality for female satisfaction and female intimacy (see Tables 8 & 13). The prediction of only female relationship quality was a logical result because the independent variable was the correlation of the male's rating of himself with the female's rating of her ideal partner. Hypothesis 2c was therefore not confirmed.

When actual and ideal congruence correlations were assessed using the Wilcoxon two-related-samples test the difference of relationship quality between actual and female ideal congruence, $Z = -1.80, p = .07$, approached significance, but a significant difference was found for actual and male ideal congruence, $Z = -4.21, p < .01$. A significant difference was found for relationship quality between female and male ideal congruence, $Z = -3.90, p < .01$. Hypothesis 2d was partially confirmed.

Table 12

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Integration
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1 Female ideal congruence	4.49	1,77	2.12	3.73	.24*

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .04.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 13

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Intimacy
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1 Male ideal congruence	7.25	1,77	2.69	1.59	.29**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .07.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 3. A significant relationship was found between actual similarity and ideal similarity. Actual similarity significantly correlated with both male ideal, $r = .40$, $p < .01$, and female ideal similarity, $r = .31$, $p < .01$. Hypotheses 3a was confirmed.

There were 15 significant relationships, 50%, between male ideal similarity and relationship quality and 4 that approached significance demonstrating a pattern of relationships between male ideal similarity and relationship quality (See Appendix C;

Correlation 6). Stepwise regressions revealed that male ideal similarity was a significant predictor of relationship quality for male partner trust, male alliance, couple alliance, couple guidance, male integration, and male reassurance of worth (see Tables 14-20). Male ideal similarity was primarily related to the fulfillment of male and couple social needs. Hypothesis 3b was confirmed.

There were only two significant correlations, 6%, between female ideal similarity and relationship quality, indicating that no significant relationship existed between female ideal similarity and relationship quality (See Appendix C; Correlation 7). Stepwise regressions revealed that female ideal similarity was a significant predictor of relationship quality for only male intimacy (see Table 21). Hypothesis 3c was therefore not confirmed.

Eleven significant correlations, 37%, and 3 correlations that approached significance were found between hypothetical similarity and measures of relationship quality demonstrating a pattern of relationships (See Appendix C; Correlation 8). Stepwise regressions revealed that hypothetical similarity was a significant predictor of relationship quality for male attachment and male guidance (see Tables 22 & 23) influencing only male satisfaction. Hypothesis 3d was confirmed.

There was no significant difference in relationship quality between actual and male ideal similarity $Z = -.49, p > .05$. However, there was a significant difference in relationship quality between actual and female ideal similarity $Z = -4.52, p < .01$. Hypothesis 3e was partially confirmed.

Table 14

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Partner Trust
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male ideal similarity	8.46	1,77	2.91	12.41	.32**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .09.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 15

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Alliance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male ideal similarity	9.97	1,78	3.16	2.59	.34**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .10.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 16

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Alliance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male ideal similarity	7.76	1,78	2.78	3.28	.30**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .08.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 17

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Guidance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male ideal similarity	15.67	1,78	3.96	5.39	.41**
Step 2					
Male ideal similarity	12.23	2,78	3.50	4.67	.36**
Female rating accuracy			2.73	4.67	.28**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .16; adjusted R^2 for Step 2 = .22.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 18

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Integration
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male ideal similarity	4.46	1,78	2.11	2.22	.23*

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .04.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 19

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Reassurance of Worth
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male ideal similarity	23.89	1,78	4.89	3.92	.49**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .23.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 20

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Couple Reassurance of Worth
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male ideal similarity	16.68	1,78	4.09	5.50	.42**
Step 2					
Male ideal similarity	12.42	2,78	2.99	4.16	.32**
Male rating accuracy			2.62	4.27	.28**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .17; for Step 2 Adjusted $R^2 = .23$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 21

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Intimacy
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Female ideal similarity	7.33	1,78	2.71	1.71	.30**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .08.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 22

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Attachment
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Hypothetical similarity	11.06	1,78	3.33	4.02	.35**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .11.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 23

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Male Guidance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Hypothetical similarity	19.64	1,78	4.43	5.02	.45**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .19.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 4. A significant relationship was found between male perceived similarity and male ideal similarity, $r = .72, p < .01$, and female ideal similarity, $r = .23, p < .05$. A significant relationship was found between female perceived similarity and female ideal similarity, $r = .73, p < .01$ and male ideal similarity also approached significance, $r = .21, p = .06$. Thus a relationship existed between perceived similarity and ideal similarity. Hypotheses 4a-c were confirmed.

A Wilcoxon two-related-samples test was performed on relationship quality between male perceived similarity and male ideal similarity, $Z = -.72, p > .05$, that showed no significant difference. However, relationship quality between female perceived similarity and male ideal similarity demonstrated a significant difference, $Z = -3.66, p < .01$. A significant difference was observed in relationship quality when male and female perceived similarity were compared to female ideal similarity, $Z = -4.34, p < .01, Z = -2.06, p < .05$, respectively. Hypothesis 4d was partially confirmed.

A significant difference was found between male and female ideal similarity with measures of relationship quality when a Wilcoxon two-related-samples test was performed, $Z = -4.14, p < .01$. Hypothesis 4e was confirmed.

Hypothesis 5. A significant relationship was found between male rating accuracy and male ideal similarity, $r = .36, p < .01$, and female ideal similarity approached significance, $r = .21, p = .06$. A significant relationship was found between female rating accuracy and female ideal similarity, $r = .27, p < .05$ and male ideal similarity also approached significance, $r = .20, p = .07$. Thus a relationship existed between rating accuracy and ideal similarity. Hypothesis 5a-c were confirmed.

Wilcoxon two-related-samples tests were performed on relationship quality for rating accuracy and ideal similarity. No significant difference in relationship quality was found between the relationships of male and female accuracy with male ideal similarity, $Z = -1.38, p > .05, Z = -1.39, p > .05$, respectively. However, a significant difference in relationship quality was found between the relationships of male and female accuracy with female ideal similarity, $Z = -3.47, p < .01, Z = -4.34, p < .01$, respectively. Hypothesis 5d was only partially confirmed.

Eleven significant correlations, 37%, were found between male rating accuracy and relationship quality whereas 15 significant correlations, 50%, were found between female rating accuracy and relationship quality (See Appendix C; Correlations 9 & 10). Stepwise regressions revealed that female rating accuracy was a significant predictor of relationship quality for female and couple satisfaction as well as couple partner trust, and couple guidance (see Tables 8, 9, 10, 17). These results showed that female rating accuracy primarily related to couple relationship quality. Male rating accuracy was a significant predictor of relationship quality for female partner trust, female alliance, female reassurance of worth, and couple reassurance of worth (see Tables 20, 24, 25, & 26). These results demonstrated that male rating accuracy related female satisfaction. Hypothesis 5e was confirmed.

No significant difference was found between male and female rating accuracy in relationship quality when a Wilcoxon two-related-samples test was performed, $Z = -.58, p > .05$. Hypothesis 5f was not confirmed.

Table 24

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Partner Trust
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male rating accuracy	9.41	1,78	3.07	15.34	.33**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .10.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 25

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Alliance
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male rating accuracy	4.62	1,78	2.15	1.67	.24*

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .04.

Table 26

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Female Reassurance of Worth
($N = 83$)

Variable	F	df	t	B	β
Step 1					
Male rating accuracy	12.80	1,78	3.58	3.34	.38**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 1 = .13.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The majority of the hypotheses were supported indicating that positive and significant relationships existed between relationship quality and value similarity. This study replicated previous research on the actual and perceived similarity of romantic dyads and provided results indicating that ideal value similarity, e.g. male ideal similarity, correlated significantly with, and predicted, relationship quality.

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

The focus of this study has been to explore the relationship of value similarity, especially ideal values, and relationship quality within romantic dyads. This aim was undertaken in the hopes that a greater understanding would be reached for the relationships of the actual, perceived, and ideal values of current romantic partners as well as certain aspects of identity. Results from this study were mostly confirmatory and offered interesting insights into gender differences and relationship quality.

Hypotheses were addressed with correlational analyses and stepwise regressions. Analyses for Hypothesis 1 demonstrated a significant relationship between actual and perceived similarity and both significantly predicted relationship quality. There was no significant difference found between the ability of actual and perceived similarity to significantly predict relationship quality for males, females, or couples. This result did not support the literature that has presented a difference in the ability of perceived similarity to better predict satisfaction than actual similarity (Curry & Kenny, 1974; Sunnafrank, 1986).

Analyses for Hypothesis 2 revealed a significant relationship between perceived and ideal congruence as well as a significant relationship between female ideal congruence and relationship quality. The congruence of the female's rating of self with the male's rating of an ideal partner consistently predicted satisfaction. However, no significant relationship existed between male ideal congruence and relationship quality; thus the results of the correlational analyses for terminal values revealed a gender

difference in the relationship of ideal congruence and relationship quality. A gender difference in ideal congruence was further supported when Wilcoxon two-related-samples tests were performed. Murray, Holmes, and Griffin (1996) suggested that romantic partner satisfaction was more highly associated with idealistic than realistic perceptions. Their results demonstrated support for their supposition when partners viewed each other more idealistically and therefore significantly predicted relationship satisfaction. No past research could be found that has sought to compare how well one member of a dyad met the ideal expectations of their partner; the current study demonstrated that the female's ability to match the male's conceptions of an ideal partner significantly predicted relationship quality.

Analyses for Hypothesis 3 demonstrated a significant relationship between actual similarity and ideal similarity. No significant difference was observed when Wilcoxon two-related-samples tests were performed on relationship quality for ideal similarity and actual similarity. This result indicated that ideal similarity was as strong a predictor of relationship quality as actual similarity. The literature on ideal similarity has been primarily an individual perspective where how closely one matched one's own ideal was examined (Klohnen & Luo, 2003); however, since the current study examined romantic dyads, ideal similarity assessed the individual's perspective of how closely their rating of their partner matched their ideal partner. Male, but not female ideal similarity, significantly related to relationship quality, which only partially confirmed the hypothesis.

Although actual and perceived similarity were both significant predictors of relationship quality, hypothetical similarity demonstrated that ideal perceptions played a

role as well. These results indicated that there was a certain amount of overlap in what constituted the expected values of an ideal partner, regardless of gender, that in turn was related to relationship quality. Meyer & Pepper (1977) suggested that the similarity of ideals, e.g. hypothetical similarity, was not as significant a predictor of marital adjustment as actual similarity, and the results of this study supported that supposition with correlational analyses and stepwise regressions. Nevertheless, hypothetical similarity, the correlation of ideal partner ratings, was significantly related to relationship quality.

Analyses for Hypothesis 4 demonstrated a significant relationship between perceived similarity and ideal similarity. Male perceived similarity was significantly correlated with both male and female ideal similarity, but female perceived similarity only significantly correlated with female ideal similarity. A significant difference was observed in relationship quality for female perceived similarity and only male ideal similarity when Wilcoxon two-related-samples tests were performed. Significant differences in relationship quality were also found for female ideal similarity when compared with male and female perceived similarity. A significant gender difference was observed when Wilcoxon two-related-samples tests were performed on relationship quality for male and female ideal similarity. Only for men did ideal similarity significantly predict relationship quality which further suggested that ideal perceptions are not significant predictors for female relationship quality. However, the relationship between perceived and ideal similarity was strongest when assessed within gender. For instance, the correlation of female perceived to female ideal similarity was stronger than the correlation of female perceived to male ideal similarity.

Analyses for Hypothesis 5 confirmed a significant relationship between rating accuracy and ideal similarity. Zalesny & Highhouse (1992) demonstrated a relationship between perceived similarity and rating accuracy, and the current study demonstrated another significant relationship with ideal similarity. Wilcoxon two-related-samples tests revealed a significant difference in relationship quality between the relationships of male and female accuracy with female ideal similarity, but not for male ideal similarity. When Wilcoxon two-related-samples tests were performed on rating accuracy, a gender difference in relationship quality for rating accuracy was not supported. Therefore the significant gender difference was reflected in ideal similarity, but not in rating accuracy. However, male rating accuracy and female rating accuracy correlations also significantly predicted the relationship quality of the individual being perceived. For example, female satisfaction was significantly predicted by male rating accuracy and male satisfaction was significantly predicted by female rating accuracy. This result was further supported by the stepwise regressions. For couple relationship quality there was no significant difference between the predictors of male and female rating accuracy. Therefore no differences were observed in the dyadic correlations of rating accuracy whereas gender differences were readily apparent in the intraindividual correlations of ideal similarity.

Correlational analyses also demonstrated the construct validity of two scales: the Social Provisions Subscale of Attachment and the Partner Trust subscale of the Trust inventory. First, the Attachment subscale significantly correlated with the RAS which demonstrated its ability to predict satisfaction. This result reinforced that Attachment was an acceptable measure for relationship quality as well as being a need that was fulfilled in romantic dyads. In addition, value similarity related to attachment in a

significant and positive direction. The significant relationships of terminal values to male, female, and couple attachment indicated that the similarity of couple values was an integral component of the attachment of romantic dyads. Since by definition values tend to remain stable over the lifespan (Rokeach, 1973) it was logical that similar values assisted in the formation of emotional and even sexual ties rather than the opposite where attachment would encourage the similarity of values (see Table B13). Second, partner trust was also highly correlated with the RAS which confirmed its ability to predict satisfaction (see Table B14). The lack of significant correlations involving global trust was of little concern since the ability to place trust in strangers or people in general has not been shown to be integral to dyadic relationships (Couch, Adams, & Jones, 1996).

Relationship Quality by Gender

Correlational analyses and stepwise regressions revealed male, female, and couple value similarity as predictors of relationship quality confirming the hypotheses. However, the stepwise regressions performed on all measures of relationship quality determined which types of value similarity were the best predictors for men, women, and couples. First, various combinations of terminal values significantly predicted satisfaction when assessed by the RAS. A gender difference was observed where male satisfaction was significantly predicted by male perceived similarity, indicating that male satisfaction was primarily a within individual phenomenon. Female satisfaction was predicted by male perceived similarity, female rating accuracy, and male ideal congruence, indicating that male, female, and couple similarities were related to female satisfaction. The strongest predictors for couple satisfaction were male perceived

similarity and female rating accuracy indicating that couple satisfaction was more related to individual predictors than a dyadic predictor.

Second, stepwise regressions demonstrated that values significantly predicted intimacy. Male intimacy was best predicted by the correlation of the female's rating of her partner with her rating of her ideal partner, or female ideal similarity, which indicated that male intimacy was not primarily predicated on male values. Male ideal congruence best predicted female intimacy indicating that the strongest influence was how well the values of the male matched the female's rating of her ideal partner. Couple intimacy was best predicted by actual similarity. Thus intimacy was more related to actual and ideal values than perceived values.

Third, stepwise regressions performed on the Trust Inventory yielded several significant predictors. Results demonstrated that trust contained both an individual and a dyadic component. Male trust was best predicted by the individual correlation of male ideal similarity whereas the dyadic correlation of male rating accuracy best predicted female trust. For the couple, female rating accuracy and male perceived similarity strongly predicted partner trust. These results suggested that actual similarity has little relationship to partner trust, whereas rating accuracy, perceived and ideal similarity significantly predicted partner trust.

Fourth, values significantly predicted the fulfillment of the sense of belonging when assessed by the Social Provisions Scale. Overall, male ideal similarity and actual similarity were the most consistent predictors of social provisions. A gender difference was again apparent where male social provisions were best predicted by male ideal similarity whereas female social provisions were best predicted by actual similarity and

male rating accuracy. An additional gender difference was that hypothetical similarity best predicted two male social provisions, attachment and guidance, yet never significantly predicted female relationship quality. Couple social provisions provided couple predictors as well as a combination of male and female relationships with significant predictors being actual similarity, female rating accuracy, male rating accuracy, female ideal congruence, and male ideal similarity.

Results demonstrated gender differences in the relationship of value similarity and relationship quality where male correlations such as male perceived similarity, male ideal similarity, and female ideal congruence best predicted relationship quality. These results lend support to the work of Jessie Bernard (1972) who suggested that men and women each have their own version of their marriage, a “his” and a “hers”. She further demonstrated that men tend to be more satisfied than women with their version; perhaps men are more idealistic or romantic whereas women are more pragmatic. The lack of a single predictor for female relationship quality implied a flexible pragmatism in women where satisfaction could be met by multiple types of value similarity. The current study examined primarily dating couples suggesting that Bernard’s findings extend to earlier stages of romantic relationships.

The paucity of significant correlations between value similarity and the Social Provisions Subscales of Alliance, Opportunity for Nurturance, and Integration was somewhat curious. Although the Opportunity for Nurturance is usually fulfilled by the parent-child relationship, the Alliance and Integration social needs are often found in friendships (Weiss, 1974). Paradoxically, stepwise regressions showed a significant relationship between value similarity and Alliance as well as Nurturance. However,

Integration showed no significant relationship to value similarity when similarly assessed. There may have been a lack of sufficient time to deepen or even meet these particular social needs. Research by Berscheid (2006) has demonstrated that the passionate love of a romantic couple need not be accompanied by the companionate love of friendship for the relationship to exist although ideally the relationship would encompass both types.

Results from the stepwise regression indicated that relationship quality was related to actual, perceived, hypothetical, rating accuracy, and ideal similarity as well as ideal congruence. The most consistent predictors of relationship quality were actual similarity, male ideal similarity, male perceived similarity, and rating accuracy. Thus the relationship of value similarity and relationship satisfaction was complex, suggesting that no one type of value similarity was the best predictor and that all types were related to relationship quality. This finding was probative, providing information that rating accuracy, male ideal similarity, and ideal congruence may play as important a role in relationship quality as has been demonstrated by actual and perceived similarity (Curry & Kenny, 1974; Hebb, 2005).

Identity

The introduction of ideal perceptions of values as a predictor of relationship quality introduced an identity component to the study. Over the last hundred years, many of the most distinguished researchers have sought to create models that would explain identity. In 1890, William James pre-dated a completely internal view of identity such as that proposed by Freud's id, ego, and superego. James (1890, 1983) was perhaps the first to suggest that identity is composed of several selves: the *material self*, our bodies, loved

ones, possessions; the *social self*, the recognition received from our networks and interactions with others, fame, honor; the *spiritual self*, our faculties, morality, intelligence, conscience; the *pure Ego*, sense of unity. Subsequently, Mead (1934) focused on a more socially driven definition of identity which posited that society was responsible for molding the self which shapes social behavior. Sarbin (1954) theorized that identity was a trinity of the self, which was hypothesized to be composed of three dimensions: first the *perceived self*, an individual's perception of his or her actual self; second the *ideal self*, who the individual would like to become; and third the *affective self*, an individual's self-esteem, feelings of worth.

Judith Howard (2000) proposed two theories that thread through the research on identity, social cognition and symbolic interactionism. Social cognition has emphasized the biological aspects of identity such as the thought and informational processes of human cognitive capacity as well as its efficiency and limitations. Symbolic interactionism has emphasized the social aspects of identity such as the relationships between individuals and the meaning they attach to objects, actions, and other people. Whether focusing on the structure of identity or exploring the construction of identity, there has been an undeniable social influence in the creation of identity and the resulting social hierarchies that are produced. Howard further argued that the social basis for identity has encompassed sex, race, culture, class, age, ethnicity, ability and has also been constructed and perpetuated by society. Stryker and Burke (2000) stated that the two strands of identity theory, social and internal processes, should be cohesively integrated at the point where they inevitably intersect, at behavior, arguably the final gauge of all influences.

This study demonstrated the social cognition and symbolic interactionism approaches to identity in its exploration of romantic dyads. Social cognition was assessed through the medium of rating values for the perspectives of the self, partner, and ideal partner, demonstrating individuals' informational processes for values. Symbolic interactionism was assessed through the medium of dyadic and intraindividual correlations of actual, perceived, and ideal conceptions. Although this study was unable to predict behavior, it has provided potential insight into the behavior of partner selection in regard to values for romantic couples. For example, the men in this study showed a marked propensity to have selected women who, in their perception and often in actuality, matched the men's ideal partner. However, extensive research would be required before a relationship between value similarity and behavior could be established.

The introduction of a value rating for a hypothetical ideal partner created a unique identity component that necessitated the projection of desired values for a potentially unrealized mate; a more difficult prospect than identifying a known entity such as one's self or partner. The current study then explored intraindividual and dyadic correlations involving ideal ratings. Ideal similarity, the intraindividual correlation of the ratings for the current partner and ideal partner, showed the amount of overlap between perceptions of the values of the current partner and an individual's own ideal mate. The dyadic correlation of ideal partner ratings, hypothetical similarity, demonstrated a significant degree of agreement in what constituted an ideal partner. Ideal congruence, the dyadic correlation of an individual's self ratings with their partner's rating of an ideal partner, demonstrated the individual's ability to match a hypothetical ideal mate. The current study demonstrated that ideal perceptions were related to relationship quality.

Specifically, male ideal similarity, hypothetical similarity and female ideal congruence significantly predicted relationship quality. These results revealed both individual and dyadic ideal correlations as significant predictors and lent support to the literature that has suggested the ideal perceptions are related to interpersonal satisfaction (Acetelli & Weiner, 2001; Meyer & Pepper, 1977). In addition, results involving ideal perceptions support the social cognition and symbolic interactionism approaches to identity.

Future Research

An avenue for research might be the exploration of ideal similarity and how it might relate to the study of identity, e.g. identity work. Identity has been connected to subjective perception (Murstein, 1971) and the results of the current study showed that ideal similarity was strongly related to male, not female, relationship quality. Ideal conceptions may be more appropriately used to gauge male satisfaction, whereas what influences female satisfaction may be more elusive and require more extensive study. Further study could explore the result of the significantly different relationships of male ideal and female ideal similarity with relationship quality. Research could explore the possibility that the males of the dyad considered the females to be their ideal partner, and by extension were dating them because they were their ideal partner (Karp, et al 1970). Another study could explore the possibility that after having dated their partner for a length of time, their current partner became their ideal partner. This result was not consistently reflected in the results of this study for female ideal similarity, raising questions as to the source of the gender difference. Further research might assess whether females may be less prone to compromising their conception of an ideal mate. Given that females have been shown to hold higher standards for an ideal mate

(Williamson, 1965), this explanation would be plausible, but further research would be necessary to explore this possibility.

Another possible avenue for future research might longitudinally explore dating couples that exhibit varying levels of value similarity. Observation of those who break up, marry, or marry and then divorce could lend support to the existence of a relationship between degree of value similarity and longevity of the relationship. Assessment over time could also reveal whether differences in perceived similarity and actual similarity alter based on length of relationship.

A limitation of this study was that whereas several measures were used to assess relationship quality, only one measure was used to assess value similarity. The use of another value measure could lend support to the gender differences observed in this study or reveal that the Rokeach Value Survey was gender biased in its assessment of ideals. Burgess, Schwartz, and Blackwell (1994) compared the Rokeach Value Survey and the Schwartz Survey and found consistent results; however, neither gender differences nor ideal perceptions were explored. Another limitation of this study was that the RVS exhibited a generational effect where the highest and lowest ranked values varied widely over time. However, the results demonstrated that value similarity predicted relationship quality and therefore some practical applications have become viable. For example, in a clinical setting, for couples pursuing pre-marital counseling, an assessment of value similarity might inform the couple of areas in which they agree or disagree. Or in a rather unique setting, such organizations as EHarmony.com might find value similarity a useful index for matching potential mates.

This study revealed several insights into the relationship of value similarity and

relationship quality. First, there was a relationship between actual and perceived similarity. Both were positively and significantly related to relationship quality and no difference was found in their respective abilities to predict relationship quality. Second, hypothetical similarity was significantly and positively correlated to relationship quality demonstrating that dyadic agreement for the values of an ideal partner played a role in interpersonal satisfaction. However, hypothetical similarity was not as strong a predictor as actual, perceived, ideal similarity, rating accuracy and ideal congruence as shown by its lack of impact in the stepwise regressions. Third, rating accuracy significantly correlated to relationship quality but demonstrated no gender difference in predictive ability. Fourth, a unique gender difference was present in the relationship of ideal similarity and relationship quality where only male ideal similarity, the correlation of the male's ratings of partner and ideal partner, was significant. The lack of a significant relationship for female ideal similarity was surprising and an impetus for future research. Fifth, ideal congruence also demonstrated a gender difference where only female ideal congruence, the female's rating of self correlated with the male's rating of ideal partner, significantly and positively related to relationship quality. Future research could replicate the current study and examine male ideal congruence to determine the consistency of results. In conclusion, all types of value similarity significantly and positively predicted relationship quality. The exploration of ideal conceptions revealed that both individual and dyadic perceptions were significant predictors of relationship quality. Male ideal similarity and female ideal congruence demonstrated a unique gender difference where male perceptions of their partner and ideal partner predicted relationship quality for men, women, and the couple.

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- * indicates data from the article was used in meta-analysis

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent

This questionnaire is about your personal values and a specific relationship. Please take some time to answer each of the questions carefully. There are no right or wrong responses. It should take you about 30 minutes to complete. This study will provide researchers with a better understanding of the many processes that are involved in relationships.

Your identity will be kept confidential. Only the investigators will have access to your responses, which will be stored in a filing cabinet in a locked office in the psychology building. Only aggregate results will be reported and your individual consent forms bearing your name and signature will not be attached to the questionnaire.

If you have any questions about the research, either now or later, please contact Jennifer Clement in AP408 or Dr. Warren Jones in AP 416D. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you may refuse to participate. You may withdraw at any time during this study.

I have read and understood the explanation of this study and agree to participate.

Date _____

Name _____

Signature _____

APPENDIX B

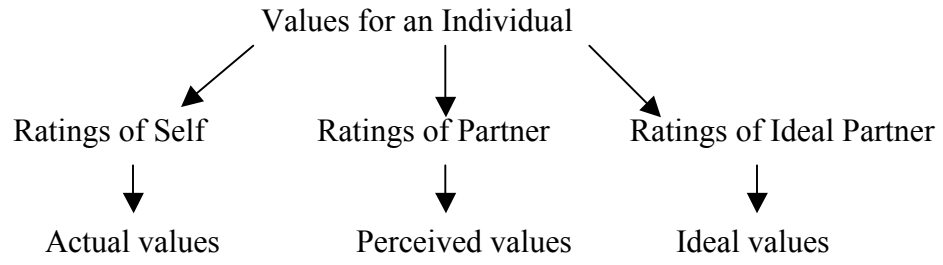


Figure B1 Value Ratings for an Individual

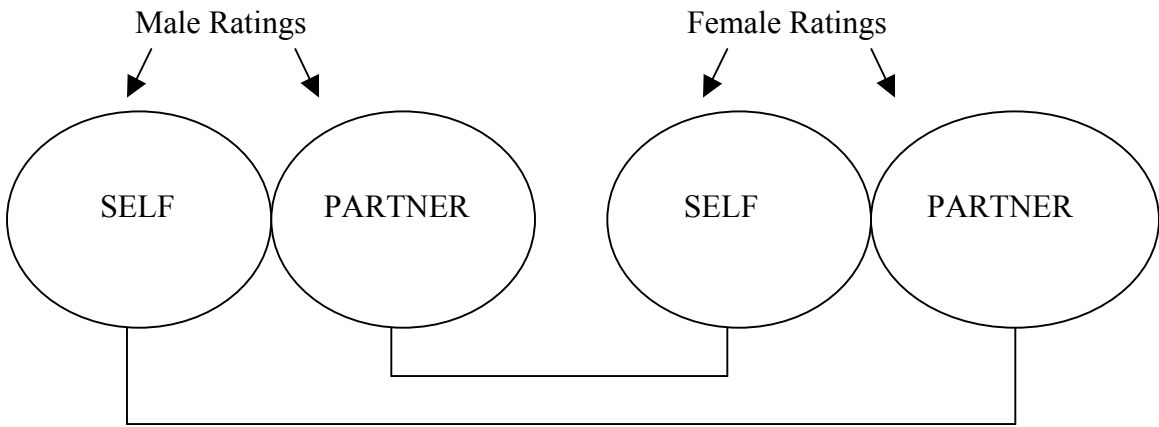


Figure B2 Rating Accuracy of a Dyad

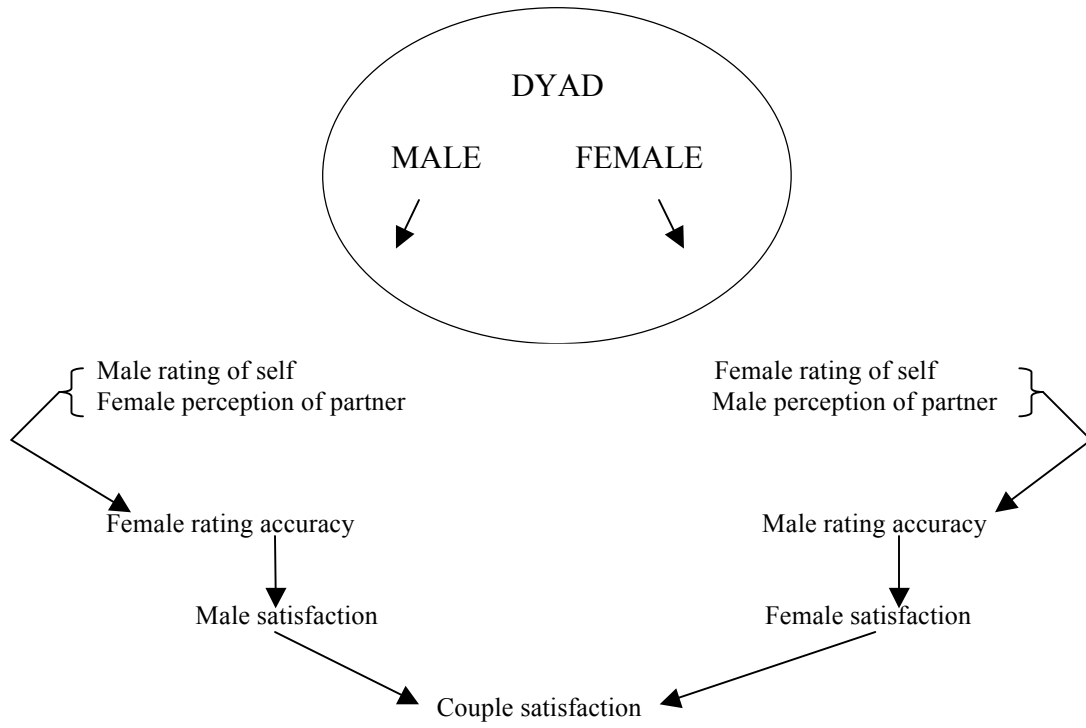


Figure B3 Dyadic Rating Accuracy and Satisfaction

-
1. Actual similarity
 2. Hypothetical similarity
 3. Female ideal congruence
 4. Male ideal congruence
 5. Female perceived similarity
 6. Male perceived similarity
 7. Female ideal similarity
 8. Male ideal similarity
 9. Female rating accuracy
 10. Male rating accuracy

Figure B4 Correlations Formed from Terminal Values

Table B1
Demographic Information

<i>N</i> = 166, 83 dyads		
Ethnicity	Male <i>n</i>	Female <i>n</i>
Caucasian/White	71	69
African-American	5	4
Hispanic	2	1
Asian	2	4
Other	2	4
Classification		
Freshman	21	34
Sophomore	24	9
Junior	17	12
Senior	6	4
Already Graduated	13	1
Relationship Type		
Dating	7	7
Boy/girl friend	65	64
Engaged	5	5
Married	2	2
Other	2	2
Misc.		
End relationship	36	27
Co-habiting	12	12

Note. *N* = 166, 83 dyads

Table B2
Value Ranks by Gender

	Male			Female		
	Self	Partner	Ideal	Self	Partner	Ideal
1 st Rank	Happiness	Happiness	Happiness	Happiness	Happiness	Happiness
<i>f</i>	23	29	28	19	29	31
2 nd Rank	Happiness	Happiness	Happiness	Happiness	Comfortable Life	True Friendship
<i>f</i>	19	14	15	14	14	19
3 rd Rank	Self-respect	True Friendship	True Friendship	True Friendship	Happiness	Self-respect
<i>f</i>	10	14	12	13	11	15
16 th Rank	A World of Beauty	Social Recognition	A World of Beauty	A World of Beauty	A World at Peace	National Security
<i>f</i>	16	14	18	13	18	17
17 th Rank	National Security	National Security	National Security	National Security	National Security	A World at Peace
<i>f</i>	17	14	14	17	15	18
18 th Rank	Social Recognition	National Security	National Security	National Security	A World of Beauty	National Security
<i>f</i>	16	24	20	22	24	19
						Social Recognition 19

Table B3
Descriptive Statistics for Social Provisions Subscales by Gender

	Mean		Median		SD		SE		Variance	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Alliance	17.06	18.30	17	19	2.47	1.88	.27	.21	6.11	3.56
Attachment	17.01	17.44	17	18	2.73	2.58	.30	.28	7.47	6.64
Guide	16.85	17.22	17	18	2.71	2.58	.29	.28	7.37	6.67
Nurture	15.15	14.12	16	14	3.02	2.57	.34	.28	9.14	6.65
Integration	15.46	16.15	16	16	3.05	2.42	.33	.27	9.30	5.88
Reassurance of Worth	16.08	16.54	16	16	2.56	2.40	.28	.26	6.57	5.74

Table B4

Terminal Responses Correlated with Relationship Assessment Scale

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Satisfaction	Male Satisfaction	Couple Satisfaction
Actual similarity	.22*	.34**	.32**
Hypothetical similarity	.05	.27**	.19 (.09)
Female ideal congruence	.23*	.25*	.27*
Male ideal congruence	.05	.20 (.07)	.14
Female rating accuracy	.30**	.23*	.29**
Male rating accuracy	.34**	.20 (.07)	.30**
Female perceived similarity	.13	.20 (.07)	.18
Male perceived similarity	.35**	.42**	.44**
Female ideal similarity	.14	.14	.15
Male ideal similarity	.28*	.42**	.40**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B5

Terminal Responses Correlated with Inclusion of Other in Self

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Intimacy	Male Intimacy	Couple Intimacy
Actual similarity	.29**	.25*	.35**
Hypothetical similarity	.14	.22*	.23*
Female ideal congruence	.30**	.18	.31**
Male ideal congruence	.12	.25*	.23*
Female rating accuracy	.23*	.20 (.07)	.28*
Male rating accuracy	.26*	.17	.29**
Female perceived similarity	.19 (.09)	.24*	.26*
Male perceived similarity	.08	.21 (.06)	.19 (.09)
Female ideal similarity	.09	.30**	.23*
Male ideal similarity	.07	.21 (.06)	.19

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B6

Terminal Responses Correlated with Trust Inventory

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Partner Trust	Male Partner Trust	Couple Partner Trust	Female Global Trust	Male Global Trust	Couple Global Trust
Actual similarity	.24*	.13	.21(.06)	.03	.03	.04
Hypothetical similarity	.09	.25*	.22*	.08	.04	.03
Female ideal congruence	.19	.06	.15	-.03	.13	.10
Male ideal congruence	.17	.21	.21(.06)	.05	.08	-.12
Female rating accuracy	.28**	.24*	.30**	.02	.12	.10
Male rating accuracy	.33**	.18	.30**	.10	.04	.04
Female perceived similarity	.13	.03	.04	.10	.04	.04
Male perceived similarity	.23	.29**	.30**	.02	.12	.10
Female ideal similarity	.13	.07	.10	.19 (.08)	.21 (.06)	.02
Male ideal similarity	.20 (.07)	.31**	.29**	.11	.14	.03

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B7

Terminal Responses Correlated with Alliance Subscale

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Alliance	Male Alliance	Couple Alliance
Actual similarity	.15	.14	.18
Hypothetical similarity	.13	.21 (.06)	.22*
Female ideal congruence	.23*	.17	.23*
Male ideal congruence	.10	-.07	.01
Female rating accuracy	.16	.12	.17
Male rating accuracy	.24*	.04	.16
Female perceived similarity	.00	-.11	-.07
Male perceived similarity	.16	.22*	.25*
Female ideal similarity	-.01	-.07	-.05
Male ideal similarity	-.09	.38**	.32**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B8

Terminal Responses Correlated with Attachment Subscale

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Attachment	Male Attachment	Couple Attachment
Actual similarity	.27*	.28*	.31**
Hypothetical similarity	.05	.30**	.20 (.07)
Female ideal congruence	.22*	.24*	.26*
Male ideal congruence	.11	.14	.14
Female rating accuracy	.24*	.20 (.07)	.24*
Male rating accuracy	.17	.02	.10
Female perceived similarity	.18	.06	.13
Male perceived similarity	.16	.27*	.25*
Female ideal similarity	.11	.15	.14
Male ideal similarity	.15	.34**	.28*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B9

Terminal Responses Correlated with Guidance Subscale

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Guidance	Male Guidance	Couple Guidance
Actual similarity	.22*	.34**	.35**
Hypothetical similarity	.12	.39**	.32**
Female ideal congruence	.23*	.25*	.30**
Male ideal congruence	.16	.11	.17*
Female rating accuracy	.23*	.28*	.32**
Male rating accuracy	.29**	.05	.21
Female perceived similarity	.04	.04	.05
Male perceived similarity	.38**	.27*	.40**
Female ideal similarity	-.01	.06	.03
Male ideal similarity	.31*	.40**	.44**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B10

Terminal Responses Correlated with Nurturance Subscale

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Nurturance	Male Nurturance	Couple Nurturance
Actual similarity	.21 (.06)	.24*	.28*
Hypothetical similarity	-.02	.17	.11
Female ideal congruence	.14	.22*	.19
Male ideal congruence	.06	.08	.09
Female rating accuracy	.09	.12	.13
Male rating accuracy	.19 (.09)	.05	.10
Female perceived similarity	.00	.05	-.02
Male perceived similarity	.11	.13	.07
Female ideal similarity	-.06	-.01	-.05
Male ideal similarity	.05	.20 (.07)	.10

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B11

Terminal Responses Correlated with Integration Subscale

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Integration	Male Integration	Couple Integration
Actual similarity	.18	.12	.18
Hypothetical similarity	-.06	.16	.09
Female ideal congruence	.19 (.08)	.15	.22*
Male ideal congruence	-.06	-.06	-.07
Female rating accuracy	.15	.02	.12
Male rating accuracy	.17	-.02	.09
Female perceived similarity	.15	.10	.15
Male perceived similarity	.10	.21 (.06)	.20 (.07)
Female ideal similarity	-.12	.04	.10
Male ideal similarity	-.00	.28*	.20 (.08)

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B12

Terminal Responses Correlated with Reassurance of Worth

Rokeach Terminal Values	Female Worth	Male Worth	Couple Worth
Actual similarity	.33**	.25*	.34**
Hypothetical similarity	.06	.34**	.24*
Female ideal congruence	.29**	.29**	.35**
Male ideal congruence	.16	.16	.20 (.08)
Female rating accuracy	.24*	.21 (.06)	.27*
Male rating accuracy	.38**	.27*	.39**
Female perceived similarity	.08	.14	.14
Male perceived similarity	.18	.47**	.40**
Female ideal similarity	.03	.13	.09
Male ideal similarity	.20 (.08)	.50**	.43**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B13

Attachment Correlations with RAS

	Female Satisfaction	Male Satisfaction	Couple Satisfaction
Female Attachment	.70**	.39**	.37**
Male Attachment	.53**	.69**	.36**
Couple Attachment	.69**	.60**	.41**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table B14

Correlations of Trust Inventory with RAS

	Female Satisfaction	Male Satisfaction	Couple Satisfaction
Female Partner Trust	.71**	.41**	.41**
Male Partner Trust	.52**	.63**	.47**
Couple Partner Trust	.72**	.60**	.52**
Female Global Trust	.29**	.10	.04
Male Global Trust	.03	.16	.11
Couple Global Trust	.22*	.18	.11

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

APPENDIX C

Significant Correlations of All Value Similarity with Relationship Quality

Correlation 1: Actual similarity. For the RAS, actual similarity correlated significantly with male satisfaction $r = .34, p < .01$, female satisfaction $r = .22, p < .05$, and couple satisfaction, $r = .32, p < .01$. For the Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale, actual similarity correlated with male intimacy, $r = .25, p < .05$, female intimacy, $r = .29, p < .01$, and couple intimacy, $r = .35, p < .01$. On the Trust Inventory, actual similarity correlated with female partner trust, $r = .24, p < .05$. Actual similarity correlated significantly with the following subscales of the Social Provisions Scale: male attachment, $r = .28, p < .05$, female attachment, $r = .27, p < .05$, couple attachment, $r = .31, p < .01$, male guidance, $r = .34, p < .01$, female guidance, $r = .22, p < .05$, couple guidance, $r = .35, p < .01$, male nurturance, $r = .24, p < .05$, couple nurturance, $r = .28, p < .05$, male worth, $r = .25, p < .05$, female worth, $r = .33, p < .01$, and couple worth, $r = .34, p < .01$.

Correlation 2: Male perceived similarity. For the RAS, male perceived similarity correlated significantly with male, female, and couple satisfaction, $r = .42, p < .01, r = .35, p < .01, r = .44, p < .01$, respectively. On the Trust Inventory, male perceived similarity correlated significantly with male partner trust and couple trust, $r = .29, p < .01, r = .30, p < .01$, respectively. Male perceived similarity correlated with the following subscales of the Social Provisions Scale: male alliance, $r = .22, p < .05$, couple alliance, $r = .25, p < .05$, male attachment, $r = .27, p < .05$, couple attachment, $r = .25, p < .05$, male guidance, $r = .27, p < .05$, female guidance, $r = .38, p < .01$, couple guidance, $r = .40, p < .01$, male worth, $r = .47, p < .01$, and couple worth, $r = .40, p < .01$.

Correlation 3: Female perceived similarity. For the Inclusion of Other in the Self, female perceived similarity correlated significantly with male intimacy, $r = .24, p < .05$, and couple intimacy, $r = .26, p < .05$.

Correlation 4: Female ideal congruence. For the RAS, female ideal congruence correlated significantly with male, female, and couple satisfaction, $r = .25, p < .05, r = .23, p < .05, r = .27, p < .05$, respectively. For the Inclusion of Other in the Self, female ideal congruence correlated significantly with female intimacy, $r = .30, p < .01$, and couple intimacy, $r = .31, p < .01$. Female ideal congruence correlated with the following subscales of the Social Provisions Scale: female alliance, $r = .23, p < .05$, couple alliance, $r = .23, p < .05$, male attachment, $r = .24, p < .05$, female attachment, $r = .22, p < .05$, couple attachment, $r = .26, p < .05$, male guidance, $r = .25, p < .05$, female guidance, $r = .23, p < .05$, couple guidance, $r = .30, p < .01$, male nurturance, $r = .22, p < .05$, couple integration, $r = .22, p < .05$, male worth, $r = .29, p < .01$, female worth, $r = .29, p < .01$, and couple worth, $r = .35, p < .01$.

Correlation 5: Male ideal congruence. For the Inclusion of Other in the Self, female ideal congruence correlated significantly with male intimacy, $r = .25, p < .05$, and couple intimacy, $r = .23, p < .05$. Male ideal congruence only correlated with the Social Provisions subscale of couple guidance, $r = .17, p < .05$.

Correlation 6: Male ideal similarity. For the RAS, male ideal similarity correlated significantly with male satisfaction, $r = .42, p < .01$, female satisfaction, $r = .28, p < .05$, and couple satisfaction, $r = .40, p < .01$. On the Trust Inventory, male ideal similarity correlated with male partner trust, $r = .31, p < .01$, and couple partner trust, $r = .29, p < .01$. Male ideal similarity correlated with the following subscales of the Social

Provisions Scale: male alliance, $r = .38, p < .01$, couple alliance, $r = .32, p < .01$, male attachment, $r = .34, p < .01$, couple attachment, $r = .28, p < .05$, male guidance, $r = .40, p < .01$, female guidance, $r = .31, p < .01$, couple guidance, $r = .44, p < .01$, male integration, $r = .28, p < .05$, male worth, $r = .50, p < .01$, and couple worth, $r = .43, p < .01$.

Correlation 7: Female ideal similarity. For the Inclusion of Other in Self, female ideal similarity correlated with male intimacy, $r = .30, p < .01$, and couple intimacy, $r = .23, p < .05$.

Correlation 8: Hypothetical similarity. For the RAS, hypothetical similarity correlated significantly only with male satisfaction $r = .27, p < .01$. For the Inclusion of Other in the Self, hypothetical similarity correlated significantly with male intimacy, $r = .22, p < .05$, and couple intimacy, $r = .23, p < .05$. On the Trust Inventory, hypothetical similarity correlated with male partner trust, $r = .25, p < .05$, and with couple partner trust, $r = .22, p < .05$. Hypothetical similarity correlated significantly with the following subscales of the Social Provisions Scale: couple alliance, $r = .22, p < .05$, male attachment, $r = .30, p < .01$, male guidance, $r = .39, p < .01$, couple guidance, $r = .32, p < .01$, male worth, $r = .34, p < .01$, and couple worth, $r = .24, p < .05$.

Correlation 9: Male rating accuracy. For the RAS, male rating accuracy correlated significantly with female satisfaction and couple satisfaction, $r = .34, p < .01, r = .30, p < .01$, respectively. For the Inclusion of Other in the Self, male rating accuracy correlated significantly with female intimacy and couple intimacy, $r = .26, p < .01, r = .29, p < .01$, respectively. On the Trust Inventory, male rating accuracy correlated significantly with female partner trust and couple trust, $r = .33, p < .01, r = .30, p < .01$,

respectively. Male rating accuracy correlated with the following subscales of the Social Provisions Scale: female alliance, $r = .24, p < .05$, female guidance, $r = .29, p < .01$, male worth, $r = .27, p < .05$, female worth, $r = .38, p < .01$, and couple worth, $r = .39, p < .01$.

Correlation 10: Female rating accuracy. For the RAS, female rating accuracy correlated with male satisfaction, $r = .24, p < .05$, female satisfaction, $r = .30, p < .01$, and couple satisfaction, $r = .29, p < .01$. For the Inclusion of Other in the Self, female rating accuracy correlated significantly with female intimacy, $r = .23, p < .05$, and couple intimacy, $r = .28, p < .05$. On the Trust Inventory, female rating accuracy correlated with male partner trust, $r = .24, p < .05$, female partner trust, $r = .28, p < .05$, and couple partner trust, $r = .30, p < .01$. Female rating accuracy correlated with the following subscales of the Social Provisions Scale: female attachment, $r = .24, p < .05$, couple attachment, $r = .24, p < .05$, male guidance, $r = .28, p < .05$, female guidance, $r = .23, p < .05$, couple guidance, $r = .32, p < .01$, female worth, $r = .24, p < .05$, and couple worth, $r = .27, p < .05$.

VITA

Jennifer G. Clement was born in Shreveport, LA, but spent a large portion of her life in Southeast Asia. After graduating from Ouachita Baptist University in 2002, Jennifer applied and was accepted to the Experimental Psychology program at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Her area of expertise has been Social Psychology and her recent research focuses have been the value similarity of romantic couples, identity, and the neurophysiology and behavior of pranks. After graduating with her PhD from the University of Tennessee she plans to teach at the undergraduate level and will continue her association with the University of Tennessee.