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# "My partner wasn't so disgusting when we first started dating, what happened?" : an exploration of change processes in close relationships and their causes.

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**MY PARTNER WASN'T SO DISGUSTING WHEN WE FIRST STARTED DATING, WHAT HAPPENED? AN EXPLORATION OF CHANGE PROCESSES IN CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS AND THEIR CAUSES.**

By

Stephen R. Shamblen
B.A., University of Cincinnati, 1994
M.A., University of Louisville, 1998

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Department of Psychological and Brain Sciences
University Louisville
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May, 2004

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A Dissertation Approved on:


January 23, 2004


by the Following Dissertation Committee:


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Dissertation Director


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## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father,

Mr. Clifford E. Shamblen

who has taught me not to be afraid of aspiration.

**ABSTRACT**

**MY PARTNER WASN'T SO DISGUSTING WHEN WE FIRST STARTED DATING, WHAT HAPPENED? AN EXPLORATION OF CHANGE PROCESSES IN CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS AND THEIR CAUSES.**

Stephen R. Shamblen

January 23, 2004

We are more likely to "hurt the one's we love" than we are complete strangers (cf. R. Miller, 1991, 1997). Early in dating relationships, partners appear to me more likely to manage their impressions to present themselves as better than they really are (romantic inflation), and later in relationships, partners may behave in a manner that is worse than their typical behavior (post romanticism). The social allergy and social enrichment constructs are relevant to these phenomena, as these typologies focus on partner behaviors that are rather minor in their impact on an individual's affect to behaviors that have a major impact on an individual's affect. Negative non-intentional negative behaviors are presumed to be related to negative sex-role stereotypes, with men engaging in more and increasing their frequency of bad habits and women engaging in more and increasing their frequency of inconsiderate behaviors. Changes in these behaviors are also presumed to be related to changes in relationship outcomes according to the investment model.

Two preliminary studies were conducted to examine stereotypes about changes over the first year of dating relationships using a sample of 161 undergraduates (study 1) and to examine the relationship between partner behaviors and individual satisfaction using a cross-sectional sample of 124 couples dating an average of 5.25 months (study 2). Study three examined investment model predictions, as well as examining possible explanations for why partners may increase

their frequency of negative behaviors and decrease their frequency of positive behaviors. A longitudinal sample of 70 couples dating an average of 13.53 months was followed for two months to examine these questions.

The present series of studies suggest that it is largely negative relationship behaviors that increase in frequency over the course of time in dating relationships. Consistent evidence was found for gender differences in behavior corresponding to negative sex-role stereotypes, with men being seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors and women being seen as engaging in more inconsiderate behaviors. Evidence from study three suggests that among early dating couples, men may increase their bad habit behaviors over time and women may increase their inconsiderate behaviors over time. Interestingly, women who were seen as increasing these behaviors had partners who became less satisfied with their relationships; however, these results were not found for perceptions of men's behavior.

Romantic inflation was primarily responsible for explaining changes over time in negative behaviors, and post romanticism was primarily responsible for explaining changes over time in positive behaviors. These findings suggest that individuals presented themselves as more positive than they really were in the beginning of relationships, and became less motivated to refrain from negativity later in relationships. Romantic inflation was related to individuals presenting themselves as better than they really are on the most consequential positive behaviors (emotionally supportive and sexually affectionate behaviors), and only men were more likely to exhibit post romanticism for the most consequential negative behaviors (intrusions and norm violations).

Nevertheless, changes in the frequency of both negative and positive partner behaviors appear to be consequential, as partner intrusive, norm-violating, emotional support, and sexually-affectionate behaviors were related to the individual's relationship outcomes, such as satisfaction and dissolution. Support was also found in the data for the predictions of the investment model.

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# INTRODUCTION

Close relationship partners are usually on their best behavior in the beginning of close

relationships to obtain the affections of others (cf. Rose & Frieze, 1993). Over time in close

relationships, partners may have less motivation to present these polished impression

managements (cf. Miller, 1991, 1997). For example, early in relationships, dating partners are

more likely to spend more time in the bathroom preening (Ekman, Friesen, Angier, Daly, Hogg,

& Sacks, et. al., 1999), and women are less likely to eat as much on first dates (Pliner & Chaiken,

1990). Negative relationship behaviors appear to be more likely to occur after relationships

progress to further stages of interdependence (Miller, 1991, 1997). These changes may be due to

two processes: partners presenting deceptive impressions in the beginning of relationships and

declinse in motivation to maintain such impressions over time.

Gender may also influence patterns of increased negative behaviors and the amount of

negative affect experienced by the individual as a result of such behavior. Men have been found

to be more boorish and domineering in close relationships, whereas women have been found to be

more neurotic (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979). These behaviors have been found to elicit

negative affect from close relationship partners (Buss, 1989). These behaviors may also become

more pronounced as relationships progress, as men come to adopt more agentic roles and women

come to adopt more communal roles (Abrahams, Feldman, and Nash, 1978).

Cognitive and affective dynamics may also play a role in perceptions of negative relationship

behaviors. Negative affect occurs with greater intensity when negative behaviors are repeated,

and dispositional attributions are likely to be made for a partner's aberrant behavior

(Cunningham, Barbee, & Druen, 1997). An individual may initially tolerate a small deviation

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from social graces. After the fifth time in a given week that a partner loudly belches at the dinner table, it will be met with greater disgust and annoyance, as well as the attribution that the partner is a disgusting pig. Thus, cognition and affect determine whether these behaviors are bothersome to a close relationship partner, and they may affect relationship outcomes.

The present paper reviews the relevant literature examining impression management in close relationships and changes in impression management that may occur over the course of close relationships. Behaviors that have been found to change over time are also reviewed. A model is presented proposing why relationship behaviors change over the course of time, as well as suggesting what impact these changes may have on relationship outcomes. Two preliminary studies and a more comprehensive third study are presented.

*Impression Management (presenting ourselves as better than we really are)*

Relationship partners may use deceptive impression managements as a means of presenting themselves as more desirable than they really are when making first impressions to the opposite sex (Leary, Nezlek, Downs, Radford-Davenport, Martin, & McMullen, 1994; Rose & Freize, 1993). This tendency may be especially pronounced when partners hold high expectations and individuals are deficient (Druen, Barbee, Cunningham, & Yankeelov, 1996). These first impressions have been shown to correspond to sex-role stereotypes (Rose & Freize, 1993), and are possibly enacted to gain the affection of a potential dating partner (Costrich, Feinstein, Kidder, Marecek, & Pascale, 1975; Ickes, 1993; Zillman, Weaver, Mundorf, & Aust, 1986).

*Impression Management*. Leary and his colleagues (Leary, Nezlek, Downs, Radford-Davenport, Martin, & McMullen, 1994) found individuals to present a more favorable image of the self to opposite sex persons than to same sex persons using a modified version of the Rochester Interaction Record (Wheeler & Nezlek, 1977). This modified version of the RIR assessed ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, and adonization (presenting one's self as more attractive). Individuals were found to manage impression more with opposite sex interaction

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partners. This effect was especially pronounced for the most frequently cited opposite sex interaction partner (who may have been a dating partner). Elevated impression management to the opposite sex may represent individuals presenting inflated positive impressions to potential dating partners, as the participants in this study were predominantly lower classmen.

*First Date Scripts.* In the beginning of close relationships, it easier for close relationship partners to be self-aggrandizing and present an overwhelmingly positive image of the self to individuals. Part of this is due to individuals not meeting other members of a partner's social network who can confirm or disconfirm the image of the self presented. After partners social networks become enmeshed, partners must be more careful in presenting overly favorable images of the self, as they may be discovered as a fraud. Evidence for such processes comes indirectly from research examining first date scripts.

First impressions in close relationships often determine whether relationships will progress to further stages (Miller, 1991, 1997; Rose & Frieze, 1993). It is in our best interest to present a favorable image of the self to a potential partner, such that we will gain their affection and approval. Close relationships are often a great source of rewards to individuals, as would be evidenced by the elevated ratings of life satisfaction of those who are involved in happy marriages (Argyle & Furnham, 1983). Consequently, we are more likely to present a favorable image of the self to those who are capable of providing us with rewards (Schlenker, 1980).

To aid such processes, behavior on first dates is scripted, such that a prescribed pattern of actions exists for men and women (Rose & Frieze, 1993). These prescribed patterns of behavior presumably aid in the impression management process, as roles do not have to be improvised. These first date scripts also differ as a function of gender. Men's scripts place them in a more proactive role (e.g., asking a woman for a date, initiating sexual activity); and women's scripts place them in a more reactive role (e.g., waiting to be asked out for a date, maintaining conversations). Scripts for courtship and weddings also have been found to reflect sex-role

stereotypes for behavior (Holmberg & Veroff, 1996). However, other research examining relationship accounts suggests that as many as 37 different scripts may exist for ways that couples fall in love--not just one pattern that follows sex-role stereotypes (Surra, Batchfelder, & Hughes, 1995).

*Expectation Discordance Model of Deception*. The expectation discordance model of deception (EDMD: Druen, Barbee, Cunningham, & Yankeelov, 1996) predicts that individuals will use deception in the beginning of dating relationships when three conditions are present: 1) there is a negative discrepancy between an individual's expectations and a partner's capacities to meet such expectations, 2) a partner is highly motivated to meet the individual's expectations, and 3) the partner will not be likely to be discovered as a fraud for using deceptive impression management. The EDMD grew out of evidence that lying is not only predicted by individual differences, but lying also serves as a means of not divulging violated relationship expectations (Millar & Tesser, 1988). Several studies have examined the utility of the EDMD in predicting deception in close relationships.

Two areas where dating couples may hold differing expectations and capacities are physical attractiveness and socially desirable personality traits. Rowatt, Cunningham, and Druen (1999) examined the degree to which individuals would try to deceive a target person of the opposite sex for a potential date, based on the target person's physical attractiveness. In the first session, 94 college students completed a measures assessing self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974), love attitudes, and gender-related personality characteristics. Two weeks later, individuals were given target profiles manipulating physical attractiveness, gender-related personality characteristics, and love attitudes. Individuals were asked to describe themselves to the target person using the same measures completed two weeks earlier. Individuals presented themselves as being more similar to an attractive partner in love attitudes and gender-related personality characteristics.

In a partial replication, participants were asked to indicate how much they would lie about their likes and dislikes to get a date with an unattractive and an attractive target person of the opposite sex. Participants were asked to indicate how much they would alter information about their personal appearance, personality, income, past relationships outcomes, career skills, and course grades to get a date with each person. Individuals were much more likely to lie to the physically attractive prospects than to the unattractive prospects for all of the personal qualities. Thus, individuals are more likely to carefully craft their impressions to be more similar to desirable potential relationship partners.

*Discrepancies in Individuals Differences Related to Impression Management.* Individual differences that are related to impression management may be particularly useful in determining those who will attempt to deceive relationship partners in the beginning of relationships. The degree to which partners attempt to match their behavior to situational demands appears particularly relevant.

Rowatt, Cunningham, & Druen (1998, Study 2) looked at the relationship between self-monitoring and deceptive impressions made to potential romantic partners. Participant for this study were 74 participants who completed the self-monitoring scale (Snyder, 1974), a measure of gender-related personality characteristics, a measure of love attitudes, and a measure of desirable responding.

In the second session two weeks later, participants were given two packets that represented information about persons looking for dating partners. One packet represented an attractive target person with an undesirable personality, and the other represented an unattractive target person with a desirable personality. Individuals were asked to provide target persons information about themselves on gender-related personality characteristics, love attitudes, and physical attractiveness. Participants' inclinations towards using deceptive self-presentations were also measured. High self-monitors presented themselves as being more similar to the partner they

wished to date on love attitudes and on gender-related personality characteristics. High self-monitors also presented themselves as being more physically attractive than low self-monitors.

Individuals who are high in self-monitoring may be better at attracting potential partners, due to their ability to perform the types of behavior desired by a potential partner. For example, high self-monitors made disclosures similar to their interaction partners in the areas of intimacy, emotional investment, and content of disclosures (Shaffer, Smith, & Tomarelli, 1982). High self-monitoring individuals may also be considered to be fake by potential mates (Simpson, Gangestad, & Biek, 1993); however, they were more capable of feigning interest in potential romantic partners (Leck & Simpson, 1999, Study 2).

In a study further examining feigned interest, Simpson, Gangestad, and Biek (1993) had 220 college participants complete measures of extroversion, self-monitoring, and socio-sexuality. Next, participants were videotaped having a bogus interaction with an attractive opposite sex stimulus person by way of a video screen. The cover story was that the stimulus person was deciding whether he/she would go out on a date with the participant or another participant. Interactions were coded using single item measures of verbal and non-verbal behaviors. Individuals who were high in self-monitoring were considered to be more phony; and high self-monitoring men were rated as being more socially engaging and dominant. High self-monitors are also seen as using more uncooperative conflict styles (Haferkamp, 1991).

High self-monitors are less likely to be committed to their relationships, have more permissive sexual attitudes, and to have had more dating partners (Haferkamp, 1991; Norris & Zweigenhaft, 1999; Snyder & Simpson, 1984; Snyder, Simpson, & Gangestad, 1986). These findings, in concert, suggest that partners who are high in self-monitoring have more superficial orientations toward their close relationships, and they are more likely to attempt to deceive individuals. High self-monitors also present themselves as being more attracted and more intimate towards individuals in the initial stages of relationships than can likely be maintained in the long run.

*Discrepancies in Individual Differences Related to Impulse Control.* Being lower in impulse control than an individual may also lead relationship partners to present themselves as being higher in impulse control in the beginning of relationships than can be maintained throughout the relationship. Conscientiousness would appear to be related to refraining behaviors requiring self control, as, "[c]onscientiousness refers to conformity and socially prescribed impulse control" (Hogan & Ones, 1997, p. 849).

Buss (1991) found men who were high in conscientiousness were more sexually faithful and less uncouth. Individuals whose partners are lower than them in conscientiousness may become upset with their low conscientiousness partner, as these individuals are less satisfied with their relationships (Nemechek & Olsson, 1999). Also, conscientiousness has been found to predict relationship satisfaction among dating couples (Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000) and marital stability (Kelly & Conley. 1987; Tucker, Kressin, Spiro, & Ruscio, 1998).

Partners who are higher in sensation seeking may also present themselves as exhibiting more impulse control than can be maintained throughout the relationship. Individuals who are high in sensation-seeking have a greater tendency to perform negative behaviors that violate social rules, such as drinking to drunkenness more frequently and engaging in risky sexual behavior (Beck, Thombs, Mahoney, & Fingar, 1995; Seto, Lalumiere, & Quinsey, 1995).

Schroth (1991) examined the relationship between satisfaction and sensation seeking among 102 married and unmarried couples. Discrepancies in sensation seeking, both positive and negative, were related to dissatisfaction with the relationship. Individuals who have a partner who is lower than themselves in sensation seeking may become bored with the relationship, because his/her partner does not desire as much external stimulation as they do. Individuals who have a partner who is higher than them in sensation seeking may become dissatisfied with their relationship, due to his/her partner engaging in behaviors that violate social rules more frequently.

*Discrepancies in Agreeableness.* Partners who are disagreeable may desire to present themselves as more friendly to a dating partner who is higher than they are in agreeableness. Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair (1996, Study 2) examined the relationship between agreeableness and conflict-resolution strategies. One-hundred twenty four participants completed a measure of agreeableness before the experimental portion of the study, and they were classified as being low or high on agreeableness based on median splits. Individuals were then paired with a partner and engaged in conflict resolution tasks. Pairs were composed of two agreeable individuals, two disagreeable individuals, or a mixed pair.

The conflict resolution tasks were a jury decision task and a role-playing task where participants played the roles of two competing scientists. Interactions were coded for conflict resolution styles (power assertion, disengagement, submission, and compromise). The findings of the study suggest that disagreeable individuals used more power assertion to influence their interaction partners and they elicited more conflict from their interaction partners. By comparison, high agreeable individuals are less likely to use dominant influence tactics (Antonioni, 1999; Graziano, et. al., 1996). Men who are high in agreeableness perform less condescending, dependent, neglecting, abusive, moody, sexually aggressive, and self-centered behavior, and highly agreeable women are less self-centered (Buss, 1991).

*Discrepancies in Neuroticism.* Differences in emotional stability between dating partners may lead unstable partners to present themselves as more emotionally stable than they really are in the beginning of relationships. Neuroticism is related to relationship partners being more moody and engaging in negative verbal behaviors toward their partners (Buss, 1991; Caughlin, Huston, & Houts, 2000). Neuroticism is also related to experiencing greater negative affect in response to people's negative behaviors (Cunningham et. al., 1997). Experiencing negative affect may be related to negative relationship outcomes. Husbands with neurotic wives have lower levels of

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relationship satisfaction and they are more likely to divorce (Kelly & Conley, 1987; Tucker, Kressin, Spiro, & Ruscio, 1998).

*Discrepancies in Narcissism.* Narcissism is another dimension which relationship partners may attempt to hide in the beginning of relationships. Partners who are high in narcissism may make extremely poor relationship partners, as they are dominant, exploitive, and self-obsessed (Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Campbell (1999) found high narcissistic partners to be more self-oriented in relationships, and they are more attracted to individuals who are more self-oriented than other-oriented. Narcissistic partners are also less committed to their relationships (Campbell & Foster, 2000).

*Discrepancies in Attachment Style.* Dating couples in which both partners are secure are not likely to experience deception regarding attachment related behavior; however, insecure partners may be likely to convey the impression they are more secure than they really are at the beginning of close relationships. This may be due to insecure partners evaluating their relationships less positively unless they have secured a marriage commitment (Young & Acitelli, 1998). Insecure partners may make particularly bad relationship partners, as they fail to provide their partners with social-support when support is sought (Collins & Feeney, 2000), and they have less commitment, satisfaction, and intimacy in their relationships (Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994).

Simpson (1990) longitudinally examined the effects of attachment style on interdependence, commitment, trust, satisfaction, and affect experienced in dating relationships with a sample of 144 college dating couples. After the initial interview, 92% of the couples were contacted to determine whether they were still dating. Attachment style was measured with a modified version of Hazan and Shaver's (1987) measure of attachment. Commitment in the relationship was measured using the Commitment Scale (Lund, 1985) and the commitment items used by Rusbult (1983). Satisfaction was measured with a face valid item created by the authors. Secure attachment was positively related to interdependence, commitment, trust, and satisfaction in close

relationships, whereas insecure attachment styles were largely negatively related to relationship outcomes. Partners with insecure attachment styles had relationship partners that were less satisfied and committed to the relationship, whereas securely attached partners had partners who were more satisfied and committed to their relationships.

Senchak & Leonard (1992) examined the effects of attachment style on intimacy using 322 engaged couples who received $50 for their participation. Participants were given a measure of adult attachment style (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), a measure of intimacy (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982), a measure of relationship satisfaction--the Family Assessment Scale (Skinner, Steinhauer, & Santa-Barbara, 1983), and a measure of how negative behaviors are dealt with in relationships-- the Margolin Conflict Inventory (Margolin, 1980). Couples where both partner were secure had higher levels of marital satisfaction, intimacy, and lower levels of verbally aggressive or withdraw behaviors than insecure or mixed couples.

The findings for individual differences suggest that partners who are different from individuals in a socially undesirable direction on individual differences may attempt to deceive individuals at the beginning of close relationship. The EDMD proposes that these partners may be deceptive towards individuals at the beginning of the relationship to manage impressions. Individuals may perceive behaviors about which they were initially deceived to be particularly aversive, especially when partners return to their normal baseline of negativity.

*Honesty is Maybe Not the Best Solution--Self Disclosure.* The literature suggests that self-disclosure norms prescribe that as interdependence increases, the depth and breadth of self-disclosures increase as well (Altman & Taylor, 1973). Individuals who violate these norms for self-disclosure by either disclosing too much too early or disclosing too little too late are likely to receive negative evaluations from their relationship partners. Self-disclosure also allows for individuals to become aware of the negative aspects of a relationship partner.

Research examining self-disclosure in getting acquainted interactions provides indirect

evidence about the effects of disclosing negative aspects of the self in close relationships. Jones and Archer (1976) examined the effects of making stigmatizing disclosures (that one's father is an alcoholic or that one is seeing a therapist) on liking in a getting acquainted interaction. Confederates who disclosed stigmatizing information were liked better and were more likely to have their disclosures reciprocated.

Timing of stigmatizing disclosures bares more directly on close relationships. Jones and Gordon (1976) looked at the effects of the timing of a disclosure (early vs. late in the conversation), and responsibility (responsible vs. not responsible) for a negative event on attraction to a stimulus person. Confederates who were responsible for their negative outcomes were liked better if they made such disclosures early in interactions, and confederates who were not responsible for their negative outcomes were liked better if their disclosures were made later in interactions. Of relevance to relationships, individuals are likely to appreciate partners who are honest and forthright about their negative qualities. Nevertheless, individuals may be less willing to enter into a relationship with such a partner.

*Sex-Role Stereotypic Self-Presentations*. Men and women may perform positive sex-role congruent behaviors in the beginning of relationships to gain the affections of their partners (cf. Ickes, 1993). However, sex-role adoption may also lead partners to increase their frequency of certain negative behaviors. As mentioned previously, negative stereotypes for the genders describe men as engaging in more bad habit and intrusive behaviors and women as engaging in more emotionally oversensitive and self-absorbed behaviors (Buss, 1989; Spence, Helmreich, & Holahan, 1979). Partners may wish to be deceptive about their normal frequency of negative sex-role congruent behaviors in the beginning of close relationships as a consequence. Over time, partners may not be able to refrain from engaging in these negative role-consistent behaviors.

*Gender-Related Personality Characteristics*. Positive gender-role related behaviors may become more prevalent, as men become more instrumental and women become more expressive

and less instrumental (BSRI: Bem, 1974) after the birth of their first child (Abrahams, Feldman,

& Nash, 1978). These findings have been replicated by asking individuals to complete the BSRI

for each of these life stages retrospectively (McCreary, 1990). However, it should be noted that

these studies both have the limitation of being cross-sectional. There is also not necessarily a

clear relationship between gender-related traits and gender-related behaviors (Spence &

Helmreich, 1980).

These traits have been shown to be related to relationship outcomes. Bradbury and his

colleagues (Bradbury, Campbell, & Fincham, 1995, Study 2) recruited 130 couples married an

average of 10 years to participate in a longitudinal study. Couples were paid $15 at each wave of

the study and 81% participated again at time two one year later. Participants completed the

Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich, & Holahan, 1979) and the

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenburg, 1965) at time one, and a measure of marital

satisfaction (Marital Adjustment Test: Locke & Wallace, 1959) at time two. Participants

responded to mailed questionnaires, and returned their questionnaires in self-addressed stamped

envelopes at time two. Possession of positive expressive personality characteristics was related to

marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. Couples who were high on cross-sex-role

personality characteristics were also more satisfied with their relationships.

*Gender and Cognitive Dynamics.* Gender differences may also exist in the cognitive dynamics

mediating interpretations of negative behaviors (or lack of positive behaviors) performed by a

close relationship partner (Gaelick, Bodenhausen, & Wyer, 1985). Gaelick and her colleagues

(1985) asked men and women who were either married or cohabiting to discuss a problem in the

relationship. Both men and women reciprocated negative affect; however, positive affect was not

reciprocated. Also, women were found to interpret their partners' lack of negative affect as an

expression of love, whereas men were found to interpret the absence of positive affect from their

partners as a sign of hostility.

*Gender and Affective Dynamics.* The behaviors that individuals find most aversive in a partner may be sex-role stereotypic negative behaviors. Sex role stereotypes for behavior prescribe that men's behaviors are largely agentic and that women's behaviors are largely communal for both positive (Eagly, 1987) and negative behaviors (Spence, Helmreich, & Holahan, 1979). The behaviors of women that annoyed men most were their moody, sexually withholding, and physically self-absorbed behaviors. Women were most annoyed by men's sexually persist/aggressive behaviors, behaviors that insulted their physical appearance, inconsiderate behaviors, neglectful behaviors, condescending behaviors, and emotionally constricted behaviors (Buss, 1989). The aforementioned dimensions of behavior were inversely related to marital satisfaction for both men and women, respectively (Buss, 1991).

These findings have been replicated in a longitudinal study of married couples (Amato & Rogers, 1997). Four waves of longitudinal data with single representatives of couples were collected by way of the telephone starting in 1980. Data were gathered from 86% of the participants in 1986, 71% in 1988, and 61% in 1992. Data were collected on whether the following marital problems existed for the interviewee or their spouse: gets angry easily, feelings are easily hurt, is jealous, is domineering, is critical, is moody, does not talk to the other, has had sex with someone else, has irritating habits, is not home enough, spends money foolishly, and drinks or uses drugs. Sex differences between husbands' and wives' reports of the occurrence of their own and their partners' behaviors were reported (table 1, p. 617). These data were re-analyzed by calculating significant differences in proportions between wives' reports of the occurrence of husbands' negative behaviors and husbands' reports of the occurrence of wives' negative behaviors.

Husbands were more likely to get angry easily, be more domineering, be more critical, not talk to their wives as much, have had sex with someone else, have irritating habits, not be home enough, spend money foolishly, and drink or use drugs as reported by their wives. Wives were

found to be more likely to have their feelings hurt easily and be more moody as reported by their husbands. The negative behaviors that women reported their husbands engaged in more frequently were the same behaviors they though would lead to divorce. The problems behaviors engaged in by wives reported by husbands that were likely to lead to divorce were being jealous, being critical, having had sex with someone else, having irritating habits, spending money foolishly, and drinking or using drugs.

*Gender and Behavioral Dynamics*. Different behaviors have also been found to be responsible for men's and women's relationship satisfaction. Wills, Weiss, and Patterson (1974) examined the contribution of positive and negative instrumental and expressive behaviors to satisfaction with interactions in marriage. The participants for this study were seven married couples who were paid $30 for their participation. The couples recorded the frequency of their behaviors. Instrumental behaviors were measured using the Spouse Observation Checklist (SOC: meals and shopping, child care, finances, personal appearance, transportation, housekeeping, and family recreation) for 14 days. On the SOC, individuals indicate daily how frequently his/her partner performs instrumental behaviors, as well as how pleasurable/displeasurable the behaviors are. Expressive behaviors were operationally defined to participants by showing video clips of couples engaging in expressive behaviors. Participants recorded the frequency of positive and negative expressive behaviors with a Golfer's Pal as they happened. Participants also recorded satisfaction with their interactions during the morning, afternoon, and evening daily using a single item measure.

Husbands were more satisfied with their interactions if their wives engaged in more instrumental behaviors and wives were more satisfied with their interactions if their husbands engaged in more expressive behaviors. Negative behaviors (collapsing across instrumentality and expressivity) were more strongly related to ratings of satisfaction with interactions, as negative behaviors accounted for 65% of the variance in these ratings, whereas positive behaviors

(collapsing across instrumentality and expressivity) only accounted for 25% of the variance. In addition, spouses were likely to reciprocate negative behaviors (negative behavioral frequencies were correlated); however, they were not as likely to reciprocate positive behaviors.

*Impression Motivation and Gender-Related Behavior.* Although adoption of some sex-role related behaviors may occur over time in close relationships (Abrahams, et. al., 1978), some sex-role related behaviors that are effortful may not exhibit this pattern of role adoption (cf. Miller, 1991, 1997). For instance, many relationship partners may decrease the frequency of special things they do over the course of time (e.g., opening doors for a partner, cooking a partner's favorite meal) due to becoming lazy (Shamblen & Cunningham, 2001). This implies that some sex-role congruent positive behaviors decrease over time for both men and women.

Related to this proposition, Ickes' (1993) fundamental gender paradox proposes that we are initially attracted to sex-role congruent qualities in a potential partner, due to their evolutionary significance. Men are seen as being more attracted to an expressive woman and women are seen as being more attracted to an instrumental man. This notion has also received empirical support with self-reported mate preferences (Orlofsky, 1982), and the finding that first-date scripts are highly sex-typed (Rose & Frieze, 1993). Strict sex-role adherence is seen as being maladaptive over the course of time, with the most adaptive strategy for men and women being to adopt both instrumental and expressive roles (Coleman & Ganong, 1985).

Due to relationship success being related to positive sex-role congruent behaviors at the beginning of relationships (cf. Ickes, 1993), partners are motivated to perform these behaviors due to impression motivation. The self-disclosure literature supports this proposition, as men who are high self-disclosers about a personal problem and women who are low self-disclosures about a personal problem are seen as having the lowest level of psychological adjustment (Derlega & Chaikin, 1976). Thus, behaviors that violate sex-role expectations for behavior may provide the

clearest evidence of what gender-related behaviors are expected from a close relationship partner, and consequently, what behaviors may change as relationships progress.

*Behaviors that Violate Sex-Role Stereotypes for Behavior.* Men and women who fail to conform to sex-role stereotypes for behavior are likely to be evaluated negatively by a (potential) relationship partner. Costrich and her colleagues (Costrich, Feinstein, Kidder, Marecek, & Pascale, 1975) found that individuals involved in mixed-sex interactions evaluated male confederates who were submissive and female confederates who were dominant as less likable and less psychologically adjusted than confederates who conformed to sex-role stereotypes. These findings have also been extended to the domain of mate preferences, in that women have been found to prefer men who are dominant for a potential long-term relationship (Sadalla & Kenrick, 1987).

Possibly relevant to gender-related expectations for behavior on first dates, Zillman examined evaluations of opposite sex confederates based on their reactions to horror films (Zillman, Weaver, Mundorf, & Aust, 1986). Male confederates who showed a dominance/strength response and female confederates who showed a fear response to horror films were liked more by opposite sex participants. These findings suggest that failure to perform positive sex-role stereotypic positive behaviors may be particularly aversive to individuals, especially if partners consistently fail to perform such behaviors.

*Gender and Deceptive Self-Presentations.* Individuals are also likely to deceive partners about their normal/baseline frequency of sex-role stereotypic negative behaviors, which are particularly aversive to close relationship partners (Buss, 1989). Rowatt, Cunningham, Rowatt, Druen, and Miles (2001, Study 1) examined what lies men and women were likely to commit in close relationships. Sex differences were not found in willingness to lie. However, men were more willing than women to exaggerate involvement in school activities and their willingness to commit to a relationship, and women were more likely than men to lie about their weight.

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Study two examined what traits were most desirable in a mate using the same attributes asked about in study one (Rowatt, et. al., 2001, Study 2). Correlations were calculated between mean desirability ratings given to the attributes in study two, and mean willingness to lie ratings in study one. Men and women were found to be more likely to lie about the traits that the opposite sex considers desirable.

The findings reviewed suggest that men and women present themselves in a manner consistent with opposite sex behavioral expectations. These expectations are often consistent with sex-role stereotypes for behavior. Over time, individuals may not be able to behave in a manner consistent with their initial deceptions. For example, women may be careful to be deceptive about the fact they are low in emotional stability, and men may be likely to be deceptive about the fact they engage in bad habit behaviors. Men may present themselves as more instrumental or masculine than they really are and women may present themselves as more expressive or feminine than they really are.

*Relaxation Processes*

Deception may serve as one possible explanation for why behaviors change in relationships; however, becoming lazy or comfortable, and letting a partner know who we really are is another tenable explanation for why relationship behaviors change. These explanations for changes in behavior are termed relaxation processes. As relationships progress to greater interdependence, partners wish to know what individuals really think about them (Swann, De La Ronde, & Hixon, 1994). Relationships that last often involve increased commitment (Rusbult, 1983). This allows partners to become more comfortable to disclose their negative habits and their "skeletons in their closet" (cf. Miller, 1991, 1997). Partners are likely to stop carefully crafting the impressions they present as a consequence.

*Self-Verifying vs. Self-Enhancing Motives*. Individuals may refrain from telling their partners negative things about themselves in the beginning of relationships; and they may also prefer to

hear positive things about themselves (self-enhancing information). Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon (1994) examined self-verifying versus self-enhancing motivations as interdependence increases. The primary measures given to participants were the short form of the Self Attributes Questionnaire (Pelham & Swann, 1989) and a measure of intimacy created by the authors. The SAQ consists of five self-views that have been found to be relevant to perceptions of self-worth. Married individuals were more intimate if their partners saw themselves as they did (self-verification), and dating individuals were more intimate if their partners saw themselves as being better than they really were (self-enhancement). Thus, greater interdependence may lead partners to desire information about who they really are. Partners may feel less motivated to manage their impressions as a consequence.

*"We Always Hurt the One's We Love".* We are often less friendly and more mean to those whom we love than we are to those who are total strangers (Miller, 1991; 1997). Miller provides a review of eight processes that make us more likely to "hurt the one's we love". Miller's work primarily examines behaviors where partners are not intentionally trying to hurt or anger another, but instances where partners are more generally lazy, impolite, or inconsiderate.

These eight processes cited by Miller can be categorized into four general classes of motives: instances where partners decrease effort to try to impress the individual, situations where partners become more assertive and let the individual know who they really are, instances where partners do or do not disclose information to the partner, and situations in which relationship partners may exhibit the desire to use domineering tactics to control the individual.

Miller's reduced effort is defined as a reduction in impression motivation, which leads partners not to be on their best behavior or behave in an uncouth manner when around his/her partner. Examples of reduced effort might be believing that one does not have to impress his/her partner or preferring grungy, unattractive clothing. Miller (1997) proposes that:

Once a courtship is over and a partner has been won, people usually relax their

crafting of their self presentations and try less hard to make consistently

favorable impressions on those from whom acceptance is assured. ... When we

can rely on others approbation and approval, we stop trying so hard to get them

to like us. Thus, it is that a suitor who never appears for breakfast without his

beard well trimmed and his cologne apparent becomes a spouse who shows up in

his underwear, unwashed and unshaven, and then steals the last doughnut (p. 19)

As implied by Miller, a decline in impression motivation leads to increases in bad habit behaviors

by a partner.

An increase in motivation to assert the self to a relationship partner (regardless of how it

affects them) is evident in two of Millers' processes: "access to weaponry" and "interdependency

ups the ante". "Access to weaponry", refers to the fact that we often know our relationship

partner's most sensitive and intimate secrets, and we may purposefully or inadvertently use this

information to hurt our partners. Coming to know a partner's sensitive and intimate secrets

corresponds to increasing depth of self-disclosures (Altman & Taylor, 1973). Thus, we do not

find out such potentially hurtful information about a partner until later in relationships. Ironically,

we become more capable of being inconsiderate towards a partner once we have reached greater

levels of interdependence and know a partner better.

"Interdependency ups the ante" refers to the fact that people tend to decrease their external

social contacts as a relationship progresses, and consequently, we rely more on a partner for

social-support and assistance. Thus, as our requests for support increase, the expectation that

support will be provided increases. Some partners may not be able to live up to these expectations

due to other demands, leading to the perception that a partner who fails to meet such requests for

support is uncaring and inconsiderate.

Empirical support has been found that partners are more likely to assert themselves, and that partners less carefully craft their impression managements at greater stages of interdependence (Birchler, Weiss, & Vincent, 1975; Vincent, Weiss, & Birchler, 1975). Birchler and his colleagues had spouses resolve issues for which they disagreed. These same spouses were then asked to resolve a conflict with a stranger. Interaction partner responses were coded for positivity (agreement, approval, humor, ascent, laughter, positive physical contact, smiling), negativity (complaining, criticizing, denying responsibility, excuses, putting down, interrupting, disagreeing, ignoring, inattention, turning off), and problem solving (offering a solution, accepting responsibility, compromise). Spouses were found to be more negative and less positive towards one another than towards strangers, implying that positive behavior is effortful.

Three of Miller's processes focus on disclosing or failing to disclose information to a relationship partner: "misplaced expectations and unwelcome surprises", "the loss of illusion", and "the erosion of novelty". "Misplaced expectations and unwelcome surprises" refer to not knowing everything about a partner in the beginning of our close relationships, and this leads to us learning about our partner's undesirable qualities later in relationships. For example, a partner is not likely to admit a penchant for drinking to drunkenness in the beginning of a relationship, or to drive in a typical reckless manner. It is often not until later in a relationship that we find out about a partner's proclivity to perform norm-violating behavior.

"The loss of illusion" is that we often idealize our partners at the beginning of the relationship; however, as relationships progress, we come to realize that these glowing perceptions of a partner are not necessarily true. Passionate love is more likely to be high in the beginning of close relationships (Walster & Walster, 1978). We may be more likely to notice the negative norm violating behaviors in which a partner engages when passion declines (cf. Cunningham et. al., 1997). Also relating to passionate love being high in the beginning of relationships is "the erosion of novelty". This refers relationships often being more interesting when they are new and novel;

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however, they do not remain new and novel over time. Although these processes involve the partner disclosing to the individual their typical patterns of behavior that may violate social norms or laws, the individual may later attempt to conceal these behaviors from the partner, as these behaviors have been shown to be related relationship dissolution (Amato & Rogers, 1997).

Two of Miller's processes are related to motivations to control an individual: "contrast effects" and "the threat of exclusion". "Contrast effects" refer to the fact that rewards from others are subjectively more valuable to us than rewards from our close relationship partners (e.g., Aronson's (1992) "law of marital infidelity"), as well as punishers being more punishing coming from a close relationship partner. Due to people depending on their close relationship partner, their expected utility curves are steeper for losses than for gains from a partner (Kahneman & Tversky, 1982). "The threat of exclusion" is related to contrast effects. Seeking approval from others tends to elicit positive behavior, and trying to avoid loosing esteem from others tends to elicit negative behavior.

Miller's review of the literature serves as a starting point for theorizing about changes in close relationship behaviors; however, Miller's paper provides no empirical evidence about what changes actually occur in relationships. Several recent longitudinal studies have examined what behaviors change over the course of close relationships, but little empirical evidence has been provided for why such changes occur. Increased commitment from individuals may give partners license to behave badly, as the relationship is less likely to end after a commitment has been secured (Drigotas & Rusbult, 1992). This increasing interdependence leads partners to desire to know who they really are, as opposed to thinking they are overly idealized (Swann, et. al., 1994). These processes may allow negative behavior to come to the fore.

*Investment Model--Increased Security and Commitment.* Individuals being committed to and invested in a relationship makes the relationship less likely to end (Rusbult, 1983). This may give partners license to decrease their impression motivation, leading to an increase in negativity.

Rusbult (1983) provides evidence that commitment is a central mediator of decisions to stay in a relationship. Seventeen couples who were at the beginning of their dating relationships were asked to complete a questionnaire measure created by Rusbult to measure investment, commitment, comparison level for alternatives, costs, rewards, and satisfaction in interpersonal relationships. Participants completed this measure at twelve points throughout the academic year. Individuals who stayed in their relationships experienced an increase in rewards and an increase in costs over time, as well as an increase in satisfaction. Costs in the relationship had little predictive utility for relationship satisfaction.

Rusbult (1983) also found that rewards, costs, and comparison level determine satisfaction in close relationships; and satisfaction, investment, and comparison level for alternatives determine commitment in close relationships. Commitment is seen as being the primary determinant of relationship stability. These findings have been replicated with larger samples examining the investment model over the course of 15 years (Bui, Peplau, & Hill, 1996). A replication of Rusbult's study (Sacher & Fine, 1996) has suggested that women may be more invested in relationships than men, and women may consequently have greater influence on whether relationships dissolve. Alternatives to the relationship have also been shown to be a particularly strong direct predictor of rapid dissolution of close relationships (Felmlee, Sprecher, & Bassin, 1990).

The phenomenon of rational selective exploitation is similar to the findings of investment theory, inasmuch as individuals with a low comparison level and a low comparison level for alternatives are less likely to leave a relationship. Rational selective exploitation refers to the phenomenon that among employees who are equally competent, fewer rewards are allocated to those with constrained mobility than to those with a high degree of professional and geographic mobility (Rusbult, Campbell, & Price, 1990). Further, a series of studies by Rusbult, Insko, Yuan,-Huei, and Smith (1990) found that individuals making reward allocation decisions based

on a series of vignettes were more likely to reward employees who were competent, mobile, and had an instrumental orientation. Of relevance to close relationships, it may be harder for a individual to leave a relationship after a commitment has been made, even if a relationship is not rewarding, due to a partner being less motivated to present a positive impression to the individual.

A number of other mediators of commitment have been shown to predict relationship stability. Drigotas and Rusbult (1992) provide evidence that need satisfaction dependence, in addition to commitment related variables, is predictive of relationship stability. Drigotas and Rusbult (1992) operationalize need satisfaction dependence as 1) measuring what needs are important in an individuals relationship; 2) whether or not those needs are met by one's close relationship partner; 3) whether there are alternative relationships that can potentially fulfill those needs; and 4) whether an alternative relationship does fulfill those needs.

The sample (study 2) consisted of 52 college women who completed a computer-assisted questionnaire. The women provided data on the degree to which their needs were satisfied on several relationship dimensions (companionship, emotional involvement, intimacy, security, self-esteem enhancement, and sex) for both their current partner and an alternative to the relationship. Measures were also taken of investment variables (Rusbult, 1983). Need satisfaction dependence was defined as the difference between needs fulfilled by the partner and needs fulfilled by the alternative. Global measures of satisfaction with the current relationship and the alternative relationship were also taken.

Need satisfaction dependence was found to be a strong predictor of individual decisions to stay with his/her partner or to leave his/her partner. Need satisfaction dependence accounted for unique variance in stay versus leave decisions in the investment model. Thus, relationship partners who do not maintain a high level of positive relationship behaviors may have relationship partners who are low in need satisfaction dependence, and these partners may choose to dissolve the relationship.

Eidelson (1980) proposes that affiliation and independence motives moderate the relations between relationship satisfaction and commitment. More specifically, Eidelson sees individuals as being influenced by two motives in interpersonal relationships: the motive to get emotionally close to others (affiliation) and the motive to refrain from entering into interpersonal relationships (independence). Eidelson suggests that as commitment to a relationship increases, satisfaction starts to decline. At this point, individuals contemplate the merits of the relationship, and make a decision whether to adjust their commitment level. Affiliation and independence motives affect these decisions. Satisfaction then increases if individuals decide to become more committed.

Sixty undergraduates completed measures of satisfaction, time spent with friends, and their independence and affiliation motives regarding these relationships for five time periods at two week intervals. Satisfaction decreased over the first five weeks, and then increased in the second five week period examined. This tendency was especially pronounced in individuals who were low in affiliation motivation and high in independence motivation. Results from a similar study suggest that this may be the case, as costs increase and rewards decrease in relationships that dissolve, and rewards increase in relationships that do not dissolve. Costs for successful relationships have been found to have a curvilinear function over a 10 week period, with costs initially increasing and then decreasing later in relationships (Eidelson, 1981).

Fitzpatrick and Sollie (1999) examined the relations of general dysfunctional relationship beliefs (e.g., I cannot accept it when my partner disagrees with me) and gender-related dysfunctional relationship beliefs (e.g., Men and women will always be mysterious to each other) to investment/commitment related variables. Two-hundred fifty four single representatives of couples were given an abridged version of the Relationship Beliefs Inventory (Fincham & Bradbury, 1994) and a measure of investment/commitment variables. As found in previous studies, women were found to be more invested and committed to their relationships. For women, both dysfunctional relationship beliefs measured were related to investment variables, but not for

men. Thus, dysfunctional relationship beliefs are likely to have a larger impact on women's relationship outcomes.

*Changing Perceptions of Negative Behaviors--Social Allergies*

On an average day, 44% of individuals are annoyed by a friend or lover (Averill, 1982), and we experience 8.70 aggravating hassles per day (Perlman, 1989). Cunningham and his colleagues' work on social allergies (Cunningham, Barbee, & Druen, 1997) is of particular relevance to changes in these sorts of negative relationship behaviors. Social allergies are less severe and more gradual erosion processes that occur in interpersonal relationships. Social allergies are defined as "... the objectively minor but emotionally major experiences of social life that grate on people's nerves or make people emotionally 'sick'." (p. 190). A social allergen is "...a behavior or situation created by another person that may be seen as unpleasant, but not as strongly aversive, to objective observers" (p. 190). Similar metaphors have been applied for people overestimating their affective reactions to negative life events, and they are often unaware of the psychological mechanisms that help them alleviate negative affect--the psychological immune system (Gilbert, Pinel, Wilson, Blumberg, & Wheatley, 1998). Cunningham and his colleagues (1997) present a two by two typology based on personalism and intentionality. Personalism refers to behaviors that are personally directed towards a partner, as opposed to behaviors that are impersonal in nature. Intentionality concerns behaviors that are done on purpose, as opposed to behaviors that are performed accidentally or without thinking about one's behavior.

The four major categories of social allergies depicted below are 1) bad habits (not personally directed, not intentional) entail uncouth acts such as loudly belching or showing a lack of concern for being clean; 2) inconsiderateness (personally directed, not intentional) includes behaviors such as being overly emotional or being self-preoccupied; 3) intrusiveness (personally directed, intentional) includes dominance behaviors such as being demanding, or argumentative; and 4)

norm violations (not personally directed, intentional) involve breaking social or legal rules, such as drinking to excess, taking risks while driving, or staring at members of the opposite sex.

| **Social Allergens** | *Not Personal* | *Personal* |
| --- | --- | --- |
| *Not Intentional* | Bad Habits | Inconsiderateness |
| *Intentional* | Norm Violations | Intrusiveness |

It is these sorts of behaviors--social allergens--that are presumed to occur with greater frequency in close relationships; not overt attempts to inflict harm upon a partner. Close relationship partners do intentionally harm one another, as would be indicated by the large body of literature examining marital violence; however, the focus of this paper is on allergenic behaviors that are likely to occur with greater frequency. Social allergens clearly develop among close relationship partners, as close relationship partners were nominated by 18% of individuals as the person who elicited the strongest social allergies.

Cunningham and his colleagues' (1997) model suggests that these allergies may develop through a conditioning processes, where repeated exposure to an aversive event (or a social allergen) allows for the development of a social allergy. When exposure to allergenic behavior occurs at a constant frequency, social allergens and hypersensitivity towards allergenic behaviors may develop.

Of particular relevance to temporal dynamics in relationships, individuals should develop more social allergies towards their close relationship partners over time, as increasing exposure to one's partner allows for increasing exposure to potential social allergens. Initial instances of aversive behaviors by relationship partners may be dismissed and considered to be uncharacteristic of their partners'behavior. If aversive behaviors are repeated, negative dispositional attributions are likely to be made about close relationship partners. Social allergies develop more slowly when we initially like the source of allergenic behaviors (Cunningham et.

al., 1997), suggesting individuals often dismiss initial instances of negative behavior as uncharacteristic.

Miller (2000) examined behaviors similar to socially allergenic behaviors. Breaches of propriety are defined as behaviors that are seen as violating rules for social behavior. Miller asked 64 undergraduates to indicate improprieties and the bothersomeness of these improprieties. The improprieties that occurred most frequently were 1) control of body (e.g., picking scabs, flatulating), 2) rudeness, and 3) selfishness. The top three improprieties that were found to be the most bothersome were 1) maliciousness, 2) rudeness, and 3) other's sensitivity (being thin skinned, being up-tight). The top three impact ratings (bothersomeness X frequency) were 1) rudeness, 2) selfishness, and 3) insufficient manners.

*How Do Individuals Interpret a Partner's Negative Behavior?* Possibly more important are the ways in which individuals interpret a partner's negative behaviors. An individual may not be annoyed by a partner's initial deviations from social graces; however, if these deviations continue to occur, individuals may make the attribution that their partners' behavior is dipositionally caused (Cunningham, et. al., 1997).

Initial perceptions of a relationship partner influence attraction. Individuals may initially see their partners as being better than they really are due to idealization (Murray, Holmes, & Griffin, 1996) and increased passionate love (Rubin, 1970; Walster & Walster, 1978). Reactions to a partner's negative behaviors presumably change over the course of relationships. Research on reactions to partners behaving badly have primarily focused on causal and responsibility attributions that are made for a partner's negative behavior (Bradbury & Fincham, 1992); the degree to which partners inhibit the overwhelming tendency to respond negatively to a partner who is behaving badly (e.g., Rusbult et. al., 1991); and sequential analyses of negative interactions between non-adjusted couples (e.g., Gottman, 1994).

*Negative Attributions.* The types of attributions that individuals make for a partner's negative behaviors have been shown to be related to relationship outcomes (Bradbury & Fincham, 1992, Study 2). Spouses indicated causal attributions (locus, global, and stable) and responsibility attributions (blameworthiness, planned vs. unplanned, and motivation) for two problem areas in the marriage nominated by spouses. Next, spouses discussed a problem area that was agreed upon. Speaker turns were coded as being avoidant, positive, or negative.

Negative causality and responsibility attributions were negatively related to marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. These negative attributions were also related to increased reciprocity of negativity for wives after removing the effects of satisfaction. These findings clarify the nature of social allergy development, suggesting that causal and responsibility attribution may be necessary for the development of social allergies, and that socially allergenic behaviors may be reciprocated.

*Euphoria/Passion*. Hatfield and Sprecher (1986) define passionate love as having affective (e.g., physiological arousal, sexual attraction), behavioral (e.g., favors, physical closeness), and cognitive components (e.g., intrusive relationship thoughts, idealizing the partner). Companionate love is defined as "the affection we feel for those with whom our lives are deeply intertwined" (Walster & Walster, 1978, p. 9). Berscheid and Walster (Berscheid & Walster, 1974; Walster & Walster, 1978) propose that passionate love occurs first in close relationships, and that it declines over the course of time. If a relationship progresses to further stages of interdependence, a more stable and enduring form of love, companionate love, develops. These predicted changes have been partially confirmed, as loving increased in a six month period for college dating couples, and love decreased among newlyweds during the first year of marriage (Rubin, 1970).

During the passionate stage of close relationships, individuals are more likely to idealize their close relationship partners (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986; Walster & Walster, 1978). This idealization may lead to "passion buffering", where intense elation and idealization prevent

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individuals from recognizing a dating partner's negative behaviors (Cunningham et. al., 1997). Over time, as passion declines, passion buffering declines, and individuals may be more vulnerable to developing social allergies as a result of a partner's negative relationship behaviors.

*Fatal Attractions*. "Fatal attractions" may serve as another explanation for why individuals may re-interpret a partner's negative behaviors (Felmlee, 1995; Whitehouse, 1981). Felmlee (1995) asked participants what qualities attracted them to a past relationship partner, and what aspects of their past relationship partner were responsible for the dissolution of the relationship using two open-ended questions.

Felmlee found 27% of her sample supported the notion that the same quality that attracts an individual to a partner is often later redefined or reinterpreted negatively. For example, if one is initially attracted to a person due to the person being easy-going, this easy-going nature may be later interpreted as irresponsibility or incompetence. Thus, individual's cognitive labeling of a partner's behavior appears to change as relationships progress.

*Accommodation--How Individuals Deal with Allergenic Behavior*. The theory of accommodation proposes that there is an overwhelming impulse to reciprocate negativity towards a partner who behaves badly, and this behavioral reaction will manifest itself in one of four ways (Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, & Lipkus, 1991). These four dimensions are conceptualized on the dimensions of activity (active vs. passive responses) and valence (positive versus negative responses).

| Accommodation | *Positive* | *Negative* |
|---|---|---|
| *Active* | Voice | Exit |
| *Passive* | Loyalty | Neglect |

Rusbult provides evidence for this typology of behavior and a validation of a paper and pencil measure (Rusbult, et. al., 1991, Studies 1, 2, & 6). The remainder of the report examines the relationship between investment and accommodation of a partner's negative behaviors (Rusbult, et. al., 1991, Studies 3, 4, & 5). These studies will be discussed concurrently, as they are in the original research report. Participants were given a 24 item measure of accommodation, an open-ended item inquiring about what individuals would do if a partner responded to their negativity with exit or neglect, a questionnaire similar to the investment/commitment questionnaire used in Rusbult (1983), two items written by the authors assessing relationship centrality, and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Individuals were more likely to accommodate if they had high investment and commitment levels in their relationship, they had few potential alternatives to the relationship, they had support for the relationship from their social network, and they were high in expressivity. Men were found to be more likely to behave destructively when their female partner behaved badly; however, gender differences in constructive reactions were inconsistent. Individuals who are more likely to accommodate a partner's negative behavior may experience fewer social allergies.

The individual accommodating a partner's negative behavior is also likely to be related to positive relationship outcomes for the relationship partner. Rusbult and her colleagues (Weiselquist, Rusbult, Foster, and Agnew, 1999, Study 1) examined the development of trust in close relationships. Fifty three couples who were dating an average of 19 months were given measures of accommodation and perceived partner accommodation (Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, & Lipkus, 1991); a measure of self sacrifice and partner sacrifice (four items assessing willingness to give up favorite activities); and a measure of trust (12 items drawn from Rempel,

Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). Relationship acts that departed from self-interest (e.g., accommodation) were related to the development of trust in close relationship. These findings were replicated in a sample of married couples (Study 2). These findings bear on the present line of inquiry, inasmuch as trust in relationships will presumably decrease the likelihood of negative interpersonal behaviors, such as intrusive acts motivated by jealousy.

Hess (2000) focused specifically on the negative accommodating responses individuals make when they are in an undesirable relationship. More specifically, Hess (2001) examined situations where individuals are trapped in a relationship with a partner when there is a low comparison level for alternatives—non-voluntary relationships with disliked partners. Through content analysis and hierarchical cluster analysis of data provided by 343 participants, three primary negative accommodating responses were given in non-voluntary relationships with disliked partners: expressing detachment, avoiding involvement, and showing antagonism. Expressing detachment and avoiding involvement are similar to Rusbult and colleagues (1991) operationalizations of neglect (e.g., I'd sulk and try to avoid my partner for a while) and exit (e.g., I'd feel so angry that I'd want to walk out the door), respectively. Showing antagonism towards a partner is not clearly reflected in Rusbult and colleagues (1991) negative accommodating behaviors, and may reflect one possible reason for escalating conflict sequences in interpersonal relationships (Gottman & Levenson, 1992).

*What Relationship Behaviors Change Over Time*

Several programs of longitudinal research have examined what positive and negative relationship behaviors change over the course of time. Of the studies conducted focusing on behavioral change, five have focused on dating relationships (Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Rusbult, 1983; Sprecher, 1997; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993; Sprecher & Metts, 1989) and two have focused on marital relationships (Huston & Vangelisti, 1991; Lindahl, et. al., 1998). Evidence in these

studies for increases in negative relationship behavior is fairly consistent; however, evidence for changes in positive relationship behavior is more mixed.

Sprecher and Felmlee (1993) examined differences over time in relationship behaviors between dissolving relationships (n = 63), relationships that grew closer (n = 55), and relationships that remained stable (n = 138). All participants were single representatives of couples, and participants were followed over the course of a three month period. Among other measures, participants were given the Braiker and Kelley (1979) measure of love, maintenance, conflict, and ambivalence behaviors. Love and relationship maintenance behaviors (predominantly self-disclosure as measured by Braiker & Kelley, 1979) were found to decrease and conflict increased over the course of time in dissolving relationships. Love and relationship maintenance behaviors were found to increase over the course of time in the growth group.

Sprecher conducted a larger longitudinal study which lead to several publications. A sample of 101 dating couples from Illinois State University dating an average of 19 months were recruited. Couples were solicited by means of ads in the school newspaper, announcements made in classes, and recruitment posters placed around campus. Couples completed questionnaire measures in the fall and spring semesters of the 1988-1989 academic year, and they were then asked to complete follow ups every spring/summer for the next three years (1990-1992). The sixty participants who broke up during waves of the study were asked to complete a final measure assessing reasons for break ups. Sprecher had a high response rate of 85% throughout the study.

Participants were given a measure of commitment (Commitment Scale: Lund, 1985); measures of love, ambivalence, and relationship maintenance behaviors (Braiker & Kelley, 1979); a measure of relationship satisfaction (Relationship Assessment Scale: Hendrick, 1988); a measure of perceived changes in love, commitment, and satisfaction between waves of the study; a measure of beliefs about romantic love (Romantic Beliefs Scale: Sprecher & Metts, 1989); two items developed by the authors to assess perceived power and decision making in relationships;

an item developed by the authors assessing which partner was more emotionally involved in the relationship; an open-ended question assessing perceived changes in the relationship, six items assessing approval of the relationship by one's social network, one question inquiring about overlap between social networks, and a question inquiring about liking for the partner's social network.

Sprecher and Metts (1999) examined changes in romantic beliefs over the course of time in close relationships using this sample. Four different types of romantic beliefs were determined using principal component analyses: "love finds a way", "one and only", "idealization", and "love at first sight". Romantic beliefs were found to decrease over the course of time, thus, relationship partners became less romantic and idealized their partners less.

Berg and McQuinn (1986) conducted a longitudinal study with an initial sample of 38 heterosexual couples from UCLA who had only been on several dates. Twenty six couples returned for wave two of the study four months later. Participants were given Rubin's (1970) Loving and Liking Scales; Braiker and Kelley's (1979) measure of love, conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors; Miller, Berg, and Archer's (1983) measure of self-disclosure; and items created by the authors assessing helping, comparison level, comparison level for alternatives, equity, and resources exchanged.

Love and relationship maintenance behaviors were found to decrease and self-disclosure was found to increase among all couples. The effects for love and relationship maintenance were primarily due to couples who ultimately broke up. Couples who broke up had an increase in comparison level for alternatives and couples who continued to date had an increase in satisfaction. The pattern of means suggested that liking decreased among women who were in relationships that dissolve, and liking decreased among men who were in relationships that continue; although, the test was not reported (and insufficient information precluded post hoc tests).

Rusbult's study examining the investment model among dating couples also suggests that positive behaviors increase over the course of an academic semester (Rusbult, 1983). Rewards and costs were each measured with two face valid Likert-type items. Rewards were found to increase among dating couples, and costs were found to slightly increase, suggesting that both positive and negative behaviors increase in frequency.

Markman and his colleagues (Lindahl, Markman, & Clements, 1998) conducted a nine-year longitudinal study examining the relationship between premarital conflict and quality of marriage, the transition to parenthood, and the quality of parent-child relations. The later two foci of the study will not be discussed further, due to these issues being tangential to the present paper. The participants were 135 engaged couples, 99 of which married. Couples were involved in an intervention for enhancing premarital relationships.

Data were next collected from couples 11 weeks after the intervention. The remaining seven waves of the study occurred one to one and one-half years apart. Among other measures, participants were given a measure of relationship satisfaction (Marital Adjustment Test: Locke & Wallace, 1954), a measure of aggressive/controlling tactics (Conflict Tactics Scale: Straus, 1979), and two measures assessing the intensity of common problems in marriage (Relationship Problem Inventory: Knox, 1970; Marital Agendas Protocol: Notarius & Vanzetti, 1984). Couples interacted for 10 to 15 minutes in two problem solving tasks at each wave of the study. These data were coded for positive (social skills, support/validation, problem solving, and positive affect) and negative (withdrawal, denial, conflict, dominance, and negative affect) dimensions of communication using the Interactional Dimension Coding System (ICDS: Julien, Markman, & Lindahl, 1989).

Marital satisfaction declined over the course of time; however, the most precipitous decreases were in the first three and one-quarter years of marriage after which marital satisfaction stabilized. Intensity of relationship problems were found to decrease and couples used verbal

aggression and withdrawal less as relationships progressed. Both positive and negative communication were found to increase over the course of time using the ICDS; however, results for the individual dimensions were not reported.

Decreases in positive behaviors have also been found in marriages (Huston, McHale, & Crouter, 1986; Huston & Vangelisti, 1991). Married couples were found to perform less affectionate and sexual interest behaviors over the course of time in their relationships; however, negativity did not change over the course of the study. The primary objective of Huston's longitudinal study was to examine determinants of marital satisfaction; therefore, a detailed discussion of Huston's studies will be delayed.

The evidence for increases in negative behaviors appear to present a clearer pattern of findings than changes in positive behaviors. Two mediator variables appear to be important in integrating these disparate findings for changes in positive and negative behaviors. Level of interdependence, which is primarily discussed here in terms of dating vs. marital relationships, and level of relationship adjustment both appear to have an impact on the outcomes of these studies.

Conflict appears to be likely to increase in relationship where there is less interdependence, such as dating. This may be due to dating couples having less experience working through conflicts with each other. This effect appears to be exacerbated by being on the road to dissolution (e.g., Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993). Global estimates of costs in dating relationships also support this position (Rusbult, 1983). Relationships may reach a moderate baseline of negativity in dating relationships, where it does not significantly increase into marriage. Support for this assertion comes from the finding that in marital relationships, global negativity remains stable (Huston, et. al., 1986; Huston & Vangelisti, 1991) and verbal aggression and withdrawal decrease (Lindahl, et. al., 1998). Partners may become more skilled at handling verbal conflict peacefully as marital relationships progress, such as becoming better at interpreting a partner's non-verbal behaviors (Noller & Feeney, 1998). Contradictory evidence has been found (e.g.,

Gottman & Levenson, 1992); nevertheless, it should be noted that Gottman's couples had lower baselines of marital adjustment.

The findings for changes in positive relationship behaviors present a less clear pattern of results. Love, relationship maintenance behaviors, and rewards increase (or at least do not decrease) in frequency over the course of time in dating relationships that do not dissolve (Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Rusbult, 1983; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993). It is not disputed that some positive relationship behaviors will initially increase in dating relationships. However, as passion wanes, it is proposed that romanticism will decline (Sprecher & Metts, 1989), and behaviors that occur as a result of passionate love will decline (Walster & Walster, 1978). The limitation of the studies summarized was the results were largely based on college dating couples, the majority of which were dating only a short time. In addition, one limitation of these studies is that length of relationship at initial participation was not statistically controlled. The results for marriage are clearer, suggesting that the frequency of socio-emotional, sexual (Huston & Vangelisti, 1991), and positive communication (Gottman, 1994) behaviors decline over time; whereas positivity may initially increase in dating relationships, increasing interdependence in marriage appears to lead to a decrease in positivity.

*Romantic Inflation and Post-Romanticism*

The literature discussed to this point provides little empirical support for what motives might cause partners to increase their frequency of negativity or to decrease their frequency of positivity. Two possible inter-related explanations may be offered for why partners may perform behaviors that would be perceived as undesirable by a relationship partner: romantic inflation (presenting oneself as better than they really are at the beginning of the relationship) and post-romanticism (becoming lazy after a commitment is secured).

Romantic inflation is best characterized by the deception literature, suggesting that partners present themselves as better than they really are to gain the affections of a (potential) relationship

partner (Druen et. al., 1996). These inflated impressions will be difficult to maintain over time, as individuals will meet others in the partner's social network who can confirm the veracity of a partner's impression managements. Positive impression managements are also likely to be effortful (Birchler, et. al., 1975; Vincent, et. al., 1975). These tendencies are likely to more pronounced in partners who are lower than individuals in self-monitoring, emotional stability, conscientiousness, and agreeableness, or partners who are higher than individuals in narcissism.

A set of motives are proposed to cause declines in impression motivation, which lead to different types of negative behaviors. These proposed motives correspond to the typology of social allergens (Cunningham, Barbee, & Druen, 1997) on the basis of what behaviors partners may be deceptive about early in relationships.

Post-romantic motives presumably emerge after romanticism or passion is on the decline (Sprecher & Metts, 1989). Cunningham, Ault, Barbee, and Shamblen (2000) propose that four dimensions of post-romantic motives cause corresponding increases in social allergens based on the dimensions of personalism and intentionality. The four post-romantic motives proposed are 1) decreased effort (not personally directed, not intentional), 2) increased self-assertion (personally directed, not intentional), 3) increased control (personally directed, intentional), and 4) decreased disclosure (not personally directed, intentional).

| **Post Romantic Deflation** | *Not Personal* | *Personal* |
|---|---|---|
| *Not Intentional* | Decreased Effort | Increased Self-Assertion |
| *Intentional* | Decreased Disclosure | Increased Control |

Decreased effort (e.g., preferring to wear comfortable clothing) is thought to be related to increased bad habit behaviors, such as belching around one another or not taking a shower for several days. Increased self-assertion (e.g., caring very much about my partner thinks of me – reverse scored) is predicted to be related to increased inconsiderateness, such as being over emotional around one's partner, or taking too many things when traveling. Increased control (e.g.,

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choosing getting what I want from my partner instead of being nice) is thought to be related to increased intrusiveness, such as being bossy towards a partner or telling a partner that something needs to be done NOW! Decreased disclosure is believed to be related to increased norm-violation (e.g., not being able to tell my partner about myself because I would get too embarrassed).

*Process Models of the Relations Between Positive/Negative Behaviors and Relationship Outcomes*

   *Escalating Negativity*. Escalating negativity models of relationship dysfunction argue that negative communication patterns emerge in relationships when partners reciprocate increasing levels of negativity (e.g., Gottman, 1994). This escalating negativity is seen as leading to relationship dissolution. Gottman (1994; Gottman & Levenson, 1992) provides evidence for such processes in close relationships. Gottman makes a dichotomous distinction between couples who have successively more positive utterances relative to negative utterances (regulated), and couples who do not demonstrate this pattern (non-regulated). These patterns have also been shown to have temporal stability (Gottman & Levenson, 1999).

   As would be expected, not-regulated couples are more dissatisfied with their marriages and they are more likely to divorce. Both non-regulated husbands and wives express more anger, stubbornness, and withdraw towards their spouse, and they also whine more towards their spouse. Non-regulated wives are more indifferent, contemptuous, and less enthusiastic in interactions with their husbands.

   Gottman's (1994) marital outcomes cascade model proposes causal pathways between marital outcomes at a very broad level of abstraction. Gottman and Levenson (1992) found empirical support for this model. At each stage, the stage preceding it is seen as being more negative. These stages are seen as forming an increasingly negative cascade towards divorce. The stages proposed by Gottman and Levenson are as follows:

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Marital        Marital        Serious                  Marital
Quality -> Quality -> Consideration  -> Separation -> Divorce
Time 1        Time 2        of Dissolution

Findings based on observing interactions of non-regulated couples lead Gottman (1994) to

develop another cascade model of marital of dissolution, which he refers to as the "Four

Horseman of the Apocalypse". Again, each step must occur before the next stage of increased

negativity. Unregulated couples are seen as reciprocating increasing levels of negativity in

sequential analyses of marital interactions. This process was found by Gottman to be predictive of

marital dissolution among non-regulated couples. The model proposed by Gottman is as follows:

Complaining -> Defensiveness -> Contempt -> Stonewalling

Stonewalling refers to listener withdrawal from interaction. This cascade was found by Gottman

(1994) to be predictive of marital dissolution. Escalating negativity can be stopped at any point in

the model. For example, if individuals do not react defensively to a partner who complains or

criticizes them, the cascade towards negativity stops.

Revenstorf, Vogel, Wegener, Hawleg, and Schindler (1980) examined interaction sequences

of adjusted and distressed spouses in conflict interactions. They examined the probability of

positive and negative responses following positive and negative behaviors by close relationship

partners in 15 minute problem solving discussions. Ten distressed couples in marital therapy and

ten non-distressed couples not in therapy were asked to discuss a problem area of the marriage,

and these videotaped interactions were coded for positive, negative, and neutral communication

behaviors using the Marital Interaction Coding System (Hops, Patterson, Wills, & Weiss, 1974).

Positive utterances by adjusted spouses were usually followed by positivity; however, for

distressed spouses, neither positive, negative, or neutral responses were more likely to follow a

partner's positive communications. For negative communication, unadjusted spouses were more

likely to reciprocate negativity; however, no particular response was more likely for adjusted

spouses following a partner's negative communication. These findings further echo the claims of

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Gottman (1994) that low adjustment couples are more likely to reciprocate negativity towards a close relationship partner.

Sequential aspects of conversation (e.g., reciprocated negativity) have been shown to be predictive of satisfaction three years later (Levenson & Gottman, 1985). The participants for the study were thirty married couples who initially participated in 1980. Participants completed measures of marital satisfaction (Burgess, Locke, & Thomes, 1971; Locke & Wallace, 1959) and a measure of health. Spouses engaged in two 10 minute interaction sessions where they discussed the events of the day and a conflict area in their marriage. Physiological measures were taken during the interactions tasks. Spouses were asked to watch videotapes of the interactions, and to indicate their affect during the interaction by using a dial that ranged between extreme negative and extreme positive affect. Three years later, 63% of the original sample completed the marital satisfaction and health measures a second time. Couples were paid $15.

Decreases in marital satisfaction at wave two were predicted by less positive affect by the husband, more positive affect by the wife, and less reciprocity of the wives' negative affect by husbands in the positive discussion. For the interaction on a conflict area of the marriage, decreases in satisfaction at wave two were predicted by less negative affect by the husband and greater reciprocity of the husbands' negative affect by the wife. Similar studies have found that hostility by the husband is predictive of decreases in both spouses marital satisfaction, even after controlling for neuroticism and length of relationship (Newton & Kiecolt-Glaser, 2000).

In sum, studies examining attributional processes, accommodation, and sequential communication analyses of relationship communication all stress the importance of reciprocated negativity as being positively related to dissatisfaction and dissolution. Couples who are lower in relationship adjustment differ fundamentally in the ways in which they interpret their partners' negative behavior, as well as in the ways they communicate and respond to their partners'

negativity. Low adjustment couples respond to their partners more negatively, and make dispositional attributions for their partners' negative behaviors.

*Enduring Dynamics Model.* Studies by Gottman and others argue that conflict and negativity are the cause of dissatisfaction and dissolution; however, Huston's program of research and others' research have argued that positive relationship behaviors have a greater impact on dissatisfaction and dissolution (Acitelli, Douvan, & Veroff, 1997; Huston, Caughlin, Houts, Shebilske, & Smith, 2001). Huston and his colleagues (2001) also argue that relationship problems are present early in relationships; however, idealization in the beginning of relationships prevent people from recognizing these serious problems. Thus, Huston's Enduring Dynamics Model (EDM) proposes that impression management and deception are not the cause of increases in negativity and decreases in positivity in relationships; rather, individuals are seen as not recognizing these problems in the beginning of relationships.

Huston and Vangelisti (1991) examined the effects of socio-emotional behaviors (operationalized as affectionate, sexually interested, and negative behaviors based on principal component analyses) on relationship satisfaction over the course of a two-year longitudinal study. The participants for this longitudinal study were 106 newlyweds. Waves two and three of the study occurred at one year intervals after wave one. Wave four of the study was conducted 13 to 14 years after couples initially participated.

At each wave of the study, participants were given measures of satisfaction (Marital Opinion Questionnaire: Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976), love and ambivalence behaviors (Relationship Questionnaire: Braiker and Kelley, 1979), and the individual's assessment of the partner's personality. Also at each wave of the study, participants were interviewed nine times by telephone to assess their frequency of positive and negative socio-emotional behaviors in the two to three week period following their face-to-face interview. In the last wave of the study,

participants were given adjectives from Anderson (1968) to assess perceptions of partner contrariness (largely neuroticism) and responsiveness (largely agreeableness).

Marital satisfaction declined over the first two years for both husbands and wives. Negative socio-emotional behaviors had the strongest impact on marital satisfaction (Huston & Vangelisti, 1991). Comparing the predictive utility of negativity and positivity, negativity accounted for almost four times as much variance in relationship satisfaction based on squared beta weights. For both spouses, receiving affection was positively related to relationship satisfaction. In addition, wives sexually interested behaviors were predictive of husbands later marital satisfaction.

Huston and his colleagues (2001) found declines in affectionate behaviors over the course of the first two years of marriage were more predictive of later dissolution than were negative behaviors. The sample was broken into four groups for analysis: those who remained happily married, those who were unhappily married, those who divorced early (< 7 years), and those who divorced late (> 7 years).

Huston and his colleagues (2001) also examined the relations of positive and negative behaviors to relationships outcomes. Couples who remained happily married were not as affectionate initially as those couples who divorced later; however, they remained higher on satisfaction and affection than those individuals that were in unhappy marriages or those who divorced. Couples who divorced early had lower initial levels of affection and had increases in negativity over the course of their relationships. Couples who divorced later were initially high in affection, but affection decreased over time, which lead to an increase in negative behaviors.

Both early and late divorcing couples were found to have increases in ambivalence (Braiker & Kelley, 1979) and contrariness, as well as decreases in responsiveness and idealization by their partners. Thus, these couples who divorced were more likely to idealize their partners in the beginning of the marriage than couples who stayed together. Early divorcing couples decreased their negative behaviors and they were also found to have declines in love (Braiker & Kelley,

1979). It is important to note that these couples had the highest baseline of negative behaviors. Later divorcing couples increased their negative behaviors over the period examined.

The enduring dynamics model makes assumptions about individual's impression managements in the beginning of close relationships without measuring such behavior. This is possibly a shortcoming of Huston's study, as the EDMD suggests that impression motivation is at its peak early in dating relationships. This tendency may be enhanced by deception being less detectable early in relationships, and idealization by one's partner being higher in the passionate love stage (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986; Sprecher & Metts, 1999).

Other studies have also produced results suggesting that positivity is more influential for marital satisfaction by examining constructive and destructive conflict strategies (Acitelli, Douvan, & Veroff, 1997). The participants for this study were a sub-sample of 219 newlywed couples gathered in the Early Years of Marriage Project conducted at the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan. This sub-sample reported having a conflict in their marriage. This longitudinal study was conducted over the course of 7 years; however, the authors only report two waves (three years into the relationship). Couples were interviewed separately in their homes, and they were asked to think about the last time they had a conflict. Couples were asked how often they and their partners used 12 positive and negative conflict strategies (e.g., calmly discussing the problem, yelled or shouted) and a six-item measure of marital satisfaction, which was not confounded with the independent measures. Constructive relationship acts during conflicts were more strongly related to marital satisfaction at three years into the marriage than were destructive relationship acts.

As proposed by Gottman (1994), Huston suggests that these increases in negative behaviors cause dissatisfaction and dissolution. However, differing from Gottman's perspective, Huston proposes that decreases in positive relationship behaviors are the cause of negativity, which

ultimately cause dissatisfaction and dissolution. Thus, Huston argues that positive behaviors account for more variance in relationship satisfaction than do negative relationship behaviors.

*Specific Relationship Behaviors and Relationship Outcomes*. Satisfaction serves as a direct causal mediator/moderator of commitment and relationship stability, thus, making relevant the large body of research examining relationship satisfaction (Rusbult, 1983). Having a partner who is satisfied with the relationship may lead individuals to decrease their impression motivation.

It has been questioned whether dissatisfaction causes negative communication, or whether negative communication behaviors causes dissatisfaction (Noller & Feeney, 1998). Participants were 43 married couples interviewed 6 weeks before marriage, 12 months after marriage, and again at 21 months. Participants were given a measure of satisfaction (Dyadic Adjustment Scale: Spanier, 1976), the Conflict Patterns Questionnaire (CPQ), and engaged in a conflict interaction about a current problem area in their marriage (coded for conflict strategies). Concurrent relationships of the CPQ and the coded conflict interactions to satisfaction were stronger for wives before marriage, whereas these relationship for husbands were only strong for husbands 21 months into marriage. Similarly, a gender specific pattern was found for longitudinal predictions, suggesting husbands' later satisfaction was predicted by earlier conflict, whereas wives' conflict behavior was predicted by earlier satisfaction.

Relationship satisfaction has usually been found to decrease over the course of time in relationships (Karney & Bradbury, 1995), especially for couples who have relationships that ultimately dissolve (Arriaga, 2001; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Karney and Bradbury (1997) examined relationship satisfaction trajectories over a four year period with a sample of 60 newlywed couples. Couples completed measures of relationship satisfaction at eight time periods at six month intervals. The authors examined whether a maintenance model (initially high levels of satisfaction lead to less sharp declines) or a disillusionment model (initially high levels of satisfaction lead to sharp declines) provided a better fit for satisfaction trajectories. Initially high

levels of satisfaction were related to less sharp declines in satisfaction, supporting the

maintenance model. Husbands and wives who had lower initial levels of satisfaction were not

found to be more likely to divorce, which has also been found in a meta-analytic review of

studies examining marital satisfaction trajectories (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Individuals who

were in relationships that dissolved had steeper declines in marital satisfaction than their

counterparts who remained intact (Karney & Bradbury, 1997).

Arriaga (2001) examined changes over time in a variant of Rusbult's (1983) satisfaction and

commitment scales for 98 single representatives of dating couples who had been in their

relationship between two weeks and three months at time one. These single representatives

completed the satisfaction measure weekly for ten weeks, and they were contacted four months

later to determine whether their relationship had dissolved. Satisfaction was found to increase for

single representatives who remained in the same relationship; however, as found by Karney and

Bradbury (1997), satisfaction declined for single representatives in relationships that dissolved.

Futher, it was found that even after controlling for initial level of satisfaction, couples that had

more fluctuation in their satisfaction levels were more likely to be in relationships that were less

committed and more likely to dissolve. Thus, this study suggests that fluctuations are more

important for the prediction of dissolution than initial level of satisfaction, as predicted by the

maintenance mode. Nevertheless, this conclusion must be tempered with the fact that there were

differences in Arriaga's (2001) and Karney and Bradbury's (1997) with respect to differences in

level of interdependence (single representatives of dating couples vs. spouses) and the length of

time satisfaction trajectories were followed (6.33 months vs. 4 years)

Simpson (1987) examined the contribution of factors external to the relationship and

individual difference factors to relationship stability. One-hundred eight male and 126 female

introductory psychology students completed measures assessing factors external to the

relationship, comparison level, comparison level for alternatives, the Relationship Closeness

Inventory (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989), a face valid measure of satisfaction created by the authors, an item assessing the length of the relationship, an item assessing whether relationship partners have had sex, an item assessing whether the relationship was exclusive, an index measuring permissive sexual attitudes, and the short form of the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Three months after the initial interview, 95% of the initial sample were re-contacted to determine if they had broken up. Satisfaction, having a sexual relationship, a longer relationship, non-permissive sexual attitudes, and exclusivity were positively related to relationship stability.

*Supportive Behaviors.* Engaging in relationship maintenance behaviors and providing partners with social-support are also related to satisfaction. Acitelli and Antonucci (1994) examined the relationship between social-support and marital satisfaction in a sample of older adults. The sample for this study were 69 married couples who had been married an average of 41 years. In-person interviews were conducted with each member of the couple in their home. Participants were asked about when they gave and received social-support from their partners in six different areas (confiding, reassurance, respect, care when ill, talk when upset, and talk about health), a three item measure of marital satisfaction, and a three item measure of general well being. Perceived reciprocity of social support was more strongly related to marital satisfaction than actual reciprocity for both spouses. Perceived and actual reciprocity, and reports of giving and receiving were related to well being and marital satisfaction for wives.

Providing individuals with social support is also related to having fewer arguments in relationships. McGonagle, Kessler, and Schilling (1992) examined predictors of disagreements in marital relationships. One-thousand seven hundred fifty-five individuals from a community sample were given a single item measure of disagreements in relationships and measures of social support and personality. Three years later, 84% of the original participants were re-contacted to complete similar measures. Approximately 90% of the participants reported having more than one

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argument per month, and this frequency remained relatively stable over the three year period examined. Providing partners with social support and being high in coping were negatively related to the number of disagreements. The wife's neuroticism was also positively related to increases in disagreements over the three year period examined.

Supportive behaviors have also been found to predict relationship outcomes, such as level of interdependence. Guerrero and her colleagues (Guerrero, Eloy, & Wabnik, 1993) examined whether changes in relationship maintenance behaviors (more generally defined as supportive behaviors: openness, assurances, positivity, and shared tasks) over an eight week period among 76 female and 32 male single representatives of dating couples predicted whether couples had increases or decreases in interdependence. Openness and assurances were found to increase over time in relationships that had increases in interdependence, whereas positivity, assurances, and shared tasks decreased over the frequency of time in relationships that had decreases in interdependence.

*Self-Disclosure and Relationship Outcomes*. One behavioral indicator of whether couples stay together is the amount of self-disclosures that are made to a close relationship partner (Sprecher, 1987). Sprecher (1987) examined whether giving or receiving self-disclosure in close relationships had a stronger effect on loving and liking. Fifty college dating couples completed Rubin's (1970) Loving and Liking Scale and Jourard's (1971) measure of self-disclosure for themselves and for perceptions of their partners. Four years later, couples were re-contacted to determine their relationship status. Of the 48 couples contacted, 24 couples were still dating.

Women made more disclosures than men; however, this was primarily due to women disclosing more about the things they liked least about their partners, previous dating relationships, feelings towards their best same-sex friend, and the things in life for which they were the most afraid. One's own disclosures were unrelated to liking or loving for a close relationship partner. Perceptions of partners' disclosures were related to loving for men and liking

for both men and women. These gender difference may be due to self-disclosure being viewed as feminine, and women may be more likely to disclose on topics that elicit positive feelings, such as love from their male partners (Sprecher, 1987). Highly disclosing couples were more likely to still be dating four years later. Similarly, perceiving a high level of disclosure from one's relationship partner was related to increases in interdependence for single representatives of couples followed over an eight week period (Guerrero, et. al., 1993).

*Reasons for Dissolution (Accounts)*. Relationship dissolution possibly provides indirect evidence for what relationship behaviors change over the course of time. Hill and her colleagues (Hill, Rubin, & Peplau, 1976) conducted a longitudinal study of 231 college couples from the Boston area who responded to random mailed letters. Of these relationships, 103 ended in the two year period that couples were followed. The most frequently cited reasons for the ending of the relationship by men and women (those mentioned by at least 50% of respondents) represented dimensions for which one relationship partner saw himself or herself as incompatible with their relationship partner: being bored with the relationship, differences in interests, and a greater desire for independence. Thus, these factors represented information that is largely unavailable to partners in the beginning of relationships.

Examining retrospective accounts for break-ups, Baxter (1986) found similar evidence for why relationships end. The reasons cited for relationship break-ups fell into one of six categories, most of which were characteristics that would not be salient at the beginning of the relationship: having to grant too much autonomy to relationship partners (37%), dissimilarity between partners (30%), lack of supportiveness (27%), lack of being open with one's partner (22%), lack of being loyal/faithful to one's partner (17%), lack of time shared together (12%), inequity between partners (12%), and the relationship lacking a "magical" quality (10%).

Perhaps more persuasive evidence for increases in negativity within close relationships comes from Lloyd and Cate (1985) who studied the developmental course of conflict in close

relationships. Lloyd and Cate (1985) examined retrospective reports of individuals' levels of conflict using Braiker and Kelley's (1979) measure of conflict behaviors at five stages of relationships between (1) seeing each other on a casual basis and (5) sure that the relationship would end. At each of these stages, conflict steadily increased. These findings have been replicated in longitudinal research (Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993).

*Summary*. Relationships that are on the road to dissolution, or relationships in which couples are not satisfied with the relationship differ from couples who are satisfied and stay together. Unadjusted couples have increased negativity and decreased positivity in their relationships (e.g., Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993), whereas adjusted couples have a less precipitous increases in negativity and a greater increase in positivity (e.g., Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993).

*Relationship Outcomes as a Function of Increased Negativity and Questions Unanswered by the Literature*

Many of the studies reviewed did not set out to specifically answer questions about changes over time in positive and negative behaviors, consequently, several questions remain unanswered about changes over time in behavior in close relationships. Many of the studies examining changes in dating relationships (e.g., Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993) using the Braiker and Kelley (1979) measure of relationship attitudes/behaviors (love, conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance), or global measures of positive and negative relationship behaviors, such as costs and rewards (e.g., Rusbult, 1983). Many of the studies examining marital relationships used more global measures of positive and negative communication behaviors (e.g., Gottman & Levenson, 1992), or measures of only a subset of positive and negative behaviors, such as socio-emotional negative behaviors, positive affective expressions, or sexual behavior (e.g., Huston & Vangelisti, 1991). Although these definitions of relationship behaviors were adequate for these authors' purposes, they leave some questions unanswered about some types of

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behavior in close relationships, such as behaviors that violate social rules, or behaviors that are uncouth.

Most of the investigations cited have primarily defined positive relationship behaviors as the expression of affect or affective disclosure [e.g., Braiker and Kelley's (1979) measure of relationship maintenance]. It is recognized that love and affective disclosure are likely to increase over the course of time in most relationships, but other positive relationship behaviors, such as doing special things for the individual or providing practical help for the individual remain unexamined in the literature. Studies examining direct reports of behavior suggest that positive relationship behaviors increase globally over the course of time in relationships that do not dissolve (e.g., Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993). Some relationship behaviors, such as doing special things for one's partner, may decrease over the course of time. For example, partners may take individuals out to expensive dinners, wear sexy lingerie, or buy flowers in the beginning of relationships. Over time, these behaviors may decrease in frequency due to a lack of effort. Partial support for this assertion comes from the finding that husbands may become more lazy, as they perform less household chores than their wives (e.g., Huston & Geis, 1993). However, many questions about what changes occur over the course of time in relationships still remain unanswered.

The causes of changes over time in positive and negative behaviors have also not been examined fully. Many studies have examined changes in satisfaction as a result of changes in negative relationship behaviors (e.g., Gottman & Levenson, 1992). These studies examined escalating negativity interaction sequences, but the initial cause of escalating negativity was not specified. Some explanations for changes in positive behavior have been offered, such as greater partner investment in the relationship (Rusbult, 1983) and increased passion and love in close relationships (Rubin, 1970; Walster and Walster, 1978). These explanations still do not address causes for changes in all positive relationship behaviors.

The present set of studies extend the literature by proposing a set of motives that may cause such changes in positive and negative relationship behaviors. Romantic inflation and post-romantic motives are proposed to cause increases in negativity and decreases in positivity over time in close relationships. The models proposed, based on the literature reviewed, suggest that partners may behave better than they really are, in order to make individuals satisfied with and committed to the relationship (romantic inflation). The passage of time, along with normal deterioration processes that occur in relationships, will lead partners to become less motivated to perform positive behaviors and refrain from engaging in negative behaviors (post-romanticism). These motives are proposed to be direct causal mediators of relationship behaviors.

*The Romantic Inflation/Post-Romanticism Model and Hypothesized Relations*

The four models in figure one depict the hypothesized changes that may occur over the course of a relatively short period of time in close relationships (Cunningham et. al., 2001). These models serve as a general outline for the analyses to be performed, as well as the proposed causal direction of changes that occur in close relationships. The four models are separated based on the specific types of positive and negative behaviors that are predicted to change over the course of time in close relationships.

More specifically, these models depict initial deception in close relationships, with partners differing from the individual in a socially undesirable direction managing their impressions, and presenting themselves as better than they really are. These individuals will do so by romantically inflating, which will be measured by the romantic inflation measures given at time one (Hypothesis 1). These tendencies may be particularly pronounced, with male partners presenting themselves as more effortful than they really are and female partners presenting themselves as less self-asserting than they really are (Hypothesis 2). These deceptive impressions by the partner early in relationships are likely to lead to greater satisfaction by the individual (Hypothesis 3).

This increased satisfaction will lead the individual to become committed to the relationship

(Hypotheses 4).

The passage of time, as well as securing a commitment from the individual, will lead partners

to less carefully craft their impression managements, and partners will romantically deflate.

Romantic deflation will be measured by examining the change in romantic deflation between

times one and two (Hypothesis 5). This change in motives will lead partners to increase their

frequencies of negative behaviors and to decrease their frequency of positive behaviors between

times one and two (Hypothesis 6). These changes in behavior by the partner will cause

individuals to be become less satisfied with their relationship between times one and two

(Hypothesis 7). This decrease in satisfaction will make partners to become less committed to their

relationships between times one and two (Hypothesis 8). Decreases in commitment will make

relationships more likely to dissolve (Hypothesis 9).

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Insert Figure 1 About Here

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*Path 1: Reduced Impression Management by the Partner*. A number of personal qualities may

be associated with a disposition toward unpleasant personal habits and qualities. Partners who are

lower than their partners in self-monitoring (H1.1a)[1] and in conscientiousness (H1.1b) may

romantically inflate, and put forth more effort earlier in the relationship than they can maintain

later. This may be particularly true of males (H2.1). The romantic inflation by the partner will

lead the individual to have a high level of satisfaction with the relationship at time one (H3.1)

(Rusbult, 1983), and consequently, these individuals will become more committed to the

relationship (H4.1) (Drigotas & Rusbult, 1992; Rusbult, 1983). The combination of increased

commitment by the individual, the passage of time, and the ordinary erosive processes that occur

in close relationships are expected to lead partners to decrease their efforts in maintaining a

consistently positive impression (H5.1). As a consequence, the partner will increase their bad habit behaviors and decrease their instrumentally supportive behaviors (H6.1) (Shamblen & Cunningham, 1999).

*Path 2: Increased Self-Assertion by the Partner.* Some individuals are more egocentric, lower in social sensitivity, less caring than others, and more anxious in their attachment style. Partners who are higher than their counterparts in neuroticism (H1.2a), higher in narcissism (H1.2b), and higher in anxious attachment (H1.2c) may romantically inflate, and present themselves as highly caring about the well-being of their significant others. This may be particularly true of females (H2.2). This lower level of self-assertion by a partner will lead individuals to become more satisfied (H3.2), and consequently, increase their commitment (H4.2) (Drigotas & Rusbult, 1992; Rusbult, 1983). As passion declines with time, however, the partner may see their significant other as less rewarding. Partners are likely to increase self-assertion (H5.2), and may increase their inconsiderate behaviors and decrease their emotionally supportive behaviors (H6.2).

*Path 3: Increased Controllingness by the Partner.* Some individuals may be disposed toward dominating and controlling behavior. Partners who are higher than their counterparts in other-monitoring (H1.3a), lower in agreeableness (H1.3b) and lower in avoidant attachment (H1.3c) will romantically inflate early in relationships. They are expected to exhibit decreased intrusiveness and increased graciousness from their usual behavior. The high frequency of gracious behaviors and the absence of intrusive behaviors will lead individuals to have a high level of satisfaction with the relationship at time one (H3.3) (Rusbult, 1983), and consequently, these individuals will become more committed to the relationship (H4.3) (Drigotas & Rusbult, 1992; Rusbult, 1983). The longer the relationship, the more the behavior of the individual is seen as reflecting on the partner, which may motivate individuals to control the individual (H 5.3). These motives will lead partners to be more intrusive towards the individual (H6.3). In addition,

controlling partners may resent the frustrations of interdependency, and may withhold gracious behaviors, such as planning romantic evenings or buying small presents (H6.3).

Path 4: Decreased Disclsure by the Partner. Early in dating relationships, individuals may not see their norm violating behaviors as socially inappropriate. As a consequence, they may not attempt to conceal their norm violating behaviors. Differences in the degree to which individuals seek external stimulation, such as sensation seeking (H1.4a), extraversion (H1.4b), and openness to experiences (H1.4c) may be related to the frequency of behaviors that violate rules, such as drinking alcoholic beverages to excess, engaging in flirtatious behavior, and violating other norms, mores, or laws. However, early in relationships, a partner may derive so much stimulation from novelty and excitement of the sexual partner that he or she feels comfortable within an enmeshed interdependent routine. No other forms of stimulation, from friends, chemicals, or recreational challenges may be felt to be needed. The presence of sexually affectionate behaviors and the lack of norm violating behaviors is expected to lead to a high level of satisfaction (H3.4) with the relationship by the individual at time one (Rusbult, 1983). Consequently, these individuals will become more committed to the relationship (H4.3) (Drigotas & Rusbult, 1992; Rusbult, 1983). After early excitement wanes (Walster & Walster, 1978), the partner may feel less fulfilled, and feel the need to conceal their desire to seek these external forms of stimulation (H5.4) through norm violating behavior (H6.4). As partners spend more time in norm violating behavior, they may neglect providing their partners with sexually affectionate behaviors, such as hugging and kissing. (H6.4).

Each of the four foregoing patterns of change is believed to relate to relationship outcomes for individuals. As partner behaviors increases in negativity and decreases in positivity, individuals will become dissatisfied with their relationship (H7.1, H7.2, H7.3, H7.4) (Rusbult, 1983). Decreases in satisfaction will cause reduced commitment to the relationship (H8.1, H8.2, H8.3,

H8.4) (Drigotas & Rusbult, 1992). This decrease in commitment will make individuals more likely to dissolve their relationship (Rusbult, 1983) (H9.1, H9.2, H9.3, H9.4).

Social allergies develop within the individual; therefore, the individual is the focus of analyses in these studies. Most of the hypotheses propose looking at partner relationship behaviors as perceived by the individual and relationship outcomes as perceived by the individual. Both partner behavior and one's relationship outcomes are information to which the individual has access. The two exceptions to this are romantic inflation and post romantic motives. Both are measured from the perspective of the partner, or the perpetrator of allergenic behavior. These motives exist within the partner; therefore, individuals may not have access to what motives or beliefs guide a partner's relationship behavior. Thus, individuals see the partner's behavior caused by these motives, but individuals have no way to accurately assess the motives for their partners' behaviors.

## VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE RRAI

*The Structure of Positive and Negative Relationship Behaviors*

A series of Principal Component Analyses (PCA) were performed to examine the underlying structure of the positive and negative behaviors measured by the Romantic Relationship Act Inventory (RRAI). The primary goal of these analyses was to produce a set of relationship behavior constructs with consistent loadings across study one, study two, and study three. The 83 negative behaviors and the 68 positive behaviors that were present in all studies were analyzed separately to reduce the ratio of items to participants.

Data were collected in different formats for studies one, two, and three. Study one asked 159 participants to indicate how frequently they believed the "average man" and "average woman" performed each of the behaviors after dating either two months or one year. As all couples were asked about men and women, averages were calculated across participant's reports on men and women, and responses about both dating lengths were analyzed in the same PCA. Study two asked 124 dating couples (248 individuals) to indicate how frequently they performed each of the behaviors in the past two months, and they were asked how frequently their partners performed each of the behaviors in the past two months. Only the data provided by participants on how frequently they saw their partners as performing each of the behaviors over the past two months were examined in the PCAs, due to these reports being similarly reliable to the participant's report on their own behaviors, due to both reports being correlated, and due to the participant's report on the partner's behavior being more consequential. These findings will be discussed in the subsequent section examining the validity and reliability of the RRAI.

Study three collected data from 133 couples (266 individuals) who responded about the

frequency of their partners' behavior over the course of the past two months at time one, and 77

couples (154 individuals) and 46 single representatives returned at time two. The time one sample

was used for majority of the PCAs to be reported, as this sample was more representative of both

relationships that dissolve and stay together, in addition to the larger sample size being more

appropriate for conducting PCAs. The time two sample was used in analyses examining the

appropriateness of new items added in study three that were not included in the studies one and

two.

Study three added additional items to the RRAI, due to some scales being represented by a

large number of items (e.g., intrusiveness, instrumental support), and some scales being

represented by a relatively small number of items (e.g., bad habits, sexually affectionate). The

reason for adding additional items at time three was to increase the number of items for the

constructs that were not as strongly represented in studies one and two.

Preliminary analyses were performed to identify items that were inconsistent across solutions

and items that were complex. Items that had the strongest loading on a primary factor of less than

.30, items that had a loading on a secondary factor of greater than or equal to .40, and items that

were complex (< .10 difference in loading) in two out of three solutions were not considered

further in the final analyses to be reported. This resulted in a set of 42 negative behavioral

indicators (see table 1) and 34 positive behavioral indicators (see table 2) that met the above

criteria across the three studies.

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Insert Tables 1 & 2 About Here

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There was good empirical support for the positive and negative behavior solutions (see table

3). The three negative behavior solutions accounted for 42.71% of the variance in the data on

average and the positive solutions accounted for 48.18% of the variance in the data on average

(see table 3). There was also sufficient support for extracting four factors based on the scree criteria (Cattell, 1966). The two exceptions were study two for the negative behavior solutions (.15 difference in latent roots) and study one for the positive behavior solutions (.11 difference in latent roots).

The negative solution for study one consisted of 28 items that loaded discretely, five items that were anomalous (did not load on the same component as in the other two studies) and nine items that were complex (< .10 difference in loadings -- $\lambda_1$ - $\lambda_2$ < .10). Study two included 38 items that loaded discretely one item that was anomalous and three items that were complex and study three had 37 items that loaded discretely, no anomalous items, and five items that were complex. The positive behavior solution had 26 items that loaded discretely, two items that were anomalous, and five behaviors that were complex in study one. Study two had 30 items that loaded discretely, one item that was anomalous, and three items that were complex. Study three had 28 items that loaded discretely, two items that were anomalous, and four items that were complex.

The negative components had acceptable internal consistencies for bad habit behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .72), inconsiderate behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .75), intrusive behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .87), and norm violating behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .73). Also, the positive components had acceptable internal consistencies for instrumentally supportive behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .83), emotionally supportive behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .79), gracious behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .76), and sexually affectionate behaviors ($\alpha s >$ .70).

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Insert Table 3 About Here

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Study three included 56 negative items and 19 additional positive items that were being considered for inclusion on these components. Criteria similar to those previously mentioned were used, as new items that had the strongest loading on a primary factor of less than .30, items

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that were complex (< .10 difference in loadings), and items that had a loading on a secondary factor of greater than or equal to .50 and did not differ from the primary loading by .15 or less were eliminated.

These less stringent criteria for adding items were used, as some items that were acceptable in the prior abridged item set solutions became complex or anomalous when new items were added, especially in the time two data. Furthermore, the time two data set was not as well suited to performing PCAs, as the time two sample was relatively small ($n = 177$) for the purposes of performing PCAs with up to 98 items (less than 2 participants per item). The time two data was also biased for the purposes of performing PCAs, as it primarily reflected responses from participants whose relationships did not dissolve. As a consequence, the time one data was weighted most heavily in making decisions about adding new items.

Using the above criteria, there were two items that were anomalous, two that were complex, and 71 items that loaded discretely in the time one negative behavior data; and there were three complex items, two anomalous items, and 45 items that loaded discretely in the time one positive behavior data. The time two data consisted of 20 complex items, four anomalous items, and 51 items that loaded discretely for the negative behaviors; and 14 complex items, eight anomalous items, and 28 items that loaded discretely for the positive behaviors.

These PCAs involved the addition of 33 items to the negative behavior solution and 16 behaviors to the positive behavior solution. The solutions adding additional items were very similar to the solutions in study three using fewer items. The time one data negative solution accounted for 35.52% of the variance in the data and the time one positive solution accounted for 40.94% of the variance in the data. Internal consistencies were also acceptable for the negative behavior solution ($\alpha s > .81$) and the positive behavior solution ($\alpha s > .76$). Similarly, acceptable internal consistencies were found for the negative ($\alpha s > .89$) and positive ($\alpha s > .82$) behavior solutions in the time two data, and the negative (43.70%) and positive (52.08%) solutions

accounted for a large proportion of the variance in the  time two data. There was also good

support for extracting four factors in all solutions based on the scree criteria (see table 3).

The negative solutions consisted of non-intentional and non-personal behaviors (bad habits;

e.g., noisily belching; noisily flatulating; having been around you when he or she was

inappropriately clothed), non-intentional but personally directed behaviors (inconsiderateness;

e.g., focusing on tiny spots on his/her clothing; complaining about how much tiny injuries hurt;

being overly sentimental when around you), intentional and personally directed behaviors

(intrusiveness; e.g., being sarcastic towards you in a non-humorous way, bringing up things that

you have done in the distant past to disappoint or anger them; being rude, insulting, impolite, or

disrespectful towards you), and intentional and non-personally directed behaviors (norm

violations; e.g., demonstrating that he or she has no ambition; having sex with someone else

while still involved with you; forgetting important dates in your relationship).

The positive dimensions of behavior were categorized along the dimensions of reactive vs.

proactive and concrete vs. symbolic. The dimensions of reactive vs. proactive represent

relationship behaviors that primarily occur in response to an individual's behavior or in response

to the individual's needs, and relationship behaviors that occur in the absence the individual's

behavior or behaviors that are based on the partner's own initiative, respectively. The dimensions

of concrete vs. symbolic largely represents the distinction between whether the behavior of the

partner is done to provide the individual with tangible or direct expressions of positive affect

(concrete), or whether behaviors are a more indirect expression of positive affect (symbolic).

The positive dimensions represented reactive and concrete behaviors (instrumental support;

e.g., helping you set up or assemble appliances; investigating a scary noise in the middle of the

night; repairing things for youy), reactive and symbolic behaviors (emotional support; e.g.,

talking about their day with you; complimenting you; being a good listener for you), proactive

and symbolic behaviors (graciousness; e.g., resolving relationship misunderstandings; initiating a

constructive talk about your relationship; buying you a small present when it was not a special occasion), and proactive and concrete behaviors (sexually affectionate behaviors; e.g., initiating sexual activity with you; engaging in foreplay with you; performing oral sex on you).

Comrey and Lee (1992) offer the following criteria for evaluating sample sizes: 1) $N = 50$ Very Poor, 2) $N = 100$ Poor, 3) $N = 200$ Fair, 4) $N = 300$ Good, 5) $N = 500$ Very Good, and 6) $N = 1000$ Excellent. The sample size for study one lies somewhere between poor and fair (but is closer to fair), and the sample sizes in other studies were at least fair. Evidence also suggests that 50 participants are generally acceptable, if one has indicator items on components with high (= .80) loadings (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Across all studies, the highest loading items on components in negative behavior solutions ranged between .58 and .80, and the highest loading items on components in positive behavior solutions ranged between .60 and .78. Thus, these solutions are relatively close to the standards for acceptable sample size.

Extraction of four components was based on the interpretability of components extracted, as one could argue for more than four components based on latent roots and proportion of variability accounted for by the solutions. When five component solutions were examined, the fifth component was inconsistent in its item content. This fifth component represented a second intrusiveness component in one of the solutions, and represented a component that had items measuring intrusions and norm violations in the other solution. When six components were extracted, the sixth component usually only consisted of one or two items that represented the most severe intrusions (e.g., pushing or hitting the partner). As these solutions were inconsistent in their item content and loadings on the four factors extracted were consistently acceptable, the four component solutions were used.

One theoretical issue that must be addressed is whether the more extreme negative behaviors (severe intrusions and norm violations) should be included on the social allergen constructs, as these behaviors may be immediately aversive, instead of becoming aversive only with partner

repetition of the extreme negative behavior. Although a sixth component was sometimes found that represented the most extreme negative behaviors, this factor was not consistent across solutions. Further, the fifth component that was extracted representing a second intrusiveness component, or a component representing a mix of intrusions and norm violations, did not partition items based on the degree to which they were extreme in their negativity. The extremely negative intrusive and norm violating behaviors had acceptable loadings on intrusions and norm violations, respectively; therefore, these items were considered to be part of the social allergy constructs measured based on empirical criteria. There were not many low loadings on the four components extracted, which also provided corroborating evidence that the four component solution was acceptable.

As can be seen in tables 4, 5, and 6, the majority of the negative behaviors and the majority of positive behaviors were positively correlated in all studies. Also, the majority of the relations between negative and positive behaviors were positive in direction; however, not all were significant. The latter pattern of findings was unexpected, but may represent positive relationship behaviors buffering the effects of negative relationship behaviors. Thus, if a particular type of positive behavior is often used to buffer the effects of a particular type of negative behavior, then these two types of behavior should co-occur with regular frequency (i.e., have a large, positively signed correlation). A more detailed discussion of the patterns of relationships between these components, and justification for correspondence between particular and negative and positive behaviors appears in appendix A.

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Insert Tables 4, 5, & 6 About Here

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*Similarities and Differences between Prior Behavioral Constructs Measured in the Literature and Behaviors Measured by the Social Allergy and Social Enrichment Constructs*

Preliminary analyses were conducted to examine the relationships between prior relationship behavior constructs measured in the literature and the social allergy and social enrichment constructs. Studies two and three contained measures of alternate conceptions of relationship behaviors that have been widely used in the literature: Rusbult's (1983) measures of costs and rewards, and Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) measure of accommodation (only administered in study three). Correlations were calculated to assess the degree to which social allergies and social enrichments overlapped with these constructs measured previously in the literature to establish construct validity. Comparisons of the degree to which these measures and the RRAI predicted satisfaction were performed to assess criterion validity. Concurrent validity was assessed by examining whether these other relationship behavior measures exhibited patters of change over time similar to the patterns of change over time observed for the social allergy and social enrichment constructs.

*Construct Validity*. There was a moderate degree of correspondence between Rusbult's (1983) measure of costs and the social allergies in study two and at both times one and two of study three ($rs \geq .14$, $ps < .05$; see table 7). Two exceptions to this pattern of results were found, with costs only being marginally related bad habit behaviors at time one in study three ($r = .15$, $p < .10$) and non-significantly related in study two ($r = .07$, $p > .15$).

Rusbult's (1983) measure of rewards was related to emotional support in all samples ($rs \geq .31$, $ps < .01$) and rewards were related to sexually affectionate behaviors in study two and at time two in study three ($rs \geq .28$, $ps < .01$).[2] Rewards were related to gracious behaviors only in study two ($r = .17$, $p < .01$). There was no evidence to suggest rewards were related to instrumentally supportive behaviors in any of the samples. The rewards measure was also negatively related to intrusive and norm violating behaviors in all samples ($rs \leq -.15$, $ps < .05$). Rusbult (1983) measures rewards with one item that taps global rewards in the relationship (How rewarding is this relationship?), and one item where participants compare how rewarding their relationship is

to their ideal relationship (In terms of rewards, how does this relationship compare to your ideal?). The global rewards and idealization items were examined separately to see if instrumentally supportive or gracious behaviors were related to either of these items; however, a pattern of results similar to the pattern observed for the scale score was found.

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Insert Table 7 About Here

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Considering Rusbult's (1983) theory, rewards are behavioral aspects of the relationship that make the individual becomes more satisfied, and consequently, the individual increases his/her commitment to the relationship. Results to be discussed later also suggest that emotionally supportive and affection behaviors performed by the partner were the positive behaviors that were most consistently related to satisfaction with the relationship. Partner instrumental support and graciousness had inconsistent relationships with the individual's satisfaction. This is likely due to emotionally supportive and sexually affectionate behaviors causing individuals to experience more positive affect than instrumentally supportive and gracious behaviors.

Similar results for positive behaviors were found in Wills Weiss, and Patterson (1974), who examined the relationship of instrumental behaviors (defined as having components of instrumental support, e.g., meals and shopping, and components of graciousness; e.g., personal appearance and family recreation) and expressive behaviors (defined as including emotionally supportive and sexually affectionate behaviors) to ratings of how pleasurable interactions were with the partner. Ratings of how pleasurable interactions are is similar to ratings of relationship rewards on an interaction-by-interaction basis. Overall effects suggested positive instrumental behaviors had a non-significantly smaller relationship with pleasurable ratings of interactions ($r = .13$, *n.s.*) than emotionally supportive behaviors ($r = .16$, $p < .05$).

The prediction was made for the study three data that Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) negative

accommodating behaviors reported by the individual would be related to the individual's reports of the partner's negative social allergens. Individuals' positive accommodating behaviors were predicted to be related to individuals' reports of their partners' positive relationship behaviors. More specifically, it was thought that negative and passive behaviors (neglect) would be related to bad habit and inconsiderate behaviors, negative and active behaviors (exit) would be related to intrusive and norm violating behaviors, positive and passive behaviors (loyalty) would be related to instrumental and emotionally supportive behaviors, and that positive and active behaviors (Voice) would be related to gracious and sexually affectionate behaviors. Support was found for the predicted relationships between the social allergens and the neglect and exit constructs at both times one and two ($rs > .21$, $ps < .01$), with the exception of the relationship between neglect and bad habits only being marginal at time one ($r = .16$, $p < .10$). However, it is also important to note that neglect was also significantly related to intrusive and norm-violating behaviors at times one and two ($rs > .21$, $ps < .01$). Only voice was (marginally) related to sexually affectionate behaviors at times one ($r = .16$, $p < .10$) and two ($r = .21$, $p < .05$).

The results of these analyses largely suggest that there is a moderate degree of overlap between the social allergies measured by the RRAI and the negative behaviors assessed by other instruments. The primary difference is that these other measures tend to focus more on global negativity, as opposed to more subtle distinctions in behavior. Rusbult et al.'s (1991) accommodation measure was one exception to this pattern, suggesting that Rusbult's negative/active vs. negative/passive dimension corresponds to the personal vs. non-personal dimension of the social allergy model. Little overlap was found between social enrichments and other measures of positive behaviors in the literature.

*Criterion Validity.* Analyses were also performed to establish criterion validity for the RRAI, as well as to demonstrate that the RRAI accounts for unique variance in the criterion that is not accounted for by the other measures in the literature. OLS regression analyses were performed

two ways. The first analysis strategy involved performing hierarchical regressions entering costs, rewards, and accommodation on step one, and entering all of the RRAI behaviors for a given sample on step two (as a predictor of the residual term from step one: see table 8). This analysis strategy was applied for each sample separately. Beta coefficients for the RRAI variables entered on step two largely represent partial regression coefficients, as the RRAI variables are only allowed to account for the variability not accounted for by the other measures in the literature.

The second analysis strategy involved entering scales comprising other measures on step one (either costs and rewards, or accommodation measures: see table 9), and entering all RRAI behaviors for a given wave of data on step two, as predictors of relationship satisfaction. These analyses were performed separately for each sample. The second analysis strategy is a simultaneous regression analysis strategy with beta coefficients representing semi-partial relationships between the RRAI variables and satisfaction. Thus, this approach allows one to examine the unique contribution of each variable to explaining satisfaction, when all variability in satisfaction is considered. The second analysis strategy also allows for the comparison variance accounted for by models only entering other measures of behavior in the literature (model one) to models entering both theses other measures and the RRAI behaviors (model two). Thus, this addresses whether the RRAI adds to the prediction of relationship outcomes. The $r^2$ *change* test determines whether the additional variables added in step two account for a significantly greater proportion of unique variability than the unique variability accounted for in model one. As it applies to the current circumstance, it is being examined whether the RRAI accounts for additional variance in satisfaction over and above the variance accounted for by other measures of behavior being compared to the RRAI. All analyses focused only on the cross-sectional relationships between behavior and satisfaction.[3]

When entering Rusbult's measures of costs, rewards, and accommodation data on step one, costs ($\beta = -.12$, $p = .004$) and rewards ($\beta = .77$, $p < .001$) were related to satisfaction in study two; costs ($\beta = -.11$, $p = .067$), rewards ($\beta = .35$, $p < .001$), neglect ($\beta = -.10$, $p = .010$), and exit ($\beta = -.49$, $p < .001$) were related to satisfaction in study three at time one; and costs ($\beta = -.43$, $p < .001$), neglect ($\beta = -.20$, $p = .012$), and exit ($\beta = -.18$, $p = .033$) were related to satisfaction in study three at time two. When the RRAI variables were entered as predictors of the residual term from step one, intrusive ($\beta = -.20$, $p = .047$, $r_{part} = -.11$, $p = .085$) and instrumentally supportive ($\beta = .17$, $p = .055$, $r_{part} = .14$, $p = .034$) behaviors predicted satisfaction in study two; bad habit ($\beta = -.20$, $p = .046$, $r_{part} = -.23$, $p = .007$), intrusive ($\beta = -.24$, $p = .031$, $r_{part} = -.38$, $p < .001$), emotionally supportive ($\beta = .27$, $p = .010$, $r_{part} = .30$, $p < .001$), and sexually affectionate ($\beta = .15$, $p = .116$, $r_{part} = .15$, $p = .089$) behaviors (marginally) predicted satisfaction at time one in study three; and instrumentally supportive ($\beta = .22$, $p = .062$, , $r_{part} = .13$, $p = .146$), emotionally supportive ($\beta = .21$, $p = .038$, $r_{part} = .24$, $p = .005$), and gracious ($\beta = -.25$, $p = .038$, $r_{part} = -.05$, $p = .530$) behaviors predicted satisfaction at time two in study three. Gracious behaviors were positively related to satisfaction at the zero order level, and the reversed direction of the gracious effect will be discussed later. Several findings emerged only when RRAI variables were entered separately as predictors of satisfaction after partialing the effects of costs, rewards, and accommodation (in study three). Satisfaction was predicted by emotionally supportive behaviors in study two ($r_{part} = .13$, $p = .043$); satisfaction was predicted by norm violations at time one in study three ($r_{part} = -.28$, $p = .001$), and satisfaction was predicted by intrusive ($r_{part} = -.24$, $p = .005$) and sexually affectionate ($r_{part} = .24$, $p = .006$) behaviors at time two in study three.

Analyses entering the RRAI simultaneously with other similar measures also suggested that

the RRAI improved the variance accounted for in satisfaction. The study two data suggested that costs and rewards accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in relationship satisfaction ($r^2_{adj}$ = .61, $p$ < .001), and the model entering costs, rewards, and the RRAI variables ($r^2_{adj}$ = .62, $p$ < .001) accounted for a marginally larger proportion of the variability in satisfaction, $F(8, 223)$ = 1.86, $p$ = .067. Costs and rewards accounted for a significant proportion of the variability in satisfaction at time one in study three ($r^2_{adj}$ = .40, $p$ < .001), and the model entering both rewards, costs, and the RRAI variables accounted for a large proportion of the variability in satisfaction ($r^2_{adj}$ = .65, $p$ < .001). Entry of the RRAI variables into the model significantly improved the variability accounted for in satisfaction by the model, $F(10, 129)$ = 26.89, $p$ < .001. Similar results were found in the time two study three data with the model entering only costs and rewards ($r^2_{adj}$ = .37, $p$ < .001) and the model entering costs, rewards, and the RRAI variables ($r^2_{adj}$ = .49, $p$ < .001) accounting for a significant proportion of the variability in the data. Also, entering the RRAI variables improved the proportion of variance accounted for in satisfaction by the model, $F(10, 129)$ = 14.45, $p$ < .001.

The results for Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) accommodation measures were similar. The accommodation measures accounted for a significant proportion of the variability in satisfaction at time one ($r^2_{adj}$ = .52, $p$ < .001), and entering the RRAI measures simultaneously with the accommodation measures ($r^2_{adj}$ = .71, $p$ < .001) significantly improved the amount of variability accounted for in satisfaction, $F(8, 127)$ = 12.36, $p$ < .001. Results were similar at time two with the model only entering the accommodation measures ($r^2_{adj}$ = .30, $p$ < .001) and the model entering the accommodation measures and the RRAI measures ($r^2_{adj}$ = .45, $p$ < .001) accounting for a significant proportion of the variability in the data, with the RRAI measures significantly increasing the proportion of variability accounted for in satisfaction, $F(8, 127)$ = 5.62, $p$ < .001.

It was of particular interest whether the social enrichments continued to predict satisfaction after other scales were entered simultaneously. When entering Rusbult's (1983) measures of costs

and rewards simultaneously, instrumental support ($\beta = .10$, $p = .066$) continued to marginally predict satisfaction in study two; emotional support ($\beta = .24$, $p = .001$) and sexually affectionate ($\beta = .14$, $p = .024$) behaviors continued to be positively related to satisfaction at time one in study three; and instrumental support ($\beta = .17$, $p = .050$), emotional support ($\beta = .17$, $p = .025$), and sexually affectionate ($\beta = .18$, $p = .017$) behaviors continued to be related to satisfaction at time two in study three.

Social allergies were much more strongly related to other measures of negative behaviors than social enrichments were related to other measures of positive behaviors, but it was also necessary to establish the criterion validity of the negative RRAI measures. When entering costs and rewards simultaneously with the RRAI behaviors, intrusive behaviors in study two ($\beta = -.13$, $p = .043$); intrusive ($\beta = -.41$, $p < .001$) and norm-violating ($\beta = -.12$, $p = .077$) behaviors at time one in study three; and intrusive behaviors ($\beta = -.28$, $p = .015$) at time two in study three remained significant predictors of satisfaction.

Costs were negatively related to satisfaction ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .019$; $\beta = -.12$, $p = .006$) and rewards were positively related to satisfaction ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .73$, $p < .001$) in the stage two analyses for study two and study three at time one, respectively. Costs were positively related to satisfaction in the time two stage two analysis ($\beta = .36$, $p < .001$); however, this relationship was negative and non-significant in the stage one analyses ($\beta = -.03$, $p = .691$). Rewards were unrelated to satisfaction in the time two stage two analyses ($\beta = .01$, $p = .921$).

The analyses entering Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) accommodation measures simultaneously with the RRAI behaviors found that both emotional support at times one ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$) and two ($\beta = .21$, $p = .021$) and sexually affectionate behaviors at times one ($\beta = .13$, $p = .021$) and two ($\beta = .21$, $p = .008$) remained significant predictors of satisfaction. Again, gracious behaviors were negatively related to satisfaction at time two ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .036$) in the model two analyses.

Intrusive behaviors remained as significant predictors of satisfaction at times one ($\beta = -.28$, $p$ <.001) and two ($\beta = -.34$, $p = .010$) in the model two analyses. In addition, bad habit ($\beta = -.10$, $p = .074$) and norm violating ($\beta = -.11$, $p = .071$) behaviors were marginally related to satisfaction in the time one model two analyses. Exit at times one ($\beta = -.39$, $p < .001$) and two ($\beta = -.21$, $p = .010$) and voice at times one ($\beta = .09$, $p = .086$) and two ($\beta = .18$, $p = .025$) remained significant predictors of satisfaction in these model two analyses.[3]

*Concurrent Validity*. A series of HLMs were performed to examine whether the costs, rewards, and accommodation measures exhibited similar or differing patterns of change in comparison to the patterns of change found over time for the behaviors measured by the RRAI. These data were modeled as multiple observations being nested within individuals using the methods for couple data recommended by Raudenbush (Raudenbush, Brennan, & Barnett, 1995), which are discussed in more detail below. Average days/week spent with the partner across the two waves was used as a predictor of the level one intercept and length of the relationship at time one was used as a predictor of the time change component (coded as –1 for time one and +1 for time two). Rusbult's (1983) measures of costs and rewards were not found to exhibit change over time ($ps > .13$). Results for Rusbult's accommodation measures suggested that women saw their exit behaviors as increasing over the two months ($t(272) = 2.37$, $p = .018$), and men saw their voice behaviors as decreasing over the two months ($t(272) = -2.65$, $p = .009$). No other findings approached significance for the accommodation measures ($ps > .15$).

As will be discussed later, men and women of shorter dating lengths saw their there partners as increasing their bad habit behaviors, and women were seen as increasing their intrusive and norm violating behaviors (see table 30). The only finding for social enrichments suggested women were seen as marginally decreasing their emotionally supportive behaviors. The pattern of results suggested that the negative behaviors measured by the RRAI showed patterns of change over time that were similar to the costs, rewards, and accommodation measures. For example, men saw

women's intrusive behaviors as increasing, and women saw themselves as increasing their use of exit as an accommodation strategy. The pattern of results for positive behaviors were largely comparable, with the measure of relationship costs and the RRAI both failing to find meaningful changes over time in positive relationship behaviors. Nevertheless, comparison of these results suggest that the RRAI is capable of detecting changes in some negative behaviors that are clearly not measured by other scales in the literature.

*Validity of Using Individual Reports of the Partner's Behavior as Opposed to Partner Reports of their Own Behavior*

*Correspondence Between Reports in Study 2.* As partners and individuals have differential recall of the same reality (the frequency of the same person's behavior), this may lead to differential reporting of behavior (Christensen, Sullaway, & King, 1983). The individual's report of the partner's behavior and the partner's report of his/her own behavior may be differentially reliable, therefore, corrections for unreliability of measurement were performed. Differential error variability for items results when individuals have differential recall of the rates of behavior for items comprising a scale. For example, partners may underestimate the frequency of some of their own negative behaviors and individuals may overestimate the frequency of some of their partners' negative behaviors, especially those that are most vivid and salient to the individual (but not necessarily as vivid and salient to the partner). Nevertheless, the individual's reports of the partner's behaviors appear to be more consequential, as will be discussed below.

Women's reports of men's bad habit ($\alpha$ = .72), inconsiderate ($\alpha$ = .84), intrusive ($\alpha$ = .88), and norm violating ($\alpha$ = .80) behaviors were similar in their reliabilities with men's report of their own bad habit ($\alpha$ = .70), inconsiderate ($\alpha$ = .70), intrusive ($\alpha$ = .88) and norm violating ($\alpha$ = .65) behaviors (see table 10). Men and women's reports of men's behavior were also significantly correlated for bad habit ($r$ = .26; $r_{catt.}$ = .37, $ps$ < .01; where $r_{catt.}$ Indicates a correlation corrected for attenuation), inconsiderate ($r$ = .27; $r_{catt.}$ = .35, $ps$ < .01), and intrusive ($r$ = .23; $r_{catt.}$ = .26, $ps$

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< .05) behaviors. Reports on norm violating behaviors were not significantly correlated ($r = .10$; $r_{catt.} = .14$), which will be discussed below. Results were similar for positive behaviors, with women's reports of men's instrumentally supportive ($\alpha = .92$), emotionally supportive ($\alpha = .76$), gracious ($\alpha = .79$), and sexually affectionate ($\alpha = .64$) behaviors being marginally reliable, and men's report of their own instrumentally supportive ($\alpha = .81$), emotionally supportive ($\alpha = .79$), gracious ($\alpha = .76$), and sexually affectionate ($\alpha = .72$) behaviors being similarly reliable. Men and women's reports of men's instrumentally supportive ($r = .19$; $r_{catt.} = .22$, $ps < .05$), emotionally supportive ($r = .15$, $p < .10$; $r_{catt.} = .19$, $p < .05$), gracious ($r = .18$; $r_{catt.} = .23$, $ps < .05$), and sexually affectionate ($r = .47$; $r_{catt.} = .69$, $ps < .01$) were significantly similar.

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Insert Table 10 About Here

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Findings for reliabilities and correlations for men's report of women's behavior and women's report of their own behaviors were nearly identical to the findings for reports on men's behaviors. Men's reports of women's bad habit ($\alpha = .74$), inconsiderate ($\alpha = .68$), intrusive ($\alpha = .89$), and norm violating ($\alpha = .68$) behaviors were similar in their reliabilities with women's report of their own bad habit ($\alpha = .72$), inconsiderate ($\alpha = .83$), intrusive ($\alpha = .86$), and norm violating ($\alpha = .75$) behaviors. Men and women's reports of women's behavior were also significantly correlated for bad habit ($r = .27$; $r_{catt.} = .37$, $ps < .01$), inconsiderate ($r = .18$; $r_{catt.} = .24$, $ps < .05$), and intrusive ($r = .31$; $r_{catt.} = .35$, $ps < .01$) behaviors. Again, reports on norm violating behaviors were not significantly correlated ($r = .03$; $r_{catt.} = .04$).

Results were similar for positive behaviors, with men's reports of women's instrumentally supportive ($\alpha = .83$), emotionally supportive ($\alpha = .84$), gracious ($\alpha = .74$), and sexually affectionate ($\alpha = .78$) behaviors being reliable and women's report of their own instrumentally supportive ($\alpha = .88$), emotionally supportive ($\alpha = .75$), gracious ($\alpha = .78$), and sexually

affectionate ($\alpha = .66$) behaviors being similarly reliable. Men and women's reports of women's instrumentally supportive ($r = .15$, $p < .10$; $r_{catt.} = .18$, $p < .05$), emotionally supportive ($r = .12$, n.s.; $r_{catt.} = .15$, $p < .10$), gracious ($r = .16$, $p < .10$; $r_{catt.} = .21$, $p < .05$), and sexually affectionate ($r = .41$; $r_{catt.} = .57$, $ps < .01$) behaviors were low but marginally, significantly similar. The slightly lower correlations for instrumentally supportive and emotionally supportive behaviors may be explained by the findings of study one, suggesting that men underestimate the frequency of women's instrumentally supportive and emotionally supportive behaviors. As discussed below and as presented in table 10, the study two data suggested that men did see women as performing fewer instrumentally supportive behaviors than women saw themselves as performing; however, the findings for emotionally supportive behaviors in study one were not replicated in study two ($t(122) = -.45$, $p = .654$).

Reports on norm violating behaviors did not exhibit a high degree of correspondence between individual reports and partner reports. Correspondence between reports for norm violations approached significance for men ($r_{catt.} = .14$, $p = .124$), where women saw their partners ($M = 1.64$) as performing fewer norm violating behaviors than men saw themselves as performing ($M = -2.23$; $t(120) = 1.93$, $p = .028$). Thus, more consistent differences were found between men and women on their reports of men's norm violating behavior, which likely led the correlation between their reports to be higher. Men saw their partners ($M = 1.70$) as performing marginally more norm violating behaviors than women saw themselves as performing ($M = 1.47$; $t(122) = -1.68$, $p = .096$), which led the correspondence between reports for women's behavior to be close to zero. This low degree of correspondence between individuals' reports of partners and partners' reports of themselves on norm violations, especially for the data provided by men, may be due to women's reports on men's and women's norm violations being more reliable than men's reports on men's and women's norm violations.

There was only a modest amount of similarity between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the partner's report of his/her own behavior. Christensen, et al. (1983) also examined similarities in past two-week recall of men's and women's reports of the same partner's behavior, and only found a modest amount of overlap between men's and women's reports of the same partners behavior (average Cohen's Kappa = .50). The overlap reported in their study is larger than the correlations reported here for average correspondences between men's behavior ($r_{catt.}$ = .31) and women's behavior ($r_{catt.}$ = .26); however, it should be noted that similarities were likely higher in Christensen et. al. (1983), as only dichotomous data were collected (e.g., behavior occurred vs. did not occur), as opposed to the number of times a behavior occurred over the course of time. Thus, it is likely easier for relationship partners to recall whether a behavior has occurred or has not occurred over a two-week period, as opposed to indicating the frequency with which a behavior has occurred over the past two months.

The present data were transformed to dichotomous data, such that the correspondence in ratings could be compared to those of Christensen and colleagues (1983). More specifically, agreements or disagreements between raters that a specific class of behaviors occurred or did not occur were examined. High, positive kappa coefficients are produced when there is a high agreement that a behavior did occur and did not occur (high frequencies in the agreement diagonal) and there are few disagreements between two raters making dichotomous ratings (e.g., one rater seeing a behavior as occurring and the other rater seeing the behavior as not occurring). The present data represent a case where there are few disagreements, a large number of agreements that a behavior did occur, but relatively few cases where there is agreement that a behavior did not occur (< 5%). This is likely due to most classes of behavior occurring over the past 2 months, whereas Christensen asked about a span of two weeks. The present case leads to a low kappas (-.05 to .06), which is a misrepresentation of agreement between raters. For example, if two raters rate 20 behaviors as occurring/not occurring, and there are 18 agreements between

the two raters that a behavior did occur, and two disagreements, kappa in this circumstance is low

(kappa = -.05), but underestimates the degree of correspondence when the raters agreed 90% of

the time. As a consequence, only correlations and correlations corrected for attenuation were

interpreted.

A number of differences were found between individual reports of their own behavior and the

partner's report of his/her own behaviors. Men saw themselves as performing more inconsiderate

($t$(120) = -2.21, $p$ = .029), intrusive ($t$(120) = -2.11, $p$ = .037), norm violating ($t$(120) = -2.23, $p$ =

.028), instrumentally supportive ($t$(120) = -3.39, $p$ = .001), and gracious ($t$(120) = -2.31, $p$ = .023)

behaviors than women saw men as performing.

The different methods used to ask individuals about their partners' behavior might be

responsible for the lack of correspondence between men and women's reports on men's behavior.

Individuals were asked to, "indicate how often your partner has done what is described" and

partners were asked to, "indicate how often you have done what is described in the item." When

the partner responds about their own behavior, they possibly could be responding about instances

of behavior for which the individual may be unaware. These instances of behavior would not be

reflected in the individual's report of the partner's behavior. For example, the partner may have

consumed alcohol to the point of drunkenness 30 times in the past month, but the individual may

have only been around the partner for 10 of those occurrences.

Comparable analyses for women suggested that women also saw themselves as performing

more instrumentally supportive behaviors than men saw women as performing ($t$(122) = 2.19, $p$ =

.030). This finding and the findings for reports on men's instrumentally supportive behaviors may

suggest that the individual's reports on the partner's behavior are colored by sex-role stereotypes-

-women saw men as performing more sex-role stereotypic instrumentally supportive behaviors

than men saw themselves as performing, and men saw women as performing fewer cross sex-role

stereotypic instrumentally supportive behaviors than women saw themselves as performing. This

interpretation is partially supported by the findings of study one, inasmuch as men saw typical women as performing fewer instrumentally supportive behaviors than women saw typical women as performing.

*Partner vs. Self Reports of the Same Behavior as Predictors of Satisfaction.* Correlational analyses were first performed to determine whether individual reports of the partner's behavior or the partner's report of his/her behavior were more predictive of the individual's satisfaction, for men and women separately (see table 11). Tests of significance between two dependent correlations were performed for men and women separately, comparing the correlation between the individual's report of the partner's behavior with the individual's satisfaction and the correlation between the partner's report of his/her own behavior and the individual's satisfaction. Men's satisfaction was more strongly predicted by their own reports of their partners' intrusive ($r = -.22$), norm violating ($r = -.29$), emotionally supportive behaviors ($r = .41$), gracious ($r = .13$), and sexually affectionate behaviors ($r = .27$) than their partners' report of their own intrusive ($r = -.02$; $t(119) = -4.79$, $p < .001$), norm violating ($r = -.10$; $t(119) = -4.78$, $p < .001$), emotionally supportive behaviors ($r = .16$; $t(119) = 4.93$, $p < .001$), gracious ($r = .03$; $t(119) = 2.02$, $p = .047$), and sexually affectionate ($r = .14$; $t(119) = 3.20$, $p = .002$) behaviors. Women's satisfaction was more strongly predicted by their own reports of the partner's bad habit ($r = .16$), norm violating ($r = -.37$), emotionally supportive ($r = .37$), and sexually affectionate ($r = .32$) behaviors than the partner's report of his own bad habit ($r = -.02$; $t(121) = 3.34$, $p = .001$), norm violating ($r = -.10$; $t(121) = -4.30$, $p < .001$), emotionally supportive ($r = .07$; $t(121) = 8.82$, $p < .001$), and sexually affectionate ($r = .24$; $t(121) = 2.71$, $p = .008$) behaviors. It should be noted that in these findings and those to immediately follow, women's satisfaction tended to be predicted by greater partner bad habit behavior. Women's reports of their partners' behavior were the strongest predictor when considering the absolute magnitude of the correlation coefficient.

The true frequency of a partner's behavior likely lies somewhere in between the partner's

recall of their own behaviors, which may be subject to self-serving biases, and the individual's perceptions of the partner's behavior, which may be biased by gender stereotypes and also affected by the individual's current evaluation of the relationship. Thus, these biases tend to pull the true population mean of behavioral frequencies in two different directions.

Averaged reports were examined to determine whether they did a better job of predicting men's and women's satisfaction than the individual's report of the partner's behavior. A similar analyses strategy was used comparing the correlations between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's satisfaction with the averaged reports with the individual's satisfaction (see table 12). No correlations were found to differ significantly in these analyses. Examining only the direction of the differences, men's satisfaction was more strongly related to their own reports of their partner's behavior for five of the eight behaviors, and women's satisfaction was more strongly related to their own reports of their partner's behavior for four of the eight behaviors. Further, two relationships were identical when examining predictors of men's satisfaction and three predictors were identical when examining predictors of women's satisfaction. Although an average between the two reports may serve as a compromise, the individual's perceptions of his/her partner's behavior appear to be slightly more consequential. Therefore, the individual's report of the partner's behavior were used in all analyses to follow.

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Insert Tables 11 & 12 About Here

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**STUDY 1**

**OVERVIEW**

Past studies have found that women find domineering and uncouth behaviors to be aversive and to be performed more frequently by men, whereas men find self-absorbed and emotionally oversensitive behaviors to be aversive and to be performed more frequently by women (Buss, 1989). These perceptions of opposite sex behavior correspond to self-reports for negative personality characteristics (Spence, Helmreich, & Holohan, 1979). Considering these findings, it was predicted that men would be seen as engaging in more masculine sex-role stereotypic negative behaviors (bad habit behaviors) and women would be seen as engaging in more feminine sex-role stereotypic behaviors (inconsiderateness) the longer they had been dating.

## STUDY 1

## METHOD

*Participants.* The participants for the present study were 161 (79 men and 82 women) introductory psychology students from a Southeastern university. The mean age of these participants was 19.96 ($M_{men}$ = 19.91; $M_{women}$ = 20.00). The majority of the participants were Caucasian (85%), with African-Americans (8%), Latinos (2%), and other racial groups (5%) also participating in the study. Students participated in partial fulfillment of a research participation requirement for that course. All participants provided their informed consent to participate in the study.

*Measure*. One-hundred fifty one items were taken from a number of sources, including items generated by the authors and seven graduate students, 31 upper-level undergraduate students asked to list behaviors that change as close relationships progress, Cunningham et. al.'s (1997) list of social allergens, the causes of upset and anger found by Buss (1987), and the relationship maintenance strategies identified by Dindia and Baxter (1987; Baxter & Dindia, 1992).

*Procedure*. Approximately half of the participants (*n*=82, 39 men and 43 women) were asked to indicate how often they thought the typical man and the typical woman performed 151 behaviors during the second month of a relationship. The other half of participants (*n*=79, 40 men and 39 women) indicated how often they thought the typical man and the typical woman performed these 151 behaviors after couples had been dating for one year. Thus, all participants responded about the typical man's and the typical woman's behavior and approximately half of the sample responded about each hypothetical time period (2 months or 12 months).

Half of the participants were given the following instructions:

*Instructions:* The following 151 statements refer to behaviors that close relationship partners may engage in.  In this first section, please indicate how often you believe *THE AVERAGE MAN* engages in the following behaviors in *A TYPICAL MONTH, IF HE HAS BEEN DATING HIS PARTNER ONLY 2 MONTHS* using the following scale.

0) Don't Knowl / Refuse*
1) Less than once a month or never
2) Once a month
3) Once every two weeks
4) About once a week
5) 2-3 times per week
6) 4-6 times per week
7) Every Day
8) 2-3 times per day
9) 4 or more times per day

Next, participants were asked to respond about the typical woman's behavior two months into

dating relationships:

*Instructions:* The following 151 statements refer to behaviors that close relationship partners may engage in.  In this first section, please indicate how often you believe *THE AVERAGE WOMAN* engages in the following behaviors in *A TYPICAL MONTH, IF SHE HAS BEEN DATING HER PARTNER ONLY 2 MONTHS* using the following scale.

0) Don't Knowl / Refuse*
1) Less than once a month or never
2) Once a month
3) Once every two weeks
4) About once a week
5) 2-3 times per week
6) 4-6 times per week
7) Every Day
8) 2-3 times per day
9) 4 or more times per day

 * *Scored as a missing value.*

The procedures were nearly identical for the remaining half of the participants, with the exception

of these participants being asked to respond about 12 months into relationships instead of 2

months.

**STUDY 1**

**RESULTS**

The primary goal of these analyses was to demonstrate that individuals perceive relationship behaviors as changing over the course of time in close relationships. These questions were examined by performing independent group t-tests on perceptions of change over time in relationships for men and women separately. Additional analyses were also performed to examine moderators of sex differences in perceptions of men's and women's relationship behaviors using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression. These analyses involved regressing differences in perceptions of each sex (male - female) on time period of observation (2 mo. vs. 12 mo., coded as -1 and +1, respectively) and sex of perceiver (male vs. female, coded as -1 and +1, respectively). Interactions terms between time period of observation and sex of perceiver were initially examined; however, these interaction terms were not significant in any of the regressions ($\beta s <$ .08, $ps > .33$).

Although a 2 (sex of target) X 2 (time: 2 mo. vs. 12 mo.) X 2 (sex of perceiver) repeated measures ANOVA may appear to be a more parsimonious data analysis strategy, the two analysis strategies present a pattern of findings that are identical.[4] More specifically, this regression strategy produces findings reflecting sex of target differences, the interaction between sex of target and time, and the interaction between sex of target and sex of perceiver produced by a repeated measures ANOVA results. The analysis strategy presented here was chosen, as it more adequately highlights the specific research questions to be addressed. Using OLS also confers the benefit of providing standardized regression coefficients ($\beta s$), which are comparable across the studies to be reported. Only standardized measures of effect size ($r$) or standardized regression

coefficients and the probability associated with tests of significance are reported in the prose of the paper.

*Perceptions of Changes in Behavior Over Time*. Male ($r = .51$, $p < .001$) and female ($r = .53$, $p < .001$) targets were perceived as increasing their frequency of bad habit behaviors over the course of the first 12 months of close relationships. There were also marginal effects suggesting both male ($r = .23$, $p = .140$) and female ($r = .28$, $p = .079$) targets may be perceived as increasing their frequency of intrusive behaviors over the course of the first year of close relationships. Sexually affectionate behaviors were the only positive behaviors that were perceived as increasing over the course of the first 12 months of close relationships for both male ($r = .23$, $p = .005$) and female ($r = .32$, $p < .001$) targets. Last, there was a marginal effect for emotionally supportive behaviors, suggesting that female targets were perceived as marginally increasing their frequency of emotionally supportive behaviors over the course of the first year of relationships ($r = .12$, $p = .132$). There was no evidence to suggest that inconsiderate, norm violating, instrumentally supportive, or gracious behaviors were seen as increasing/decreasing over the first year of relationships ($ps > .15$; see table 13).

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Insert Table 13 About Here

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*Sex Differences and Moderators of Perceived Sex Differences*. Tests of differences in how the sexes are perceived were performed using OLS regressions examining the alternative hypothesis that the dependent measure (difference scores calculated as perceptions of men - perceptions of women) is not zero. As sex of perceiver and time in relationship evaluated were used as predictors in this model, the intercept represents the mean value of the dependent variable after adjusting for other independent measures in the regression model. The t-statistic and the dfs associated with the hypothesis tests for the intercepts were transformed to effect sizes ($r$)

(Rosenthal, 1991). This was done because the standardized intercept is always zero, and the alternative hypothesis that the intercept differs from zero cannot be tested for standardized coefficients.

As can be seen in table 14, the sexes were seen as differing in the frequency with which they performed several of the behaviors examined. Men were seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors ($r = .64$, $p < .001$) and norm violating behaviors ($r = .41$, $p < .001$) than women, and women were seen as engaging in more inconsiderate behaviors ($r = -.71$, $p < .001$) than men. Men were seen as engaging in more instrumentally supportive ($r = .70$, $p < .001$) and sexually affectionate ($r = .40$, $p < .001$) behaviors than women, and women were seen as engaging in more gracious behaviors ($r = -.38$, $p < .001$) than men. There was no evidence to suggest that men and women differed in their frequency of performing intrusive, instrumentally supportive, or emotionally supportive behaviors ($ps > .15$).

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Insert Table 14 About Here

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Examination of the 2 vs. 12 month effects for gender of target differences in behavior suggested that the relationship length that was evaluated seemed to moderate gender of target differences in emotionally supportive ($\beta = -.18$, $p = .014$) and sexually affectionate ($\beta = -.14$, $p = .076$) behaviors. These findings qualify the findings of the analyses examining sex of target differences, suggesting that women were seen as having larger increases in emotionally supportive and slightly larger increases in sexually affectionate behaviors relative to men over the course of the first 12 months of relationships. Relationship length did not appear to moderate perceived gender differences for any of the negative behaviors or for instrumentally supportive or gracious behaviors ($ps > .15$).

Sex of participant was also found to moderate sex of target differences in perceptions. Men

saw female targets as engaging in more intrusive behaviors than women saw female targets as engaging in ($\beta = .15$, $p = .054$). Similarly, men saw female target's as engaging in less instrumentally supportive ($\beta = -.24$, $p = .003$), gracious ($\beta = -.27$, $p < .001$), and emotionally supportive behaviors ($\beta = -.32$, $p < .001$) than women saw female targets as performing. No evidence was found suggesting that sex of participant moderated sex differences in perceptions for bad habit, inconsiderate, norm violating, gracious, and sexually affectionate behaviors ($ps > .15$).

**STUDY 1**

**DISCUSSION**

Gender differences were predicted, with men being seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors and women being seen as more inconsiderate behaviors. It was also predicted that men would be seen as increasing their bad habit behaviors over time and that women would remain relatively stable over time in bad habit behaviors. Similar predictions were made for women and inconsiderate behaviors, with women expected to be seen as increasing their inconsiderate behaviors over time and men remaining relatively stable over time in their inconsiderate behaviors.

As was predicted, findings for gender differences suggested that men were seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors, and women were seen as engaging in more inconsiderate behaviors. The pattern of results for bad habits suggested that both men and women were seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors the longer they were dating; however, men were still seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors than women at both time periods. Perceived differences in inconsiderate behavior were not found between 2 and 12 months. Similar studies have also found that both men and women increase their sexually affectionate behaviors and women increase their emotionally supportive behaviors (Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993).

One reason for the lack of significant interactions between time and gender of target may have been due to couples basing their responses on their own idiosyncratic relationship histories. More specifically, it is unclear whether participants were responding about hypothetical couples who were on the road to dissolution, as opposed to hypothetical couples who would endure the test of time. Couples who differ on whether they stay together/dissolve have been shown to engage in

differing patterns of positive and negative behaviors (Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher &

Felmlee, 1993). It is likely that imagined couples who are seen as ultimately dissolving would be

perceived as engaging in an overall pattern of greater negativity than couples who ultimately stay

together. Relationships that dissolve may be more salient to lower-classmen (the majority of the

participants were freshmen or sophomores), as the majority of these students' relationship

experiences would have been relationships that dissolved. This possible confound may have been

responsible for the lack of the predicted interaction effects.

**STUDY 2**

**OVERVIEW**

A second study (Shamblen & Cunningham, 1999, Study 2) was initiated to examine cross-sectional differences in behavior as a function of dating length, as well as gender differences in a sample of dating couples. The use of real dating couples as opposed to reports on hypothetical people allowed for tests of several other predictions. A sample of introductory psychology student dating couples was used to examine these questions.

As was found in the first study, it was of interest whether men would be seen as engaging in more bad habit, norm-violating, instrumentally supportive, and sexually affectionate behaviors, and whether women would be seen as engaging in more inconsiderate, intrusive, and emotionally supportive behaviors when using reports of real behavior. It was also of interest whether sex-role stereotypic patterns of differences in bad habit and inconsiderate behaviors would emerge as a function of dating length using reports of real behavior.

Assessing actual behavior also allowed for the inclusion of measures assessing relationship outcomes, such as satisfaction and commitment. Examinations of these relations was predominantly exploratory in nature; however, based on prior findings (Cunningham et. al., 2001), it was expected that intrusion and norm violations would be negatively related to relationship satisfaction, and that emotional support and sexually affectionate behaviors would be positively related to relationship satisfaction (Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993).

**STUDY 2**

**METHOD**

*Participants/Procedure*. One-hundred twenty four Introductory psychology students involved in dating relationships received partial course credit for participating in the study. All couples used in the present sample were dating between two and 40 months. These participants brought their dating partner with them to participate in the study. The mean age of these participants was 19.47 ($M_{men}$ = 20.14; $M_{women}$ = 18.83), and the majority of the participants were either Caucasian (82.00%) or African-American (11.40%). These participants were dating an average of 5.25 (*Med.* = 3.00, *Mode* = 2.00) months when they participated in the study (*SD* = 5.85).

Participants were recruited via experimental sign-ups. The initial recruiting procedures requested only that couples dating 1.5 to 2.5 months sign up for the study. Couples who were dating longer than 2.5 months were still allowed to participate, given that there was room for them to be run in the lab at that particular time. This lead to an over-sampling of couples with shorter relationship lengths. Of the 124 dating couples, 53 couples were dating two months, 20 couples were dating three months, 12 couples were dating four months, seven couples were dating five months, five couples were dating six months, and the remaining 27 couples were dating between seven and 32 months. Length of relationship had an extreme positive skew; therefore, square root transformations were performed on the length of relationship data for all analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000).

*Procedure.* All participants were administered the questionnaire measures via a computer questionnaire administration program (EasyQuestion: Shamblen, 2001). Upon arriving at the lab, participants provided informed consent for their participation, and were given a brief explanation

of the study. Men and women were administered the questionnaire in different rooms, and were assured that his/her partner would never see their responses to the questionnaire. Participants were debriefed as to the nature of the experimental hypotheses after completing the questionnaire, and were thanked for their participation.

   *Measures*. Participants were administered the following measures in order: the Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, 1988), the Romantic Relationship Act Inventory discussed in study one (Shamblen & Cunningham, 1999), the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry, 1988), the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974), the Other Monitoring Scale (Rowatt, 1997), an abridged version of Goldberg's markers of the Big-Five dimensions of personality (Saucier, 1994), Rusbult's measure of the investment model (1983), the Relationship Closeness Inventory (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989), the Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992), a single item measuring the average number of days per week partners spent with one another, a question measuring length of relationship in months, and three demographic questions inquiring about sex, age, and race. Results from the Inclusion of the Other in the Self Scale are not discussed in the interest of brevity. The personality scales were originally included to examine the utility of the EDMD for predicting changes in the frequency of positive and negative behaviors. The absence of repeated measure (e.g., being able to tell if partners presented themselves as more positive at time one than at time two), as well as the absence of a representative sample of dating lengths, precluded a meaningful analysis of the personality data. Ancillary analyses for these personality variables appear in appendix B for the interested reader.

   For the Romantic Relationship Act Inventory, dating couples were asked to indicate how often they performed each of the behaviors, as well as how often his/her partner performed each of the behaviors. The affect experienced when his/her partner performed each behavior was also measured. If individuals' partners did not perform the behavior, they were asked to indicate the

affect they would experience if their partners had performed the behavior.

Participants were given the following set of instructions to indicate how often they performed

each behavior:

> INSTRUCTIONS: The following items reflect common behaviors that
> relationship partners may engage in. Each item refers to one person  engaging in
> a behavior around their close relationship partner. In these instructions, your
> close relationship partner that you brought to the study with you will be referred
> to as your date. For each item, you will be asked three questions:
>
> First, imagine that you are the person described and the dating partner is your
> partner. Then, for each item, indicate how often YOU have done what is
> described in the item in the past two months using the following scale:
>
> 0) Never                         5) About once a week
> 1) Once every four months        6) 2-3 times per week
> 2) Once every two months         7) 4-6 times per week
> 3) Once a month                  8) Once per day
> 4) Once every two weeks          9) 2 or more times per day

Second, participants were asked to indicate how often their partners performed each behavior:

> Second, imagine that your date is the person described and that you are the
> partner. Then, indicate how often YOUR PARTNER has done what is described
> in the item in the past two months using the following scale:
>
> 0) Never                         5) About once a week
> 1) Once every four months        6) 2-3 times per week
> 2) Once every two months         7) 4-6 times per week
> 3) Once a month                  8) Once per day
> 4) Once every two weeks          9) 2 or more times per day

Last, participants were asked to indicate how they felt when their partners performed each of the

behaviors measured by the RRAI:

> Third, indicate how you would feel if your date engaged in the behavior the
> person described did. By Very Pleased (9) we mean very happy, delighted,
> gratified, perhaps thinking about making a stronger commitment. By Very
> Annoyed (1) we mean very irritated, angry, upset, or disgusted, perhaps thinking
> about breaking up. If your partner did engage in the behavior that the person
> described did, please indicate how you felt. Please use the scale below:
>
> Neither Pleased nor Annoyed
> |
> Very Annoyed  1..2..3..4..5..6..7..8..9  Very Pleased

The Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS: Hendrick, 1988) and Rusbult's (1983) measure of

the investment model were used as measures of relationship outcomes. The RAS is a seven item measure of relationship satisfaction. Participants respond to these questions using a five-point Likert-type scale. Rusbult's measure of the investment model contains several short measures of costs (2 items), rewards (2 items), comparison level for alternatives (2 items), investment (2 items), and commitment (5 items) using 9-point Likert-type scales. Only the costs, rewards, and commitment measures were used in this presentation, as they were the only investment measures that directly related to the hypotheses posed. A more detailed explanation of why this older measure was used instead of Rusbult's newer measure of investment (Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998) appears in the methods section of study three.

Participants were also given the Frequency Scale of the Relationship Closeness Inventory (Berscheid, et. al., 1989) to measure frequency of contact during the past two months. This scale asks participants to indicate the number of minutes individuals spend with their partners during the morning, afternoon, and evening. The scale defines morning, afternoon, and evening a three discrete time periods, each lasting six hours. A large number of participants ($n = 31$) provided time estimates that were clearly out of range (e.g., spending 9 hours together in the afternoon). If participants indicated more than six hours for any time period, they were assigned a value of six hours. A more detailed discussion of the validity of the Frequency Scale of the Relationship Closeness Inventory as it is used in the current application appears in study three. Due to invalid responding in the current study, a single item measure assessing the average number of days per week partners spent with one another over the past two months was preferred as a measure of frequency of contact. Responses to this item ranged from zero to eight, with eight representing that the couple members lived together.

Several measures assessing individual differences were also used. Participants were given the Other Monitoring Scale (OMS: Rowatt, 1997), the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS: Snyder, 1974), the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI: Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry, 1988), and an

abridged version of Goldberg's markers of the Big-Five dimensions of personality (B5: Saucier, 1994). The OMS consists of 30 Likert-type items where participants indicate the degree to which they actively monitor the behavior of others and try to modify the behavior of others. The SMS consists of 25 true/false items where participants indicate the degree to which they actively monitor their behavior and try to modify their behavior to fit situational constraints. The NPI is a 40 item Likert-type measure of self obsession. The B5 measure consists of five eight item scales to measure Goldberg's big five markers of personality: Emotional Stability, Extroversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness.

**STUDY 2**

**RESULTS**

The goal of study two was to examine whether the gender differences found in study one would be replicated when perceptions of actual behaviors were examined as opposed to perception of the typical man's behavior and the typical woman's behavior. Another important purpose of the second study was to examine the relationship between the behaviors measured by the RRAI and relationship satisfaction. Exploratory analyses were performed to examine cross-sectional differences in behavioral frequency as a function of relationship length. The present data were examined using Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) and t-tests. Only effect sizes ($r$) and probabilities associated with significance tests are reported in the prose of the paper, as in the first study.

*Gender Differences in Frequency of Behavior*. T-tests were used to examine gender differences for individual reports of the partner's behavior. Similar to the first study, men were seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors than women ($r = -.26$, $p = .005$) (see table 15). Women were seen as engaging in more inconsiderate ($r = .55$, $p < .001$) and intrusive ($r = .33$, $p < .001$) behaviors than men. Men were seen as engaging in marginally more instrumentally supportive behaviors ($r = -.15$, $p = .098$) and more emotionally supportive behaviors ($r = -.18$, $p = .047$) than women, whereas women were seen as engaging in more emotionally supportive behaviors in study one. There was no evidence to suggest that there were gender differences in norm violating, gracious, and sexually affectionate behaviors ($ps > .15$). Thus, the findings for sexually affectionate behaviors were not replicated in the second study.

*Behavior as a Predictor of Relationship Satisfaction.* HLMs were used to examine the relations of the individual's report of the partner's behavior to the individual's satisfaction. Questions of change in relationship satisfaction cannot be addressed directly with this data, as the data are cross-sectional; however, relationship length can be used as a proxy for changes over time in relationship satisfaction. Male and female members of couples do not represent independent observations, thus, special considerations have to be made when analyzing data provided by non-independent couple members.

The data were examined using a strategy similar to the analysis strategy used in Barnett, Brennan, Raudenbush, & Marshall (1993). The data were set up, such that each new line of data represents an individual who is non-independent from his/her partner. Thus, for the present sample with 119 couples, there were 238 rows of data. This data setup typically assumes that each observation is independent, however, each pair of couple members are not independent. Although this data setup would typically violate independent observation assumptions of most statistical tests, HLM adjusts slopes and intercepts, and their respective standard errors, due to random variability that may occur when two non-independent individuals are nested within a couple. When the intercept is posed as a random factor, the level two equation predicting the level one intercept has an additional error term that is estimated. This error term adjusts for random variation in the dependent measure, due to individuals (level one) being nested within couples (level two). Thus, random variation in satisfaction that is due to individuals being nested within couples was modeled by posing the level one intercept as a random factor. All models examining satisfaction as an outcome included average number of days per week spent with the partner and relationship length as a level two (couple invariant) covariates and gender as a level one

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covariate. These covariates were entered as predictors of the level one intercept. A more detailed

discussion of HLM appears in study three, where more complex HLM issues are considered.

The current analyses involved regressing the individual's relationship satisfaction on an

intercept, a days/week spent with the partner predictor, relationship length, the individual's report

of the partner's behavior, and the interaction between gender and the individual's report of the

partner's behavior. Preliminary analyses suggested that these interactions were not significant (*ps*

> .15); therefore, they were dropped from the models reported. All variables in analyses to be

reported were grand mean centered before interaction terms were created in an effort to make

interactions orthogonal with main effects (see Cohen, Cohen, Aiken, & West, 2003). The current

usage of the term intercept refers to the mean value on the dependent measure of interest, with the

hypothesis tests for the intercept reflecting whether this mean differs significantly from zero.

Although the test of the intercept is not informative in these analyses, the test of the intercept is

informative when it is of interest whether the grand mean differs from zero. For example, when

difference scores are the dependent measure used, this test is the logical equivalent of the

repeated measures effect in an ANOVA with 2 repeated measurements after adjusting the effect

based on the values of covariates (or values of slopes in the OLS regression case).

A more conservative analysis was conducted entering all behavioral variables as predictors of

satisfaction, as well as a more liberal analyses entering each behavior separately as a predictor of

satisfaction in eight analyses (see table 16). These analyses were also performed regressing

satisfaction on positive and negative behaviors in two separate analyses; however, these results

were very similar to the analysis entering all behaviors in the same analysis. As a consequence,

only the results entering all behaviors are reported here in the prose, but the analyses examining

positive and negative behaviors in two separate analyses appears in appendix C for the interested

reader.

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Both the more liberal analyses and the more conservative analysis produced similar results; therefore, only results from the more conservative analysis using all behaviors as predictors are reported in the prose. Individuals were more satisfied when they saw their partners as engaging in fewer intrusive ($r_{ES}$ = -.16, $p$ = .014) and norm violating ($r_{ES}$ = -.20, $p$ = .002) behaviors, and more emotionally supportive ($r_{ES}$ = .15, $p$ = .023) and sexually affectionate ($r_{ES}$ = .14, $p$ = .036) behaviors. There was no evidence to suggest that the individual's perceptions of their partner's bad habit, inconsiderate, instrumentally supportive, or gracious behaviors were related to their satisfaction ($ps$ > .15).

*Investment Model Predictions*. A HLM was performed examining satisfaction as a predictor of commitment using the same model structure and covariates as above. An interaction term between satisfaction and gender was initially used, but was dropped due to not being significant in the model ($p$ > .15). Random variation in commitment due to individuals being nested within couples was modeled by posing the level one intercept as a random effect. As predicted by the investment model, satisfaction was related to commitment to the relationship ($r_{ES}$ = .62, $p$ < .001). Additional analyses examining relationship costs and rewards appear in a prior section examining the discriminant validity of the RRAI (see tables 7 to 9).

*Relationship Length as a Predictor of Relationship Behavior*. Similar HLMs were performed examining relationship length as a predictor of each relationship behavior. These analyses regressed each relationship behavior on relationship length, the interaction between relationship length and gender, and covariates representing gender at level one and a days/week spent with the partner at level two. Again, interaction terms were dropped due to non-significance ($ps$ > .15). Slight support was found for the prediction that negative behaviors would become more prevalent

with increasing relationship length and that positive relationship behaviors would become less

prevalent with increasing relationship length using a cross-sectional design. Only sexually

affectionate behaviors were seen as becoming more prevalent with increasing relationship lengths

($r_{ES}$ = .21, $p$ = .022).

**STUDY 2**

**DISCUSSION**

Studies one and two provide evidence that stereotypes about men's and women's behaviors and partner reports on men's and women's behavior in close relationships are similar. Although study one did not measure length of relationship as a continuous measure, time period in relationship responded about (2 months vs. one year) serves as a proxy for relationship length. In both studies, men were perceived to perform more bad habit and sexually affectionate behaviors, and women were perceived to perform more inconsiderate behaviors, confirming the predicted gender differences for inconsiderateness and bad habit behavior. Evidence was not found supporting the predicted length by gender interaction for inconsiderate behaviors.

Study one suggested both men and women were seen as increasing their bad habit behaviors, with men also consistently being higher than their partners in bad habit behaviors. The second study, using actual reports of relationship partner behaviors, also found that men were seen as engaging in bad habit behaviors more frequently. Women were seen as being more inconsiderate than men in both studies. The tests of significance for the interaction between gender and relationship length for inconsiderateness predictions in both studies were in the right direction, however, they failed to reach statistical significance. The prediction that women would increase their inconsiderate behavior over time, with men remaining relatively stable in inconsiderateness, was not confirmed by the data. This is likely due to study one focusing on stereotypes about behavior and study two examining relationship length as a proxy for changes that occur, as opposed to focusing on actual changes that occur over time. These issues will be addressed more fully in study three.

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It is interesting to note that women, like men, were seen as increasing their bad habit behaviors in study one, but not in study two. Study one may have been better suited to address questions about changes in relationships, as participants were asked about typical couples at two discrete points in relationships, whereas study two relied on cross-sectional comparisons between couples of various dating lengths. Thus, the finding that women were perceived to increase their bad habit behavior may be a reflection of reality. First impressions of women who perform cross-sex role stereotypical dominant behaviors are usually negative (Costrich et. al., 1975; Zillman et. al., 1968). Thus, women may refrain from engaging in cross sex-role stereotypic behaviors in the beginning of relationships, because they know negative evaluations from the opposite sex are likely, and will make the relationship more likely to dissolve. Women may perform more bad habit behaviors later in relationships due to less motivation to present a positive impression of the self to the partner. Again, these issues will be addressed more fully in study three.

Further, examinations of differences in relationship behaviors as a function of dating length suggested that intrusiveness became more evident as dating length increased for both men and women in study one..Women increasing their intrusive behaviors may also be especially aversive to men, as dominance is an attribute typically associated with negative male sex-role stereotypes (Buss, 1989; Spence, et. al., 1979). Gender differences in the frequency with which men and women were seen as performing intrusive behaviors were only found in study two, with women being seen as performing intrusive behaviors. This may be due to participants relying on stereotypes about behavior in study one, with women being seen as engaging in fewer dominance related intrusive behaviors. Study two findings may be a more accurate reflection of reality, as participants reported on actual partners' behaviors. This interpretation of these findings was replicated in study three to be discussed later.

Men were seen as engaging in more emotionally supportive behaviors than women in study two. The findings of study one qualify this finding, suggesting men may underestimate the degree

to which women engage in emotionally supportive behaviors. Further, study one suggested that women have a steeper increase in emotionally supportive behaviors relative to men, with women engaging in fewer emotionally supportive behaviors at two months in relationships; however, women were similar to men in emotional support at one year into relationships. Sprecher and Felmlee (1993) also found relationship maintenance to increase over the course of relationships; however, this was only found for women in study one. The reason for the differences in findings may be due to Sprecher and Felmlee (1993) using Braiker & Kelley's (1979) more general measure of (relationship) maintenance, whereas the present measure more specifically measures providing the partner with emotional support.

Both men and women were seen as increasing their sexually affectionate behaviors over the course of their relationships in studies one and two. These findings corresponds to other studies finding increases in love (e.g., Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993), as well as the finding that passionate love increases over the course of relationships that remain intact (Rubin, 1970; Walster & Walster. 1978).

Study one produced several gender similarity/difference findings that were not replicated in study two. Men were seen as engaging in more norm violating, instrumentally supportive, and sexually affectionate behaviors, whereas women were seen as engaging in more gracious behaviors. The findings for norm violations replicate prior findings suggesting men are seen as engaging in more norm violations than women (Amato & Rogers, 1997). Men engaging in more instrumentally supportive behaviors and sexually affectionate behaviors likely reflect that stereotypes for men's behavior place them in a role of performing more instrumentally supportive behaviors (Spence & Helmreich, 1978) and initiating sex (Rose & Frieze, 1993). Typical women being seen as performing more gracious behaviors may reflect findings in study three to be discussed later, which suggest women's gracious behaviors are extremely consequential for men.

Men's and women's relationship satisfaction was consistently, negatively related to partner

intrusive and norm violating behaviors. The findings for intrusiveness are similar to verbal negativity being inversely related to marital satisfaction (e.g., Gottman, 1994). Satisfaction was also predicted by partner emotionally supportive and sexually affectionate behavior, as has been found in other studies examining social support, self-disclosure, and sexual behavior (Acitelli & Antonucci, 1994; Huston & Vangelisti, 1991; Sprecher, 1987).

These two preliminary studies tested some of the predictions addressed in this paper. Study one had the limitation of relying on stereotypes about men's and women's behavior in close relationships, and study two relied on cross-sectional methods and a sample that largely contained couples dating only a short period of time. The lack of confirmation for some of the predictions made in the paper might be due to the methodological limitations of these two studies. More importantly, these studies do not address what motives cause individuals to increase negativity and decrease positivity over the course of relationships.

**STUDY 3**

**OVERVIEW**

The previously reviewed studies demonstrated that bad habit behaviors increased, and inconsiderate behaviors were found to increase in study two. Studies one and two suggested that some relationship partners might avoid performing negative cross-sex-role stereotypic behaviors early in relationships, and study two found that many of the positive and negative relationship behaviors measured predicted relationship satisfaction. Most importantly, these studies are silent regarding what motives cause relationship partners to increase their negativity and decrease their positivity.

To test the models proposed in this paper (see figure 1), dating couples were recruited from the introductory psychology research participant pool and undergraduate psychology classes. Participants were sampled at two time periods approximately nine weeks apart. Participants were given questionnaire measures to assess the frequency of their positive and negative relationship behaviors, as well as their motives for such behaviors. Relationship outcome measures were also included at times one and two.

Measures were created to assess the degree to which partners are motivated to manage their impressions, and present themselves as better than they really are, presumably to secure a commitment from a relationship partner. More specifically, it was of interest whether early in relationships, partners would deceive individuals about how much effort they were willing to put into the relationship, how self-asserting they were, how agreeable/non-controlling they were, and how likely they were to refrain from engaging in behaviors that violate social rules/laws. Later in relationships, partners are predicted to be more motivated to decreased effort, increased self-

assertion, increase controllingness, and decrease disclosure. This study examined motives that

would cause partners to manage impressions early in relationships, and what motives lead

partners to increase negativity and decrease positivity later in relationships.

**STUDY 3**

**METHOD**

*Participants*. A sample of 133 couples from a Southeastern University was initially recruited

for time one. Of these 133 time one couples, 77 (58%) couples returned at time two and 46 single

representatives of couples (where only one member of a couple returned at time two) returned at

time two (17%). Of the 77 returning couples, 16 (21%) represented relationships that dissolved

between times one and two. Of the 46 returning single representatives, 34 (74%) represented

relationships that dissolved between times one and two. Participants at time two who were part of

relationships that dissolved were asked to respond only about the period of time between time one

and when their relationship dissolved.

Participants were recruited via experimental sign-up postings, as well as by announcements

made in classes. Participants enrolled in Introductory Psychology classes fulfilled a research

requirement for that course, and participants enrolled in undergraduate psychology classes

received extra credit for their participation. At least one member of each dating couple was

enrolled in a psychology class.

Upper-level students in psychology classes who did not wish to or could not participate in the

study (e.g., they were not in a dating relationship, they were unable get their partner to participate

in the study) were given additional options by their instructor to receive extra credit. These

additional options typically were a paper that the student could write that would involve the same

time commitment as participation in the study, and/or they were offered an opportunity to

participate in another study that did not require them to be in a dating relationship.

As couples are of interest in the present analyses, the effective sample for the present analyses

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is based on 70 of the 77 couples who returned for time two. Justification for using this sub-sample and attrition analyses are provided below.

*Exclusion Criteria.* Five couples who were dating longer than four years (49 months, $n = 1$; 51.50 months, $n = 1$; 60 months, $n = 2$; and 72 months, $n = 1$) where not included in sample, as including these observations exacerbated problems with skew in the distribution of dating lengths. These couples dating longer than four years were not adequately represented in the sample, thus, these couples were outliers. Removal of these couples made the distribution of dating lengths approach normality. It is interesting to note that the magnitude of behavioral change for the five excluded couples were not found to differ from the 70 non-excluded couples using a 2X2 one within (repeated measurements) and one between (non-excluded vs. excluded) ANOVA ($rs < .08$; $ps > .50$).

One additional couple was excluded because they only had a time lag of 21 days between times one and two. This particular couple signed up to run in time one of the study twice, and it was not noticed by the researchers that this couple had already participated in time one. As a consequence, there is also incomplete data for this participant at time two, because they completed the time one questionnaire twice. Inclusion of this couple would be inappropriate for examining changes over time. A discussion of time lags between time one and two will be discussed later.

Last, one additional couple was eliminated because they failed to follow instructions. Participants who were in relationships that dissolved were instructed to respond about the last two months they were together when they returned to the lab for time two. Both members of this couple were likely responding about the last two months in time, as opposed to the last two months of their relationship, because they reported none of the positive or negative relationship behaviors had occurred in the last two months they were dating. Even if these couple members were not in the presence of each other the last two months of their relationship (e.g., they did not

have an opportunity to observe their prior partners' behavior), this couple still is an outlier, due to them indicating no behaviors were observed.

*Relationship Length.* The 70 dating couples used for analyses were dating between one and 40 months, and these couples also completed both times one and two of the study.  These couples were dating an average of 13.53 months ($SD = 10.87$), and the distribution of dating lengths had a moderate positive skew ($skew = 1.18$; $z = 4.09$, $p < .001$), but the distribution was not kurtic ($kurtosis = .36$; $z = .64$, $p = .739$). Nevertheless, these tests of skew and kurtosis are overly sensitive, and the probability of committing a type two error is high (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000). Untransformed relationship length scores were used in study three, as skew was not as series as it was in the study two sample. Table 17 provides a stem and leaf display of the dating lengths of couples used in the study.

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Insert Table 17 About Here

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Couples dating rather long periods of time were included in this sample, because social allergies may take time to develop in close relationships (Cunningham et. al., 1997), and social allergens may not become apparent after dating only several months. Initial analyses across all 133 couples recruited at time one indicated that it took individuals between their first impression and two years into the relationship to notice the quality that they found to be most unattractive in their partner ($M = 10.96$ weeks, $Med = 3.00$ weeks, $SD = 21.24$), and slightly longer for them to become annoyed by these qualities ($M = 13.49$ weeks, $Med = 5.00$ weeks, $SD = 24.26$). Although the most severe social allergies usually develop early in relationships, the most severe social allergies may take longer to develop.

*Distribution of Lags.* The distributions of lags in days between when participants completed time one and when participants completed time two were examined. Of the 63 completed couples

for which time lag information was recorded ($M = 72.02$, $SD = 26.81$, $Med = 70.00$), 96.83% of the participants completed time two between one and three months after time one (see table 18).[5] Thus, of the 70 couples, 20% were run with a lag of less than 8 weeks (56 days) between Time 1 and Time 2, 14 % of couples were run with a lag greater than 12 weeks (84 days) between Time 1 and Time 2, and 10% of the couples did not have their time lags recorded. Time one was near the beginning of the semester and time two was approximately two-thirds of the way through the semester for many of the participants. However, several participants completed time one closer to the middle of the semester. As prior experience suggested that students were less motivated to come back after the end of the semester, these students who participated in time one near the middle of the semester were allowed to participate in time two when a full two months had not elapsed between times one and two. Those participants who had time lags greater than two months represent participants who the researchers were unable to reach prior to the time that they were scheduled.

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Insert Table 18 About Here

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Time lag information was not initially recorded for participants; therefore, time lag information had to be acquired through dated and signed informed consent forms. Participants not accurately indicating their couple participant number on the contact information sheet (attached to the informed consent), participants not dating their informed consent, or illegible handwriting precluded gathering time lag information for seven of the 70 couples. Unfortunately, experimenters did not always verify the information provided by participants or checked information sheets/information sheets for completeness while participants were still in the lab Further, although the software used to administer the questionnaire had a date stamp for when questionnaires were completed, the clock batteries in many of the older computers used to

administer the questionnaire were dead, and weree not replaced.

*Couple Recruiting and Retention Strategies*. A three-pronged plan was adopted to obtain participants for the first portion of the study. Two visits were made to three upper level psychology classes in an attempt to recruit dating couples for the first portion of the study. These students were offered extra credit for participation in the study. This recruitment strategy proved to be the most productive. Couples were also recruited from the Introductory Psychology research participant pool. Participants received extra credit or course credit for participation in the first portion of the study; however, a $15 honorarium was later offered to each couple member as an incentive for participation in the second portion of the study. This honorarium was given to 42 of the 140 individuals (30.00%) from couples who completed both times one and two, and for the entire sample, the honoraria was given to 60 of the 190 individuals (31.58%) who participated in both times one and two. In addition, participants who were not enrolled in psychology classes were enrolled into a lottery for a $100 gift certificate if they completed both times one and two of the study.

Students at the University of Louisville are often both full time employees and full time students. Every effort was made to accommodate their hectic schedules. Every week, participants were at least offered two morning times to participate, two mid-afternoon times to participate, three evening times to participate, and one Saturday afternoon time to participate. The latter four times were the most frequently scheduled times.

Three strategies were also used to get participants to return to the lab for the second portion of the study. First, approximately 1.25 months after their initial participation, students were mailed a letter telling them that the second portion of the study was coming up. The letter also informed participants about a sign-up form posted on the World Wide Web, and sign-up sheets posted outside of the lab.

Couples who did not respond to the letter were called to participate in time two approximately

1.5 months after their participation in time one. Attempts were also made to reach participants via e-mail; however, this strategy was largely unsuccessful. This is likely due to less than 10% of participants providing e-mail addresses; although, this information was requested of all participants on the information sheet. Further, students were only provided with a user-unfriendly telnet-based e-mail account from the university at the time data collection began, and only later in the study the university added a user-friendlier web-based interface. All participants were called at least 10 times, unless they were recruited or refused earlier than the tenth call. A message was always left with a parent or on an answering machine about the nature of the call and a return telephone number was left if the participant was not there. These 10 calls occurred at variable times throughout the day, such that attempts to reach participants were made in the morning, afternoon, and evening throughout the course of a 2-week period. Attempts were also made to reach previously uncompleted participants when the time came to recruit new time two participants. This strategy was successful in getting 60% of the initial sample to participate in time two. These two strategies were successful in obtaining 70 couples and 19 single representatives.

An intensive calling period with at least 3 calls per day was used to recruit the 79 individuals who had not yet completed the study, but who had not previously refused participation. Calls were made to one member of the couple, which was typically the member of the couple who was enrolled in a psychology course. The one exception to this convention was when couples broke up, and they had to be contacted separately. The first five days involved calling one member of the couple once in the morning, afternoon, and evening. Thus, each couple was contacted at least 15 times using this strategy unless reached earlier.

Participants who were unable to make it into the lab were offered an alternative method of completing the questionnaire. Six participants who were contacted and indicated an interest in completing the study, but were unable to make it to the lab, were mailed a computer diskette that

would allow them to complete the questionnaire on their home computer. This strategy was largely unsuccessful, as only one participant returned a completed questionnaire via computer diskette.

Participants who resided in the local dorms proved to be particularly problematic. The University of Louisville recycles dorm room telephone numbers. A disconnected message is not given when a participant moves out of their dorm room, and instead, the old number is given to a new dorm resident when he/she moves in. This sub-sample and others whom we were unable to reach ($n = 33$ individuals) were called once in the morning, noon, and evening for an additional period of seven days. Both male and female members of the couple, as well as their permanent telephone numbers (usually a parent's number), were called once in the morning, noon, and evening. Thus, the remaining unreachable portion of the sample was called 42 times (local and permanent number).

Information (411) was called and the University Student Directory was consulted to obtain telephone numbers that were initially disconnected; however, this strategy was unsuccessful, as many students move frequently during their tenure as undergraduate students ($n = 15$). Parents were also sometimes skeptical about giving the researcher their son or daughter's telephone number ($n = 8$). In these cases, a telephone number and a message about the nature of the study was given to the parent to forward to their son or daughter. Two of these eight couples were contacted and completed the study by means of leaving a message with their parents. There were also students who were repetitively scheduled for the study (at least 5 times) and repetitively did not return to participate in the study ($n = 6$ for entire sample; $n = 2$ for intensive calling period). Later attempts to get these participants to come to the lab involved making four attempts to confirm the appointment starting two days before the scheduled time. These participants were often not home and only a message could be left on their answering machine. The latter strategy to get chronically irresponsible participants was unsuccessful in recruiting any participants;

therefore, no further efforts were made to contact these participants.

*Attrition Analyses.* T-tests were performed to examine whether the sample that did not complete time two differed from the sample that did complete time two on demographic information, relationship outcomes, and personality at time one using the entire sample of 133 couples recruited at time one and all single representatives and couples who returned for time two.

Examining differences in demographic information, individuals who reported their race as being African-American or "other" were about as equally likely to return ($n = 23$, 52% of African Americans; $n = 3$, 60% of other, respectively) as to not return ($n = 21$, 48% of African Americans; $n = 2$, 40% of other, respectively) to the second portion of the study; however, a significant effect was caused by Caucasians, who were much more likely to return to the second portion of the study ($n = 121$, 71% of Caucasians) than to not return ($n = 49$, 29% of Caucasians), $\chi^2(2) = 9.79$, $p = .007$. Younger participants ($M = 20.19$) were also more likely to return to the second portion of the study than older participants ($M = 22.34$), which may be a function of free time, $t(216) = 4.83$, $p < .001$.

The prior analyses suggest that the time two returning and non-returning participants differed in their distributions of race , and that there were age differences between these two groups of participants. Analyses were performed to examine whether the time two returning and non-returning sampling distributions differed from the population of students from which they were drawn at the University of Louisville, using demographic information provided from the university. The frequencies of African Americans and Caucasians in the returning sample did not differ from the population they were drawn from at the University of Louisville ($p = .38$). When including individuals classifying themselves as "other" in this analysis, "others" were under-represented in the returning sample, $\chi^2(2) = 7.53$, $p = .02$, and the initial time one sample, $\chi^2(2) = 11.16$, $p = .004$.

The data provided by the university broke age into three categories (< 21, 21-30, > 30). There was no difference between the returning sample and the population from which they were drawn for those in the age categories of 21 and under and 21 to 30, ($p$ = .36). When including the category of 31 and over, both the returning sample, $\chi^2(2)$ = 18.30, $p$ < .001 and the initial time one sample $\chi^2(2)$ = 5.59, $p$ = .06 had a larger proportion of those 31 and older than exists in the population of the University of Louisville. This is likely due to students primarily being recruited from upper level psychology classes for the present study. These courses are more likely to contain older students than introductory courses. Returners ($M$ = 16.14) and non-returners ($M$ = 17.73) did not differ in the number of months they had been dating ($p$ = .42).

Examining relationship outcomes, it was clear that couples who were on the road to dissolution or in relationships that dissolved were less likely to participate in the second portion of the study. Converging lines of evidence suggested that individuals who did not return for Time 2 were marginally less satisfied ($Ms$ = 39.20 vs. 40.87), $t(263)$ = -1.81, $p$ = .07, less committed ($Ms$ = 7.51 vs. 7.93), $t(262)$ = -2.28, $p$ = .02, and were more likely to be part of relationships that dissolved (56%, $n$ = 27 vs. 28%, $n$ = 49), $\chi^2(1)$ = 13.58, $p$ < .001, compared to couples who returned. This pattern of attrition is common in other similar studies in the literature (e.g., Berg & McQuinn, 1986).

Participants who did return at time two did not differ from those who did not return on emotional stability, extroversion, openness to experience, narcissism, sensation-seeking, self-monitoring, other-monitoring, or public self-consciousness ($ps$ > .17). There was a marginal difference for agreeableness, suggesting that participants who completed time two ($M$ = 7.29) were more agreeable than participants who did not complete time two ($M$ = 7.00), $t(253)$ = -1.68, $p$ = .10. A small marginal effect for conscientiousness also suggested that more conscientious participants ($M$ = 7.00) were marginally more likely to return than less conscientious participants ($M$ = 6.73), $t(253)$ = -1.52, $p$ = .13. These findings make sense, inasmuch as people who are

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friendlier and more responsible may be more likely to be willing to participate.

*Procedure*. Time one assessments were conducted during the spring, summer, or winter semesters, and time two assessments occurred approximately 9 weeks later. For time one, participants were given all the questionnaire measures to be explained below in the measures section, except for the retrospective Post Romanticism items. The majority of the individual difference measures were excluded at time two. A more detailed description of which items were administered at each wave of the study appears below in the measures section.

Upon arriving at the laboratory, participants gave their informed consent to participate in the study (see appendix D). Next, participants were asked to provide their name, address, telephone number, permanent telephone number (i.e., where someone will always know where to reach them), and their e-mail address. Participants were also asked to create a six digit participant number for their couple for identification purposes. Each member of the couple completed the questionnaire measures in a different room, and each was assured that their responses would remain confidential. Questionnaires were administered via the computer using EasyQuestion software (Shamblen, 2001). Upon completion of this task, participants received research participation credit for their participation in time one, and received research credit or were paid $15 for their participation in time two. Because a time three for data collection is planned, participants were only partially debriefed regarding the purpose of the study.

For the 38 couples who broke up between time one and time two, they were scheduled to come to the lab at a different time than their prior relationship partner. The procedures were identical, except for a questionnaire assessing reasons for break-ups being administered. After completion of the questionnaire, participants were given the remaining credits for the study and were partially debriefed as to the nature of the study.

There were many RRAI affect responses where people gave unlikely responses (e.g., he/she experiences extreme positive affect when their partner pushes or hits them) and many out of

range Frequency Scale (Berscheid, et. al., 1989) responses (e.g., people indicating they spent more than six hours with the partner in an allotted time period when the maximum possible response should be six hours) in the second study. Several safeguards were put in place to assure participants provided more accurate responses. First, for the RRAI, items were changed from their wording in the first two studies. Items were worded such that individuals responded using the following format for responses about their partners' frequency of behavior, "How often did your partner ... in the past two months." For the affect items, items were worded using the format, "How did you feel when your partner ...." In addition, responses for the affect items were changed from a one to nine point scale, ranging from "extreme negative emotion" to "extreme positive emotion," to a -4 to +4 for scale, using the same anchors. In addition, response formats in EasyQuestion v. 0.8.0 have improved, such that individuals can click on the specific descriptors for each of the individual scale points (Shamblen, 2001). Error trapping procedures were used to eliminate out of range responses for the Frequency Scale.

*Measures*. The measures used to examine the predictions of this study are listed in terms of individual precursors, relationship precursors, behaviors, and relationship outcomes. The individual precursors are primarily individual difference measures that may be related to changes in relationship behavior. The relationship precursors refer to aspects of the relationships themselves (e.g., attitudes, cognition) that may be related to changes in relationship behaviors. The behavioral measures examined the frequency of positive and negative relationship behaviors (Cunningham & Shamblen, 2003) and motives for changes in positive and negative relationship behaviors (Romantic Inflation and Post Romanticism Scales). The relationship outcomes section deals with measures of the outcomes of changes in positive and negative relationship behaviors (e.g., satisfaction, commitment).

*Individual Precursors*

*Self-Monitoring Scale (time one)* (H1). The Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) is a 25-item

measure of the degree to which people monitor their behavior and alter their behavior to fit the situation (*Kuder-Richardson20*=.70) (see appendix E).

*Other-Monitoring Scale (time one)* (H1). The Other-Monitoring Scale (Rowatt, 1997) is a 30-item measure of the degree to which individuals try to manage the impressions of others in social situations ($\alpha$=.81) (see appendix F).

*Big Five Personality Factors (time one)* (H1). A short measure of personality (Saucier, 1994) was used to measure the big five dimensions of personality. The five subscales measuring the big five dimensions of personality contain eight item subscales (neuroticism, $\alpha$=.84; openness to experience, $\alpha$=.85; extroversion, $\alpha$=.90; agreeableness, $\alpha$=.84; and conscientiousness $\alpha$=.90) (see appendix G).

*Narcissistic Personality Inventory (time one)* (H1). The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry, 1988) is a measure of self-obsession. The NPI consists of seven subscales measuring Authority (8 items, *Guttman $\lambda$*=.73), Self-Sufficiency (7 items, $\lambda$=.63), Superiority (5 items, $\lambda$=.54), Exhibitionism (6 items, $\lambda$=.50), Exploitiveness (5 items, $\lambda$=.52), Vanity (6 items, $\lambda$=.64), and Entitlement (3 items, $\lambda$=.83) (see appendix H). An abridged 15-item version of the NPI was used in the present study, due to time constraints for participants completing the questionnaire. Approximately 2 items were selected from each subscale on the basis of how face valid items were in representing each of the seven constructs. These 15 items had a high internal consistency reliability ($\alpha$=.93) (see appendix H).

*Short Sensation Seeking Scale (time one)* (H1). The Short Sensation Seeking Scale (Madsen, Das, Bogen, & Grossman, 1987) is an abbreviated, 10-item version of the Sensation-Seeking Scale (V) reported by Zuckerman (1978). This form consists of one unidimensional scale that correlates highly with the total score on the Sensation Seeking Scale (V) ($r$=.94), and it has acceptable test-retest reliability ($r$=.78) (see appendix I).

*Attachment Style Measures (times one and two)* (H1). Three attachment style measures were

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used to assess adult attachment orientation in close relationships. The three-item Shaver and Hazan (1994) and the four item Bartholomew and Horowitz (1990) attachment style measures were used. These scales use items where participants indicate how well each of the items describe them, as well as indicating which of the statements describe them best. The Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2001) Experiences in Close Relationships scale was also used as a measure of attachment. This measure was developed using item response theory, and contains 18 items measuring avoidance and 18 items measuring anxiety. Due to many items in this scale being redundant, only non-redundant items were selected to give to participants due to time constraints. Care was taken to select reverse scored items, as this was one of the concerns raised in the original article about the scale (Fraley, et. al., 2001). This resulted in an eight-item measure of anxiety, and a seven-item measure of avoidance. Acceptable internal consistencies were found for anxiety ($\alpha$=.74, .78) and avoidance ($\alpha$=.82, .79) at times one and two, respectively (see appendix J).

   *Romantic Inflation (time one)* (H1, H3). The Romantic Inflation Scale contains 24 items measuring the degree to which individuals attempt to present a false image of themselves in the beginning of close relationships at time one. These items measures the degree to which individuals try to hide the degree to which they will decrease effort (5 items), increase self-assertion (6 items), increase control (4 items), and decrease disclosure (4 items). A five-item measure of general concealment of negativity was also included (see appendix K). The actual psychometric properties of these items are discussed below.

   *Demographic Questions (times one and two).* Three questions were used to assess the participant's age, the participant's sex, and the participant's level of educational attainment (see appendix L).

*Relationship Precursors*

   *Relationship Closeness Inventory (times one and two)*. The Frequency Scale of the

Relationship Closeness Inventory (RCI: Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto, 1989) is a 4-item measure of the frequency of contact in romantic relationships. The Frequency Scale contains three items assessing how many minutes per day participants spend with their partners in the morning, afternoon, and night. This scale assumes that an average day is measured in three six hour increments (for a total of 18 hours), and does not allow for the inclusion of time that relationship partners may spend together if they spend the night together. Participants are also asked whether these estimates are typical of their frequency of interaction for the period specified (see appendix M). An item was also created by the author for the purpose of asking participants how many days out of the week (1 - 7) they spent with their partners on average in the past two months. Participants could indicate whether they were currently cohabiting by reporting an eight on the response scale.

*Commitment and Investment Scales (times one and two)* (H4, H5, H8, H9). The Commitment Scale (Rusbult, 1983) is a five-item measure of individual perceived relationship permanence (see appendix N). Although a new set of scales for measuring the investment model has been offered (Rusbult, et. al., 1998), the older instrument (Rusbult, 1983) was used. The older scale was preferred, because the older commitment scale primarily measures behavioral intentions, whereas the newer scale measures attitudes. For example, the newer scale uses attitudinal items such as, "I want our relationship to last for a very long time," and the older scale uses behavioral intention items, such as "How likely is it that you will end your relationship in the near future?".

Rusbult et. al. (1998) did not discuss why there was a switch in scale anchors between the older scale (behavioral intentions) and the newer scale (attitudes). Presumably, the anchors were changed to measure attitudes, such that all scale items could measure a construct using a common underlying metric. This may improve the reliability of the measurement scales. Nevertheless, the primary purpose of the commitment scale is to predict relationship dissolution. Research on the theory of planned behavior suggests that behavioral intentions are a better predictor of behavior

than the attitudes that causally precede these behavioral intentions (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, according to the theory of planned behavior, commitment measured as a behavioral intention should be a better predictor of relationship dissolution.

Both measures seemed to predict relationship dissolution with comparable utility. The effect sizes for the older commitment scale ($F(1,31)=18.91$, $p < .001$, $r=.62$) and the newer commitment scale ($F(1,133)=41.76$, $p < .001$, $r=.49$) were similar. The mean internal consistency reliability for the old commitment scale across 13 waves of data ($\alpha_M = .88$) and the new commitment scale ($\alpha = .95$) were similar (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult, et. al., 1998). The older Commitment Scale had an acceptable internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .84$) in our study two, and in the time one ($\alpha = .81$) and time two ($\alpha = .86$) samples of our study three. These alphas are particularly impressive, given that the scale only consists of five items, and the number of items heavily influences the magnitude of coefficient alpha. The older and newer commitment scales were correlated in our study three sub-sample for which the newer commitment scale was also included at time one ($r = .59$, $p < .001$, $n = 64$) and at time two ($r = .63$, $p < .001$, $n = 65$).

The two items on the older commitment scale that do not represent behavioral intention assess commitment using face valid items that ask participants to indicate their attachment, "To what extent are you 'attached' to your partner?," and their commitment, "To what extent are you committed to your relationship?," to their partners. Thus, these items also assess cognitive components of commitment (Sternberg, 1986). Item wording and content domains assessed by both scales are comparable.

The primary purpose of using the commitment scale in this study was to predict relationship dissolution. Although investment plays a large causal role in the investment model, the commitment scale was found to have a stronger causal link to relationship dissolution than the investment scale for both the older measure of investment (Rusbult, 1983) and the newer measure of investment (Rusbult, et. al., 1998). Although only the commitment scale is being used for

hypothesis testing in the present investigation, all of the Rusbult (1983) investment measures where included in the study. The investment scale for the older measure ($F(1,31)=6.34$, $p < .05$, $r=.41$, $\alpha_M = .77$) and the newer measure ($F(1,133)=19.90$, $p < .001$, $r=.36$, $\alpha = .82$) exhibited differences in the expected direction between relationships that did and did not dissolve, and had similar internal consistency reliabilities.

This was also the case for the comparison level for alternatives and for satisfaction, as they exhibited the expected differences between relationships that did dissolve and relationships that did not dissolve, and they all had acceptable internal consistency reliabilities. The older measure ($F(1,31)=13.05$, $p < .01$, $r=.54$, $\alpha_M = .80$) and the newer measure ($F(1,133)=5.56$, $p < .05$, $r=.20$, $\alpha = .88$) of alternatives were comparable, and the older measure ($F(1,31)=4.41$, $p < .05$, $r=.35$, $\alpha_M = .86$) and the newer measure ($F(1,133)=29.61$, $p < .001$, $r=.43$, $\alpha = .94$) of satisfaction were comparable. One exception to this pattern of similarities was that the older measure of alternatives was clearly a better predictor of relationship dissolution. The newer investment scale does not contain a measure of costs and rewards, which was a benefit of using the older investment measure. The costs ($\alpha_M = .85$) and rewards ($\alpha_M = .84$) measures had acceptable internal consistency reliabilities, and both of these measures were strong predictors of relationship dissolution ($Fs(1,31)=10.99$, $ps < .01$, $rs=.51$). These measures of costs and rewards were the third strongest predictors relationship dissolution after commitment and satisfaction. Thus, the newer measure does not include these strong predictors of relationship dissolution. For all of the foregoing reasons, the Rusbult (1983) measure was selected over the Rusbult and colleagues (1998) measure.

*Post-Romantic Attitudes (times one and two)* (H5, H6). This new measure consists of four dimensions concerning changing approaches to the relationship, which may be related to changes in the frequency of negative and positive romantic relationship acts. Positive statements of the constructs are noted below, but reverse items also were included (see appendix O). The number

of items listed for each scale is the number of items predicted to measure each construct. Results from PCAs of these items and the items actually included on these constructs appear in the results section.

*Decreased Effort* (9 items). These attitudes express a passive orientation, and a focus on conserving energy and resources for the self (e.g., preferring to wear comfortable clothing; not trying to impress my partner; being too busy to put a lot of effort into impressing my partner.)

*Increased Self-Assertion* (11 items). These items convey an active orientation and focus on independence from the partner's opinions (e.g., caring very much about my partner thinks of me, needing to pursue my favorite activities even if my partner does not approve; being more concerned about making my partner happy than getting what I want from them.)

*Increased Control* (13 items). These questions express an active orientation and focus on obtaining compliance from the partner (e.g., choosing getting what I want from my partner instead of being nice; believing it is reasonable to manipulate my partner some of the time; not being bothered by hurting my partner's feelings occasionally.)

*Decreased Disclosure* (11 items). These items convey an passive orientation and focus on concealing current behaviors from the partner (e.g., not being able to tell my partner about myself because I would get too embarrassed; feeling like I can't be myself in front of my partner; being afraid that my partner might not like what he/she sees if I am myself.)

*Retrospective Post-Romantic Attitudes (Individuals-Perceptions of Partner) (time two).* These 16 retrospective items were used at time two to assess whether individuals see their partners as being motivated to decrease effort, increased self-assertion, increase control or decrease disclosure, using four four-item subscales.

*The Romantic Relationship Act Inventory (times one and two)* (H6, H7). The Romantic Relationship Act Inventory (RRAI: Shamblen & Cunningham, 1999b) began with 221 specific acts involving four negative and four positive principal components. Participants are asked to

indicate, on Likert-type scales, a) the frequency of their partners' behavior, and b) the intensity of how pleasing or annoying it is when the partners' behavior occurs using the following instructions:

> INSTRUCTIONS: The following items reflect common behaviors that relationship partners may engage in. Each item refers to a behavior in which your close relationship partner has engaged around you. In these instructions, your close relationship partner will be referred to as "your partner". For each item you will be asked two questions: one concerns the frequency of a behavior, the second is how you feel about the behavior.
>
> Please indicate how often YOUR PARTNER has performed each behavior around you in the PAST 2 MONTHS, using the following scale:
>
> 0) Never                              5) About once a week
> 1) Less than once in 2 months   6) 2-3 times per week
> 2) Once every two months         7) 4-6 times per week
> 3) Once a month                    8) Once per day
> 4) Once every two weeks          9) 2 or more times per day
>
> Second, please indicate how you would feel if YOUR PARTNER engaged in each behavior described. By Very Pleased=+4 we mean very happy delighted gratified perhaps thinking about making a stronger commitment. By Very Annoyed=-4 we mean very irritated angry upset or disgusted perhaps thinking about breaking up. If your partner engaged in each behavior described, please indicate how you felt about it. (NOTE: if your partner did not do the behavior, indicate how you guess you would feel).
>
> Very      -4...-3...-2...-1...0...1...2...3...4  Very
> Annoyed                                        Pleased

The response category of "4 or more times per day" was dropped in study three, because it was only used an average of 6.89 times (out of 159 questions) by each participant in study two. Reports of one's own behavioral frequency were excluded in this study, in an effort to reduce the length of the questionnaire (see appendix P). In addition, the individuals' perceptions of their partners' behavior were much more strongly related to their satisfaction in the second study than were partners' reports of their own behavior. Principal component analyses of the RRAI items and reliabilities for extracted components appear prior to the presentation of study one. The dimensions of the RRAI include:

*Negative Behaviors*

*Bad Habits.* These are unintentional behaviors that are not personally directed, but are unpleasant, such as noisily belching, noisily flatulating, and having been around you when he or she was inappropriately clothed.

*Inconsiderateness.* These are unintentional behaviors that are personally directed or impose on the individual's attention, such as focusing on tiny spots on his/her clothing, complaining about how much tiny injuries hurt, and being overly sentimental when around you.

*Intrusion-Dominance.* These are behaviors that are both intentional and personally-directed, such as being sarcastic towards you in a non-humorous way; bringing up things that you have done in the distant past to disappoint or anger them; and being rude, insulting, impolite, or disrespectful towards you.

*Norm Violations.* These are behaviors that are intentional but not personally directed behaviors, such as demonstrating that he or she has no ambition, having sex with someone else while still involved with you, and drinking to drunkenness.

*Positive Behaviors*

*Instrumental Support.* These are concrete and reactive behaviors, such as helping you set up or assemble appliances, investigating a scary noise in the middle of the night, and repairing things for you.

*Emotional-support.* These are symbolic and reactive behaviors that relieve negative emotions, such as talking about their day with you, complimenting you, and being a good listener for you.

*Graciousness.* These are symbolic and proactive behaviors, such as resolving relationship misunderstandings, initiating a constructive talk about your relationship, and buying you a small present when it was not a special occasion.

*Sexually Affectionate.* These are concrete and proactive behaviors that increase positive emotions, such as initiating sexual activity with you, engaging in foreplay with you, and performing oral sex on you.

Additional open-ended items were added to the RRAI to further examine the repetition by intensity predictions of the social allergy model (see appendix P). The wording of these items was based on the wording used by Felmlee (1995) in her study examining fatal attractions. First, participants were asked to indicate and rank the three things that most attracted them to their partner, and then they were asked to indicate and rank the three things they found most unattractive about their partner. For each of the attributes participants indicated as unattractive in their partner, participants were also asked to indicate how many weeks it took for them to notice the attribute and how many weeks it took for them to become annoyed with the attribute.

*Accommodation Measures (times one and two)*. As a measure of accommodation in close relationships, Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) questions on the tendency of an individual to respond positively or negatively when a partner behaves badly were used. These 18 items measure the components of Rusbult's theory: Exit ($k=5$; $\alpha_{T1} = .86$, $\alpha_{T2} = .87$), Voice ($k=5$; $\alpha_{T1} = .86$, $\alpha_{T2} = .90$), Loyalty ($k=4$; $\alpha_{T1} = .87$, $\alpha_{T2} = .83$), and Neglect ($k=5$; $\alpha_{T1} = .77$, $\alpha_{T2} = .80$) (see appendix Q).

*Dyadic Adjustment Scale (times one and two)* (H3, H4, H7, H8). The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) is a 32-item measure of Consensus [in agreement about important issues] ($\alpha= .90$, $k=13$), Satisfaction ($\alpha= .94$, $k=10$), Cohesion ($\alpha= .86$, $k=5$), and Affectional Expression ($\alpha= .73$, $k=4$) in marital and dating relationships. There was also high internal consistency for the total scale score in the present study ($\alpha= .91$, $K=32$; see appendix R). The satisfaction subscale was the focus of analyses in study three.

*Additional Measures Used But Not Reported.* There were a number of additional measures that were administered to participants, but results from these scales will not be discussed due to the lack of relevance to the current hypotheses or in the interest of brevity. These additional scales included the Public Self Consciousness Scale (Fenigstein, et. al., 1975); the Socio-Sexual Orientation Inventory (Simpson, Gangestad, & Snyder, 1992); an abridged version of the

Relationship Beliefs Inventory (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992); four items assessing the physical attractiveness of the individual and of the partner written by the authors; Braiker and Kelley's (1979) measures of Maintenance, Conflict, and Ambivalence; the Hatfield Global Measure of Equity (Hatfield, 1977); the Relationship and Imbalance Scales of the Marital Self-Disclosure Inventory (Waring et. al., 1998); the Dyadic Trust Scale (Lazerle & Huston, 1981); the Passionate Love Scale (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1986); the Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992); the Relationship Attribution Measure (Fincham & Bradbury, 1992); the Liking and Loving Scales (Rubin, 1970; Steck, et. al., 1982), also with these items revised to inquire about feeling loved and liked; items assessing reasons for breakups based on findings in the literature (Baxter, 1986; Hill et. al., 1976); the Responses to Stress Scale (Allen & Hyde, 1980); and Rusbult's newer measure of the investment model (Rusbult et. al., 1999).

**STUDY 3**

**RESULTS**

The primary goal of the analyses to be presented is to test hypotheses one through nine, which are depicted in figure one. Toward this end, the underlying constructs measured by the RRAI, the Romantic Inflation Scale, and the Post Romanticism scale needed to be established. The Post Romanticism scale was designed to measure declines in motivation to present a positive impression of the self to the partner. The criterion and construct validity of the RRAI, as well as its' psychometric properties are discussed prior to study one, as this scale was also used in studies one and two. PCAs of romantic inflation and the post romantic motives, the psychometric properties of these scales, and the criterion validity of these scales are discussed first, as it is important to establish the validity and reliability of these scales prior to presenting inferential analyses based on these scales. As several of the inferential analyses performed used HLM, a brief discussion of this analysis strategy is presented. The inferential analyses address the nine hypotheses posed and depicted in figure one. More specifically, the analyses examined the following major questions 1) whether the expectation discordance model of deception and gender explain presenting one's self as better than they really are (romantic inflation), 2) whether less motivation to present a positive impression predicts more negative and less positive behavior, 3) whether changes in commitment explain post romanticism, 4) whether changes in the behaviors measured by the RRAI are related to changes in satisfaction, 5) whether changes in satisfaction are related to changes in commitment, and 6) whether commitment is related to dissolution. Hypotheses that were and were not confirmed appear pictorially in figure three.

*The Structure of Romantic Inflation*

PCAs were performed to examine the underlying structure of the 24 items measuring romantic inflation. There was an inordinately large principal component in preliminary solutions using varimax rotations; therefore, an equamax rotation strategy was used. Solutions extracting one, two, three, four, and five component solutions were examined; however, the three-component solution proved to be the most interpretable. There were six items that were excluded due to complex loadings ($\lambda_1$ - $\lambda_2$ < .10; $k = 4$) or low component loadings ($\lambda$ < .30; $k = 2$). The three-component solution was also justified based in the scree criteria (Cattell, 1966; first six latent roots: 4.59, 2.14, 1.79, 1.22, 1.09, .87). The three-component solution also accounted for a large percentage of the variance in the data (47.30%).

The three components extracted represented Brown and Levinson's (1987) dimensions of politeness (or face), with negative face ($\alpha$ = .65, $k = 5$; e.g., I let my partner know that I liked doing things that many people disapproved), positive face ($\alpha$ = .87, $k = 9$; e.g., I really put on a show to capture my current partner's interest), and true face ($\alpha$ = .45, $k = 4$; e.g., I quickly let my current partner know that I was not perfect) being represented (see table 19). Brown and Levinson (1987) only discuss negative and positive face, which reflect an individual's desire to behave as he/she wishes and an individual's desire to be perceived as socially desirable, respectively. The third component, true face, represents an individual's desire to be himself/herself around others.

Cronbach's $\alpha$ was low for the true face scale, which is in part due to the scale having a small number of items. If the scale were to be composed of nine items, like the positive face scale, Cronbach's $\alpha$ might have been higher ($\alpha$ = .88), based on the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula. The negative face component was unrelated to the positive face ($r$ = .02, $p$ > .20) and

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true face ($r = .06$, $p > .20$) components. Similarly, the positive face component was unrelated to the true face component ($r = -.03$, $p > .20$).

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Insert Table 19 About Here

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*The Structure of Post Romantic Attitudes*

PCAs were performed to examine the underlying component structure of the 45 items measuring Post Romantic motivations at both times one and two (see table 20). An analysis strategy similar to the analyses performed on the RRAI data was used. These analyses were based on the entire sample of 133 couples participating at time one (266 individuals) and the entire sample of 77 couples (154 individuals) and 46 single representatives who returned to participate in time two. Unfortunately, there were only two samples of students on which to conduct principal component analyses: participants who completed time one and participants who completed time two.

A third sample would have been helpful to serve as a tiebreaker to determine whether items consistently and sufficiently loaded on the same components. A decision was made to break the time one sample into two sub-samples, based on whether couples returned to participate at time two. Thus three samples were created: individual responses at time one from couples who participated in both times one and two (154 individuals), individual responses at time 2 from those who completed time one and time two (154 individuals), and individual responses at time one from individuals who were part of couples in which both members did not return to participate in time two (112 individuals).

The solutions accounted for a large proportion of the variance in the data on average (46.36%). Sufficient support was found for extracting four factors from the samples using the scree criteria (Cattell, 1966). There was a difference of greater than .23 between the fourth and

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fifth latent roots in all solutions (see table 21).

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Insert Tables 20 & 21 About Here

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PCAs with equamax rotations were performed on the three samples. Equamax rotations were used, because there was a large first principal component representing increased control in all three solutions. Preliminary analyses were performed to identify items that were inconsistent across solutions and items that were complex. Similar to the analyses of individual reports of the partner's behavior, items that had the strongest loading on a given component of less than .30, items that had a loading on a secondary component of greater than .40, and items that were complex ($< .10$ difference in loading -- $\lambda_1$ - $\lambda_2$ $< .10$) in two out of three solutions were not considered further in the final analyses to be reported. Twenty-four items not meeting the above criteria were eliminated, leaving 22 items. The time one solution for couple members who participated in both times one and two had 22 items that loaded discretely with no complex or anomalous items. The time two solution for those who completed both times one and two had 18 items that loaded discretely, one complex item, and five anomalous items. Last, the time one solution for couples where both members did not return to participate in time two had 19 items that loaded discretely and three anomalous items.

The first component extracted in all solutions represented an increased motivation to control the partner ($k = 8$, $\alpha_{t1} = .73$, $\alpha_{t2} = .79$; e.g., it is reasonable for me to manipulate my partner). A component representing motives to increasingly conceal things from one's partner was extracted; therefore, this components was termed decreased disclosure ($k = 4$, $\alpha_{t1} = .66$, $\alpha_{t2} = .75$; e.g., there are many things I cannot tell my partner about myself). A component representing increased self-assertion toward one's partner ($k = 4$, $\alpha_{t1} = .58$, $\alpha_{t2} = .65$; e.g., I've got to be myself and I don't care what my partner thinks) was found. This component represents both a decrease in concern

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for one's partner, as well as an expression of favoring self-interest at the expense of the partner's feelings. A component representing a decrease in effort to please one's partner ($k = 5$, $\alpha_{t1} = .50$, $\alpha_{t2} = .47$; e.g., I prefer wearing comfortable clothing around my partner) was also found. The internal consistencies were particularly low for the last component discussed; however, this is partially due to the number of measured items weighing heavily in the calculation of coefficient alpha, with fewer measured items producing smaller internal consistency reliabilities. If this scale were measured with 10 items instead of five items, alpha would have been higher using the Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula ($\alpha_{t1} = .76$, $\alpha_{t2} = .79$).

Correlations between the components were calculated to examine the inter-relations of the Post-Romantic motives (see table 22). Increased control was consistently and positively related to decreased disclosure ($rs > .28$, $ps < .01$) and decreased effort ($rs > .20$, $ps < .05$) at both times one and two. There were two findings that were not consistent across time periods. Time one increased self-assertion responses were related to time one decreased effort responses ($r = .20$, $p < .05$), and time two decreased disclosure responses were related to time two decreased effort responses ($r = .19$, $p < .05$).

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Insert Table 22 About Here

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*Analysis Strategy*

The prior sections of the study three results have been concerned with establishing the psychometric properties of the Romantic Inflation, Post Romanticism, and the Romantic Relationship Act Inventory scales. The present section discusses the analysis strategies employed to analyze these scales. Hypotheses were tested using t-tests, OLS regression, logistic regression, and HLM. The former three statistical analyses are widely used and are common techniques; however, HLM is a less familiar analysis technique and its' application in the present study

deserves further discussion.

*Use of HLM in the Present Application*. HLM was used to address many of the cross-sectional and longitudinal hypotheses, as it is of interest whether changes in predictors cause changes in outcomes (e.g., changes in behavior causing changes in satisfaction). HLM is based on ordinary least-squares regression, but typically uses maximum-likelihood estimation to model random error that is due to multiple observations being nested within individuals. Maximum-likelihood estimation maximizes the probability that population estimates of the variance-covariance matrix are the most accurate given the sample data. HLM uses a level one equation to predict multiple observations of dependent measures provided by individuals. The level one equation is nearly identical to the ordinary least-squares formula. There is also a level two equation for the level one intercept and for every level one slope (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The strength of HLM is that random variation can be modeled by estimating error terms in level two equations that adjust for error due to nesting within super ordinate units.

Level two represents categories within which individual data are nested, and these variables are invariant across time and couple members. A dichotomous predictor variable indicating whether married couples had sexual intercourse by their third date would be an example of a level two variable. This would be a level two variable, as both couple members will always have the same standing on the variable (assuming both couple members are honest), and regardless of when couple members are sampled, their responses will always be the same. Satisfaction is a level one variable, because satisfaction can vary between time periods of observation. HLM estimates variance and covariance components at both levels one and two; thus, eliminating the need for the unit of analysis conundrum previously discussed.

The rationale for HLM is that it models random variation in a level one variable that is due to nesting within a level two variable. When this random variability is not modeled, this variability can be absorbed by the independent measure or the intercept, leading to an erroneous conclusion

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that the independent measure is related to the dependent measure or the erroneous conclusion that the intercept differs from zero. Coefficients are adjusted for this random error, which is indicated by the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC). When the ICC is small, coefficients do not differ greatly from OLS coefficients, and when the ICC is zero, OLS regression produces results that are identical to HLM coefficients (see Kenny & Kashy, 1991; Murray, 1998). Thus, OLS regression is a special case of HLM where the ICC is zero (Cohen, et. al., 2003).

HLMs were used to examine the cross-sectional hypotheses posed, due to individuals being nested within couples. HLM models examining cross-sectional hypotheses only need to address random variation due to individuals being nested within couples (not the additional random variability due to multiple observations being nested within individuals). Some of the analyses performed in this paper used the Barnett and colleagues (1993) analysis strategy, which partials random variability that is due to individuals being nested within couples. This analysis strategy is more straightforward than the longitudinal analysis strategy. Each individual appears on a new data row, and an identifier is used to specify couple membership. Although couple members are not independent (and this is how data would be set up for tests which assume independence, such as an independent groups t-test), HLM models random variability for effects posed as random, and adjusts slopes and intercepts based on the extent of random variability in the model. Thus, this data setup allows the individual couple members to be examined as the level one unit of analysis and couple to be examined as the level two unit of analysis. There are not separate slopes and intercepts for men and women, as there are in the longitudinal data analysis strategy to be discussed below. This analysis strategy examines gender as a moderating variable of the relationships between independent and dependent variables to determine whether different relationships emerge for men and women.

Most of the longitudinal hypotheses to be examined represent a case where there are multiple observations nested within individuals. This is the random variability that was modeled--multiple

observations being nested within individuals. Although conceptually, individuals are nested within couples, couple members can simultaneously be considered independent and not independent. More specifically, couple members provide independent reports on their perceptions of reality (e.g., men report on women's behavior and women report on men's behavior), which are independent observations. Nevertheless, the behavior of one couple member affects the other couple member's behavior, rendering these reports somewhat non-independent. The method advocated by Raudenbush and his colleagues (1995) for examining longitudinal data from dyads (the approach used in the current longitudinal analyses) deals with independence issues inherent in dyad data by creating separate predictors for men and women, instead of modeling the variability due to members being nested within couples.

There is possible random variability that arises from multiple observations being nested within individuals and two individuals being nested within couples in longitudinal couple data. The technique advocated by Raudenbush and his colleagues (1995) simplifies these multiple levels of random variability by treating men and women as independent from an analysis perspective (e.g., the slopes and intercepts are the same as if men and women were analyzed separately), and only random variability due to multiple observations being nested within individuals is addressed in this analysis strategy. This is done, primarily due to computational and inferential problems inherent in data where there are only two longitudinal observations (M. Du Toit & S. H. C. Du Toit, personal communication, September, 2002). More specifically, it would be possible to treat couple as a level two variable and repeated observations as a level three variable; however, in this scenario, there would only be two observations for each couple to address changes over time. As OLS regression equations are estimated for each couple for the purpose of generating starting values for maximum likelihood estimation, regression estimates are more stable when they are based on four observations of the dependent measure in the approach advocated by Raudenbush and his colleagues (1995), as opposed to two observations in the hypothetical three level design

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mentioned above. This technique is also based on the assumption that there is more random variability due to multiple observations being nested within individuals than there is random variability due to individuals being nested within couples--an assumption that characterizes the present data.

The logic behind the technique proposed by Raudenbush and colleagues (1995) is to examine nesting that occurs due to multiple observations being nested within individuals, while examining both men and women in the same equation. The goal of this technique is to keep male and female slopes and intercepts at the same value they would be if men and women were analyzed in separate analyses. The technique examines men and women in the same equation by using a set of vectors coded as zero and one for men and women's intercepts, and by creating separate male and female predictors. Separate intercepts for men and women are created by coding the intercept for men as one for data rows containing predictors pertaining to men and zero for data rows containing predictors pertaining to women. Similarly, the intercept for women is coded as one for data rows containing predictors pertaining to women and zero for data rows containing predictors pertaining to men. Estimated intercept values for men and women represent the grand mean across time periods on the dependent measure for men and women, respectively. Independent measures are then multiplied by the male and female dummy codes, producing separate male and female predictors. The male predictor represents only the male's response for the independent measures and the female's value for the male predictor is zero. Similarly, the female predictor represents the female's response for the independent measure with the male's value for the female predictor being zero (see Kurdek, 1999, p. 1288, table 4, for an example of such a data setup).

This allows the separate reports of male and female couple members to be examined in the same equation (see Raudenbush, et al., 1995, pp. 163-164, equations 1.0, 2.0, and 3.0), due to female intercepts and predictors dropping out of the equation for male predictions and due to male intercepts and predictors dropping out of the equation for female predictions. Thus, this

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leads to the slopes and intercepts maintaining the same value as when male and female predictions were analyzed separately. If one selected only those cases pertaining to male predictions, and used the independent measure as a predictor of the dependent measure, the estimated values of the intercept and slope would be identical to those if all cases were selected-- only the male intercept (coded as one for male predictions, zero otherwise) and the male predictor (coded as the male predictor response for men, zero otherwise) were used as the predictors of the dependent measure. To do the latter in most statistical packages, one would have to tell the software that there was no intercept in the model. The additional zeros in the coded intercept and predictor variable drop out of the equation when solving for the values of the intercept and slope. Further, when the female intercept and the female predictor are added to the equation, the estimated male intercept and male slope for the independent variable still remain the same.

*Details and Limitations.* This technique is somewhat non-standard, so further explanation of why slopes remain the same when separate intercepts and slopes are used is needed. It is easiest to demonstrate the logic behind why slopes remain the same by comparing the circumstances where only data from men are analyzed, and where all observations are selected and the dependent measure is regressed on the male intercept (with zeros representing women's observations) and the male independent measure (with zeros representing women's observations). When standardized scores are computed, the intercept drops from the equation (becomes zero for all observations, irregardless of gender), and the formula for the slope becomes:

$$b_{yx} = \frac{\Sigma XY}{\Sigma X^2}$$

As can be seen, the formula for the slope has the sum of cross-products between the independent measure and the dependent measure in the numerator, and the sum-of-squared values of the independent measure in the denominator. Cross-products for women's observations will always be zero, as their independent measure values will always be zero. Thus, women have a null effect on the numerator of the equation. Further, since women's independent measure values will always be zero, the squares of women's values have a null effect on the denominator.

There are several things that are notable when using this procedure. First, standard errors do not remain the same in the case where each gender is analyzed separately and in the case where both genders are examined in the same equation. Although standard errors are biased in a slightly more conservative direction, they are reasonably comparable. This leads to different $t$-values when each gender is analyzed separately and when both genders are examined in the same equation. As a result, effect sizes differ as a function of the different $t$-values that are calculated. Nevertheless, this bias tends not increase the likelihood of a Type I error, as standard errors are typically biased in a more conservative direction. This is offset by power being higher in the case where both men and women are analyzed in the same equation. Power is higher, as degrees of freedom are based on the total number of observations, not the total number of couples. Effect sizes, $r$, are more conservatively estimated, as $r$ is inversely related to sample size using Rosenthal's (1991) formula:

$$r = \left( \frac{t^2}{t^2 + df} \right)^{1/2}$$

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Standard errors have a more conservative bias when both male and female slopes and intercepts are added, because both the numerator and the denominator for the formula for the standard error change. The standard error in the multiple regression case for standardized scores is defined as:

$$\sigma = \left( \frac{(1 - r^2)}{df(1 - r_p^2)} \right)$$

with $N - K - 1$ degrees of freedom. The denominator term $r_p^2$ represents the squared multiple correlation when regressing the independent variable that the standard error is being calculated for on all other independent variables in the model. When both male and female portions of the equation are added, men and women's scores are likely to be highly correlated, which leads to a larger $r_p^2$. This larger value of $r_p^2$ decreases the value of the denominator of the equation, while increasing the value of the standard error. Increasing the value of the standard error makes one more likely to fail to reject the null hypothesis that the true population regression coefficient is zero. This is based on the larger standard error (denominator) making the $t$-value smaller, using the standard hypothesis test for a regression coefficient:

$$t = B / \sigma$$

There are also two liberal biases in the calculation of the standard error when using the separate slopes and intercepts approach; however, these tend to be overshadowed by the aforementioned conservative biases. The denominator of the formula for the standard error is biased in a more liberal direction, as the separate slopes and intercepts procedure effectively doubles the degrees of freedom. Doubling the degrees of freedom makes the standard error smaller, making one more likely to reject the null hypothesis that the population regression coefficient equals zero. The numerator of the standard error equation differs in the separate slopes and intercepts case, because $r$-squared is based on the total variability accounted for by the model. When the female portion of the equation is added to the male portion of the equation,

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there is likely more variability accounted for in the model. This makes the standard error smaller, also making one more likely to reject the null hypothesis that the population regression coefficient equals zero.

Although the value of slopes and intercepts remain the same as when only one gender is examined using all observations (with zeros coded for the opposite gender), the values of the standardized slopes do not remain the same when different analysis strategies are performed. The reason for this is that standardized slopes are created by transforming all independent measures and the dependent measure to z scores, and then re-running the regression with these standardized scores. Thus, columns of data containing actual observations, and zeros in rows representing the observations of the opposite sex, are all assumed to be valid observations when calculating the z-scores. When using the separate slopes and intercepts technique, only men's responses for the independent and dependent measures contribute to the calculation of the men's slope and only women's responses for the independent and dependent measures contribute to the calculation of the women's slope. More specifically, for the calculation of the men's slope, the sum of cross-products in the numerator will always be zero for women's values and the sum of squared independent measure values for women in the denominator will always be zero. Thus, means for these slopes are based on only the observations that men provide (not the zeros in the rows of data representing women). As a consequence, the mean and standard deviation of these scores are no longer standardized ($M <> 0$, $SD <> 1$). Thus, standardized slopes are not accurate in these analyses. This point about standardized coefficients is somewhat ancillary, as standardized regression coefficients are typically not used in HLM. This is due to difficulties inherent in interpreting standardized coefficients due to centering issues, and due to additional adjustments made to coefficients for random variability (see subheading "Standardizing Variables" in Nezlek, 2001, *p.* 780).

*Dfs* for random effects are based on the total number of level two units (70 in the present

case), minus the number of parameters that are estimated. For fixed effects, each couple provides four pieces of information (men's and women's reports on a variable at times one and two). For example, when calculating men's slope representing the relationship between men's perceptions of changes in their partners' behavior and changes in their own satisfaction in the current data set, men provide 140 responses about their own satisfaction (70 responses at time one and 70 responses at time two), and women provide 140 responses about their own satisfaction (70 responses at time one and 70 responses at time two). This approach has the consequence of intercepts and slopes being identical to analyses examining men's and women's responses separately. Nevertheless, these more conservative standard errors are offset by the tests for men (based on $n = 140$) and the tests for women (based on $n = 140$) being based on a hypothesis test with more power (*dfs* are based on $N = 240$). This analysis strategy does not follow the standard logic of hypothesis testing for regression coefficients; however, this is due to difficulties inherent in longitudinal couple data.

The following hypothetical data can be used to demonstrate the separate slopes and intercepts method using OLS regression. Suppose we have male (MINT) and female (FINT) intercepts coded as one for the particular gender under investigation and zero otherwise, male (MIV) and female predictors (FIV) coded as the observed value for that gender's observation on the independent measure and zero otherwise, and a single vector representing the dependent measure (DV). Thus for the following example:

| MINT | FINT | MIV | FIV | DV |
|------|------|-----|-----|-----|
| 1 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| 1 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 4 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| 1 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 3 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 3 |
| 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 4 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 2 |
| 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 3 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 |

When just men are selected ($n = 5$), we obtain the following coefficients for the regression: $a = 2.77$, $b = .32$, $SE = .32$, $\beta = .50$, $t(3) = 1.01$, $p = .386$, $r = .50$. It is inappropriate to use the male independent measure as a predictor of the female independent measure when using a standard intercept coded as a vector of ones, because this analysis assumes that the zero values in women's rows represent valid observations for women. For this analysis, we obtain the following values: $a = 2.98$, $b = .27$, $SE = .22$, $\beta = .40$, $t(8) = 1.23$, $p = .254$, $r = .40$. If we choose an intercept that causes women's zero scores on the independent measure to drop out of the equation (the male intercept), the intercept and slope remain the same as if only men were examined in the analysis: $a = 2.77$, $b = .32$, $SE = 1.02$, $\beta = .22$, $t(8) = .32$, $p = .760$, $r = .40$; however, standard errors are biased in a very conservative direction.

When the female portion of the equation is added (the female intercept and slope are added), the values for male intercepts and slopes are the same as when only men were examined, and also, the standard error becomes more similar (.32 vs.26) to when only men were examined: $a = 2.77$, $b = .32$, $SE = .26$, $\beta = .40$, $t(6) = 1.27$, $p = .252$, $r = .40$. If one were to standardize scores within gender (identical in logic to group-mean centering) for the male independent (1.38, 0, -.15, 0, .61, 0, -.92, 0, -.92, 0) and dependent (1.43, .63, .24, 1.26, -.96, .00, .24, -.63, -.96, -1.26) measures and then run the analysis, then one will obtain the same beta value as when only men are analyzed: $a = .00$, $b = .50$, $SE = .32$, $t(6) = 1.59$, $p = .15$, $r = .40$. As described above, the value of the slope is the same even though there are coded zeros representing women for the

independent measure. More specifically, calculations for the slope produce the same value when

all cases are analyzed ($N = 10$):

$$b_{yx} = \frac{2.01}{3.99}$$

$$= \quad .50$$

and when only men are analyzed ($n = 5$):

$$b_{yx} = \frac{2.01}{3.99}$$

$$= \quad .50$$

A sample data setup for two hypothetical couples appears in figure two. This figure also

provides example longitudinal HLM equations that would be used to predict changes in the

individual's satisfaction from changes in the individual's perception of the partner's norm

violating behaviors. In the figure, DAS stands for the Dyadic Adjustment Satisfaction scale. Male

norm violations are indicated as FNORMVI and female norm violations are indicated as

MNORMVI, because the individual reports on their opposite sex partner's behavior. The variable

indicating time period of observation represents whether the data were measured at time one (-1)

or time two (1), as the same participant is represented on more than one data row.

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Insert Figure 2 About Here

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*General Format of Cross-Sectional HLMs Posed*. The intercept was posed as a random effect

in the cross-sectional HLMs performed. Posing the intercept as random in these models has the

implication that dependent measure variances for couple members are heterogeneous, and this

random variability is modeled. Consequently, slopes and intercepts, and their respective standard

errors, are adjusted for random variation in the dependent measure explained by individuals being

nested within couples. Mathematically, this just involves an additional error term in the level two equation for the intercept that is estimated. It may be desirable to pose independent measures (or slopes) as having random variability; however, only one effect can be posed as random when there are only two individuals nested within couples (see Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The decision rule was employed to always treat the intercept (the dependent measure) as having random variability, as each independent measure was typically treated as a dependent measure in another analysis.

All cross-sectional HLMs involved posing relationship length and average number of days per week spent with the partner as predictors of a random level one intercept. Relationship length was examined as a covariate (or a predictor of the level one intercept) instead of a potential moderator of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (or a predictor of the level one independent measures slope). Treating relationship length as a potential moderator has the implication that one is interested in cross-sectional differences in relationships between the independent and dependent measures, as a function of relationship length. This was of less interest when cross-sectional relationships were examined. These predictors were used as covariates to reduce the possibility of producing spurious relationships between the independent variables of interest and the dependent measures. These models also included gender (coded as -1 = male and 1 = female) as a predictor of the dependent measures.

Interaction terms were also always calculated between the independent measure(s) of interest and gender, to examine whether gender moderated the relationship between the independent measure(s) of interest and the dependent measure. As interaction terms were created at level one by multiplying two variables, all continuous measures were grand mean centered prior to running analyses in an attempt to make the interaction terms orthogonal to the main effect terms (Cohen et. al., 2003). If no interactions with gender were significant in preliminary analyses ($p < .15$), they were dropped in the final analyses reported.

*General Format of Longitudinal HLMs Posed*. Men and women's intercepts were posed as random effects and men and women's time change components (coded as -1 and +1 for times one and two, respectively), and men's and women's predictors were posed as fixed effects. Posing effects as fixed makes the assumption that variables are measured without random error; whereas posing effects as random assumes that variables are measured with random error and that variances are not homogeneous within levels of nesting. As it applies to the current model, random effects are interpreted as representing the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable at any point in time the participant *could* have been observed, and fixed effects represent the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable at the particular time they *were* observed (cf. Littell, Milliken, Stroup, & Wolfinger, 1996; Nezlek, 2001). From a mathematical standpoint, posing an effect as random involves the addition of an error term to the level two equation that is estimated for each level one variable. The distinction between fixed effects and random effects in HLM is similar to the distinction between fixed effects and random effects ANOVA (e.g., Lindman, 1991).

For example, if an intercept was posed as a random factor and a time change component was posed as a fixed effect predicting two observations of the same individuals' satisfaction scores. This has the implication that satisfaction (the dependent measure) does not have homogeneous variances for the two observations nested within each individual, and that the satisfaction scores represent a random sampling of each individual's satisfaction scores. Posing satisfaction as a random effect allows multiple satisfaction scores nested within the individuals to vary randomly, and adjusts variance estimates based on random variability that may exist among these satisfaction scores. Thus, a higher degree of random variation in satisfaction would produce more conservative variance estimates for satisfaction. The male and female linear effect were posed as fixed, because only two effects (the male and female intercepts in the present case) could be posed as random, due the number of level two units available in the data.

It may be desirable to also model level one change components (e.g., change in behavior) as random, as some predictors also represent multiple observations being nested within the same individual. However, only having two longitudinal observations limits the number of random effects that can be posed (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). A decision was made to always treat the intercept as the random effect, as the focus of these HLMs are on causes of changes in the outcomes instead of causes of changes in the independent measures. The later assumption was justified by significant variation in random errors for men's and women's intercepts ($ps < .05$) in the models tested, suggesting that there is random variation between the two points in time couples were observed on the dependent measures. As mentioned previously, significant random variability in these dependent measures speaks to random variability in the independent measures, because independent variables in many analyses were treated as dependent measures in other analyses. Further, most analyses performed examining change in an independent measure as a predictor of change in a dependent measure (e.g., change in behavior as a predictor of change in satisfaction) treated the previous independent measure as a dependent measure in another set of analyses (e.g., analyses examining changes over time in behavior).

The average number of days partners spent with one another over the course of the study was used as a level two predictor of male and female level one intercepts (the grand mean of a particular outcome). Thus, this partials the shared variance in outcomes that is explained by the average amount of time partners spend with one another. Relationship length at time one was also used as a level two predictor of the independent measure of interest at level one. This represents both the longitudinal component to the study (couples were followed for two months) and the cross-sectional component to the study (couples of various dating lengths--at various time points in their relationships--were recruited). This test represents a null hypothesis test for a cross-level interaction. Computationally, this is similar to creating interaction terms in OLS regression, as time two relationship length components are multiplied by the level one independent variable of

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interest to create an interaction term (M. Du Toit & S. H. C. Du Toit, personal communication, September, 2002).

Decisions about centering variables in HLM are primarily made to enhance the interpretability of the values for the slope. More specifically, for the slope to be interpretable, a value of zero on the independent variable must be meaningful (Nezlek, 2001). All of the outcome variables of interest had meaningful zero values with the exception of commitment and post romanticism, but they were not centered. Both of these variables had minimum values of one; therefore, a value of one was subtracted from the commitment and post romanticism scores. Only relationship length and frequency of contact were grand mean centered at level two, as a relationship length with no duration and a couple not spending any time together are nonsensical. No variables were group-mean centered at level one, as group-mean centering would mask gender differences in slopes, as well as mask changes that occur over time.

*Data Presentation.* Similar to prior studies in the literature (e.g., Karney & Bradbury, 1997; Kurdek, 1999), t-statistics and the degrees of freedom associated with the t-statistic were transformed to effect sizes (*r*) using the formula presented in Rosenthal (1991). Only these effect sizes and the probabilities associated with the t-statistics are reported in the prose of the paper for all HLMs that were performed. Similarly, only effect sizes (*r*, standardized slopes -*β*, and/or odds ratios) and probability levels associated with significance tests are reported in the prose of the paper for analyses that did not use HLM. All analyses are based on sample size of 70 couples (140 individuals) unless it is indicated otherwise.

*Missing Data Considerations.* Missing data did not appear to be a problem in the present data. Scale scores were first created using the mean command in SPSS 11, which computes an average of the available responses given by participants. This procedure assumes that the best estimate of an individual's response for a missing item is the mean of the individual's available items. Thus, this procedure was used to deal with missing items comprising scales.

A missing value analysis was performed on the 44 scale scores created using the mean command (e.g., emotional stability) and single items (e.g., relationship length) to be used in inferential analyses (see appendix S). Little's Missing Completely at Random test failed to provide any evidence that there was a pattern to missingness in the data, $\chi^2(357) = 13.36$, $p = .999$. Forty three of the 44 variables examined had less than 6% of the data missing. Just slightly more than 5% of the data (5.71%) were missing for agreeableness, conscientiousness, narcissism, and sensation seeking. There was a higher percentage of missing data for the self-monitoring scale (13.57%). The larger percentage of missing data for the self-monitoring scale was likely due to this scale being very near the end of the questionnaire. Due to there being no evidence to suggest a pattern to missingness and there was only 1.85% of the data missing for each variable on average, series mean substitution was used to impute missing values for these 44 variables to be used in inferential analyses. Series mean substitution assumes that the best estimate of a participant's missing response is the mean of participants who did respond. Mean substitution was chosen, as it is the most straightforward method of replacing missing values, and the method of imputation chosen makes little difference on the results of inferential analyses when there is 5% or less missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000).

*Do Individuals Present Themselves as Better than They Really Are -- Romantic Inflation.*

Analyses of the romantic inflation data largely suggested that men were deceptive about their typical frequency of positive and negative behaviors early in relationships. First, gender differences between the romantic inflation scales were examined. Second, analyses were performed using the general format for cross-sectional HLMs stated above, regressing the partner's report of the individual's behavior at time two on the individual's self-report of negative, positive, and true face dimensions from time one. The interactions between these romantic inflation dimensions and gender were also entered simultaneously with the main effects as predictors (see table 23). The negative, positive, and true face dimensions were measured at

time one, and the behaviors examined as the dependent measures in these analyses were measured at time two. The reason for this analysis strategy is that it is of interest whether individuals' reports of their own romantic inflation at the beginning of the relationship (closest to time one) relates to how partners report individuals behave from the present time until two months later (time two). Results from an alternate conceptualization of romantic inflation (personality inflation) appear in appendix B for the interested reader. Analyses examining personality inflation are not presented here, because the romantic inflation data produced a more coherent and parsimonious pattern of results. Nevertheless, results were comparable using both conceptualizations.

Examining gender differences in Romantic Inflation, men ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.42$) were found to be higher on the negative face dimension than women ($M = 2.63$, $SD = 1.22$; $r = .33$, $p = .005$). Men ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 1.81$) were also found to be higher on the positive face dimension that women ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 1.32$; $r = .42$, $p < .001$). The latter finding has the interpretation that men are more likely than women to let the individual know that they are going to behave how they wish, regardless of how it affects the individual, and that women may be more likely than men to manage their impressions early in relationships, as they exhibit less negative face. There was little support for the latter interpretation, which will be dealt with in the discussion. There was little evidence to suggest that the same males who were high on the positive face dimension were the same males who were high on the negative face dimension ($r = -.08$, $p > .15$), or that the same females who were low on the negative face dimension were the same females who were low on the positive face dimension ($r = -.12$, $p > .15$). There was no evidence to suggest a difference between men ($M = 5.91$, $SD = 1.30$) and women ($M = 6.00$, $SD = 1.38$) on the true face dimension ($r = -.05$, $p = .654$).

Significant interactions indicated that men who were higher on the true face dimension were seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors ($r_{ES}$ = -.17, $p$ = .047), and men who were higher on the negative face dimension were seen as engaging in more intrusive behaviors ($r_{ES}$ = -.19, $p$ = .028). Also, significant interactions indicated that men who were higher on the negative ($r_{ES}$ = .16, $p$ = .073) and positive ($r_{ES}$ = .17, $p$ = .046) face dimensions were seen as engaging in (marginally) fewer emotionally supportive behaviors. Partners who were high on the true face dimension were seen as engaging in more instrumentally supportive behaviors ($r_{ES}$ = .17, $p$ = .049), and partners who were high on the positive face dimension were seen as performing less sexually affectionate behaviors ($r_{ES}$ = -.18, $p$ = .034), regardless of gender. There was no evidence to suggest that romantic inflation was related to inconsiderate, norm violating, or gracious behaviors ($ps$ > .15).

It was also of interest whether consistently presenting one's self as better than they really are (romantic inflation) would lead to quicker burnout in the form of increased post romanticism. A similar analysis strategy was employed, regressing the individual's time two post romanticism scores on the negative, positive, and true face dimensions. Interaction terms between gender and the romantic inflation predictors were also entered simultaneously with the romantic inflation predictors (see table 24). Individuals who were higher on the negative face were more likely to decrease effort ($r_{ES}$ = .26, $p$ = .002), increase control ($r_{ES}$ = .16, $p$ = .058), and decreased disclosure ($r_{ES}$ = .23, $p$ = .008). The effect for decreased effort was qualified by an interaction with gender, suggesting that it was primarily men who were higher on the negative face dimension that decreased effort ($r_{ES}$ = -.18, $p$ = .040). Also, individuals who were higher on the positive face dimension were more likely to increase control ($r_{ES}$ = .16, $p$ = .058) and decrease

disclosure ($r_{ES}$ = .35, $p$ < .001). There was no evidence to suggest that romantic inflation was related to an increase in self-assertion ($ps$ > .15).

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Insert Table 24 About Here

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*Gender Differences in Post Romanticism*

Gender differences in Post Romanticism were examined using t-tests. The time one and time two data were examined separately (see table 25). Women exhibited marginally more decreased effort than men at both times one ($r$ = -.19, $p$ = .115) and two ($r$ = -.22, $p$ = .069). Women were more likely to increase self-assertion than men at times one ($r$ = -.33, $p$ = .002) and two ($r$ = -.36, $p$ = .005). Men exhibited more increased control ($r$ = .35, $p$ = .003) and decreased disclosure ($r$ = .25, $p$ = .037) than women at time one and men exhibited more increased control ($r$ = .26, $p$ = .026) and decrease disclosure ($r$ = .32, $p$ = .006) than women at time two.

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Insert Table 25 About Here

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*Changes Over Time in the Individual's Report of his/her Post Romantic Motives*

Four HLMs were performed to examine whether men and women's self-reports of their post romanticism changed over time using the format for longitudinal HLMs described above (see table 26). Men ($r$ = -.11, $p$ = .061) and women ($r$ = -.14, $p$ = .019) were both found to exhibit (marginally) less self-assertion towards their partners over the course of the two months that couples were followed. Men ($r$ = .12, $p$ = .054) and women ($r$ = .17, $p$ = .005) were both found to increase their motivation to control the partner between times one and two. Although both shorter and longer dating couples exhibited these increases, increases in the motivation to control the partner were (marginally) more pronounced among men ($r$ = -.14, $p$ = .024) and women ($r$ = -.11,

*p* = .071) dating for shorter periods of time, as indicated by cross-level interactions with relationship length. Men decreased their disclosure over the course of the two months that couples were followed (*r* = .15, *p* = .014). No effects were found suggesting changes over time in effort (*ps* > .15).

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Insert Table 26 About Here

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*Unique Relations Between Partner Post-Romanticism and Partner Behavior*

A series of OLS regressions and correlational analyses were performed to examine whether the Post Romantic motivations uniquely predicted behaviors. These analyses are more concerned with confirming theoretical predictions regarding the unique relations of Post Romantic Attitudes to behavior, while ignoring couple non-independence (which is of less interest in these analyses). It was reasonable to assume that couple members were independent for these analyses, as male couple member reports of Post Romantic Attitudes were uncorrelated with female couple member reports of Post Romantic Attitudes for decreased effort, increased self-assertion, and increased control at time one (*rs* < .15, *ps* > .15); however, there was a marginal correspondence between couple members on decreased disclosure at time one (*r* = .22, *p* = .074). Eight regression analyses were performed, regressing each of the eight behaviors measured by the RRAI onto the four Post Romantic motivations. Pearson correlation coefficients were also examined. The tests of interest were whether the predicted relationships between Post Romantic motivations and behavior emerged, and furthermore, whether the predicted relationships were the strongest relationships. Thus, both standardized partial regression slopes, which partial the variance shared with other Post Romantic Motivations; zero-order correlations; and the probability levels associated with the significance of these coefficients are reported.

More specifically, these analyses were conducted by regressing the individual's report of the

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partner's behavior at time two on the partner's report of his/her own post romanticism at time one. The reason for this is that the individual's report on his/her partner's behavior is about behavior that occurred over the past two months, whereas each partner reports on their Post Romantic attitudes at the current time. Thus, since time two occurs approximately 2 months after time one, the interpretation of these analyses is whether a partner's post romanticism at time one (the present time or time one) predicts how the individual is going to report he/she behaves over the next two months (time two) (see table 27).

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Insert Table 27 About Here

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As predicted, decreased effort was the strongest predictor of perceived bad habit behavior in the analysis examining partial standardized slopes and at the zero-order correlation level ($\beta = .19$, $p = .027$, $r = .22$, $p = .010$). Increased self-assertion was also the strongest predictor of perceived inconsiderateness in both analyses ($\beta = .23$, $p = .007$, $r = .23$, $p = .007$). Contrary to predictions, increased self-assertion was the strongest predictor of perceived intrusiveness ($\beta = .22$, $p = .011$, $r = .25$, $p = .003$). The predicted relations between increased control and perceived intrusiveness was marginally evident at the zero-order level ($\beta = .10$, $p = .282$, $r = .15$, $p = .084$); however, no other significant effects for increased control were observed. Decreased disclosure was the strongest predictor of perceived norm violations in both types of analyses ($\beta = .17$, $p = .057$, $r = .16$, $p = .056$).

Only one of the positive behaviors exhibited the predicted relations. Decreased disclosure was the strongest predictor of a reduction in perceived sexually affectionate behaviors using both analysis strategies ($\beta = -.21$, $p = .020$, $r = -.21$, $p = .011$). Although increased self-assertion was not the strongest predictor of perceived emotional support, increased self-assertion was marginally related to perceived emotional support in the predicted direction at the zero-order

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level (($\beta$ = -.12, $p$ = .167, $r$ = -.13, $p$ = .134). Little support was found for the predicted

relationships for instrumental support ($\beta$ = .15, $p$ = .072, $r$ = .04, $p$ = .644) and graciousness ($\beta$ = -

.01, $p$ = .896, $r$ = -.04, $p$ = .631).

Three tenable explanations exist for why the predicted relationship did not emerge for positive

behaviors. The Post Romanticism scale contained primarily items that were worded in the

direction of low motivation to impress the partner as opposed to high motivation to impress the

partner (see table 14). Although items were written in the direction of high motivation to impress

the partner, only two of these items loaded consistently on the increased self-assertion component

extracted. Thus, this explanation primarily applies to the decreased effort, increased control, and

decreased disclosure, which did not have any items worded in the direction of high motivation to

impress the partner. A second, and somewhat inter-related explanation is that romantic

motivations for performing positive behaviors are independent from motivations for performing

negative behaviors. The later explanation may clarify why positively worded motivation items

did not load consistently on the principal components that were extracted; however; motivations

that might be responsible for changes in positive behaviors were not measured. For example, an

individual may be more motivated to behave in a seductive manner around their partner

(presumably a positive thing), such that the individual can engage in more sexually-affectionate

behaviors with their partner. Last, as will be discussed in more detail later, there was little

variation to be explained in changes over time in positive behaviors--positive behaviors exhibited

little change over time.

*Does Less Motivation to Present a Positive Impression Predict More Negative and Less Positive*

*Behavior*

Examination of whether Post Romantic motivations predict less negativity and more

positivity, a series of cross-sectional HLMs were performed, regressing the individual's report of

the partner's behavior at time two onto the post-romanticism scales at time one, and the

interactions between the post-romanticism scales and gender (see table 28). These interactions were not significant in any analyses ($ps > .15$); therefore, they were dropped in the analyses reported.

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Insert Table 28 About Here

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The predicted relations for negative behaviors were largely confirmed. Partners who were high in decreased effort being seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors ($r_{ES} = .16$, $p = .054$), partners who were high in increased self-assertion being seen as engaging in marginally more inconsiderate behaviors ($r_{ES} = .12$, $p = .158$), partners who were high in increased control were seen as engaging in more intrusive behaviors ($r_{ES} = .22$, $p = .011$), and partners who were high in decreased disclosure being seen as engaging in more norm violating behaviors ($r_{ES} = .18$, $p = .036$). There was little evidence to suggest that post romanticism affected positive behaviors in the predicted way ($ps > .29$), with the exception of partners who were higher in decreased disclosure being seen as engaging in marginally fewer affectionate behaviors ($r_{ES} = -.14$, $p = .088$).

*Causes of Reduced Motivation*

It was predicted that individuals who had a high level of commitment to the relationship at time one would cause their partners to decrease their motivation to present a positive image to the individual. These questions were answered using the format for cross-section HLMs specified above. These analyses were performed by regressing partner post romanticism at time two on the individuals commitment at time one, with the addition of an interaction term represent the moderating effects of gender on the relationship between commitment and post-romanticism. These interaction terms were not significant in any analysis ($ps > .15$); therefore, they were dropped from the equations. As it was of interest whether changes in commitment affected post

romanticism, the partner's post romanticism score at time one was also entered as a predictor (see

table 29).

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Insert Table 29 About Here

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More commitment by individuals at time one predicted their partners reporting they were more

effortful at time two ($r_{ES}$ = -.20, $p$ = .021). A high level of commitment by male and female

individuals at time one predicted partners reporting they were less controlling at time two ($r_{ES}$ = -

.34, $p$ < .001). The results of these analyses largely suggested that partners became more

motivated to be effortful and less motivated to be controlling the more the individual was

committed to the relationship.

*Gender Differences in Behavior*

Gender differences in the partner's report of the individual's behavior were examined using t-

tests, comparing women's reports of men's behavior and men's report of women's behavior for

times one and two separately (see table 30). Men were seen as engaging in more bad habit

behaviors than women at time one ($r$ = -.34, $p$ = .004). Women were seen as engaging in more

inconsiderate ($r$ = .72, $p$ < .001) and intrusive ($r$ = .38, $p$ = .001) behaviors than men at time one,

as well as engaging in marginally more norm violating behaviors ($r$ = .19, $p$ = .111). Men were

perceived as engaging in more instrumentally supportive behaviors at time one than women were

perceived as engaging in ($r$ = -.46, $p$ < .001). A marginal difference suggested women were seen

as engaging in more gracious behaviors than men at time one ($r$ = .22, $p$ = .069). Women were

also seen as engaging in more inconsiderate ($r$ = .65, $p$ < .001), intrusive ($r$ = .49, $p$ < .001), and

norm violating ($r$ = .35, $p$ = .002) behaviors than men at time two. Men were seen as engaging in

more instrumentally supportive behaviors than women at time two ($r$ = -.36, $p$ = .002). No other

gender differences in frequencies of behavior were found. No evidence was found suggesting

gender differences in emotionally supportive or sexually affectionate behaviors in either the time one or time two data ($ps > .15$).

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Insert Table 30 About Here

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*Changes Over Time in the Individual's Perception of the Partner's Behavior*

A series of HLMs were estimated to examine whether there was a change over time in the individual's perceptions of the partner's behavior, using the format outlined above for examining longitudinal questions (see table 31). Women were seen by their partners as engaging in marginally more bad habit behaviors across the two months examined ($r = .11$, $p = .081$). Both men ($r = -.12$, $p = .052$) and women ($r = -.10$, $p = .098$) dating shorter periods of time were seen by their partners' as engaging in (marginally) more bad habit behaviors across the two months examined, whereas longer dating partners were seen as being relatively stable in their bad habit behaviors. A marginal cross-level interaction for women's inconsiderate behaviors suggested that women in shorter length relationships had a larger increase in their inconsiderate behaviors ($r = -.12$, $p = .043$). Men saw women's intrusive behaviors ($r = .21$, $p < .001$) and norm violating behaviors ($r = .20$, $p = .001$) as increasing across the two months examined. Men saw women's emotionally supportive behavior as becoming marginally less frequent across the two months examined ($r = -.11$, $p = .074$). No other positive behaviors were seen as changing over the course of the two months examined.

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Insert Table 31 About Here

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*Reciprocated Behavior by the Partner*

Direct reciprocity (e.g., the individual performing bad habit behaviors being related to the

partner performing more bad habit behaviors) was examined by performing zero-order

correlations (see table 32). These relationships were examined both cross-sectionally and

longitudinally. Only direct reciprocity, as opposed to indirect reciprocity (e.g., the individual

performing bad habit behaviors being related to the partner performing more inconsiderate

behaviors) are reported in the prose, as these findings were generally similar to the OLS

regression analyses to be reported below.

Examining zero-order relationships for direct reciprocity for each of the behaviors at time one

and time two suggested that direct reciprocity was more likely at time two than at time one.

Relationship partners (marginally) reciprocated bad habit ($r = .29$, $p < .05$), intrusive ($r = .24$, $p <$

.05), norm violating ($r = .29$, $p < .05$), instrumentally supportive ($r = .28$, $p < .05$), emotionally

supportive ($r = .42$, $p < .01$), gracious ($r = .39$, $p < .01$), and sexually affectionate ($r = .36$, $p <$

.01) behaviors at time two; however, inconsiderate behaviors were not reciprocated ($r = .05$, $p >$

.15). Relationship partners (marginally) reciprocated bad habit ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), inconsiderate ($r$

$= .17$, $p < .15$), and norm violating ($r = .38$, $p < .01$), instrumentally supportive ($r = .17$, $p < .15$),

and sexually affectionate ($r = .27$, $p < .05$) behaviors at time one; however, intrusive and gracious

behaviors were not reciprocated ($rs < .17$, $ps > .15$).

Examining male individual behavior at time one as a predictor of female partner behavior at

time two, there were (marginal) direct reciprocity effects for bad habit ($r = .27$, $p < .05$),

inconsiderate ($r = .21$, $p < .10$), intrusive ($r = .21$, $p < .10$), norm violating ($r = .19$, $p < .15$),

instrumentally supportive ($r = .28$, $p < .05$), gracious ($r = .24$, $p < .05$), and sexually affectionate

($r = .35$, $p < .01$) behaviors; however, there were no reciprocity effects for emotionally supportive

behaviors ($r = -.01$, $p > .15$). Analyses examining female individual behavior at time one as a

predictor of female partner behavior at time two, there were (marginal) direct reciprocity effects

for bad habit ($r = .28$, $p < .05$), intrusive ($r = .28$, $p < .05$), emotionally supportive ($r = .40$, $p <$

.01), and sexually affectionate ($r = .20$, $p < .10$) behaviors; however, there were no reciprocity

effects for inconsiderate, norm violating, instrumentally supportive, and gracious behaviors ($rs <$ .17, $ps > .15$).

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Insert Table 32 About Here

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A set of eight OLS regressions were performed for both men and women to determine what behaviors were reciprocated by the partner at time two based on the individual's behavior at time one--both direct and indirect reciprocity effects. More specifically, these analyses examined whether the individual changed their frequency of behavior as a function of the individual's behavior at time one. The individual's average frequency of contact, length of relationship, and the partner's report of the individual's eight relationship behaviors measured at time one were examined as predictors of each of the individual's report of the partner's behaviors at time two. These analyses largely suggested that direct reciprocity effects disappeared after partialling variability due to other behaviors (see table 33).

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Insert Table 33 About Here

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The partner's time one behavior (used as the dependent variable at time two) was also entered as a predictor to partial spurious effects due to autocorrelation. The implication of these analyses is that the individual's behavior at time one is related to the partner changing his/her previous pattern of behavior in response to the individual's behavior, it is important to partial the partner's time one (or baseline) of behavior. However, analyses were nearly identical when partialling or not partialling the partner's time one behavior. The three instances where additional significant findings occurred when the partner's time one behavior was not partialled are mentioned below.

Although these analyses could have been performed examining the partner's perception of the

individual's behavior at time two as a function of the individual's perception of the partner's behavior at time one, all analyses in the paper have examined the individual as the party who is acted upon. For the sake of parsimony, only the indivdual's behavior at time one is considered to be related to the partner's behavior at time two. Performing analyses using the partner's behavior at time one as a predictor of the individual's behavior at time two would also provide redundant information. More specifically, both regression analyses are based on the same correlation matrices, and only the shared variability that is partialled differs depending on whose behavior at time one is examined as a predictor of whose behavior at time two.

Male and female partners were not more likely to be seen as reciprocating bad habit behaviors as a result of individuals being seen as having a high frequency of bad habit behaviors at time one ($ps > .30$). Only male partners were seen as becoming (marginally) more likely to engage in bad habit behaviors at time two the more female individuals were seen as engaging in intrusive behaviors ($\beta = .22$, $p = .107$) and failing to engage in gracious behaviors ($\beta = -.34$, $p = .011$). Inconsiderate behaviors were not likely to be seen as being reciprocated by the partner when the individual was seen as engaging in a high frequency of inconsiderate behaviors at time one ($ps > .50$). Male partners were seen as being more likely to reciprocate inconsiderate at time two the more female individuals were seen as engaging in bad habit behaviors at time one ($\beta = .34$, $p = .025$) and failing to engage in gracious behaviors at time one ($\beta = -.42$, $p = .002$).

Partners were not seen as being more likely to reciprocate intrusive behaviors at time one as a function of individuals being seen as engaging in intrusive behaviors at time one ($ps > .25$); however, in analyses not partialling the partner's time one behavior, there were marginal effects suggesting that partners were likely to reciprocate individuals' intrusive behaviors for both male ($\beta = .28$, $p = .091$) and female ($\beta = .33$, $p = .071$) partners. Perceptions of male partner bad habit behaviors at time one were related to female individuals being seen as marginally less intrusive at time two ($\beta = -.26$, $p = .101$). Female individuals who were seen as engaging in a low frequency

of emotionally supportive ($\beta = -.25$, $p = .046$) and gracious ($\beta = -.21$, $p = .080$) behaviors at time one were seen as being marginally more likely to have partners who engaged in more intrusive behaviors at time two. Male individuals who were seen as engaging in a high frequency of norm violating behavior at time one were seen as being marginally more likely to have partners who engaged in a high frequency of norm violating behaviors at time two ($\beta = .28$, $p = .070$); however, a similar finding was not observed for perceptions of female individuals at time one ($\beta = -.18$, $p = .243$). A differential effect was observed for perceptions of male and female partner norm violations at time two, with perceptions of bad habit behaviors at time one being related to partners being seen as engaging in more norm violations at time two ($\beta = .36$, $p = .020$) and to partners being seen as engaging in fewer norm violations at time two ($\beta = -.31$, $p = .057$).

Perceptions of female partners at time two suggested women were likely to reciprocate male individuals' perceived instrumentally supportive behavior at time one ($\beta = .39$, $p = .031$); however, a similar pattern of results has not observed for male partners at time two ($\beta = .15$, $p = .238$). Male partners at time two were perceived as being more likely to engage in instrumentally supportive behaviors when their partners were seen as engaging in fewer gracious behaviors at time one ($\beta = -.28$, $p = .037$). Perceptions of male partners at time two suggested men were likely to reciprocate female individuals' perceived emotionally supportive behaviors at time one ($\beta = .42$, $p = .010$); however, female partners at time two were not seen as reciprocating males' time one emotionally supportive behaviors ($\beta = -.04$, $p = .812$). Female partners at time two were seen as engaging in more emotionally supportive behaviors the more males were seen as engaging in instrumentally supportive behaviors at time one ($\beta = .33$, $p = .059$). Further, female partners at time two were seen as engaging in more emotionally supportive behaviors when men engaged in fewer norm violating behaviors at time one in analyses not partialling partners time one behavior ($\beta = -.37$, $p = .029$)

Perceptions of male and female partners at time two suggested partners were not seen as

reciprocating individuals' perceived time one gracious behaviors ($ps > .25$). Male partners were seen as being more likely to engage in gracious behaviors at time two the more female individuals were seen as engaging in marginally more emotionally supportive behaviors ($\beta = .29$, $p = .065$); whereas perceptions of female partners at time two suggested women were seen as engaging in marginally more gracious behaviors the more male individuals were seen as engaging in emotionally supportive behaviors at time one ($\beta = .39$, $p = .027$). Perceptions of female partners at time two suggested women reciprocated men's perceived time one sexually affectionate behaviors ($\beta = .35$, $p = .051$); however, a corresponding pattern of results was not found for perceptions of male partners at time one ($\beta = -.04$, $p = .765$). Male partners at time two were seen as being (marginally) more likely to engage in sexually affectionate behaviors the more female individuals were seen as engaging in bad habit ($\beta = .41$, $p = .009$) and emotionally supportive ($\beta = .26$, $p = .064$) behaviors at time one; whereas female partners at time two were seen as being marginally more likely to engage in sexually affectionate behaviors at time two the more that male individuals were seen as engaging in instrumentally supportive behaviors at time one ($\beta = .29$, $p = .103$).

Several notable patterns emerged in these analyses. Partners often did not reciprocate individuals' negative behavior in kind. A lack of gracious behaviors by female individuals was related to male partners engaging in more of all of the negative behaviors with the exception of intrusiveness. There was more reciprocation in kind for positive behaviors, with male partners reciprocating female individual emotionally supportive behaviors, and female partners reciprocating male individuals' instrumentally supportive and gracious behaviors. Also, female partners were found to engage in more emotionally supportive behaviors at time two the more male individuals engaged in instrumentally supportive behaviors at time one. The later findings provide support for Ickes (1993) fundamental gender paradox.

*Behavior as a Predictor of Satisfaction*

Cross-sectional HLMs were performed to examine the cross-sectional relations between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's relationship satisfaction. Eight analyses were performed (one for each behavior) at both times one and two, regressing satisfaction on relationship behavior(s), and interaction terms between gender and relationship behavior(s). These analyses were performed two different ways: 1) examining men's and women's perceptions of the partner's behavior in eight separate analyses, and 2) examining both men's and women's perceptions of all partner behaviors in one analysis (see table 34).

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Insert Table 34 About Here

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Thus, the first analysis strategy does not partial shared variance with other behaviors, and the second analysis strategy partials variability shared with other behaviors. All variables were entered simultaneously in these analyses. These analyses were also performed by entering positive and negative behaviors in two separate analyses; however, these results were similar to the analysis entering all behaviors on the same step. These analyses appear in appendix C out of an interest in presenting a coherent pattern of results in the prose. Unless noted otherwise in the text, interactions examining sex as a moderator of the relationship between individual perceptions of the partner's behavior and the individual's satisfaction were not significant ($ps > .15$).

Individual perceptions of a partner's bad habit behaviors were only (marginally) related to individual dissatisfaction in the analyses using bad habits as the only behavioral predictor at times one ($r_{ES} = -.19$, $p = .024$) and two ($r_{ES} = -.14$, $p = .094$). This effect at time two was qualified by an interaction with sex, suggesting that men became particularly dissatisfied when their female partners performed bad habit behaviors ($r_{ES} = .26$, $p = .002$). Similarly, inconsiderate behaviors were only related to individual dissatisfaction in the analyses using inconsiderate behaviors as the only behavioral predictor at times one and two ($r_{ES} < -.16$, $ps < .051$). Both analysis strategies

suggested that the partner intrusiveness was related to the individual being less satisfied at times one and two ($r_{ES}$ < -.27, $ps$ < .003). Also, more norm violating behaviors by the partner were related to the individual being less satisfied at times one and two, using both analysis strategies ($r_{ES}$ < -.22, $ps$ < .011), with the exception of the time two analysis examining all behaviors as predictors of satisfaction at time two ($r_{ES}$ = -.09, $p$ = .349).

There was a relatively consistent pattern of findings that female individuals perceiving their partners as performing more instrumentally supportive behaviors at time two led them to be more satisfied, regardless of how the data were analyzed ($r_{ES}$ > .24, $ps$ < .006). This pattern was observed at time one in the analysis using instrumentally supportive behaviors as the only behavioral predictor ($r_{ES}$ = .18, $p$ = .049); however, this finding was only a trend in the time one analysis using all behaviors as predictors ($r_{ES}$ = .14, $p$ = .109). Partner emotionally supportive ($r_{ES}$ > .38, $ps$ < .001) and sexually affectionate ($r_{ES}$ > .18, $ps$ < .035) behaviors were related to satisfaction at times one and two, regardless of how the data were analyzed.

An inconsistent pattern of results was observed for graciousness, with partner graciousness only being positively related to satisfaction in the analysis examining graciousness as the only behavioral predictor at time one ($r_{ES}$ = .19, $p$ = .022). The only other finding for graciousness was opposite that of the direction predicted, with graciousness being related to dissatisfaction in the time two analysis examining all behaviors as predictors of satisfaction ($r_{ES}$ = -.24, $p$ = .007).

*Behavioral Changes as a Cause of Changes in Satisfaction*

HLMs were estimated to determine whether the changes in the individual's reports of the partner's behavior predicted changes over time in the individual's satisfaction, estimating separate predictors and intercepts for men and women. Thus, these analyses examine whether changes in behavior cause changes in satisfaction, as opposed to examining whether behavior and satisfaction measured at the same discrete period in time are related. These analyses were performed making the same assumptions about random variation and using the same level two

structure specified in the section discussing longitudinal HLMs. As with the cross-sectional

analyses, two separate analysis strategies were employed. The first analysis strategy involved

examining each behavior separately in eight analyses, and the second set of analyses involved

entering all behaviors on the same step (see table 35). Effect sizes ($r$) and probabilities associated

with significance tests are reported for the analyses examining each behavior separately, and

differences between the two analyses, including effects that were only significant in the analysis

entering all behaviors, are reported below. These analyses were performed entering positive and

negative behaviors separately in two analyses as well; however, these results were similar to the

analysis entering all behaviors in the same analysis. As a consequence, these results are presented

in appendix C for the interested reader.

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Insert Table 35 About Here

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Men who saw their partners as increasing their bad habit behaviors ($r = -.21$, $p = .001$) and

inconsiderate behaviors ($r = -.25$, $p < .001$) were less satisfied. Women's bad habits and

inconsiderateness were unrelated to their partners' satisfaction when the effects of other behaviors

were partialed. Both men ($r = -.43$, $p < .001$) and women ($r = -.30$, $p < .001$) who saw their

partners as increasing their intrusive behaviors were less satisfied. These findings remained

significant for men's ($r = -.32$, $p < .001$) and women's ($r = -.22$, $p = .001$) satisfaction in the

analyses examining all behaviors. Similarly, men ($r = -.35$, $p < .001$) and women ($r = -.13$, $p =$

.026) seeing their partners as increasing their norm violating behaviors led them to be less

satisfied.

Women who saw their partners as increasing their instrumentally supportive behaviors became

more satisfied ($r = .35$, $p < .001$). Women were more satisfied with their relationships if they saw

their partners as increasing their gracious behaviors ($r = .18$, $p = .003$). A marginal cross-level

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interaction qualified this effect for graciousness, suggesting that this relationship between change in perceived graciousness and satisfaction was slightly stronger for women dating longer periods of time ($r = .10$, $p = .093$). Both men ($r = .23$, $p < .001$) and women ($r = .38$, $p < .001$) who saw their partners as increasing their emotionally supportive behaviors became more satisfied with their relationships. These effects remained significant for men ($r = .21$, $p = .001$) and women ($r = .21$, $p = .001$) when the effects of other behaviors were partialed. A marginal cross-level interaction qualified this finding for women, suggesting the relationship between changes in perceived emotional support and change in satisfaction was slightly stronger for women dating longer periods of time ($r = .11$, $p = .079$). Both men's ($r = .22$, $p < .001$) and women's ($r = .19$, $p = .002$) satisfaction increased the more they saw their partners' sexually affectionate behavior as increasing, but only men ($r = .19$, $p = .003$) became more satisfied if they saw their partners as increasing their sexually affectionate behaviors in the analyses examining all behaviors as predictors.

Men and women's slopes were compared for analyses examining each behavior separately as predictors of satisfaction. Although men and women both had decreases in satisfaction as a function of them perceiving their partner as increasing their intrusive and norm violating behaviors and decreasing their emotionally supportive behaviors, these relationships were stronger for men for intrusive, $t(278) = 2.52$, $p = .012$, and norm violating behaviors, $t(278) = 3.83$, $p < .001$, and stronger for women for emotionally supportive behaviors $t(278) = -2.84$, $p = .005$. These findings were not replicated in the analyses using perceptions of all behaviors as predictors of satisfaction.

Both men's ($r = -.13$, $p = .028$) and women's satisfaction ($r = -.15$, $p = .010$) decreased over the two month period examined. When partialing the effects of all behaviors, men's satisfaction was no longer found to change over the course of time ($r = -.07$, $p = .253$); and the change in women's satisfaction exhibited only a marginal decrease over the two month period examined ($r$

= -.10, *p* = .117).

*Changes in Satisfaction as a Predictor of Changes Commitment*

One HLM was posed to examine the effect of changes in the individual's satisfaction on changes in the individual's commitment using the format for HLMs outlined above (see table 36). Men (*r* = .52, *p* < .001) and women (*r* = .36, *p* < .001) became more committed to their relationship the more they were satisfied with their relationships. Although both men and women became more committed the more they were satisfied with their relationships, comparison of men's and women's slopes suggested that the relationship between satisfaction and commitment was stronger for men than for women, *t*(278) = 3.60, *p* < .001. The main effect for commitment was marginally more pronounced for men (*r* = .11, *p* = .078) and women (*r* = .11, *p* = .065) dating longer periods of time. Commitment did not exhibit an overall increase across two months for men or women (*ps* > .50). Additional analyses examining relationship costs and rewards appear in a prior section examining the discriminant validity of the RRAI (see tables 7 to 9).

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Insert Table 36 About Here

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*Partner Behavior and Commitment as Predictors of Dissolution*

Logistic regressions were used to examine whether commitment and relationship behaviors predicted relationship dissolution for the 15 out of 70 relationships that dissolved. The first analyses performed regressed relationship dissolution (coded as 1 = dissolved and 0 = intact) on average frequency of contact, relationship length, and individual commitment scale scores at both times one and two. These analyses were performed separately for men and women, as men and women do not represent independent observations (see table 37). Women who were more committed to their relationships at time two were less likely to be in relationships that dissolved (*B*$_{exp}$ = .52, *r* = -.24, *p* = .013). Similarly, men who were more committed to their relationships at

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time two were marginally less likely to be in relationships that dissolved ($B_{exp} = .73$, $r = -.07$, $p = .126$). Commitment at time one was not related to dissolution. These models accurately predicted dissolution 75% of the time for men and 79% of the time for women.

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Insert Table 37 About Here

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A second set of logistic regressions were performed that was identical to the first logistic regressions; however, individuals reports of the partner's behavior at both times one and two were also entered as predictors of relationship dissolution (see table 38). These models predicted dissolution accurately 88% of the time for men and 94% of the time for women. When individual reports of the partner's behavior at each time period were also entered into the model, men's and women's commitment at time one ($ps > .23$) and time two ($ps > .35$) did not predict dissolution.[6] Models adding behaviors as predictors of relationship dissolution produced a significant improvement in model fit for the women's model, $\chi^2(16) = 29.54$, $p = .021$, but not for the men's model, $\chi^2(16) = 20.56$, $p = .196$. Women seeing their partners as engaging in more bad habit behaviors at time one made their relationships marginally less likely to dissolve ($B_{exp} = .16$, $r = -.11$, $p = .094$). Men seeing their partners as engaging in more inconsiderate behaviors at time one led their relationships to be marginally more likely to dissolve ($B_{exp} = 3.05$, $r = .13$, $p = .069$). Women seeing their partners as engaging in more intrusive behaviors at time two ($B_{exp} = 48.00$, $r = .08$, $p = .114$) and more norm violating behaviors at time one ($B_{exp} = 2674.49$, $r = .08$, $p = .116$) made their relationships marginally more likely to dissolve. Men seeing their partners as engaging in more emotionally supportive behaviors at time one ($B_{exp} = .28$, $r = -.12$, $p = .084$) and women seeing their partners engaging in more emotionally supportive behaviors at time two ($B_{exp} = .11$, $r = -.15$, $p = .061$) led their relationships to be marginally less likely to dissolve. Instrumentally supportive, gracious, and sexually affectionate behaviors were unrelated to relationship

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dissolution for both men and women ($ps > .10$).

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Insert Table 38 About Here

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**STUDY 3**

**DISCUSSION**

The present series of three studies addressed the 30 hypotheses proposed in the paper. To present a coherent pattern of results across these three studies, an integrative discussion is presented. A summary of these results and an assimilation of these findings with the existing body of literature are presented for the following six broad questions that were addressed in the paper: 1) Do individuals present themselves as better than they really are (romantic inflation)?; 2) Does less motivation to present a positive impression predict more negative and less positive behavior?; 3) Does commitment predict a reduction in motivation; 4) What behaviors are seen as changing over time?; 4) What behaviors are reciprocated by partners?; 5) Do the behaviors under investigation (social allergies and social enrichments) predict relationship satisfaction?; and 6) Do the data support the predictions of the investment model? These sections are ordered according the temporal sequence in relationships in which they are presumed to occur.

*Do Individuals Present Themselves as Better than They Really Are? - Romantic Inflation*

Individuals were more likely to romantically inflate in their relationships, by presenting themselves as more emotionally supportive and more sexually affectionate than they would present themselves later in relationship (positive face). Men were more likely to indicate that they were more likely to let partner's know that they would, "behave as they wished," early in relationships (negative face). High negative face men were more intrusive and less emotionally supportive later in relationships, suggesting that these men were not deceptive about their future behavior.

Conversely, the opposite of being high in negative face (or control of negative face) could be

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considered a form of deception; however, all statistically significant relationships between the negative face dimension and behavior suggested that control of negative face was related to engaging in fewer negative behaviors and more positive behaviors later in relationships, suggesting that such control remained constant. The negative face dimension does reflect the way in which one manages their impressions, as individuals may use negative face as a means of maintaining autonomy and being assertive in relationships. These findings are similar to the finding that men are seen as being more dominant (Buss, 1989; Spence, et. al., 1979). However, both men and women who were high on the negative face dimension were more likely to perform norm violating behaviors. Thus, the positive face dimension seems to reflect deception about one's future behavior in relationships, whereas the negative face dimension seems to reflect honesty about one's future uncivil behavior in relationships.

Men who were higher in the positive face dimension were less likely to engage in emotionally supportive behaviors and both men and women who were high on the positive face dimension were less likely to engage in emotionally supportive behaviors. Thus, individuals may be particularly deceptive about these behaviors earlier in relationships, as these were the positive behaviors that were found to be the most consequential for relationship outcomes. These findings are similar to predictions and findings derived from the expectation discordance model of deception, inasmuch as individuals present themselves as more similar to a potential desirable partner on love attitudes (Druen, et. al., 1996; Rowatt, et. al, 1999). Men who were higher on the true face dimension were more likely to engage in bad habit behaviors, but both men and women who were higher in true face were more likely to perform instrumentally supportive behaviors.

*Does Less Motivation to Present a Positive Impression Predict More Negative and Less Positive Behavior?*

Both men and women were found to increase self-assertion and control, which likely explains why conflict has been found to increase over the course of time in dating relationships (Berg &

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McQuinn, 1986). Only men were found to decrease their disclosure over time. Men were found to be higher in their levels of increasing control and decreasing disclosure; however, women were higher in their levels of increasing self-assertion and decreasing effort. These gender differences in levels of post romantic motivation correspond to negative sex-role stereotypes for behavior (Buss, 1989; Spence, et. al., 1979), with men's motivations reflecting dominance (men were higher on increased control) and women's motives reflecting negative emotionality (women were higher on increased self-assertion). The finding that men were higher in decreased disclosure again reflects the negative impact men's norm violating behaviors have on women's relationship outcomes. Men were found to increase self-assertion, but their increase in self-assertion was not large enough in magnitude ($r = .12$) for a significant increase in cross sex-role stereotypic inconsiderate behaviors to be observed, due to a lack of power to detect this small effect ($1 - \beta = .30$).

Relatively consistent support was found for the predicted relationships between post romanticism and the negative behaviors measured by the RRAI. Both genders confirmed the prediction that decreased effort led to a higher perceived frequency of bad habit behaviors, that increased control led to a higher perceived frequency of intrusive behaviors, and that decreased disclosure led to a higher perceived frequency of norm violating behaviors. There was also marginal support suggesting that increased self-assertion was related to a higher perceived frequency of inconsiderate behaviors.

Little support was found linking the post-romantic motives to the positive behaviors. Two explanations exist for these findings. First, there was little evidence suggesting that actual changes occurred in positive behaviors over the course of dating relationships; thus, there was little variation in positive behaviors to be explained by the post-romantic motives. Second, the motives specified may only be appropriate for explaining changes in negative behaviors. Most of the studies reviewed have suggested that positive behaviors do not decrease over the course of

time until relationships reach further stages of interdependence, such as marriage (e.g., Huston & Vangelisti, 1991). Thus, the post romantic motives may be responsible for explaining changes over time in positive behavior; however, further exploration of the relationships between the post romantic motives and positive relationship behaviors in marital relationships is needed before firm conclusions can be drawn that the post romantic motives are *unrelated* to positive relationship behaviors.

*Causes of Reduced Motivation*

There were few findings supporting the predicted relationships between commitment and post romanticism. Findings counter to predictions suggested that individuals who were more committed initially to their relationships had partners who were less controlling. Behaviors related to motives to control the partner, such as complaining and criticizing, are related to negative outcomes (Gottman & Levenson, 1999); therefore, partners may have become less motivated to control the relationship partner in an effort to maintain the relationship. Supporting this interpretation, lower levels of intrusive behaviors were one of the strongest predictors of relationship satisfaction in the present study.

Studies typically conceptualize a low level of commitment as a predictor of dissolution, and that a high level of commitment is predicted by few costs and a high level of rewards in a relationship (e.g., Rusbult, 1981). The present pattern of results is largely consistent with this conceptualization, but a different direction of causality was proposed. A high level of individual commitment to the relationship was a predictor of the individual's relationship costs (in the form of a relationship partner not increasing their post romantic motivation). The proposed effect is specifically longitudinal in nature, and may be contingent upon a time lag. More specifically, an individual's increase in commitment between two points in time may not directly correspond to a partner's decrease in post romantic motives between those same points in time. The logic of this proposal is that individuals would likely not have an increase in commitment by the second point

in time if their partner had an increase in post romantic motivation by the same second point in time. This might be better explained by a lagged effect using three points in time, with individuals increasing their commitment between the first two periods of time being related to partners increasing their post romantic motivations between the last two periods of time, as partners know that individuals have already increased their commitment.

*Gender Differences in Behavior*

Consistent evidence was found across all three studies that men were seen as engaging in more bad habit behaviors, and that women were seen as engaging in more inconsiderate behaviors. Contrary to other findings in the literature, women were seen as engaging in more intrusive behaviors than men. Also, consistent evidence was found across studies one and two that men engaged in more sexually affectionate behaviors; however, this finding was not replicated in either the time one or time two longitudinal samples. The lack of replication is likely due to study one focusing on stereotypes about couples (as opposed to actual behavior), and study two focusing on primarily early dating couples, whereas study three focused on real behavior in a more representative sample of dating lengths. One finding unique to study three was that men were seen as engaging in more instrumentally supportive behaviors at time one.

These findings are similar to the findings of Buss (1989), as men were seen as engaging in more boorish behaviors and women were seen as engaging in more inconsiderate behaviors; however, no evidence was found suggesting that men engaged in more intrusive (dominant) behaviors. These perceptions largely replicated sex role stereotypes about men and women's negative behaviors (Spence et. al., 1979). Contrary to negative stereotypes suggesting men tend to be more dominant, women were perceived as engaging in more intrusive behaviors than men in studies one and two. This finding does correspond to evidence that women are more likely to initiate verbal conflict than men (Gottman & Levenson, 1992).

The finding that men engaged in more instrumentally supportive behaviors at time one in pilot

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study one is consistent with Ickes' (1993) fundamental gender paradox, suggesting that men may have engaged in sex-role stereotypic instrumentally supportive behaviors earlier in relationships to gain the affections of a dating partner. The finding that women were likely to reciprocate men's instrumentally supportive behaviors with sex-role stereotypic emotionally supportive behaviors also supports this interpretation. The finding that men were seen as engaging in more sexually affectionate behaviors corresponds to evidence that men initiate sexual activity more frequently (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991) and dating roles prescribe men as the initiators of sexual activity (Rose & Frieze, 1993). These findings were likely not replicated in study three, as these roles predominately apply to the early stages of dating relationship--studies one and two primarily focused on dating lengths that were short in duration, but study three included a better representation of both short and long length relationships.

*Changes Over Time in Behavior*

Studies one and three suggested that men were seen as increasing their bad habit behaviors over the course of time; however, women were also seen as increasing their bad habit behaviors. The results of study three possibly clarify these results, suggesting that both men and women in relationships of shorter duration were seen as increasing their bad habit behaviors. Nevertheless, men had a more precipitous increase in bad habit behaviors. Only study three found the predicted gender by time effect for inconsiderate behaviors for couples of shorter dating lengths, suggesting that women were seen as increasing their inconsiderate behaviors and men were seen as not exhibiting any change in their inconsiderate behaviors. Shorter length dating couples confirmed the predicted relations, as men were seen as increasing sex-role stereotypic negative behaviors and women were seen as increasing their sex-role stereotypic negative behaviors. These findings further clarify prior findings that men perform bad habit behaviors more frequently and women perform inconsiderate behaviors more frequently (Buss, 1989).

Only study one suggested that both men and women increased their intrusive behaviors;

however, studies two and three that examined actual behavior, largely did not replicate these findings. This suggests stereotypes of typical couples differ from actual behavior. This is likely due to participants responding about their past relationship experiences, as opposed to actual relationships. As participants in study one were predominately underclassmen (college freshmen and sophomores), the majority of their recollections of prior relationships were relationships that dissolved, and conflict has been shown to increase in dating relationships that dissolve (Lloyd & Cate, 1985; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993).

The longitudinal data suggested that only women were seen as increasing their frequency of intrusive behaviors between times one and two. This finding corresponds to prior evidence suggesting women were more likely to initiate conflict escalation sequences (Gottman & Levenson, 1992). In addition, women have been found to be willing to engage in indirect aggression towards men (Richardson and Green, 1999), as well as more overt forms of aggression (Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980). The finding that women increased their intrusiveness is likely due to differences in the way conflict and intrusive behaviors were operationalized in past studies and the present series of studies. Conflict was defined primarily by verbally conflict in past studies. The intrusiveness construct includes components of verbal conflict, but the intrusiveness construct also includes more subtle behaviors whose aim is to control the partner (e.g., being sarcastic towards the partner) and behaviors that reflect physical aggression towards the partner.

Examination of changes for each of the intrusiveness items for women in study three suggested that women were only seen by their partners as marginally increasing the frequency with which they demanded that a partner do something ($r = .13$, $p = .118$); however, women were seen by their partners as increasing the frequency with which they pushed or hit their partners ($r = .20$, $p = .017$). These were the only significant individual item changes for the intrusiveness scale, suggesting men see women as increasing these more severe forms of intrusiveness. In sum, the

discrepancy in the pattern of results is likely due to the present studies using a measure that includes many facets of intrusiveness, whereas prior measures have focused primarily on verbal conflict.

Only women were seen as increasing their norm violating behaviors in study three. Decreased disclosure was related to a higher level of norm violating behavior for both men and women; however, men were higher in decreased disclosure and only men were more likely to become decreasingly disclosing over time. The pattern of findings suggest that women were less deceptive about their norm violating behaviors, whereas men were deceptive and came to increasingly hide their norm violating behaviors from their partners. This likely lead to the perception that women were engaging in more norm violating behaviors than men, because women were more likely to disclose their norm violations than men.

Inconsistent results were found for emotional support. The results from study one suggested that the average man and average woman were believed to increase their emotional support; however, these findings were not replicated in studies two and three, which used reports on actual behavior, as opposed to stereotypes. The findings from study one may be a better reflection of relationship ideals, which likely include the notion that emotional support should increase over the course of time. This interpretation is supported by the finding that love (Braiker & Kelley, 1979), which is similar to the emotional support construct used in the present series of studies, increased over the course of time only among couples who had an increase in interdependence. Contrary to study one findings, women were actually seen as marginally decreasing their emotionally supportive behaviors. The pattern of results in study three corresponds to Berg and McQuinn (1986), who also followed couples for a short period of time. Berg and McQuinn (1986) also found that emotional support [operationalized as the Braiker and Kelley (1979) Love Scale in their study] decreased over time, and as will be discussed shortly, these findings were primarily due to couples whose relationships dissolved having lower levels of emotional support.

Consistent with other studies, when all study three couples were examined, there was little evidence to suggest that the frequency of positive behaviors changed over the course of time among dating couples (Berg & McQuinn, 1986; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1993). The present study does not provide any evidence suggesting that partners are less motivated to present a positive impression of themselves, or that partners present a less positive impression of themselves in relationships that do not dissolve. There was not sufficient power to detect significant changes over time in the positive behaviors examined for either changes over two months ($1 - \beta_M = .23$), or the interaction between changes over two months and relationship length, representing the combined effects of longitudinal change and cross-sectional differences ($1 - \beta_M = .14$), based on average effect sizes. However, power is a function of the magnitude of an effect, and power is smaller for smaller magnitude effects (Cohen, 1988). It should also be noted that the intra-class correlation was extremely large for analyses examining changes over time in positive behaviors ($\rho_M = .25$), which decreases the magnitude of detectable effects (Murray, 1998). In this case, the ICC largely reflects the proportion of variability accounted for by autocorrelation at level one. ICCs of the magnitude observed are common in longitudinal studies where autocorrelation exists at level one (see Diggle, Liang, & Zeger, 1994).

Nevertheless, the present sample sizes were sufficient to detect a small to medium sized effect ($r = .17$) with acceptable power ($1 - \beta = .80$), and sufficient power to detect small effects ($r = .12$) that are just significant ($1 - \beta = .50$). Thus, this power analysis suggests that there is reasonable evidence to conclude that changes in positive behaviors are relatively small among dating populations (dating up to 40 months), whereas changes in negative behaviors among these populations tend to be larger. It appears that decreases in positive behaviors are more likely to occur when couples reach further stages of interdependence, as only married relationships that do not dissolve have been found to exhibit decreases in positivity (Huston et. al., 2002; Huston & Vangelisti, 1991). Huston and colleagues (2002) found large decreases in love, responsiveness,

and affectional expression among married couples. *Rs* ranged between a low of .51 for love to a high of .69 for affectional expression (based on table one), and there was sufficient power (1 - $\beta$ = .99) in his study to detect these effects with a relatively small sample of couples (*dfs* = 122 to 145).

One possible explanation for why negative behaviors change in their frequency of occurrence in dating relationships, but positive relationships do not change in their frequency of occurrence in dating relationships, may have to do with the reinforcement value of the negative and positive behaviors examined. More specifically, there is likely no reinforcement for self control (refraining from negative behaviors) in dating relationships, but the individual is likely to reinforce the partner's positive behaviors. Thus, the partner's negative behavior is not reinforced (and presumably less likely to be punished earlier in relationships); therefore, it continues to increase in frequency of occurrence. By contrast, the partner's positive behavior continues to occur, because it continues to be reinforced. This explanation is consistent with the finding that positive behaviors decrease in marriage, as positive reinforcement becomes less rewarding from those that already evaluate us positively, according to the gain-loss hypothesis (Aronson & Linder, 1965).

*Reciprocated Behavior by the Partner*

Contrary to other studies in the literature that have found relationship partners to reciprocate a partner's negative behavior (e.g., Gottman, 1994; Gottman & Levenson, 1992), there was no evidence suggesting that partners reciprocated negative behaviors in kind or that partner's reciprocated negative behaviors in escalating conflict sequences. The differences in findings are likely due to differences in the way data were collected. Study three examined whether the individual's behavior reported in the past two months predicted the partner's behavior over the course of the next two months, whereas studies finding reciprocated negativity and escalation in conflict have relied on examining sequential coding of behaviors occurring in interactions.

Clearly, the former examined behavior that was reciprocated after a considerable time lag, and the later examined behavior that was reciprocated immediately. More specifically, examining reciprocated behavior that occurs two months later does not reflect immediate reciprocation of behavior, but rather, more global patterns of reciprocation in the relationship

These global patterns of reciprocation instead suggested that men reciprocated negativity in the absence of gracious behaviors by their partners. Fewer gracious behaviors by women led men to engage in more bad habit, inconsiderate, and norm violating behaviors. The absence of women doing special things for their partner (e.g., planning romantic evenings, wearing sexy underwear) may have been interpreted by men as a lack of investment in the relationship and consequently, as a lack of positive affect. A lack of positive affect by women is perceived as hostility by men (Gaelick et al., 1985), which may have led men to engage in more negative behaviors.

Positive behaviors were also reciprocated in relationships, with men being found to reciprocate women's emotionally supportive behaviors, and women were found to reciprocate men's instrumentally supportive and gracious behaviors. Women also reciprocated emotional support for men's instrumentally supportive behaviors. These findings support Ickes' (1993) fundamental paradox, inasmuch as the theory proposes that in the beginning of relationships, attraction tends to be based on men and women enacting roles that correspond to traditional sex-role stereotypes, but later, it is more adaptive for men to and women to adopt roles that contain components of both male and female sex-role stereotypes. Traditional sex-role stereotypes place men in the role of task-leader in the relationship and these roles place women in the role of socio-emotional leader of the relationship. As the majority of the relationships did not dissolve in the present study, relationships took on a greater pattern of sex-role stereotypic adoption, as men reciprocated women's prior emotionally supportive behaviors and women reciprocated men's prior instrumentally supportive behaviors. There was additional evidence that traditional sex-role stereotypes were enacted, as men likely engaged in instrumentally supportive behaviors to gain

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the affections of their partners, as women reciprocated men's instrumentally supportive behaviors with emotionally supportive behaviors.

*Behavior as a Predictor of Satisfaction*

Consistent results were found across studies two and three suggesting that both men and women were less satisfied the more they saw their partners as engaging in intentional intrusive and norm violating behaviors. Further, study three suggested that both men and women became increasingly dissatisfied with their relationships if their partners increased their frequency of norm violating and intrusive behavior. These findings replicate the finding that both men and women who make the attribution that a partner's negative behavior is intentional (operationalized as blameworthiness) were more likely to be dissatisfied with their relationships (Bradbury & Fincham, 1992). Norm violating behaviors have been found to be related to outcomes in relationships, as both men and women have been found to be more likely to dissolve relationships if their partners engaged in norm violating behaviors (Amato & Rogers, 1997). Both men and women have also been found to become increasingly dissatisfied with their relationships when intrusiveness (operationalized as verbal conflict) increased in their relationships (Gottman & Levenson, 1999).

Studies two and three suggested that primarily men were less satisfied the more they saw their partners as engaging in non-personally directed negative behaviors. More specifically, men were less satisfied if they saw their partners as engaging in male sex-role stereotypic bad habit behaviors (or cross-sex-role stereotypic behaviors) and female sex-role stereotypic inconsiderate behaviors. It was also found that perceived increases in these behaviors contributed to increasing dissatisfaction for men. These replicate prior findings that men find women's inconsiderate behaviors to be particularly aversive (Buss, 1989), and that these behaviors are related to relationship outcomes, inasmuch as higher frequencies of inconsiderate behaviors by women made relationships more likely to dissolve (Buss, 1989).

It is interesting to note that increases in women's cross sex-role stereotypic behaviors led men to become increasingly dissatisfied, but there was no evidence to suggest increases in men's cross-sex-role stereotypic behaviors led women to become more dissatisfied with their relationships. The findings for women's behavior replicate findings that women who perform masculine behaviors tend to be evaluated negatively (Costrich, et. al., 1975), but do not replicate findings that men who engage in feminine behaviors tend to be evaluated more negatively (Zillman, et. al., 1986). The difference in findings is likely due to the study three examining predominately over-emotional and moody behaviors, whereas Zillman and his colleagues (1986) predominately examined the absence of a dominance response.

Fairly consistent evidence was found across studies two and three suggesting men and women were more satisfied with their relationships the more they saw their partners as engaging in emotionally supportive behaviors and men were more satisfied the more their partners engaged in sexually affectionate behaviors. The findings of the study three also suggested that increases in the frequency of the aforementioned partner behaviors led to increases in the individual's satisfaction. These findings replicate those of Huston and Vangelisti (1991), that spouses were more satisfied with their relationships the more their partners engaged in affectionate behaviors (similar to emotional support) and husbands were more satisfied the more their wives engaged in sexually interested behaviors (similar to sexually affectionate behaviors).

*Investment Model Predictions*

An increase in satisfaction was related to an increase in commitment in study three, as predicted by the investment model (Rusbult, 1983). Men's and women's lack of commitment to the relationship at time two exhibited small relationships with dissolution, as is also predicted by the investment model; however, these relationships did not emerge when shared variability with the behavioral frequencies measured by the RRAI was partialed. The small effects observed linking commitment to dissolution in study three were likely due to commitment not exhibiting

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change in the two months couples were followed. As a consequence, dissolution was only predicted by commitment at time two, which is a more proximate predictor, and time one commitment (which would suggest a change in commitment predicting dissolution) was overshadowed by time two commitment.

Women's inconsiderate behaviors have been found to elicit disgust by partners (Buss, 1989) and to be negatively related to marital outcomes (satisfaction) in prior investigations (Buss, 1991). Men engaging in more norm violating behaviors at time one and women engaging in more inconsiderate behaviors at time two led relationships to be more likely to dissolve.[7] Men's norm violating behaviors leading to dissolution replicate prior findings suggesting women see men as performing norm violations more frequently than men see women men as performing norm violations (Amato & Rogers, 1997). These norm violating behaviors by men have also been found to be related to women being more likely to dissolve their relationship (Amato & Rogers, 1997). Norm violating behaviors (e.g., not being responsible about a job, drinking to excess) by men may be interpreted by women as a lack of willingness to perform traditional instrumental roles, which has been shown to be related to men being evaluated negatively (Costrich et. al., 1975) and being evaluated as an unattractive potential dating partner (Ickes, 1993; Zillman, et. al., 1986).

A differential effect by gender was found, suggesting that men engaging in emotionally supportive behaviors at time one, and women engaging in more emotionally supportive behaviors at time two led to a greater likelihood of couples staying together. Emotional supportiveness is clearly important in relationships, as Baxter (1986) found a lack of supportiveness as the third most recently cited reason for the dissolution of dating relationships; and supportiveness is related to fewer disagreements (McGonagle, et. al., 1992), which are related to dissolution (e.g., Gottman & Levenson, 1992). The differential finding for the genders is likely due to men interpreting women's lack of positive emotionality from their partners as an expression of hostility (Gaelick,

et. al., 1985). Thus, if men perceived their partners as engaging in few emotionally supportive behaviors earlier in relationships, they likely see their partners as being hostile, and the relationship becomes more likely to dissolve. Women appeared to be more affected by current perceptions of partners' emotionally supportive behavior.

Counter to predictions, men engaging in more bad habit behaviors led couples to be more likely to stay together. Examination of affect experienced when men perform bad habit behaviors multiplied by the frequency of bad habit behaviors suggest women do not become annoyed with men's repetition of men's bad habit behaviors, as these behaviors were unrelated to relationship outcomes (Cunningham, et. al., 2003). These findings may be due to this study primarily examining early dating women, who may not have had sufficient exposure to their partners' bad habit behaviors for bad habit behaviors to have an impact on relationship outcomes. Although a more representative sample of dating lengths were used in study three than in the data reported by Cunningham and his colleagues (2003), these findings are likely an artifact of bad habit behaviors increasing as a function of increased comfort or companionate love in the relationship.

Although no measures of companionate love or comfort were included in the study to support this interpretation, liking has been considered a proxy for companionate love in prior studies (e.g., Rubin, 1970). A slight variant of Rubin's (1970) liking scale, which asked participants to indicate how much participants felt liked by their partners supported this interpretation, as women felt more liked by their partners at time two the more their partners engaged in bad habit behaviors at time one ($r = .25$, $p = .043$).

## STUDY 3

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The evidence provided by study three largely suggests that it is negative behaviors that increase over the course of the first 40 months of relationships, whereas positive relationship behaviors appear to remain relatively stable. Nevertheless, both positive and negative behaviors appeared to be consequential, based on the degree to with which they were related to relationship outcomes, such as relationship satisfaction and relationship dissolution.

Study three examined the predictions that relationship partners may increase their frequency of negative behaviors and decrease their frequency of positive behaviors for one of two reasons-- romantic inflation and/or post romanticism. More specifically romantic inflation refers to partners being deceptive earlier in relationships, and acting less negatively and more positively than their typical behavior. Post romanticism refers to partners becoming less motivated to engage in positive behaviors and less motivated to refrain from negative behaviors over time, thus post romanticism leads to partners becoming more negative and less positive than their typical level of behavior.

Early in relationships, partners were likely to be deceptive about the most consequential positive behaviors (emotionally supportive and sexually-affectionate), as the positive face dimension was related to men becoming more deceptive about their typical frequency of emotionally supportive behaviors, and both men and women were deceptive about their typical frequency of sexually-affectionate behaviors. Differential results by gender were found for the relations between post romanticism and behavior. Women were more likely to engage in more bad habit and inconsiderate behaviors, due to them being higher in increased self-assertion and

decreased effort, respectively. Men were more likely to engage in more intrusive and norm violating behavior, due to them being higher in decreased disclosure and increased control. Thus, romantic inflation was related to positive behaviors becoming less frequent and post romanticism was related to negative behaviors becoming more frequent. It appears that partners present themselves as better than they really are in the beginning of relationships to attract a partner, but later in relationships, they become less motivated to impress the partner, and increase their frequency of negative behaviors.

Examination of changes in non-intentional negative behaviors (bad habits and inconsiderate behaviors) suggested that post romantic motivations served as a better explanation for changes in non-intentional negative behaviors than romantic inflation. The predicted pattern of gender differences emerged, suggesting that men performed bad habit behaviors more frequently and that women performed inconsiderate behaviors more frequently. Further, among early dating couples, the predicted relationships were found for these sex-role stereotypic behavior, with men increasing their frequency of bad habit behaviors over time and women increasing their frequency of inconsiderate behaviors over time. These changes were explained by men having a decrease in effort to refrain from engaging in bad habit behaviors, which consequently led these behaviors to increase in frequency over time, and women being higher than men in increased self-assertion, which led women to increase their inconsiderate behaviors over the course of time. Thus, whereas relationship partners have been found to adopt positive sex-role stereotypic roles over the course of time in relationships (Abrahams, et. al., 1978), it appears that early dating relationship partners also adopt sex-role stereotypic roles for negative behaviors over the course of time.

Replicating findings from other studies, both genders found intrusiveness, norm-violations, emotionally supportive, and sexually-affectionate behaviors to be especially consequential for relationship outcomes, as these behaviors were consistently related to relationship satisfaction, and norm violating and emotionally supportive behaviors were related to relationship dissolution.

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Men were more affected by the more minor, non-intentional behaviors of women, as men were less satisfied with their relationships the more their partners engaged in these behaviors. Sex-role stereotypic inconsiderate behaviors were likely more consequential for men, as women engaging in inconsiderate behaviors were also related to relationship dissolution. This pattern of results corresponds to men being found to hold more rigid role expectations for the opposite sex based on masculine, feminine, and androgynous men preferring feminine women, and only masculine females preferring masculine males (Kimlicka, Wakefield, James, & Goad, 1982).

Support was found for the prediction that the behaviors measured in the present study fit nicely into the investment model, with the negative and positive behaviors measured in the present study accounting for unique variability in relationship satisfaction that is not explained by prior measures of costs and rewards (Rusbult, 1983). Further, as suggested by the investment model, evidence was found replicating the predicted relationships between satisfaction and commitment, and the predicted relationships between commitment and dissolution.

At least partial support was found for 23 of the 30 hypotheses proposed, as indicated in figures one and three. Seven of the predictions were not supported by any of the studies. The two sets of predictions that were largely not supported were that positive behaviors were not found to change over time, and that there was a lack of evidence suggesting that an increase in commitment by individuals led their partners to increase their romantic inflation. Further, as there was minimal evidence that positive behaviors changed over time, little support was found for the predictions that post romanticism and romantic inflations would be related to changes over time in positive behaviors.

The lack of evidence suggesting changes over time in positive behaviors may have been due to the rather short period of time couples were followed—2 months. This is unlikely, because there were both longitudinal and cross-sectional components to the study, and there was little evidence suggesting that there was an interaction between changes over time in positive behavior and

relationship length. A more tenable explanation, based on the literature, is that positive behaviors primarily decline in frequency in marital relationships (e.g., Gottman & Levenson, 1992; Huston, et. al., 2002), as opposed to dating relationships that do not dissolve (e.g., Sprecher, 1993). The biggest limitation of the present investigation is that only two longitudinal time periods of observation were used, which precluded examination of some alternative conceptualizations of the ways in which hypotheses were tested. More specifically, measures of post romanticism focused on motivations at the present time and measures of behavior focused on the partner's behavior that occurred over the course of the past two months. Only having two time periods of observation precluded examining whether changes in post romanticism were truly related to changes in behavior. Only having two time periods of observation also did not allow for the examination of the time ordering of the relationships between romantic inflation, post romanticism, and relationship behavior. Further, longitudinal studies only using two time periods of observation are limited, inasmuch as it presumes that changes over time are linear (Rogosa, et. al., 1982).

Similarly, alternate conceptualizations of the relationships between changes in individual commitment and changes in partner post romanticism were unable to be tested with only two time periods of observation. At present, it is unclear whether these relationships do not exist and an alternate theoretical formulation of causes of post romanticism is needed, or whether there is a time lag between changes in individual commitment and changes in partner post romanticism.

One alternative explanation that can be offered for the relationships found between changes in the individual's perceptions of the partner's behavior and the individual's satisfaction is that these relationships are actually due to unprovoked disenchantment in the relationship. Individuals may become increasingly dissatisfied with the relationship over time for reasons unrelated to the partner's behavior (e.g., more positive alternatives to the relationship, loss of passion), and this low level of satisfaction may make individuals more likely to become increasingly aware, or

overestimate the frequency of, a partner's undesirable behaviors. Presumably, these individuals would likely become even more dissatisfied with the relationship at a later point in time as a result of these inaccurate perceptions, or other reasons unrelated to the partner's actual behavior. If this alternative explanation reflects reality, then a spurious relationship could emerge between changes in individual perceptions of the partner's behavior and the individual's satisfaction. Thus, this alternative explanation proposes that initial satisfaction should be the only meaningful predictor of later satisfaction, and that perceived changes in negative and positive behaviors will not account for unique variability in later satisfaction after the variability due to earlier satisfaction is removed.

A hierarchical regression (partial regression coefficient) strategy was used to examine whether perceived change in partner positive and negative behaviors accounted for unique variability in time two satisfaction that was not accounted for by time one satisfaction. Changes in negative behaviors were defined as the average frequency of partner negative behaviors at time two minus the average frequency of partner negative behaviors at time one, and changes in positive behaviors were defined as the average frequency of partner positive behaviors at time two minus the average frequency of partner positive behaviors at time one to reduce multicollinearity in the model, as well as to create a more parsimonious model. This analysis was performed by entering individual time one satisfaction as a predictor of individual time two satisfaction on step one, and entering perceived change in partner negative and positive behaviors as predictors on step two. Step one suggested that there was a positive and significant autocorrelation for satisfaction ($r =$ .38, $p < .001$). The coefficients for step two suggested that after partialling the variability due to time one satisfaction on step one, perceived change in partner behaviors still significantly predicted unique variance in time two satisfaction ($r^2 = .36$, $p < .001$), with both negative ($\beta = -$ .40, $p < .001$) and positive ($\beta = .62$, $p < .001$) behaviors uniquely predicting time two satisfaction.

Further, it was of interest whether romantic inflation and post romanticism, which would lead

an individual to feel misled by the partner, would account for additional unique variability in satisfaction. Four items assessing being misled asked individuals to indicate how misled they felt by their partners' behavior early in the relationship on a one (not at all misleading) to nine (very misleading) scale. These items assessed the four social allergy constructs, with the first item assessing bad habit behaviors (politeness, grooming, and self-control), the second item assessing insensitive behaviors (sensitivity to your needs and feelings), the third item assessing intrusive behaviors (willingness to let you be yourself), and the fourth item assessing norm violations (willingness to follow social norms). As an acceptable level of internal consistency was found for these items ($\alpha = .88$), the mean of the four items was taken. Examination of whether feeling misled accounted for unique variability in time two satisfaction was done by entering the feeling misled score as a predictor on step three in the above regression. Feeling misled accounted for unique variability in time two satisfaction, even after the effects of perceived changes in partner behavior and autocorrelation with satisfaction at time one were taken into account ($r = -.27$, $p = .009$).

Evidence from study two also found that individual perceptions of the partner's behavior and the partner's perception of there own behavior were highly correlated, suggesting individuals perceptions are related to possibly more realistic perceptions of occurrence, as opposed to being highly influenced by the individual's social allergies when reports of the partner's behavior are made. The general pattern of results suggest that it is actual change in behavior, as opposed to inaccurate perceptions or affect experienced as a function of the partner's behavior that more strongly influence changes in relationship satisfaction.

As mentioned in the methods sections of studies two and three, data were collected on affect experienced by the individual as a function of the partner's behavior. This data proved to be particularly problematic, as there were many responses that appeared to be out of range (e.g., individuals indicating that they would experience extreme positive affect if their partner pushed

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or hit them). In both studies, participants were first asked to indicate the frequency with which their partner performed the behavior, and then they were asked to indicate the affect they would experience if their partner performed the behavior on an extreme negative emotion to extreme positive emotion scale. Participants were asked to indicate hypothetical affect if their partner had not performed the behavior. The affect data were predominately problematic when behaviors did not occur. It is likely that participants could not determine their hypothetical affect if a partner had not actually performed a behavior. On average, when a partner did not perform a behavior, participants did not respond about their hypothetical affect 60% of the time for negative behaviors and 87% of the time for positive behaviors. When participants did indicate hypothetical affect for behaviors that did not occur, responses, on average, were in a counterintuitive direction 11% of the time for negative behaviors (negative partner behaviors causing positive affect) and 33% of the time for positive behaviors (negative partner behaviors causing positive affect). As the validity and reliability of these data were questionable, results from these data are not reported here.

The behavioral data appear to be reliable, as correlations were high between individual perceptions of the partner's behavior and the partner's perception of their own behavior in study two. Thus, there are corroborating reports between two participants that a similar frequency of behavior is occurring for the partner. Data were not gathered on the partner's perception of their own behavior in study three; however, the order of presentation of behavioral and affect items were similar in studies two and three.

To more fully address the questions addressed in this paper, future studies must follow dating couples for longer periods of time to make more firm conclusions about the relationship between post romanticism/romantic inflation and positive and negative relationship behaviors. An ideal scenario would be to examine couples longitudinally between dating and the first year of marriage; however, this design would be difficult, given that the vast majority of relationships are

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likely to dissolve prior to marriage. Nevertheless, such a sample may be necessary, as positive

behaviors do not appear to decrease in frequency among dating couples. Further, examination of

the relationship between changes in individual commitment and changes in partner post romantic

motivation may necessitate at least three longitudinal observations.

The present study provided support for many of the predictions made. The biggest

contribution to the body of literature on close relationships is that the social allergy model was

supported and expanded upon. Strong support was found for four distinct types of negative

relationships behaviors across three studies, representing bad habit, inconsiderate, intrusive, and

norm violating behaviors, supporting the social allergy model (Cunningham et. al., 1997). As

predicted by the social allergy model, social allergens were found to increase over the course of

time, and both gender and time period in relationship were found to predict the occurrence of and

an increase in social allergens. Both post romanticism and romantic inflations serve as tenable

explanations for why social allergens increase over the course of close relationships, especially

for men.

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[1] Hypotheses are indicated by an H in parenthesis, and are numbered.

[2] The Braiker and Kelley (1979) measure, which was only administered for a portion of the sample at time two, did not account for a significant proportion of the variability in satisfaction at time two ($r^2_{adj}$ = .03, $p$ = .108). When the RRAI measures were entered simultaneously with the Braiker and Kelley (1979) measure, the model accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in satisfaction ($r^2_{adj}$ = .52, $p$ < .001), which improved model fit, $F(8, 88)$ = 13.34, $p$ < .001. Braiker and Kelley's (1979) measure of ambivalence, conflict, and maintenance were included for part of the time two longitudinal sample ($n$ = 102). Braiker and Kelley's (1979) measure of love was not included, due to several other measures of love attitude measures already being given in the study. Partners' reports of their own Braiker and Kelley's (1979) ambivalence and conflict had small negative relationships with individuals' reports of their partners' inconsiderate behaviors ($rs$ > -.25, $ps$ < .05), and partners' reports of their own maintenance behaviors were related to individuals' reports of partners' maintenance behaviors ($r$ = .21, $p$ < .01). These unexpected relations for the Braiker and Kelley (1979) measure may be due different participants reporting on the behavioral measures being correlated. For example, male partners are reporting on their own Braiker and Kelley (1979) ambivalence, and these measures are being correlated with the female individuals' reports of their partners' inconsiderate behaviors. It is unclear what light these findings shed on the construct validity of the RRAI scales based on possible poor inter-rater reliability for two different measures. However, the RRAI behaviors showed better criterion validity than the Braiker and Kelley (1979) measure.

[3] The Braiker and Kelley measures were unrelated to satisfaction when the Braiker and Kelley measure were entered simultaneously with costs, rewards, and the accommodation measures, as

well as in the model one analyses (ps > .07).

[4] Although the regression strategy adopted addresses the hypotheses most clearly, preliminary analyses looked at these results using an ANOVA strategy. The between subject effects, or effects averaging across perceptions of male and female targets, suggested that women saw both male and female targets as performing more inconsiderate behaviors, $F(1,157) = 8.33$, p = .004, and men saw both male and female targets as performing more intrusive , $F(1,157) = 4.57$, p = .034, norm violating, $F(1,157) = 5.18$, p = .024, instrumentally supportive, $F(1,157) = 3.01$, p = .085, and affectionate, $F(1,157) = 4.97$, p = .027, behaviors. Similar to the findings of the reported analyses, both male and female targets were seen as engaging in a greater number of bad habit. $F(1,157) = 83.37$, p < .001, intrusive, $F(1,157) = 2.58$, p = .093, and sexually affectionate, $F(1,157) = 14.39$, p < .001, behaviors at twelve months in relationships relative to two months in relationships.

[5] It was initially thought that this wide range of time lags, especially time lags of shorter duration, would possibly lead to the erroneous conclusion that there were no changes over the period of time couples were followed. More specifically, it could be argued that couples with shorter time lags between times one and two would exhibit a smaller magnitude of change relative to other couples. Similarly, couples with longer time lags may exhibit a larger magnitude of change relative to other couples. This possibility was examined by calculating difference scores (time 2 - time 1) as measure of magnitude of change, and these difference scores were correlated with the time lag in days between times one and two. Time lag was unrelated to changes in post romanticism [decreased effort ($r = .02$, p = .841), increased assertion ($r = .07$, p = .439), increased control ($r = -.05$, p = .541), and decreased disclosure ($r = .05$, p = .587)], the negative relationship behaviors measured by the RRAI [bad habits ($r = -.12$, p = .167), insensitivity ($r = -.04$, p = .657), intrusiveness ($r = -.06$, p = .510), and norm violations ($r = -.12$, p = .175)], three of the four positive behaviors measured by the RRAI [emotional support ($r = -.12$, p = .194), graciousness ($r$

= -.09, $p$ = .335), and affection ($r$ = -.13, $p$ = .156)], and the two relationship outcomes assessed at times one and two [satisfaction ($r$ = -.01, $p$ = .910) and commitment ($r$ = -.01, $p$ = .879)]. There was also no evidence to suggest relationship length at time one ($r$ = -.01, $p$ = .898) and average frequency of contact across times one and two ($r$ = .07, $p$ = .403) were confounded with time lag.

There was a marginal finding for instrumental support, suggesting that time lag between times one and two was negatively related to the magnitude of changes over time on instrumentally supportive behaviors ($r$ = -.17, $p$ = .057). This finding was examined further by performing a hierarchical linear model examining changes over time in instrumental support. Separate male and female intercepts and separate male and female time change effects were examined as predictors of satisfaction at level one with average days per week spent with the partner as a predictor of each level one intercept and with relationship length and time lag as predictors of each level one time change effect. There was no evidence to suggest that time lag affected the magnitude of change over time in perceptions of men's ($r$ = -.09, $p$ = .136) or women's ($r$ = -.07, $p$ = .280) behavior. Similar to evidence to be reported later, the effects for perceptions of changes over time in men's ($r$ = .06, $p$ = .355) and women's ($r$ = .06, $p$ = .302) instrumentally supportive behaviors remained non-significant.

[6] It could be argued that these analyses are biased, due to these analyses being based on couples who completed both times one and two, when couples who were only represented by single representatives at time two were more likely to be part of relationships that dissolved. Thus, these analyses could represent analyses with predominately high commitment couples. To address this possible confound, the same analyses were re-performed using these 70 couples and all single representatives at time two who were dating between 2 and 40 months at time one. Results were nearly identical, with the analysis only examining commitment suggesting that men's and women's commitment at time two led their relationships to be less likely to dissolve (ps < .05), and again, men's and women's commitment at time one was unrelated to relationship dissolution

(ps > .45). The analyses entering individual perceptions of the partner's behavior and commitment also found that commitment was largely unrelated to the dissolution after the RRAI variables were entered simultaneously (ps > .15). Results for the RRAI variables for men and women were nearly identical.

[7] One explanation that could be offered for this finding is that women initially thought that they could change their male partners, whereas men did not hold this belief. Gender differences on an item not included on the Post Romanticism Scale were examined to explore this possibility ("I don't believe in trying to change my partner"). There was no empirical evidence to suggest that women were more likely than men to believe that they could change their partner ($r = .05$, $p = .578$); although, the correlation was in the direction of supporting this alternative explanation.

*Figure 1*

Predicted indicators of changes in relationship behavior, as well as predicted relationship outcomes in study three.
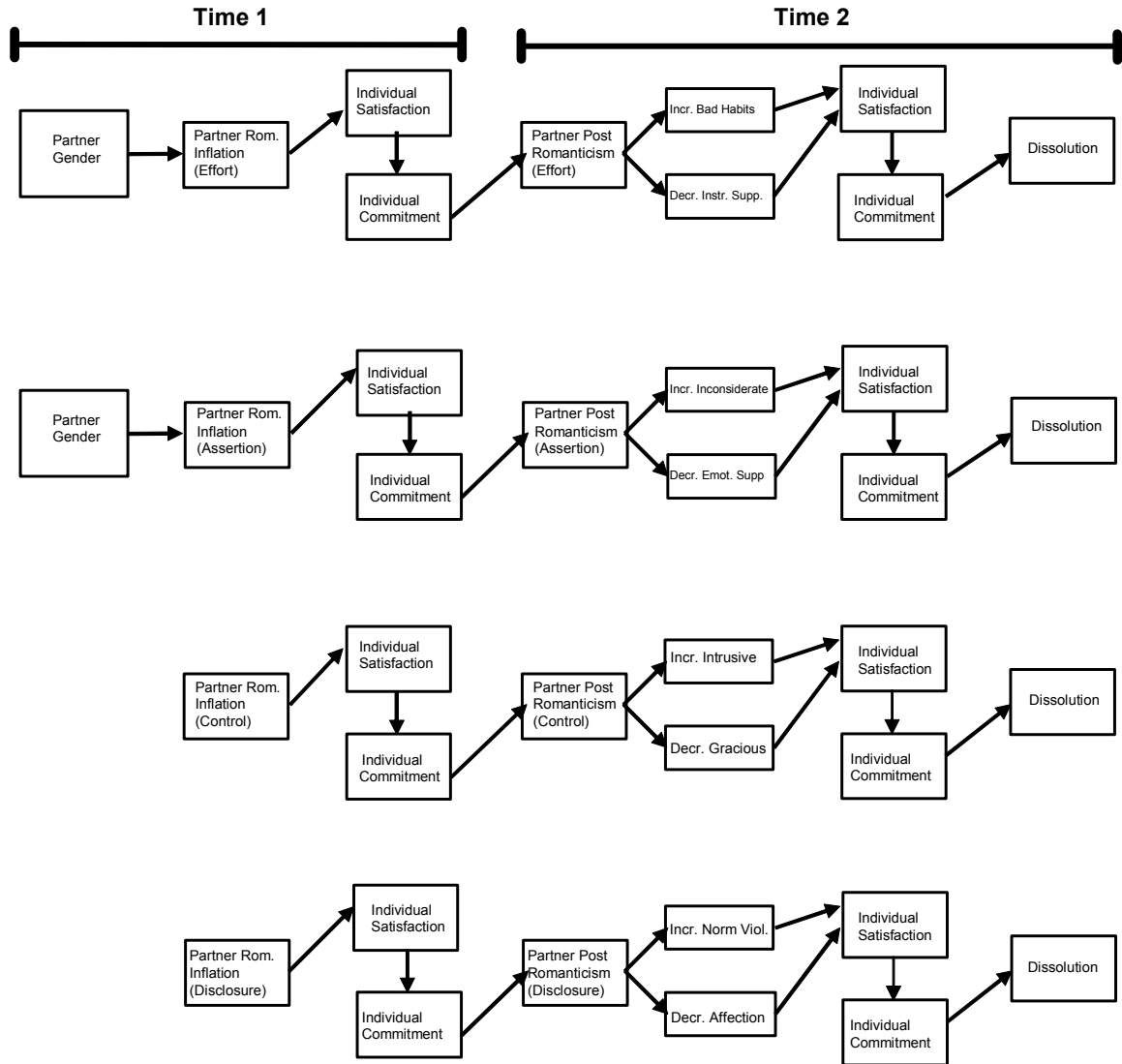
*Figure 2*

Sample data setup for two hypothetical couples followed longitudinally.

| COUPLEID | TIME | NORMVIOL | DASSAT | MIND | FIND | MLINEAR | FLINEAR | FNORMVI | MNORMVI | LENGTHC | AVGCONTC |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | -1 | 3 | 31 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 14 | 1 |
| 3 | 1 | 1 | 38 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 14 | 1 |
| 3 | -1 | 4 | 43 | 0 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 4 | 14 | 1 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 | 40 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 14 | 1 |
| 7 | -1 | 2 | 43 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | -9 | 2 |
| 7 | 1 | 4 | 42 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 0 | -9 | 2 |
| 7 | -1 | 1 | 41 | 0 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 1 | -9 | 2 |
| 7 | 1 | 3 | 45 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | -9 | 2 |

Note: The following variable names were assigned to the following constructs COUPLEID = Couple ID Number, TIME = Time of participation in the study), NORMVIOL = the individual's report of the partner's Norm Violating behavior, DASSAT = Dyadic Adjustment Satisfaction Scale, MIND = Male Intercept/Indicator, FIND = Female Intercept/Indicator, MLINEAR = male linear time, FLINEAR = female linear time, FNORMVI = male Norm Violating behavior, MNORMVI = female Norm Violating behavior, LENGTHC = centered relationship length, and AVGCONTC = centered average contact. Male norm violations are indicated as FNORMVI and female norm violations are indicated as MNORMVI, because the individual reports on their opposite sex partner's behavior. The variable time indicates whether the data were measured at time one (-1) or time two (1), as the same participant is represented more than once in a data column. Separate intercepts for men and women are created by coding the intercept for men as one for data rows containing predictors pertaining to men and zero for data rows containing predictors pertaining to women. Similarly, the intercept for women is coded as one for data rows containing predictors pertaining to women and zero for data rows containing predictors pertaining to men. Estimated intercept values for men and women represent the grand mean across time periods on the dependent measure for men and women, respectively. Independent measures are then multiplied by the male and female dummy codes, producing separate male and female predictors. The male predictor represents only the male's response for the independent measures and the female's value for the male predictor is zero. Similarly, the female predictor represents the female's response for the independent measure with the male's value for the female predictor being zero. In the present case, DAS is set up as the outcome variable, and is not multiplied by dummy codes representing gender. Centered relationship length and centered average contact are level two variables, as they are constant across the same couple observed over multiple time periods. Although length of relationship at time two is incremented by the value of the lag between times one and two, this value is nearly singular with relationship length at time one. The level one equation deals with variables that can vary across time and couple (e.g., relationship satisfaction), and the level two equation deals with predictors that are invariant across time and couples (e.g., relationship length). The level one equation contains male ($\beta_1$) and female ($\beta_2$) intercepts, a slope for the man's perception of the woman's norm violating behaviors ($\beta_3$), a slope for the woman's perception of the man's norm violating behaviors ($\beta_4$), and slopes for male ($\beta_5$) and female ($\beta_6$) time change effects. In the level one equation, *r* represents the random error that is estimated:

$$DASSAT = \beta_1(MIND) + \beta_2(FIND) + \beta_3(MNORMVI) + \beta_4(FNORMVI) + \beta_5(MLINEAR) + \beta_6(FLINEAR) + r$$

*Figure 2* (continued)

The level two equations predict both of the level one intercepts and the four level one slopes. The γs containing a second subscripted number of zero represent the intercepts of the level two equations. The γs containing a second subscripted number of one represent the slopes of the level two equations. Finally, $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$ represent that the predicted level one variable is to be estimated as a random effect. More specifically, the random errors due to multiple observations being nested within male participants and multiple observations being nested within female participants are estimated for satisfaction (or the level one intercepts):

$$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(\text{AVGCONTC}) + u_1$$
$$\beta_2 = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21}(\text{AVGCONTC}) + u_2$$
$$\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31}(\text{LENGTHC})$$
$$\beta_4 = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41}(\text{LENGTHC})$$
$$\beta_5 = \gamma_{50}$$
$$\beta_6 = \gamma_{60}$$

*Figure 3*

Summary of confirmed and partially confirmed findings in study three.
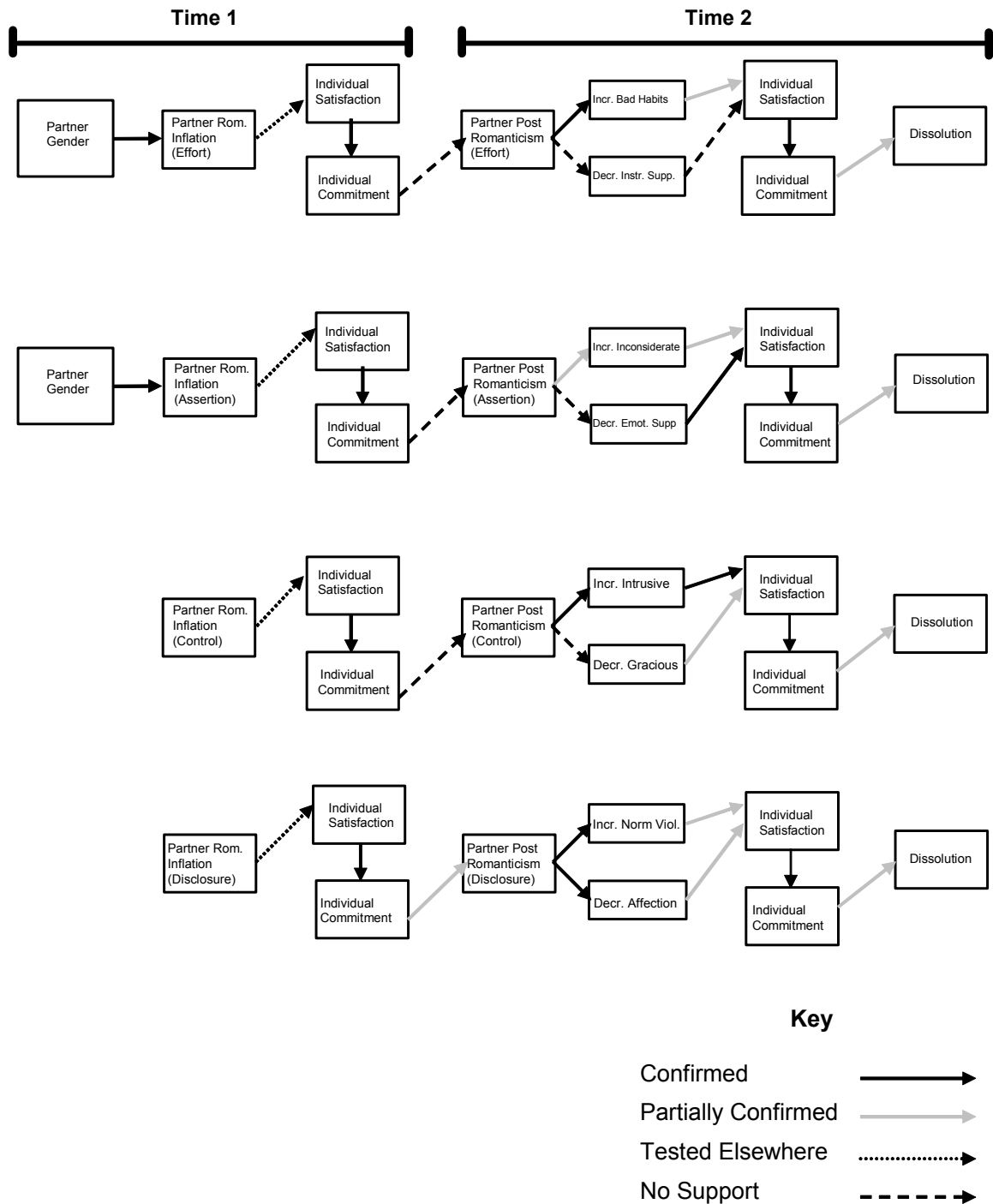
*Table 1*

Component loadings for negative relationship behaviors from all studies.

| | Study 1 | Study 2 | Study 3 T1 | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Bad Habits ($\alpha$s=.84, .73, .74, .84, .90)** | | | | | |
| How often did your partner noisily belch (burped) around you in the past 2 months? | .80 | .63 | .70 | .61 | .72 |
| How often did your partner noisily flatulate (fart) around you in the past 2 months? | .73 | .57 | .67 | .62 | .75 |
| How often has your partner been around you when he or she was inappropriately clothed (e.g. walking around in non-sexy underwear; walking around in old tattered clothing) in the past 2 months? | .75 | .69 | .65 | .60 | .62 |
| How often did your partner let you see them when they did not look their best (e.g. not wearing make-up; not having brushed their hair) in the past 2 months? | .85 | .68 | .57 | .52 | .64 |
| How often did your partner fail to clean up after themselves in the bathroom (e.g. taking the hair off the soap cleaning a toilette that they made messy) in the past 2 months? | .72 | .60 | .49 | .57 | .60 |
| How often did your partner use a lot of profanity (cursing) around you in the past 2 months? | .46 | .44 | .45 | .44 | .53 |
| How often has your partner been rude at the dinner table when around you (e.g. chewing with their mouth open) in the past 2 months? | .47 | .46 | .47 | .43 | .40 |
| How often did your partner show a lack of concern for being clean around you (e.g. not taking a shower for two days or longer; not taking a shower after getting hot and sweaty) in the past 2 months? | .43 | .36 | .45 * | .51 | .46 * |
| How often did your partner have bad breath when around you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .52 | .62 |
| How often did your partner not put things back where they belong when around you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .52 | .56 |
| How often has your partner picked their nose in front of you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .43 | .60 |
| How often did your partner not help you out around the house/apartment in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .48 | .42 * |
| How often did your partner cause unpleasant sounds around you (e.g. loud stereo; tapping pencil) in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .36 | .42 * |
| How often did your partner not take care of their physical attractiveness in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .38 | .35 * |

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*Table 1* (continued)

| | Study 1 | Study 2 | Study 3 T1 | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How often did your partner go to the kitchen without asking if you want anything in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .41 | .32 * |
| How often did your partner play at the computer for a long period of time when around you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .35 | .36 |
| **Inconsiderate (αs=.85, .83, .76, .82, .90)** | | | | | |
| How often did your partner focus on tiny spots on their clothing (e.g. a spot where food was spilled; lint) in the past 2 months? | .64 | .60 | .55 | .49 | .63 |
| How often did your partner complain about how much tiny injuries hurt when around you in the past 2 months? | .65 | .59 | .52 | .53 | .60 |
| How often was your partner overly sentimental when around you (e.g. keeping every birthday card that they have ever received) in the past 2 months? | .67 | .65 | .51 | .50 | .49 |
| How often did your partner become overly emotional when it could have been avoided (e.g. crying at the end of a sad movie) in the past 2 months? | .45 * | .54 | .62 | .64 | .57 |
| How often did your partner ask you whether or not they were physically attractive in the past 2 months? | .36 | .52 | .66 | .62 | .62 |
| How often did your partner make you stay longer on a shopping trip than you really wanted to in the past 2 months? | .50 * | .58 | .54 | .52 | .55 |
| How often did your partner worry about every hair being in place in the past 2 months? | .68 | .61 | .47 | .39 | .54 |
| How often did your partner take too many things when traveling in the past 2 months? | .73 | .61 | .42 | .37 | .45 * |
| How often did your partner spend a lot of money on clothing and shoes in the past 2 months? | .59 | .48 | .47 | .38 | .45 |
| How often was your partner overly concerned about things being neat when around you in the past 2 months? | .49 | .52 | .44 | .41 | .50 |
| How often did your partner talk in baby talk in the past 2 months? | .39 | .50 | .44 * | .40 | .45 |
| How often was your partner too hot or too cold when indoors in the past 2 months? | .40 | .44 | .37 | .41 | .53 |
| How often did your partner keep you on the phone or engaged in a conversation for longer than you wished to remain in the conversation in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .62 | .64 |
| How often did your partner talk too much around you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .53 | .51 |

*Table 1* (continued)

| | Study 1 | | Study 2 | | Study 3 T1 | | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How often did your partner tell you boring stories in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .50 | .51 |
| How often did your partner let you know that they were not interested in your sexual advances in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .39 | .47 |
| How often did your partner display nervous habits like fidgeting or biting nails when around you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .31 | .38 |
| **Intrusive (αs=.92, .89, .88, .90, .93)** | | | | | | | | |
| How often was your partner sarcastic towards you in a non-humorous way in the past 2 months? | .70 | | .65 | | .69 | | .63 | .55 |
| How often did your partner bring up things that you have done in the distant past to disappoint or anger them in the past 2 months? | .71 | | .61 | | .66 | | .64 | .58 |
| How often was your partner rude; insulting; impolite; or disrespectful to you in the past 2 months? | .43 | ** | .69 | | .74 | | .74 | .51 |
| How often has your partner been critical of you in the past 2 months? | .71 | | .43 | | .63 | | .63 | .56 |
| How often did your partner not give you a chance to give an account for your behavior that has angered them in the past 2 months? | .70 | | .52 | | .67 | | .61 | .42 * |
| How often did your partner argue or fight with you in the past 2 months? | .48 | * | .53 | | .72 | | .72 | .45 * |
| How often did your partner give you the silent treatment in the past 2 months? | .53 | * | .61 | | .57 | | .56 | .49 * |
| How often was your partner stubborn and refused to give in or compromise with you in the past 2 months? | .64 | | .52 | | .59 | | .57 | .43 * |
| How often did your partner demand that you do something for them (e.g. being dominant or bossy rather than being polite) in the past 2 months? | .77 | | .61 | | .50 | | .47 | .35 * |
| How often did your partner give you an ultimatum or threaten to end the relationship in the past 2 months? | .27 | ** | .60 | | .62 | | .59 | .35 * |
| How often did your partner push or hit you in the past 2 months? | .12 | ** | .38 | * | .42 | | .38 | -.02 ** |
| How often did your partner hurt your feelings in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .65 | .55 |
| How often did your partner give you the cold shoulder in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .48 | .54 |
| How often did your partner treat you like you were stupid or inferior in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .54 | .46 |

*Table 1* (continued)

| | Study 1 | Study 2 | Study 3 T1 | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How often did your partner demand too much attention from you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .48 | .30 * |
| How often was your partner too possessive of you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .41 | .29 * |

**Norm Violations (αs=.85, .75, .74, .88, .96)**

| | Study 1 | Study 2 | Study 3 T1 | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How often did your partner demonstrate that he or she has no ambition in the past 2 months? | .75 | .53 | .53 | .44 | .59 |
| How often did your partner have sex with someone else while still involved with you in the past 2 months? | .48 | .48 | .58 | .67 | .62 |
| How often did your partner forget important dates in your relationship (e.g. my birthday; anniversaries) in the past 2 months? | .47 | .49 | .62 | .59 | .64 |
| How often did your partner show a lack of concern for your property (e.g. burning a hole in your couch; borrowing your money and forgetting to return it) in the past 2 months? | .61 | .37 ** | .49 | .47 | .56 |
| How often did your partner spend time with you out of a feeling of obligation rather than an interest in spending time with you in the past 2 months? | .37 * | .43 | .47 | .40 * | .58 |
| How often did your partner go out with their friends instead of you in the past 2 months? | .45 | .55 | .52 | .37 | .31 * |
| How often has your partner gambled for stakes greater than $5 in the past 2 months? | .34 * | .45 | .48 | .30 | .59 |
| How often did your partner flirt with persons of the opposite sex around you in the past 2 months? | .24 | .50 | .44 | .39 | .43 * |
| How often did your partner not work hard on the job or in their school work and let you know in the past 2 months? | .73 | .50 | .33 | .17 ** | .22 * |
| How often did your partner prefer to watch television rather than talking to you in the past 2 months? | .69 | .57 | .24 ** | .16 ** | .08 ** |
| How often did your partner stare at members of the opposite sex when you were together in the past 2 months? | .25 ** | .41 | .32 ** | .26 * | .29 * |
| How often did your partner shoplift when around you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .67 | .62 |
| How often did your partner force you to have sex in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .68 | .55 |
| How often did your partner quit their job without giving notice to their place of employment in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .53 | .62 |

*Table 1* (continued)

| | Study 1 | Study 2 | Study 3 T1 | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How often did your partner cheat so he/she could win at games in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .58 | .55 | |
| How often did your partner claim to you that they had experiences or had accomplishments that did not really occur in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .53 | .56 | |
| How often did your partner lie to you about their relations with people of the opposite sex in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .54 | .53 | |
| How often did your partner ran up large credit card debts that were larger than they could reasonably afford to pay in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .50 | .57 | |
| How often did your partner not consult you on important issues in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .52 | .51 | * |
| How often did your partner not respond to you when you said 'I love you' in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .48 | .54 | |
| How often did your partner not defend you when you were insulted by another person in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .47 | .48 | |
| How often did your partner not spend enough time with you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .41 | .48 | * |
| How often did your partner consume illegal drugs when around you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .34 | .50 | |
| How often did your partner not call you when he/she said they would in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .52 | .14 | ** |
| How often did your partner embarrass you in public in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .39 | .25 | ** |

\*   Item was complex in this solution.
\*\*   Item did not have highest loading on predicted factor in this solution.

Note:   Principal component analyses with equamax rotations performed. Coefficient alphas are reported in the following order for the abridged scales: study 1, study 2, and study 3 at time one. Coefficient alphas for study 3 scales containing additional items are listed in the second to last and last columns for times one and two, respectively.

*Table 2*

Component loadings for positive relationship behaviors from all studies.

| | Study 1 | | Study 2 | | Study 3 T1 | | Study 3 T1 + | | Study 3 T2 + | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Instrumental Support (αs=.91, .88, .84, .84, .86)** | | | | | | | | | | |
| How often did your partner help you set up or assemble appliances that were purchased in the past 2 months? | .76 | | .76 | | .58 | | .60 | | .61 | |
| How often did your partner investigate a scary noise in the apartment/house in the middle of the night in the past 2 months? | .78 | | .75 | | .48 | | .54 | | .57 | |
| How often has your partner repaired things for you around your apartment or house in the past 2 months? | .56 | * | .67 | | .56 | | .60 | | .67 | |
| How often did your partner protect you by not letting you walk alone through a dangerous part of town in the past 2 months? | .65 | | .68 | | .71 | | .68 | | .33 | ** |
| How often did your partner carry heavy things for you in the past 2 months? | .56 | | .59 | | .79 | | .74 | | .22 | ** |
| How often did your partner assist you in fixing computer problems in the past 2 months? | .44 | * | .54 | | .63 | | .63 | | .36 | * |
| How often did your partner take care of you when you were sick in the past 2 months? | .54 | | .53 | * | .56 | | .57 | | .34 | * |
| How often did your partner loan you money in the past 2 months? | .57 | | .57 | | .37 | ** | .44 | | .46 | |
| How often did your partner loan you books or CDs in the past 2 months? | .64 | | .49 | | .35 | * | .41 | | .49 | |
| How often did your partner represent you in disputes with other people (e.g. pushy salespeople; auto mechanics) in the past 2 months? | .63 | | .50 | | .19 | ** | .25 | ** | .73 | |
| How often did your partner pay for the activities that you did together (e.g. paying for dinner; paying for a movie) in the past 2 months? | .56 | | .46 | | .41 | * | .45 | | .27 | ** |
| How often did your partner spend a lot of money on presents that they bought for you in the past 2 months? | .60 | | .59 | | .16 | ** | .26 | ** | .43 | * |
| How often did your partner take you places that you could have taken yourself (e.g. taking you to work so that you could spend more time together when you could have driven yourself)? | .42 | ** | .52 | | .39 | | .38 | | .30 | |
| **Emotional Support (αs=.86, .81, .80, .91, .96)** | | | | | | | | | | |
| How often did your partner talk about their day with you in the past 2 months? | .73 | | .71 | | .64 | | .48 | | .72 | |
| How often did your partner compliment you in the past 2 months? | .65 | | .62 | | .73 | | .48 | | .78 | |
| How often was your partner a good listener for you in the past 2 months? | .75 | | .57 | | .70 | | .43 | * | .58 | |

*Table 2* (continued)

| | Study 1 | | Study 2 | | Study 3 T1 | | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How often did your partner ask you how your day went in the past 2 months? | .77 | | .74 | | .72 | | .41 | .37 | * |
| How often did your partner engage in common courtesies towards you (e.g. holding the door open for you; unlocking your car door first) in the past 2 months? | .54 | | .61 | | .40 | * | .73 | .58 | |
| How often did your partner spend time just talking with you in the past 2 months? | .72 | | .67 | | .60 | | .29 | .44 | |
| How often did your partner cheer you up when you were distressed in the past 2 months? | .63 | | .44 | * | .46 | | .62 | .57 | * |
| How often did your partner spend time with you and your friends in the past 2 months? | .39 | | .45 | | .37 | | .54 | .73 | |
| How often did your partner tell you that you are physically attractive in the past 2 months? | .31 | ** | .53 | | .61 | | .49 | .44 | ** |
| How often was your partner cheerful around you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .62 | .77 | |
| How often was your partner polite to you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .70 | .60 | * |
| How often was your partner warm towards you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .65 | .64 | * |
| How often did your partner show that they care about you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .66 | .57 | * |
| How often did your partner show sympathy for your feelings in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .58 | .56 | |
| How often did your partner hug you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .57 | .53 | * |
| How often did your partner kiss you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .52 | .51 | * |
| How often did your partner know what you were feeling without you needing to explain in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .55 | .47 | * |
| How often did your partner lovingly joke around with you in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .61 | .39 | ** |
| How did you feel when your partner tried to build your self-esteem? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .47 | .45 | * |
| How often did your partner do antics to get you to laugh in the past 2 months? | -- | | -- | | -- | | .55 | .32 | * |

*Table 2* (continued)

| | Study 1 | Study 2 | Study 3 T1 | | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Graciousness (αs=.87, .77, .77, .81, .86)** | | | | | | | |
| How often did your partner try to resolve relationship misunderstandings with you in the past 2 months? | .71 | .83 | .43 | | .49 | .56 | |
| How often has your partner initiated a constructive talk about your relationship with you in the past 2 months? | .76 | .79 | .43 | * | .54 | .23 | ** |
| How often did your partner buy you a small present when it was not a special occasion (e.g. flowers; picking up something I wanted without my asking) in the past 2 months? | .54 | .39 | .65 | | .61 | .48 | |
| How often did your partner do something out of the ordinary that they knew would surprise you in the past 2 months? | .67 | .42 ** | .73 | | .64 | .17 | * |
| How often did your partner plan a romantic evening for the two of you in the past 2 months? | .62 | .42 | .64 | | .68 | .21 | ** |
| How often did your partner wait until they cooled off before discussing a problem with you in the past 2 months? | .75 | .71 | .50 | | .42 * | .08 | ** |
| How often did your partner kiss and make up with you in the past 2 months? | .47 | .54 | .42 | | .37 * | .41 | |
| How often did your partner plan fun activities for the both of you to do in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | | .58 | .48 | |
| How often did your partner encourage you to discuss personal matters with them in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | | .51 | .44 | |
| How often did your partner share their religious faith with you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | | .34 | .60 | |
| How often did your partner engage in religious activities (e.g. going to church) with you in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | | .35 | .55 | |
| **Sex. Affectionate (αs=.74, .71, .73, .77, .83)** | | | | | | | |
| How often did your partner initiate sexual activity with you in the past 2 months? | .78 | .79 | .80 | | .76 | .75 | |

*Table 2* (continued)

|  | Study 1 | Study 2 | Study 3 T1 | Study 3 T1 + | Study 3 T2 + |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How often did your partner engage in foreplay with you in the past 2 months? | .63 | .74 | .70 | .62 | .73 |
| How often did your partner performed oral sex on you in the past 2 months? | .75 | .71 | .64 | .62 | .67 |
| How often did your partner arrange to have a 'nooner' or 'quickie' sexual encounter with you in the past 2 months? | .72 | .72 | .75 | .71 | .48 |
| How often has your partner told you that they love you in the past 2 months? | .50 | .34 | .38 | .44 | .62 |
| How often did your partner tell you what they like for you to do sexually in the past 2 months? | -- | -- | -- | .58 | .47  * |

\*   Item was complex in this solution.
\*\* Item did not have highest loading on predicted factor in this solution.

Note:   Principal component analyses with equamax rotations performed. Coefficient alphas are reported in the following order for the abridged scales: study 1, study 2, and study 3 at time one. Coefficient alphas for study 3 scales containing additional items are listed in the second to last and last columns for times one and two, respectively.

*Table 3*

Percentage of variance accounted for and the first six latent roots for principal component

analyses of positive and negative behaviors from all studies.

|  | % Var. | LR 1 | LR 2 | LR 3 | LR 4 | LR 5 | LR 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Negative Beh. PCAs** | | | | | | | |
| Study One | 49.94 | 13.42 | 3.41 | 2.30 | 1.85 | 1.58 | 1.29 |
| Study Two | 40.75 | 10.07 | 3.00 | 2.30 | 1.73 | 1.58 | 1.37 |
| Longitudinal Study T1 | 37.45 | 8.40 | 2.69 | 2.50 | 2.15 | 1.56 | 1.46 |
| Study 3 w/ Additional Items T1 | 35.52 | 14.23 | 4.19 | 3.72 | 3.00 | 2.15 | 1.91 |
| Study 3 w/ Additional Items T2 | 43.70 | 22.35 | 4.48 | 3.34 | 2.61 | 2.22 | 1.88 |
| | | | | | | | |
| **Positive Beh. PCAs** | | | | | | | |
| Study One | 54.27 | 11.96 | 2.73 | 2.03 | 1.73 | 1.52 | 1.10 |
| Study Two | 46.33 | 8.68 | 3.17 | 2.12 | 1.79 | 1.42 | 1.33 |
| Longitudinal Study T1 | 43.95 | 8.43 | 2.85 | 1.86 | 1.80 | 1.31 | 1.18 |
| Study 3 w/ Additional Items T1 | 40.94 | 11.82 | 4.05 | 2.41 | 2.20 | 1.75 | 1.40 |
| Study 3 w/ Additional Items T2 | 52.08 | 17.10 | 4.93 | 2.09 | 1.92 | 1.63 | 1.58 |

Note:    Principal component analyses with equamax rotations performed.

*Table 4*

Correlations between RRAI behaviors in studies one and two.

|  | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) Bad Habits | -- | .28** | .45** | .45** | .27** | .14* | .18** | .50** |
| 2) Inconsiderateness | .18** | -- | .65** | .54** | .44** | .09 | .48** | .20** |
| 3) Intrusiveness | .37** | .61** | -- | .62** | .27** | -.17** | .36** | .19** |
| 4) Norm Violations | .34** | .40** | .76** | -- | .30** | -.17** | .24** | .11 |
| 5) Instr. Support | .25** | .44** | .27** | .20* | -- | .41** | .58** | .30** |
| 6) Emot. Support | .11 | .18* | .02 | -.01 | .55** | -- | .61** | .37** |
| 7) Gracious | .15 | .44** | .32** | .27* | .70** | .45** | -- | .28** |
| 8) Sex. Affectionate | .50** | .23** | .23** | .25** | .42** | .51** | .45** | -- |

Note: Correlations for study one appear in the lower diagonal and the correlations for study two appear in the upper diagonal. For study one, $n_{men}$ = 79 & $n_{women}$ = 82. For study two, $n_{men}$ = 137 & $n_{women}$ = 137

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

*Table 5*

Correlations between RRAI behaviors at time one for study three.

|  | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) Bad Habits | -- | .34** | .42** | .45** | .23** | -.01 | .02 | .18** |
| 2) Inconsiderateness | .32** | -- | .42** | .52** | -.04 | .01 | .19** | .08 |
| 3) Intrusiveness | .44** | .50** | -- | .57** | .00 | -.26** | .09 | .01 |
| 4) Norm Violations | .40** | .41** | .55** | -- | .12 | -.21** | .08 | -.08 |
| 5) Instr. Support | .27** | .03 | -.02 | .12* | -- | .45** | .57** | .41** |
| 6) Emot. Support | .04 | .09 | -.25** | -.16* | .45** | -- | .51** | .46** |
| 7) Gracious | .10 | .23** | .09 | .05 | .59** | .53** | -- | .35** |
| 8) Sex. Affectionate | .20** | .15* | -.03 | -.07 | .40** | .43** | .35** | -- |

Note:    Correlations for the abbreviated item set appear in the lower diagonal and the
         correlations for the complete item set appear in the upper diagonal. N = 266.

** p < .01, * p < .05

*Table 6*

Correlations between RRAI behaviors at times one and two in study three.

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) Bad Habits | -- | .34** | .42** | .45** | .23** | -.01 | .02 | .18** |
| 2) Inconsiderateness | .46** | -- | .42** | .52** | -.04 | .01 | .19** | .08 |
| 3) Intrusiveness | .54** | .65** | -- | .57** | .00 | -.26** | .09 | .01 |
| 4) Norm Violations | .57** | .71** | .75** | -- | .12 | -.21** | .08 | -.08 |
| 5) Instr. Support | .33** | .15 | .17* | .13 | -- | .45** | .57** | .41** |
| 6) Emot. Support | .21** | .10 | -.09 | -.04 | .45** | -- | .51** | .46** |
| 7) Gracious | .33** | .33** | .26** | .30** | .68** | .61** | -- | .35** |
| 8) Sex. Affectionate | .28** | .10 | .06 | .11 | .49** | .67** | .55** | -- |

Note:   Correlations for time two appear in the lower diagonal and the correlations for time one appear in the upper diagonal. For time one, N = 266, and for time two, N = 172.

** p < .01, * p < .05

*Table 7*

Correlations between behaviors measured by the RRAI with other behavioral measures in the literature—Rusbult (1983) measure of costs and rewards, and Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) measure of accommodation in studies two and three.

| | Costs | Rewards | Neglect | Exit | Voice | Loyalty |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Study 2 | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .07 | .13* | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Inconsiderate | .14* | .01 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Intrusive | .16* | -.15* | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Norm Violations | .16* | -.33** | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Instrumental Supp. | .13* | .08 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Emotional Supp. | -.11 | .39** | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Gracious | .12 | .17** | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Sex. Affectionate | .03 | .37** | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Study 3, Time 1 | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .15 | -.17* | .16 | .07 | .06 | -.01 |
| Inconsiderate | .44** | -.23** | .30** | .24** | -.18* | -.13 |
| Intrusive | .43** | -.40** | .36** | .49** | -.22** | -.12 |
| Norm Violations | .29** | -.43** | .31** | .36** | -.17* | -.04 |
| Instrumental Supp. | -.13 | .05 | -.16 | -.27** | .12 | .03 |
| Emotional Supp. | -.16 | .32** | -.17* | -.33** | .21* | .11 |
| Gracious | -.08 | .07 | -.04 | -.23** | .01 | .00 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.04 | .15 | -.09 | -.17* | .16 | .09 |
| Study 3, Time 2 | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .19* | -.11 | .25** | .13 | -.14 | .03 |
| Inconsiderate | .39** | -.41** | .22** | .13 | -.42** | .09 |
| Intrusive | .45** | -.49** | .44** | .40** | -.38** | .13 |
| Norm Violations | .36** | -.49** | .22* | .33** | -.42** | .05 |
| Instrumental Supp. | -.08 | .11 | -.16 | -.18* | .22** | -.10 |

*Table 7* (continued)

|  | Costs | Rewards | Neglect | Exit | Voice | Loyalty |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Emotional Supp. | -.23** | .40** | -.23** | -.28** | .39** | -.15 |
| Gracious | -.06 | .02 | -.12 | -.21* | .11 | -.04 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.11 | .28** | -.13 | -.26** | .21* | -.09 |

Note: Table reports zero-order correlations. $n_{men}$ = 121 & $n_{women}$ = 116 for study 2 & $n_{men}$ = 70 & $n_{women}$ = 70 for study 3; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

*Table 8*

Partial standardized regression coefficients for models comparing variability accounted for in satisfaction by the RRAI after taking to account variability accounted for by Rusbult's (1983) measure of costs and rewards and Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) measure of accommodation in studies two and three.

| | Study 2 | | | | | Study 3, Time 1 | | | | | Study 3, Time 2 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $P$ | $r_{part}$ | $p$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{part}$ | $p$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{part}$ | $p$ |
| **Step 1** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Costs | -.12 | -2.92 | .004 | -- | -- | -.11 | -1.85 | .067 | -- | -- | -.43 | -4.55 | <.001 | -- | -- |
| Rewards | .77 | 18.70 | <.001 | -- | -- | .35 | 6.01 | <.001 | -- | -- | .00 | -.03 | .978 | -- | -- |
| Neglect | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -.10 | -1.66 | .100 | -- | -- | -.20 | -2.56 | .012 | -- | -- |
| Exit | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -.49 | -8.14 | <.001 | -- | -- | -.18 | -2.15 | .033 | -- | -- |
| Voice | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | .07 | 1.39 | .168 | -- | -- | -.06 | -.87 | .384 | -- | -- |
| Loyalty | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | .08 | 1.52 | .132 | -- | -- | .04 | .51 | .610 | -- | -- |
| Intercept | -- | 14.92 | <.001 | -- | -- | -- | 18.03 | <.001 | -- | -- | -- | 6.40 | <.001 | -- | -- |
| **Step 2** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .02 | .22 | .829 | .01 | .931 | -.20 | -2.02 | .046 | -.23 | .007 | -.04 | -.34 | .738 | -.06 | .494 |
| Inconsiderate | .15 | 1.71 | .089 | .06 | .401 | .05 | .50 | .616 | -.10 | .242 | .13 | .96 | .337 | -.09 | .305 |
| Intrusive | -.20 | -2.00 | .047 | -.11 | .085 | -.24 | -2.19 | .031 | -.38 | <.001 | -.21 | -1.40 | .164 | -.24 | .005 |
| Norm Violations | .02 | .21 | .831 | -.03 | .670 | .01 | .11 | .913 | -.28 | .001 | .04 | .29 | .771 | -.12 | .160 |
| Instr. Supp. | .17 | 1.93 | .055 | .14 | .034 | -.15 | -1.40 | .164 | -.01 | .945 | .22 | 1.88 | .062 | .13 | .146 |
| Emot. Supp. | .06 | .65 | .519 | .13 | .043 | .27 | 2.61 | .010 | .30 | <.001 | .21 | 2.10 | .038 | .24 | .005 |
| Gracious | -.13 | -1.45 | .147 | -.01 | .905 | .00 | -.02 | .987 | .08 | .365 | -.25 | -2.10 | .038 | -.05 | .530 |
| Sex. Affect. | -.01 | -.08 | .934 | .03 | .597 | .15 | 1.58 | .116 | .15 | .089 | .00 | .03 | .980 | .24 | .006 |
| Intercept | -- | -.62 | .535 | -- | -- | -- | -1.98 | .050 | -- | -- | -- | -.87 | .384 | -- | -- |

Note:   $n_{men}$ = 121 & $n_{women}$ = 116 for study 2 & $n_{men}$ = 70 & $n_{women}$ = 70 for study 3; * Analyses performed by entering measure of costs, rewards, and accommodation on step one, saving the residual, and entering all RRAI variables as predictors of the residual using OLS regressions.

*Table 9*

Semi-partial standardized regression coefficients for models comparing variability accounted for in satisfaction by the RRAI after taking to account variability accounted for by Rusbult's (1983) measure of costs and rewards and Rusbult et. al.'s (1991) measure of accommodation in studies two and three.

| | Study 2 | | | Study 3, Time 1 | | | Study 3, Time 2 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ |
| **Rusbult (1983)** | | | | | | | | | |
| Model 1 | | | | | | | | | |
| Costs | -.12 | -2.92 | .004 | -.28 | -3.82 | <.001 | -.03 | -.40 | .691 |
| Rewards | .77 | 18.70 | .000 | .46 | 6.32 | <.001 | .60 | 7.29 | <.001 |
| Intercept | | 14.92 | .000 | -- | 16.93 | <.001 | -- | 8.13 | <.001 |
| Model 2 | | | | | | | | | |
| Costs | -.12 | -2.77 | .006 | -.15 | -2.38 | .019 | .36 | 4.22 | <.001 |
| Rewards | .73 | 14.79 | .000 | .21 | 3.29 | .001 | .01 | .10 | .921 |
| Bad Habits | .02 | .29 | .773 | -.05 | -.85 | .397 | -.01 | -.15 | .880 |
| Inconsiderate | .09 | 1.74 | .083 | .03 | .39 | .699 | .07 | .76 | .449 |
| Intrusive | -.13 | -2.04 | .043 | -.41 | -5.66 | <.001 | -.28 | -2.47 | .015 |
| Norm Violations | .00 | -.04 | .971 | -.12 | -1.78 | .077 | -.03 | -.33 | .740 |
| Instrumental Sup. | .10 | 1.85 | .066 | -.05 | -.80 | .426 | .17 | 1.98 | .050 |
| Emotional Supp. | .04 | .75 | .456 | .24 | 3.55 | .001 | .17 | 2.26 | .025 |
| Gracious | -.08 | -1.36 | .175 | .06 | .90 | .369 | -.16 | -1.81 | .073 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .01 | .09 | .926 | .14 | 2.28 | .024 | .18 | 2.42 | .017 |
| Intercept | | 10.18 | .000 | -- | 13.61 | <.001 | -- | 5.90 | <.001 |
| **Rusbult et. al. (1991)** | | | | | | | | | |
| Model 1 | | | | | | | | | |
| Neglect | -- | -- | -- | -.12 | -1.75 | .083 | .03 | .35 | .726 |
| Exit | -- | -- | -- | -.61 | -9.09 | <.001 | -.35 | -4.42 | <.001 |
| Voice | -- | -- | -- | .17 | 2.74 | .007 | .37 | 5.00 | <.001 |
| Loyalty | -- | -- | -- | .03 | .40 | .689 | -.12 | -1.53 | .127 |

*Table 9* (continued)

|  | Study 2 | | | Study 3, Time 1 | | | Study 3, Time 2 | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | *β* | *t* | *p* | *β* | *t* | *p* | *β* | *t* | *p* |
| Intercept | -- | -- | -- | -- | 24.64 | <.001 | -- | 12.53 | <.001 |
| Model 2 | | | | | | | | | |
| Neglect | -- | -- | -- | -.03 | -.52 | .606 | .12 | 1.42 | .158 |
| Exit | -- | -- | -- | -.39 | -6.51 | <.001 | -.21 | -2.62 | .010 |
| Voice | -- | -- | -- | .09 | 1.73 | .086 | .18 | 2.26 | .025 |
| Loyalty | -- | -- | -- | .05 | 1.11 | .269 | -.05 | -.75 | .457 |
| Bad Habits | -- | -- | -- | -.10 | -1.80 | .074 | .02 | .24 | .814 |
| Inconsiderate | -- | -- | -- | -.03 | -.56 | .580 | .03 | .30 | .764 |
| Intrusive | -- | -- | -- | -.28 | -4.16 | <.001 | -.34 | -2.61 | .010 |
| Norm Violations | -- | -- | -- | -.11 | -1.82 | .071 | -.01 | -.04 | .966 |
| Instrumental Sup. | -- | -- | -- | -.12 | -1.90 | .060 | .14 | 1.56 | .122 |
| Emotional Supp. | -- | -- | -- | .26 | 4.34 | <.001 | .21 | 2.55 | .012 |
| Gracious | -- | -- | -- | .03 | .52 | .607 | -.19 | -2.12 | .036 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -- | -- | -- | .13 | 2.33 | .021 | .21 | 2.71 | .008 |
| Intercept | -- | -- | -- | -- | 16.68 | <.001 | -- | 7.11 | <.001 |

Note:   $n_{men}$ = 121 & $n_{women}$ = 116 for study 2 & $n_{men}$ = 70 & $n_{women}$ = 70 for study 3; * Analyses
performed by entering all RRAI behaviors simultaneously with measures of costs,
rewards, and accommodation using OLS regressions.

*Table 10*

RRAI reliabilities for the individual's report of the partner and the partner's report of themselves by gender, with differences and similarities between these reports in study two.

| | $K$ | $\alpha_{partner}$ | $\alpha_{selfr}$ | $M_{partner}$ | $M_{self}$ | $SD_{partner}$ | $SD_{self}$ | $t$ | $r$ | $r_{catt.}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Men's Behavior | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | 8 | .72 | .70 | 3.30 | 3.22 | 1.44 | 1.45 | .44 | .26** | .37** |
| Inconsiderate | 12 | .84 | .70 | 1.65 | 2.00 | .99 | 1.49 | -2.21* | .27** | .35** |
| Intrusive | 11 | .88 | .88 | 1.56 | 1.92 | 1.22 | 1.43 | -2.11* | .23* | .26** |
| Norm Violations | 11 | .80 | .65 | 1.64 | 1.94 | .86 | 1.22 | -2.23* | .10 | .14 |
| Instrumental Supp. | 13 | .92 | .81 | 2.56 | 3.17 | 1.23 | 1.57 | -3.39** | .19* | .22* |
| Emotional Supp. | 9 | .76 | .79 | 6.45 | 6.50 | 1.31 | 1.09 | -.35 | .15+ | .19* |
| Graciousness | 7 | .79 | .76 | 3.25 | 3.64 | 1.28 | 1.36 | -2.31* | .18* | .23* |
| Sex. Affectionate | 5 | .64 | .72 | 4.90 | 4.89 | 2.02 | 1.81 | .03 | .47** | .69** |
| Women's Behavior | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | 8 | .74 | .72 | 2.83 | 2.87 | 1.39 | 1.31 | -.22 | .27** | .37** |
| Inconsiderate | 12 | .68 | .83 | 2.76 | 2.47 | 1.59 | 1.13 | 1.70+ | .18* | .24** |
| Intrusive | 11 | .89 | .86 | 2.12 | 1.80 | 1.50 | 1.35 | 1.76+ | .31** | .35** |
| Norm Violations | 11 | .68 | .75 | 1.70 | 1.47 | 1.27 | .87 | 1.68+ | .03 | .04 |
| Instrumental Supp. | 13 | .83 | .88 | 2.30 | 1.87 | 1.81 | 1.22 | 2.19* | .15+ | .18* |
| Emotional Supp. | 9 | .84 | .75 | 6.13 | 6.20 | 1.23 | 1.19 | -.45 | .12 | .15+ |
| Graciousness | 7 | .74 | .78 | 3.45 | 3.29 | 1.52 | 1.28 | .87 | .16+ | .21* |
| Sex. Affectionate | 5 | .78 | .66 | 4.61 | 4.63 | 1.85 | 1.90 | -.08 | .41** | .57** |

Note:   Ns = 122 to 124; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, + $p < .10$. T-tests were perfomed to examine differences in reports and similarities in reports were examined by calculating zero-order correlations. Subscript catt. indicates attenuation corrected correlation.

*Table 11*

Comparison of individual's report of the partner's behavior and the partner's report of his/her own behavior as predictors of the individual's satisfaction in study two.

| | Individual's Report of the Partner | | | | | | Partner's Report of Self | | | | | | Difference in Correlations[‡] | |
| | Men's Satisfaction | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | Men's Satisfaction | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | | |
| | *r* | *Mean* | *SD* | *r* | *Mean* | *SD* | *r* | *Mean* | *SD* | *r* | *Mean* | *SD* | *Men* | *Women* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Satisfaction | -- | 4.09 | .65 | -- | 4.17 | .55 | -- | 4.08 | .66 | -- | 4.16 | .57 | -- | -- |
| Bad Habits | .00 | 2.83 | 1.39 | .16 | 3.30 | 1.44 | .12 | 2.83 | 1.34 | -.02 | 3.24 | 1.44 | -1.85** | 3.34** |
| Inconsiderate | .01 | 2.76 | 1.59 | .06 | 1.65 | .99 | .10 | 2.47 | 1.11 | .04 | 1.96 | 1.47 | -1.64 | .25 |
| Intrusive | -.20* | 2.12 | 1.50 | -.23* | 1.56 | 1.22 | -.02 | 1.79 | 1.32 | -.16 | 1.88 | 1.39 | -4.79** | -1.61 |
| Norm Violations | -.29** | 1.70 | 1.27 | -.37** | 1.64 | .86 | -.08 | 1.46 | .85 | -.10 | 1.91 | 1.23 | -4.78** | -4.30** |
| Instrumental Supp. | .10 | 2.30 | 1.81 | .14 | 2.56 | 1.23 | .08 | 1.83 | 1.10 | .08 | 3.18 | 1.62 | .44 | 1.05 |
| Emotional Supp. | .41** | 6.13 | 1.23 | .37** | 6.45 | 1.31 | .16 | 6.23 | 1.18 | .07 | 6.56 | 1.12 | 4.93** | 8.82** |
| Gracious | .13 | 3.45 | 1.52 | .07 | 3.25 | 1.28 | .03 | 3.28 | 1.23 | .01 | 3.69 | 1.44 | 2.02* | 1.29 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .27** | 4.61 | 1.85 | .32** | 4.90 | 2.02 | .14 | 4.62 | 1.89 | .24** | 4.92 | 1.82 | 3.20** | 2.71** |

Note:   Ns = 120 to124; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .15$; ‡ Test of significant difference between two dependent correlations performed in these analyses.

*Table 12*

Comparison of individual's report of the partner's behavior with the mean of individuals' reports

of their partners' behavior, and partners' report of their own behavior, as predictors of

individuals' satisfaction in study two.

| | Individual's Report of the Partner | | | | | | Mean of the Individual's Report of the Partner & the Partner's Report of Self | | | | | | Difference in Correlations[‡] | |
| | Men's Satisfaction | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | Men's Satisfaction | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | | |
| | r | Mean | SD | r | Mean | SD | r | Mean | SD | r | Mean | SD | Men | Women |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Satisfaction | -- | 4.09 | .65 | -- | 4.17 | .55 | -- | 4.09 | .65 | -- | 4.17 | .55 | -- | -- |
| Bad Habits | .00 | 2.83 | 1.39 | .16 | 3.30 | 1.44 | .06 | 2.85 | 1.08 | .12 | 3.26 | 1.15 | -1.07 | .68 |
| Inconsiderate | .01 | 2.76 | 1.59 | .06 | 1.65 | .99 | .06 | 2.61 | 1.05 | .04 | 1.82 | 1.00 | -1.00 | .28 |
| Intrusive | -.20* | 2.12 | 1.50 | -.23* | 1.56 | 1.22 | -.15 | 1.96 | 1.16 | -.23* | 1.74 | 1.04 | -.96 | .00 |
| Norm Violations | -.29** | 1.70 | 1.27 | -.37** | 1.64 | .86 | -.30** | 1.58 | .78 | -.30** | 1.79 | .78 | .20 | -.96 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .10 | 2.30 | 1.81 | .14 | 2.56 | 1.23 | .10 | 2.09 | 1.16 | .14 | 2.86 | 1.09 | .00 | .00 |
| Emotional Supp. | .41** | 6.13 | 1.23 | .37** | 6.45 | 1.31 | .38** | 6.16 | .91 | .32** | 6.47 | .91 | .52 | .95 |
| Gracious | .13 | 3.45 | 1.52 | .07 | 3.25 | 1.28 | .13 | 3.37 | 1.07 | .07 | 3.45 | 1.02 | .00 | .00 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .27** | 4.61 | 1.85 | .32** | 4.90 | 2.02 | .25** | 4.62 | 1.57 | .36** | 4.90 | 1.64 | .39 | -.92 |

Note:  Ns = 120 to 124; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .15$; ‡ Test of significant difference between two dependent correlations performed in these analyses.

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*Table 13*

Men and women's perceptions of a hypothetical partner's behavior at two and 12 months in a romantic relationship in study one.

| | 2 Months | | 12 Months | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* | *t* | *P* | *d* | *r* |
| **Male Partner** | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | 2.92 | 1.29 | 4.45 | 1.28 | 7.54 | <.001 | 1.19 | .51 |
| Inconsiderateness | 1.99 | .85 | 2.03 | .92 | 0.27 | .788 | .05 | .02 |
| Intrusiveness | 2.23 | 1.16 | 2.51 | 1.25 | 1.48 | .140 | .23 | .12 |
| Norm Viol. | 2.59 | 1.02 | 2.77 | 1.12 | 1.06 | .289 | .17 | .08 |
| Instr. Support | 4.08 | 1.27 | 4.25 | 1.21 | 0.85 | .396 | .14 | .07 |
| Emot. Support | 5.41 | 1.22 | 5.28 | 1.21 | -0.69 | .493 | -.11 | -.05 |
| Gracious | 3.50 | 1.29 | 3.42 | 1.25 | -0.44 | .661 | -.06 | -.03 |
| Sex. Affectionate | 4.36 | 1.53 | 4.93 | .93 | 2.84 | .005 | .46 | .23 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| **Female Partner** | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | 1.97 | .87 | 3.21 | 1.14 | 7.84 | <.001 | 1.23 | .53 |
| Inconsiderateness | 3.14 | 1.24 | 3.37 | 1.24 | 1.17 | .244 | .19 | .09 |
| Intrusiveness | 2.27 | 1.13 | 2.60 | 1.26 | 1.77 | .079 | .28 | .14 |
| Norm Viol. | 2.22 | 1.02 | 2.31 | .95 | 0.59 | .558 | .09 | .05 |
| Instr. Support | 3.06 | 1.16 | 3.09 | 1.26 | 0.15 | .880 | .02 | .01 |
| Emot. Support | 5.16 | 1.08 | 5.41 | 1.01 | 1.51 | .132 | .24 | .12 |
| Gracious | 3.90 | 1.26 | 3.91 | 1.25 | 0.04 | .967 | .01 | .00 |
| Sex. Affectionate | 3.81 | 1.45 | 4.63 | .94 | 4.26 | <.001 | .69 | .32 |

Note:    T-tests performed comparing both target periods. $n_{men} = 79$ & $n_{women} = 82$

*Table 14*

Relationship length (two vs. 12 months in relationships) and sex of perceiver as moderators of differing perceptions of men's and women's behavior in study one.

| | **Sex of Target Diff.** | | | | **2 vs. 12 mo.** | | | **Sex of Perceiver** | |
| | *r* | *t* | *p* | *β* | *t* | *p* | *β* | *t* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bad Habits | .64 | 10.53 | <.001 | .11 | 1.35 | .179 | .00 | .01 | .989 |
| Inconsiderate | -.71 | -12.79 | <.001 | -.08 | -.95 | .342 | .06 | .81 | .419 |
| Intrusive | -.07 | -.87 | .385 | -.02 | -.25 | .802 | .15 | 1.94 | .054 |
| Norm Violations | .41 | 5.63 | <.001 | .05 | .62 | .537 | .06 | .73 | .467 |
| Instr. Support | .70 | 12.23 | <.001 | .05 | .67 | .502 | -.24 | -3.08 | .003 |
| Emot. Support | .06 | .72 | .471 | -.18 | -2.48 | .014 | -.32 | -4.36 | <.001 |
| Gracious | -.38 | -5.13 | <.001 | -.05 | -.67 | .502 | -.27 | -3.57 | <.001 |
| Sex. Affection. | .40 | 5.47 | <.001 | -.14 | -1.79 | .076 | -.05 | -.73 | .464 |

Note:    $n_{men} = 79$ & $n_{women} = 82$

*Table 15*

Sex differences in the individual's perception of the partner's behavior in study two.

|  | **Men** | | **Women** | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* | *t* | *P* | *r* |
| Bad Habits | 3.30 | 1.44 | 2.83 | 1.39 | -2.89 | .005 | -.26 |
| Inconsiderate | 1.65 | .99 | 2.76 | 1.59 | 7.13 | <.001 | .55 |
| Intrusive | 1.56 | 1.22 | 2.12 | 1.50 | 3.79 | <.001 | .33 |
| Norm Viol. | 1.64 | .86 | 1.70 | 1.27 | .26 | .796 | .02 |
| Instr. Support | 2.56 | 1.23 | 2.30 | 1.81 | -1.67 | .098 | -.15 |
| Emot. Support | 6.45 | 1.31 | 6.13 | 1.23 | -2.00 | .047 | -.18 |
| Gracious | 3.25 | 1.28 | 3.45 | 1.52 | 1.03 | .305 | .09 |
| Sex. Affection. | 4.90 | 2.02 | 4.61 | 1.85 | -1.06 | .293 | -.10 |

Note: $n_{men}$ = 119 & $n_{women}$ = 119

*Table 16*

Individual reports of the partner's behavior as predictors of the individual's relationship satisfaction in study two.

| | Separately | | | | All Entered | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
| Bad Habits | -.02 | -.86 | .389 | -.06 | -.01 | -.18 | .857 | -.01 |
| Inconsiderate | -.01 | -.48 | .628 | -.03 | .04 | 1.09 | .277 | .07 |
| Intrusive | -.11 | -4.08 | <.001 | -.26 | -.09 | -2.45 | .014 | -.16 |
| Norm Violations | -.15 | -4.80 | <.001 | -.30 | -.12 | -3.15 | .002 | -.20 |
| Instrumental Support | .03 | 1.17 | .242 | .08 | .02 | .85 | .397 | .06 |
| Emotional Support | .14 | 5.27 | <.001 | .33 | .08 | 2.28 | .023 | .15 |
| Gracious | .04 | 1.42 | .155 | .09 | .02 | .58 | .559 | .04 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .05 | 2.69 | .008 | .17 | .04 | 2.09 | .036 | .14 |

Note: Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the cross-sectional relationships between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's report of their own satisfaction. The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships. Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 226 *dfs* for the model entering all behaviors simultaneously as predictors of satisfaction and 233 *dfs* for models examining each behavior in a separate analysis. Preliminary models were run examining interactions between gender and behavior; however, these interaction terms were not significant in any model (*ps* > .15). Therefore, these interaction terms were dropped. $N_{men} = 119$ & $N_{women} = 119$.

*Table 17*

Stem and leaf display of relationship lengths in months for individuals dating between 2 and 40

months (study three longitudinal sample).

```
0 | 2223333333444
0 | 55566666777788889999
1 | 00011112223344444
1 | 5788
2 | 22
2 | 55778
3 | 004
3 | 679
4 | 000
```

*N* = 70
*M* = 13.53
*SD* = 10.87
*Med* = 10.00
*Skew* = 1.18
*Kurtosis* = .36
$z_{skew}$ = 4.09
$z_{kurtosis}$ = .64

Note:   This figure deals with the primary sample of couples dating between 2 and 40 months.
        Stems reflect the tens column and leafs reflect the ones column.

*Table 18*

Study 3: Stem and leaf display of individual time lag in days between Times 1 and Time 2 for

couples dating between 2 and 40 months.

```
03 | 5559
04 | 248
05 | 01222236666679
06 | 0133334589
07 | 01222333355667999
08 | 35555
09 | 033
10 | 057
11 | 5
12 | 9
13 |
14 | 1
15 |
16 |
17 |
18 |
19 |
20 | 1
```

$N = 63$
$M = 72.02$
$SD = 26.81$
$Med = 70.00$
$Skew = 2.19$
$Kurtosis = 8.11$
$z_{skew} = 7.25$
$z_{kurtosis} = 13.63$

Note:   This figure deals with the primary sample of couples dating between 2 and 40 months.
Stems reflect the one hundreds and tens columns and leafs reflect the ones column.

*Table 19*

Component loadings for Romantic Inflation in study three.

| Item | $\lambda$ |
|---|---|
| **Negative Face** ($\alpha$ = .65, $k$ = 5) | |
| I let my partner know that I liked doing things that many people disapproved. | .70 |
| Even when we first started dating, I did not pretend to be interested in everything my partner had to say. | .58 |
| Even when we first started dating, I was willing to correct my partner's mistakes. | .47 |
| I quickly let my partner know that I would not help them with their tasks, like food preparation or cleaning their car. | .47 |
| I quickly let my partner know that I was not big on celebrating holidays like Valentines day or birthdays. | .34 |
| **Positive Face** ($\alpha$ = .87, $k$ = 9) | |
| I really put on a show to capture my current partner's interest. | .81 |
| When we first started dating, I acted better than I really was to attract my partner. | .79 |
| When we first started dating, I spent a lot of money to create a positive impression. | .79 |
| When we first started dating, I acted better than I really was to attract my partner. | .75 |
| I figured out what my current partner wanted in a date, and tried to act like that kind of person. | .74 |
| Early in our relationship, I concealed my character flaws from my current partner. | .65 |
| I told a few lies about myself when I first started dating my current partner. | .57 |
| I refrained from contradicting my partner when we first started dating. | .57 |
| I was especially nice when I first started dating my partner. | .56 |
| **True Face** ($\alpha$ = .45, $k$ = 4) | |
| I quickly let my current partner know that I was not perfect. | .75 |
| Within a few weeks of dating, I admitted my bad habits to my current partner. | .75 |
| I quickly let my partner know the real me. | .71 |
| When my partner was a little depressed early in the relationship, I acted very sensitive and supportive. | .38 |

Note: Principal component analysis with equamax rotations was used.

*Table 20*

Component loadings for Post Romanticism in study three.

|  | T1 Return | T2 | T1 Non-Return |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Decreased Effort** ($\alpha$ = .50, .47) | | | |
| I prefer wearing comfortable clothing around my partner even if it makes me look grungy and unattractive. | .67 | .58 | .75 |
| I do not try to impress my partner. | .67 | .55 | .63 |
| I'm too busy to put a lot of effort into impressing my partner. | .47 | .47** | .69 |
| My partner sees me when I have not taken a shower for days. | .59 | .67 | -.02** |
| I tell my partner about my medical problems regardless of how disgusted they become. | .58 | .36 | -.06** |
| | | | |
| **Increased Self-Assertion** ($\alpha$ = .58, .65) | | | |
| I need to pursue my favorite activities even if my partner does not approve. | .67 | .71 | .58 |
| I don't want my partner to limit my freedom. | .53 | .71 | .59 |
| I don't believe that I should have to refrain from expressing my personal tastes or preferences around my partner. | .62 | .71 | .65 |
| Expressing anger towards one's relationship partner occasionally is normal. | .54 | .55 | .62 |
| I've got to be myself and I don't care what my partner thinks. | .56 | .34** | .46 |
| | | | |
| **Increased Control** ($\alpha$ = .73, .79) | | | |
| I care very much about what my partner thinks of me. | -.72 | -.72 | -.73 |
| I am more concerned about making my partner happy than I am in getting what I want from them. | -.48 | -.66 | -.64 |
| In our relationship I believe my partner and I should have equal say in making decisions about issues relevant to the relationship. | -.62 | -.59 | -.56 |
| If it comes to a choice of being nice to my partner or getting what I want I'll choose getting what I want. | .53 | .50* | .58 |

*Table 20* (continued)

|  | T1 Return | T2 | T1 Non-Return |
|---|---|---|---|
| It is reasonable for me to manipulate my partner some of the time. | .60 | .49 | .47 |
| It doesn't bother me much if I hurt my partner's feelings occasionally. | .44 | .42** | .67 |
| I often find it easier to tune my partner out when they are upset with me than dealing with the problems at hand. | .51 | .47** | .41** |
| My partner will not be what I want them to be unless I tell them what to do. | .40 | .30** | .57 |
| **Decreased Disclosure** ($\alpha$ = .66, .75) |  |  |  |
| There are many things that I can't tell my partner about myself because I would get too embarrassed. | .73 | .77 | .78 |
| I sometimes feel like I can't be myself in front of my partner. | .72 | .77 | .66 |
| If my partner really gets to know me I am afraid that they might not like what they see. | .56 | .68 | .74 |
| I make sure that my partner is unaware of some of my bad habits. | .64 | .63 | .53 |

*   Item was complex in this solution.
**  Item did not have highest loading on predicted factor in this solution.

Note:   Principal component analyses with equamax rotations were used. The three results are for those who participated in both times one and two (T1 Return), all participants participating in time two (T2), and those participants who only participated in time one (T1 Non-Return). Coefficient alphas are reported in the following order: complete time one sample and complete time two sample.

*Table 21*

Percentage of variance accounted for and the first six latent roots for principal component

analyses of Post Romanticism in study three.

|  | % Var. | LR 1 | LR 2 | LR 3 | LR 4 | LR 5 | LR 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Time One Returning | 41.58 | 3.66 | 2.02 | 1.94 | 1.54 | 1.30 | 1.17 |
| Time Two Returning | 47.34 | 4.18 | 2.50 | 2.17 | 1.57 | 1.30 | 1.16 |
| Time One Non-Returning | 50.17 | 5.25 | 2.56 | 1.86 | 1.37 | 1.12 | .99 |

Note: Principal component analyses with equamax rotations were used.

*Table 22*

Correlations between Post Romantic motivations at times one and two in study three.

|  | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) Decr. Effort | -- | .16 | .29* | .19** |
| 2) Incr. Self-Assertion | .20* | -- | -.10 | -.03 |
| 3) Incr. Control | .21* | -.10 | -- | .29** |
| 4) Decr. Disclsoure | .05 | -.03 | .47** | -- |
| Consistency | .59** | .36** | .46** | .45** |

Note: Correlations for the time one appear in the lower diagonal and the correlations for time two appear in the upper diagonal. The consistency row represents consistency in participants' responses to the same scale across times one and two. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

*Table 23*

Individual romantic inflation at time one as a predictor of the partner's report of the individual's

behavior at time two in study three.

| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bad Habits | | | | |
| Negative Face | .06 | .64 | .525 | .06 |
| Negative Face X Sex | -.09 | -.99 | .325 | -.09 |
| Positive Face | .01 | .07 | .941 | .01 |
| Positive Face X Sex | .06 | .72 | .470 | .06 |
| True Face | .04 | .47 | .639 | .04 |
| True Face X Sex | -.17 | -1.98 | .047 | -.17 |
| Insensitivity | | | | |
| Negative Face | .08 | 1.02 | .309 | .09 |
| Negative Face X Sex | -.08 | -1.07 | .286 | -.09 |
| Positive Face | -.05 | -.81 | .416 | -.07 |
| Positive Face X Sex | -.01 | -.12 | .907 | -.01 |
| True Face | .00 | .02 | .984 | .00 |
| True Face X Sex | -.04 | -.51 | .610 | -.04 |
| Intrusiveness | | | | |
| Negative Face | -.01 | -.09 | .930 | -.01 |
| Negative Face X Sex | -.18 | -2.20 | .028 | -.19 |
| Positive Face | -.02 | -.26 | .798 | -.02 |
| Positive Face X Sex | .00 | .01 | .991 | .00 |
| True Face | .03 | .33 | .745 | .03 |
| True Face X Sex | -.04 | -.49 | .627 | -.04 |
| Norm Violation | | | | |
| Negative Face | .15 | 1.97 | .048 | .17 |
| Negative Face X Sex | -.06 | -.86 | .389 | -.08 |

*Table 23* (continued)

|  | β | t | p | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Positive Face | -.07 | -1.12 | .263 | -.10 |
| Positive Face X Sex | -.08 | -1.21 | .226 | -.11 |
| True Face | .02 | .28 | .776 | .02 |
| True Face X Sex | -.03 | -.42 | .673 | -.04 |
| Instrumental Supp. |  |  |  |  |
| Negative Face | -.06 | -.68 | .495 | -.06 |
| Negative Face X Sex | .07 | .82 | .415 | .07 |
| Positive Face | -.06 | -.80 | .423 | -.07 |
| Positive Face X Sex | .01 | .07 | .944 | .01 |
| True Face | .17 | 1.97 | .049 | .17 |
| True Face X Sex | -.11 | -1.23 | .219 | -.11 |
| Emotional Supp. |  |  |  |  |
| Negative Face | -.09 | -1.14 | .254 | -.10 |
| Negative Face X Sex | .14 | 1.79 | .073 | .16 |
| Positive Face | .10 | 1.54 | .123 | .13 |
| Positive Face X Sex | .14 | 1.99 | .046 | .17 |
| True Face | .09 | 1.14 | .254 | .10 |
| True Face X Sex | .03 | .38 | .701 | .03 |
| Gracious |  |  |  |  |
| Negative Face | -.05 | -.65 | .515 | -.06 |
| Negative Face X Sex | .03 | .49 | .624 | .04 |
| Positive Face | -.09 | -1.60 | .109 | -.14 |
| Positive Face X Sex | .05 | .81 | .421 | .07 |
| True Face | .01 | .22 | .828 | .02 |
| True Face X Sex | -.10 | -1.49 | .137 | -.13 |

*Table 23* (continued)

|  | β | t | p | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Affection |  |  |  |  |
| Negative Face | -.07 | -.79 | .427 | -.07 |
| Negative Face X Sex | .11 | 1.28 | .201 | .11 |
| Positive Face | -.15 | -2.11 | .034 | -.18 |
| Positive Face X Sex | .11 | 1.48 | .140 | .13 |
| True Face | .09 | 1.10 | .272 | .10 |
| True Face X Sex | -.09 | -1.07 | .284 | -.09 |

Note:   Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the relationship between the individual's report of their romantic inflation at time one and the partner's report of the individual's behavior at time two.  The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships. Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope (β). Tests of significance are based on 130 *dfs*. $N_{men}$ = 70 & $N_{women}$ = 70.

*Table 24*

Individual romantic inflation at time one as a predictor of the individual's post romanticism at time two in study three.

|  | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dec. Effort |  |  |  |  |
|    Negative Face | .26 | 3.13 | .002 | .26 |
|    Negative Face X Sex | -.17 | -2.06 | .040 | -.18 |
|    Positive Face | .03 | .49 | .627 | .04 |
|    Positive Face X Sex | .00 | .02 | .985 | .00 |
|    True Face | .05 | .58 | .564 | .05 |
|    True Face X Sex | .11 | 1.45 | .147 | .13 |
| Dec. Concern |  |  |  |  |
|    Negative Face | .01 | .14 | .892 | .01 |
|    Negative Face X Sex | -.01 | -.14 | .892 | -.01 |
|    Positive Face | -.07 | -1.04 | .298 | -.09 |
|    Positive Face X Sex | -.09 | -1.27 | .203 | -.11 |
|    True Face | .02 | .27 | .784 | .02 |
|    True Face X Sex | -.02 | -.28 | .779 | -.02 |
| Inc. Control |  |  |  |  |
|    Negative Face | .16 | 1.89 | .058 | .16 |
|    Negative Face X Sex | -.09 | -1.07 | .284 | -.09 |
|    Positive Face | .14 | 1.90 | .058 | .16 |
|    Positive Face X Sex | -.02 | -.31 | .753 | -.03 |
|    True Face | -.05 | -.57 | .569 | -.05 |
|    True Face X Sex | -.05 | -.57 | .567 | -.05 |

*Table 24* (continued)

|  | β | t | p | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dec. Disclosure |  |  |  |  |
| Negative Face | .27 | 2.65 | .008 | .23 |
| Negative Face X Sex | -.14 | -1.42 | .157 | -.12 |
| Positive Face | .37 | 4.33 | <.001 | .35 |
| Positive Face X Sex | .01 | .07 | .946 | .01 |
| True Face | .08 | .84 | .400 | .07 |
| True Face X Sex | -.14 | -1.45 | .148 | -.13 |

Note:   Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the relationship between the individual's reports of their romantic inflation at time one and post romanticism at time two.  The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships. Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope (β). Tests of significance are based on 130 *dfs*. $N_{men}$ = 70 & $N_{women}$ = 70.

*Table 25*

Gender differences in Post Romanticism at times one and two in study three.

|  | *Mm* | *SDm* | *Mw* | *SDw* | *t* | *p* | *r* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Time 1** | | | | | | | |
| Decr. Effort | 3.44 | 1.57 | 3.83 | 1.38 | -1.60 | .115 | -.19 |
| Incr. Self-Assertion | 5.25 | 1.49 | 5.92 | 1.05 | -3.20 | .002 | -.36 |
| Incr. Control | 1.97 | 1.25 | 1.37 | 1.02 | 3.08 | .003 | .35 |
| Decr. Disclosure | 2.18 | 1.77 | 1.68 | 1.35 | 2.12 | .037 | .25 |
| **Time 2** | | | | | | | |
| Decr. Effort | 3.34 | 1.35 | 3.76 | 1.32 | -1.85 | .069 | -.22 |
| Incr. Self-Assertion | 4.92 | 1.35 | 5.51 | 1.21 | -2.93 | .005 | -.33 |
| Incr. Control | 2.27 | 1.35 | 1.81 | 1.41 | 2.28 | .026 | .26 |
| Decr. Disclosure | 2.69 | 1.65 | 1.94 | 1.73 | 2.81 | .006 | .32 |

NOTE: t-tests were used to compare reports. *Mm* indicates men's mean and *Mw* represents women's mean. Similarly, *SDm* indicates the standard deviations for men and *SDw* indicates the standard deviations for women. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$

*Table 26*

Changes over time in men's and women's post romanticism in study three.

| | Men | | | | Women | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
| Decr. Effort | | | | | | | | |
| Time | -.05 | -.64 | .520 | -.04 | -.03 | -.43 | .670 | -.03 |
| Time X Length | .00 | -.23 | .815 | .01 | -.01 | -.78 | .435 | -.05 |
| Incr. Self-Assert. | | | | | | | | |
| Time | -.17 | -1.87 | .061 | -.11 | -.21 | -2.34 | .019 | -.14 |
| Time X Length | -.01 | -.67 | .500 | -.04 | .01 | 1.29 | .199 | .08 |
| Incr. Control | | | | | | | | |
| Time | .15 | 1.93 | .054 | .12 | .22 | 2.81 | .005 | .17 |
| Time X Length | -.02 | -2.25 | .024 | -.14 | -.01 | -1.81 | .071 | -.11 |
| Decr. Disclosure | | | | | | | | |
| Time | .25 | 2.46 | .014 | .15 | .13 | 1.28 | .200 | .08 |
| Time X Length | .01 | .59 | .552 | .04 | .01 | .99 | .323 | .06 |

NOTE: Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine changes in post romanticism, estimating the intercept as a random effect. Time was coded as −1 for time one and +1 for time two. Intercept indicates the effect for the predictor, regardless of relationships length (at time one) in months, and length indicates the cross-level interaction between the predictor and relationship length. Standard errors of the may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 68 *dfs* for random intercepts and 272 *dfs* for all other fixed effects. Gender differences in slopes were tested, but no slopes differed significantly (*ps* > .15). $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$

*Table 27*

Partner Post Romanticism at time one as a predictor of the individual's report of the partner's

behavior at time two ignoring random variation.

| | B | β | t | p | r | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bad Habits | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | .19 | .19 | 2.23 | .027 | .22 | .010 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | .02 | .02 | .24 | .810 | .07 | .429 |
| Increased Control | .14 | .11 | 1.24 | .216 | .13 | .122 |
| Decreased Disclosure | -.07 | -.08 | -.90 | .371 | -.04 | .682 |
| Inconsiderate | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | .05 | .05 | .62 | .534 | .09 | .288 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | .24 | .23 | 2.73 | .007 | .23 | .007 |
| Increased Control | -.02 | -.02 | -.24 | .812 | -.01 | .898 |
| Decreased Disclosure | -.10 | -.12 | -1.39 | .166 | -.10 | .242 |
| Intrusive | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | .06 | .06 | .74 | .463 | .13 | .131 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | .23 | .22 | 2.56 | .011 | .25 | .003 |
| Increased Control | .12 | .10 | 1.08 | .282 | .15 | .084 |
| Decreased Disclosure | .02 | .02 | .27 | .787 | .08 | .367 |
| Norm Violations | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | .08 | .09 | 1.09 | .279 | .10 | .230 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | .13 | .14 | 1.64 | .103 | .16 | .056 |
| Increased Control | -.03 | -.03 | -.32 | .751 | .07 | .442 |
| Decreased Disclosure | .13 | .17 | 1.92 | .057 | .16 | .056 |
| Instrumental Support | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | .15 | .15 | 1.81 | .072 | .04 | .644 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | -.35 | -.32 | -3.78 | <.001 | -.26 | .002 |
| Increased Control | -.02 | -.02 | -.19 | .847 | -.03 | .762 |
| Decreased Disclosure | -.04 | -.04 | -.45 | .655 | -.05 | .419 |

*Table 27* (continued)

|  | B | β | t | p | r | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Emotional Support | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | .08 | .08 | .95 | .346 | .04 | .671 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | -.12 | -.12 | -1.39 | .167 | -.13 | .134 |
| Increased Control | -.09 | -.08 | -.89 | .378 | -.11 | .183 |
| Decreased Disclosure | -.10 | -.12 | -1.33 | .186 | -.15 | .081 |
| Gracious | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | .07 | .09 | 1.03 | .305 | .04 | .609 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | -.18 | -.20 | -2.32 | .022 | -.19 | .024 |
| Increased Control | -.01 | -.01 | -.13 | .896 | -.04 | .631 |
| Decreased Disclosure | -.05 | -.07 | -.75 | .454 | -.09 | .312 |
| Sex. Affectionate | | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort | -.04 | -.04 | -.40 | .689 | -.07 | .424 |
| Increased Self-Assertion | -.16 | -.14 | -1.65 | .101 | -.17 | .049 |
| Increased Control | .03 | .03 | .28 | .778 | -.06 | .475 |
| Decreased Disclosure | -.19 | -.21 | -2.36 | .020 | -.21 | .011 |

NOTE: The primary purpose of these analyses was to show that the predicted relationships between post romanticism and behavior were the strongest, not to demonstrate that post romanticism at time one causes a change in behavior. OLS regressions were used to address these questions. As a consequence, partialling the effects of time one behavior and adjusting slopes for men and women due to couple non-independence was not considered in these analyses. $N_{men}$ = 70 & $N_{women}$ = 70

*Table 28*

Individual's Post-Romanticism at time one as predictor of the individual's behavior at time two (as perceived by the partner) in study three.

|  | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bad Habits |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | .16 | 1.92 | .054 | .16 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | .05 | .55 | .583 | .05 |
| Inc. Control | .12 | 1.10 | .273 | .10 |
| Dec. Disclosure | -.03 | -.35 | .727 | -.03 |
| Inconsiderate |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | -.02 | -.34 | .732 | -.03 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | .11 | 1.41 | .158 | .12 |
| Inc. Control | .18 | 1.97 | .048 | .17 |
| Dec. Disclosure | -.04 | -.71 | .479 | -.06 |
| Intrusive |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | .01 | .10 | .924 | .01 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | .14 | 1.58 | .114 | .14 |
| Inc. Control | .26 | 2.56 | .011 | .22 |
| Dec. Disclosure | .05 | .75 | .452 | .07 |
| Norm Violations |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | .00 | .07 | .944 | .01 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | .06 | .76 | .450 | .07 |
| Inc. Control | .06 | .65 | .514 | .06 |
| Dec. Disclosure | .14 | 2.09 | .036 | .18 |
| Instrumental Support |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | .09 | 1.05 | .294 | .09 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | -.21 | -2.31 | .021 | -.20 |

*Table 28* (continued)

|  | *β* | *t* | *p* | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Inc. Control | -.03 | -.30 | .767 | -.03 |
| Dec. Disclosure | -.03 | -.33 | .744 | -.03 |
| Emotional Support |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | .07 | .92 | .358 | .08 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | -.09 | -1.03 | .306 | -.09 |
| Inc. Control | -.03 | -.31 | .758 | -.03 |
| Dec. Disclosure | -.07 | -1.02 | .307 | -.09 |
| Gracious |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | .04 | .57 | .569 | .05 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | -.19 | -2.65 | .008 | -.22 |
| Inc. Control | .07 | .81 | .418 | .07 |
| Dec. Disclosure | -.03 | -.49 | .625 | -.04 |
| Sex. Affectionate |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. Effort | -.07 | -.90 | .370 | -.08 |
| Inc. Self-Assertion | -.11 | -1.25 | .213 | -.11 |
| Inc. Control | .01 | .08 | .937 | .01 |
| Dec. Disclosure | -.12 | -1.60 | .108 | -.14 |

Note: Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the relationship between the individual's report of their romantic inflation at time one and the partner's report of the individual's behavior at time two. The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were added in preliminary analyses to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships; however, these interactions were dropped due to not being significant in any analysis (*ps* > .15). Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope (*β*). Tests of significance are based on 132 *dfs*. $N_{men}$ = 70 & $N_{women}$ = 70.

*Table 29*

Individual commitment at time one as a predictor of the partner's post romanticism at time two in study three.

|  | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dec. Effort | -.20 | -2.32 | .021 | -.20 |
| Inc. Self Assertion | -.07 | -.84 | .402 | -.07 |
| Inc. Control | -.36 | -4.20 | .000 | -.34 |
| Dec. Disclosure | -.13 | -1.18 | .240 | -.10 |

Note: Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the relationship between the individual's commitment at time one and the partner's report of their post romanticism at time two. The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships; however, they were dropped due to not being significant in any model ($ps > .15$). Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 134 *dfs*. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$.

*Table 30*

Gender differences in behavior at times one and two in study three.

|  | *Mm* | *SDm* | *Mw* | *SDw* | *t* | *p* | *r* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Time 1** | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | 3.17 | 1.30 | 2.68 | 1.35 | -2.98 | .004 | -.34 |
| Inconsiderate | 1.53 | .80 | 2.86 | 1.17 | 8.53 | <.001 | .72 |
| Intrusive | 1.58 | 1.00 | 2.11 | 1.30 | 3.39 | .001 | .38 |
| Norm Violations | .88 | .49 | 1.06 | .88 | 1.61 | .111 | .19 |
| Instr. Support | 3.25 | 1.45 | 2.31 | 1.35 | -4.36 | <.001 | -.46 |
| Emotional Support | 6.88 | 1.29 | 6.71 | 1.06 | -.92 | .359 | -.11 |
| Gracious | 3.36 | 1.23 | 3.64 | .99 | 1.85 | .069 | .22 |
| Sex. Affectionate | 5.08 | 1.67 | 5.00 | 1.56 | -.37 | .711 | -.04 |
| **Time 2** | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | 3.09 | 1.41 | 2.95 | 1.54 | -.66 | .512 | -.08 |
| Inconsiderate | 1.62 | .99 | 2.98 | 1.32 | 7.09 | <.001 | .65 |
| Intrusive | 1.70 | 1.17 | 2.63 | 1.50 | 4.69 | <.001 | .49 |
| Norm Violations | .97 | .86 | 1.52 | 1.49 | 3.14 | .002 | .35 |
| Instr. Support | 3.00 | 1.60 | 2.32 | 1.37 | -3.22 | .002 | -.36 |
| Emotional Support | 6.65 | 1.31 | 6.40 | 1.40 | -1.47 | .146 | -.17 |
| Gracious | 3.55 | 1.23 | 3.78 | 1.11 | 1.47 | .146 | .17 |
| Sex. Affectionate | 5.20 | 1.57 | 4.94 | 1.43 | -1.30 | .198 | -.15 |

NOTE: T-tests were used to compare reports. *Mm* indicates men's mean and *Mw* represents women's Mean, as perceived by the partner. Similarly, *SDm* indicates the standard deviations for men and *SDw* indicates the standard deviations for women. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$

*Table 31*

Changes over time in the individual's perception of the partner's behavior in study three.

| | Women's Perceptions of Men | | | | Men's Perceptions of Women | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | *t* | *p* | $r_{ES}$ | *B* | *t* | *p* | $r_{ES}$ |
| Bad Habits | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -.04 | -.50 | .615 | -.03 | .13 | 1.74 | .081 | .11 |
| Length | -.01 | -1.94 | .052 | -.12 | -.01 | -1.65 | .098 | -.10 |
| Inconsiderateness | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .04 | .65 | .513 | .04 | .06 | .87 | .386 | .05 |
| Length | .00 | -.72 | .470 | -.04 | -.01 | -1.47 | .141 | -.09 |
| Intrusiveness | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .06* | .83 | .407 | .05 | .26* | 3.60 | .001 | .21 |
| Length | -.01 | -.85 | .396 | -.05 | -.01 | -2.02 | .043 | -.12 |
| Norm Violations | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .04* | .65 | .517 | .04 | .23* | 3.37 | .001 | .20 |
| Length | -.01 | -.93 | .355 | -.06 | -.01 | -.70 | .488 | -.04 |
| Instrumental Support | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -.12 | -1.44 | .150 | -.09 | .00 | .04 | .967 | .00 |
| Length | -.00 | -.27 | .784 | -.02 | -.01 | -1.43 | .152 | -.09 |
| Emotional Support | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -.11 | -1.29 | .198 | -.08 | -.16 | -1.79 | .074 | -.11 |
| Length | .00 | .12 | .904 | .01 | .00 | .29 | .771 | .02 |
| Gracious | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .10 | 1.25 | .214 | .08 | .07 | .89 | .374 | .05 |
| Length | -.01 | -.75 | .454 | -.05 | -.01 | -1.06 | .291 | -.06 |
| Sex. Affectionate | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .06 | .62 | .537 | .04 | -.03 | -.28 | .783 | -.02 |
| Length | -.01 | -1.00 | .319 | -.06 | -.01 | -.76 | .446 | -.05 |

NOTE: Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine changes in behavior, estimating the intercept as a random effect. Time was coded as –1 for time one and +1 for time two. Intercept indicates the effect for the predictor, regardless of relationships length (at time one) in months, and length indicates the cross-level interaction between the predictor and relationship length. Standard errors of the may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope (*β*). Tests of significance are based on 68 *dfs* for random intercepts and 272 *dfs* for all other fixed effects. Gender differences in intercepts and slopes were tested, and significantly different coefficients (*p* < .05) are indicated by *. $N_{men}$ = 70 & $N_{women}$ = 70

*Table 32*

Zero-order cross-sectional and longitudinal relaionships between the individual's behavior and the partner's behavior.

| | | | | Women's Behavior | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Men's Behavior | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) |
| | | | Cross-Sectional Relationships | | | | | |
| Time One | | | | | | | | |
| 1) Bad Habit | (.47) | .30 | .26 | -.11 | -.03 | .08 | -.10 | .07 |
| 2) Inconsiderate | .17 | (.17) | .02 | -.04 | .21 | .12 | .07 | .07 |
| 3) Intrusive | .29 | .21 | (.38) | .06 | -.06 | .12 | -.05 | -.07 |
| 4) Norm Violations | .17 | .15 | .24 | (.13) | -.10 | -.18 | -.18 | -.06 |
| 5) Instr. Support | .11 | -.12 | -.10 | -.11 | (.17) | .21 | .17 | -.01 |
| 6) Emot. Support | -.15 | -.17 | -.25 | -.10 | .17 | (.15) | .02 | -.10 |
| 7) Gracious | -.10 | -.21 | -.13 | -.07 | .27 | .16 | (.34) | -.03 |
| 8) Affection | .14 | .03 | .02 | -.17 | .06 | .19 | -.09 | (.27) |
| Time Two | | | | | | | | |
| 1) Bad Habit | (.29) | .24 | .20 | .12 | .22 | .09 | .14 | .31 |
| 2) Inconsiderate | .18 | (.05) | .06 | .14 | .10 | -.03 | .01 | .15 |
| 3) Intrusive | .22 | .05 | (.24) | .25 | .13 | -.14 | .09 | .17 |
| 4) Norm Violations | .07 | .01 | .21 | (.29) | .11 | -.16 | .06 | .06 |
| 5) Instr. Support | .22 | .23 | .19 | .25 | (.28) | .36 | .24 | .35 |
| 6) Emot. Support | .06 | .21 | -.07 | .01 | .09 | (.42) | .01 | .11 |
| 7) Gracious | .19 | .27 | .22 | .25 | .31 | .26 | (.39) | .30 |
| 8) Affection | .17 | .20 | .08 | .08 | .20 | .28 | .06 | (.36) |

*Table 32* (continued)

| Men's Behavior | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | Women's Behavior | | | | |
| | | | | Longitudinal Relationships | | | | |
| Time One | | | | | | | | |
| 1) Bad Habit | (.27) | .05 | -.02 | -.05 | -.01 | .03 | -.04 | .11 |
| 2) Inconsiderate | .13 | (.21) | .03 | .17 | .20 | .05 | .05 | .02 |
| 3) Intrusive | .17 | .10 | (.21) | .15 | .06 | .06 | .08 | .20 |
| 4) Norm Violations | .07 | .05 | .09 | (.19) | -.08 | -.17 | -.07 | .13 |
| 5) Instr. Support | .23 | .14 | .16 | .22 | (.28) | .17 | .22 | .18 |
| 6) Emot. Support | .01 | .10 | .01 | .12 | .10 | (-.01) | .03 | -.05 |
| 7) Gracious | .12 | .16 | .19 | .24 | .18 | .03 | (.24) | -.02 |
| 8) Affection | .01 | -.01 | -.01 | -.07 | .09 | .00 | -.15 | (.35) |
| Time Two | | | | | | | | |
| 1) Bad Habit | (.28) | .18 | .24 | -.14 | .04 | .14 | -.19 | .11 |
| 2) Inconsiderate | .20 | (.16) | .17 | .01 | -.08 | -.09 | -.31 | -.19 |
| 3) Intrusive | .20 | .15 | (.28) | .05 | -.09 | -.07 | -.19 | -.09 |
| 4) Norm Violations | .10 | -.04 | .10 | (.06) | -.07 | -.25 | -.23 | -.21 |
| 5) Instr. Support | .15 | -.14 | -.07 | -.04 | (.15) | .19 | -.01 | -.06 |
| 6) Emot. Support | .04 | -.12 | -.19 | -.09 | .24 | (.40) | .10 | .03 |
| 7) Gracious | .11 | -.08 | .08 | .04 | .19 | .26 | (.14) | -.06 |
| 8) Affection | .22 | -.06 | -.07 | -.26 | .05 | .34 | -.08 | (.20) |

Note:  Correlations ≥ .17 significant at *p* < .15; correlations ≥ .20 significant at *p* < .10; correlations ≥ .23 significant at *p* < .05; and correlations ≥ .30 significant at *p* < .01. Reciprocity effect correlations indicated in parentheses. *N* = 70

*Table 33*

Reciprocated behavior by the partner in study three.

| | Men's Behavior T2 | | | | Women's Behavior T2 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | *β* | *t* | *p* | *B* | *β* | *t* | *p* |
| Bad Habits | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .15 | .14 | .89 | .378 | .02 | .02 | .13 | .900 |
| Inconsiderate | -.09 | -.08 | -.56 | .577 | -.09 | -.05 | -.34 | .737 |
| Intrusive | .24 | .22 | 1.64 | .107 | .18 | .12 | .72 | .474 |
| Norm Violations | -.23 | -.14 | -.88 | .383 | -.12 | -.04 | -.25 | .805 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .16 | .16 | 1.22 | .226 | .18 | .17 | 1.05 | .300 |
| Emotional Supp. | .08 | .06 | .44 | .664 | .08 | .07 | .42 | .680 |
| Gracious | -.49 | -.34 | -2.63 | .011 | .09 | .07 | .43 | .672 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .11 | .13 | .96 | .339 | -.21 | -.22 | -1.49 | .143 |
| Inconsiderate | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .25 | .34 | 2.31 | .025 | -.27 | -.26 | -1.66 | .103 |
| Inconsiderate | .07 | .08 | .58 | .562 | .12 | .07 | .51 | .612 |
| Intrusive | .03 | .04 | .32 | .753 | .07 | .06 | .34 | .734 |
| Norm Violations | -.12 | -.11 | -.70 | .486 | .29 | .11 | .72 | .475 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .03 | .04 | .31 | .760 | .10 | .11 | .65 | .519 |
| Emotional Supp. | -.14 | -.15 | -1.13 | .265 | .13 | .12 | .77 | .445 |
| Gracious | -.42 | -.42 | -3.32 | .002 | .17 | .16 | .96 | .340 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.06 | -.09 | -.69 | .494 | -.13 | -.17 | -1.10 | .275 |
| Intrusive | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .14 | .16 | 1.19 | .240 | -.30 | -.26 | -1.67 | .101 |
| Inconsiderate | .01 | .01 | .05 | .958 | -.06 | -.03 | -.22 | .823 |
| Intrusive | -.01 | -.02 | -.12 | .903 | .27 | .18 | 1.07 | .289 |
| Norm Violations | -.08 | -.06 | -.44 | .658 | .23 | .08 | .51 | .613 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .05 | .06 | .54 | .594 | .26 | .25 | 1.47 | .148 |

*Table 33* (continued)

| | Men's Behavior T2 | | | | Women's Behavior T2 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | *β* | *t* | *p* | *B* | *β* | *t* | *p* |
| Emotional Supp. | -.27 | -.25 | -2.04 | .046 | .08 | .07 | .44 | .663 |
| Gracious | -.25 | -.21 | -1.78 | .080 | .13 | .11 | .64 | .527 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .08 | .10 | .89 | .379 | -.10 | -.11 | -.71 | .480 |
| Norm Violations | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .23 | .36 | 2.40 | .020 | -.35 | -.31 | -1.94 | .057 |
| Inconsiderate | -.11 | -.15 | -1.05 | .300 | .13 | .07 | .51 | .610 |
| Intrusive | -.01 | -.02 | -.14 | .886 | .22 | .15 | .87 | .390 |
| Norm Violations | -.18 | -.18 | -1.18 | .243 | .84 | .28 | 1.80 | .077 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .13 | .20 | 1.57 | .122 | .25 | .24 | 1.42 | .162 |
| Emotional Supp. | -.17 | -.21 | -1.57 | .122 | .12 | .11 | .65 | .519 |
| Gracious | -.15 | -.17 | -1.33 | .190 | .15 | .13 | .75 | .456 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.06 | -.11 | -.87 | .388 | -.21 | -.23 | -1.47 | .146 |
| Instrumental Supp. | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .29 | .24 | 1.64 | .107 | -.01 | -.01 | -.08 | .936 |
| Inconsiderate | -.28 | -.21 | -1.46 | .150 | .27 | .16 | 1.09 | .282 |
| Intrusive | -.01 | -.01 | -.08 | .940 | .11 | .08 | .46 | .646 |
| Norm Violations | .15 | .08 | .52 | .603 | -.31 | -.11 | -.73 | .468 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .18 | .15 | 1.19 | .238 | .36 | .39 | 2.21 | .031 |
| Emotional Supp. | .23 | .15 | 1.16 | .252 | -.13 | -.12 | -.72 | .472 |
| Gracious | -.46 | -.28 | -2.13 | .037 | -.15 | -.14 | -.78 | .437 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.04 | -.04 | -.31 | .758 | .10 | .12 | .78 | .437 |
| Emotional Supp. | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .11 | .11 | .65 | .520 | .04 | .04 | .24 | .811 |
| Inconsiderate | -.15 | -.14 | -.83 | .410 | .04 | .02 | .17 | .864 |

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*Table 33* (continued)

|  | Men's Behavior T2 | | | | Women's Behavior T2 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | *B* | *β* | *t* | *p* | *B* | *β* | *t* | *p* |
| Intrusive | -.18 | -.18 | -1.11 | .272 | .21 | .15 | .86 | .395 |
| Norm Violations | .20 | .14 | .76 | .452 | -.60 | -.21 | -1.32 | .193 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .13 | .13 | .88 | .382 | .32 | .33 | 1.93 | .059 |
| Emotional Supp. | .51 | .42 | 2.67 | .010 | -.04 | -.04 | -.24 | .812 |
| Gracious | -.11 | -.08 | -.52 | .605 | -.22 | -.20 | -1.15 | .254 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.16 | -.19 | -1.22 | .227 | -.10 | -.12 | -.79 | .432 |
| Gracious | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .27 | .30 | 1.76 | .084 | .04 | .05 | .30 | .764 |
| Inconsiderate | -.24 | -.23 | -1.41 | .163 | -.04 | -.03 | -.20 | .840 |
| Intrusive | .16 | .17 | 1.13 | .264 | .23 | .21 | 1.27 | .210 |
| Norm Violations | .00 | .00 | .01 | .996 | -.14 | -.06 | -.42 | .678 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .11 | .12 | .84 | .405 | .29 | .39 | 2.27 | .027 |
| Emotional Supp. | .33 | .29 | 1.88 | .065 | -.03 | -.04 | -.21 | .832 |
| Gracious | -.22 | -.17 | -1.11 | .273 | -.01 | -.01 | -.07 | .944 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.10 | -.13 | -.85 | .401 | -.11 | -.16 | -1.09 | .282 |
| Sex. Affectionate | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .47 | .41 | 2.69 | .009 | -.06 | -.06 | -.35 | .725 |
| Inconsiderate | -.26 | -.20 | -1.37 | .175 | -.06 | -.03 | -.23 | .818 |
| Intrusive | -.02 | -.01 | -.09 | .929 | .21 | .15 | .84 | .404 |
| Norm Violations | -.35 | -.20 | -1.26 | .215 | .15 | .05 | .33 | .744 |
| Instrumental Supp. | .04 | .04 | .29 | .777 | .29 | .29 | 1.66 | .103 |
| Emotional Supp. | .38 | .26 | 1.89 | .064 | -.18 | -.17 | -.93 | .355 |
| Gracious | -.26 | -.17 | -1.24 | .221 | -.19 | -.16 | -.93 | .356 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.04 | -.04 | -.30 | .765 | .30 | .35 | 1.99 | .051 |

NOTE: OLS regressions were used to examine reciprocity. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$

*Table 34*

Cross-sectional relations between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's satisfaction, examining each behavior separately and all behaviors in the same analysis in study three.

| | **Separately** | | | | **All Entered** | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
| **Time One** | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | -.84 | -2.25 | .024 | -.19 | -.35 | -1.01 | .312 | -.09 |
| Bad Habits X Sex | .21 | .78 | .435 | .07 | .04 | .14 | .889 | .01 |
| Inconsiderate | -.88 | -1.98 | .047 | -.17 | .01 | .03 | .981 | .00 |
| Inconsiderate X Sex | .33 | .80 | .423 | .07 | -.06 | -.15 | .885 | -.01 |
| Intrusive | -2.70 | -7.74 | <.001 | -.56 | -2.11 | -5.39 | <.001 | -.44 |
| Intrusive X Sex | .29 | .95 | .343 | .08 | .52 | 1.33 | .182 | .12 |
| Norm Violations | -2.83 | -4.51 | <.001 | -.36 | -1.82 | -2.63 | .009 | -.23 |
| Norm Violations X Sex | .62 | 1.03 | .303 | .09 | -.73 | -1.05 | .293 | -.10 |
| Instrumental Support | .39 | 1.26 | .208 | .11 | -.28 | -.91 | .366 | -.08 |
| Instr. Support X Sex | .43 | 1.60 | .109 | .14 | .58 | 1.96 | .049 | .18 |
| Emotional Support | 1.96 | 5.75 | <.001 | .44 | 1.73 | 4.71 | <.001 | .40 |
| Emot. Support X Sex | -.15 | -.50 | .615 | -.04 | .05 | .14 | .889 | .01 |
| Gracious | .93 | 2.29 | .022 | .19 | .30 | .77 | .439 | .07 |
| Gracious X Sex | .28 | .84 | .400 | .07 | -.30 | -.76 | .448 | -.07 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .80 | 2.99 | .003 | .25 | .54 | 2.15 | .031 | .19 |
| Sex. Affect. X Sex | -.38 | -1.69 | .091 | -.14 | -.17 | -.66 | .510 | -.06 |

*Table 34* (continued)

| | Separately | | | | All Entered | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
| **Time Two** | | | | | | | | |
| Bad Habits | -.75 | -1.67 | .094 | -.14 | .72 | 1.41 | .158 | .13 |
| Bad Habits X Sex | 1.17 | 3.10 | .002 | .26 | .67 | 1.37 | .172 | .12 |
| Inconsiderate | -1.87 | -3.48 | .001 | -.29 | -.21 | -.31 | .759 | -.03 |
| Inconsiderate X Sex | .51 | .99 | .323 | .09 | -.35 | -.52 | .604 | -.05 |
| Intrusive | -2.51 | -5.42 | <.001 | -.42 | -2.18 | -3.24 | .002 | -.28 |
| Intrusive X Sex | .31 | .75 | .453 | .06 | .20 | .30 | .764 | .03 |
| Norm Violations | -2.03 | -3.42 | .001 | -.28 | -.70 | -.94 | .349 | -.09 |
| Norm Violations X Sex | .48 | .89 | .373 | .08 | -.25 | -.35 | .730 | -.03 |
| Instrumental Support | .89 | 2.02 | .044 | .17 | 1.47 | 2.92 | .004 | .26 |
| Instr. Support X Sex | 1.25 | 3.33 | .001 | .28 | 1.40 | 2.86 | .005 | .25 |
| Emotional Support | 2.47 | 5.08 | <.001 | .40 | 1.59 | 3.08 | .003 | .27 |
| Emot. Support X Sex | .49 | 1.14 | .255 | .10 | -.24 | -.49 | .625 | -.04 |
| Gracious | .29 | .49 | .627 | .04 | -1.86 | -2.72 | .007 | -.24 |
| Gracious X Sex | .77 | 1.56 | .119 | .13 | -.78 | -1.24 | .214 | -.11 |
| Sex. Affectionate | 1.80 | 4.00 | <.001 | .33 | 1.19 | 2.70 | .007 | .24 |
| Sex. Affect. X Sex | .21 | .57 | .571 | .05 | -.27 | -.66 | .511 | -.06 |

Note:   Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the cross-sectional relationships between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's report of their own satisfaction. The intercept as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated the relationship between behavior and satisfaction. Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 120 *dfs* for the model entering all behaviors simultaneously as predictors of satisfaction and 134 *dfs* for models examining each behavior in a separate analysis. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$.

*Table 35*

Change in the partner's relationship behavior as a predictor of changes in the individual's satisfaction in study three.

| | **Separately** | | | | | | | | **All Entered** | | | | | | | |
| | Men's Satisfaction | | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | | Men's Satisfaction | | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | |
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $P$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Bad Habits** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -1.50* | -3.60 | .001 | -.21 | -.07* | -.17 | .865 | -.01 | -.18 | -.34 | .732 | -.02 | .06 | .13 | .897 | .01 |
| Length | .02 | 1.00 | .319 | .06 | .02 | 1.29 | .199 | .08 | .08 | 1.70 | .088 | .11 | -.01 | -.19 | .848 | -.01 |
| **Inconsiderate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -1.88* | -4.16 | <.001 | -.25 | -.83* | -1.37 | .170 | -.08 | .24 | .40 | .687 | .03 | .09 | .14 | .888 | .01 |
| Length | -.01 | -.52 | .603 | -.03 | .02 | .59 | .554 | .04 | .06 | .88 | .377 | .06 | -.09 | -1.21 | .226 | -.08 |
| **Intrusive** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -2.86* | -7.75 | <.001 | -.43 | -2.41* | -5.23 | <.001 | -.30 | -2.67 | -5.18 | <.001 | -.32 | -2.21 | -3.58 | .001 | -.22 |
| Length | -.02 | -1.05 | .295 | -.06 | .02 | .84 | .399 | .05 | -.05 | -1.00 | .316 | -.06 | .02 | .23 | .816 | .01 |
| **Norm Violations** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -2.71* | -6.05 | <.001 | -.35 | -1.67* | -2.22 | .026 | -.13 | -.32 | -.54 | .590 | -.03 | -.23 | -.23 | .822 | -.01 |
| Length | -.03 | -.92 | .359 | .06 | .03 | .59 | .558 | .04 | -.07 | -1.37 | .172 | -.09 | .12 | 1.22 | .223 | .08 |
| **Instrumental Support** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -.19* | -.42 | .676 | -.03 | 1.82* | 5.10 | <.001 | .35* | -.29 | -.63 | .529 | -.04* | 1.58 | 3.59 | .001 | .22 |
| Length | -.02 | -.62 | .538 | -.04 | .01 | .76 | .447 | .06 | .05 | 1.26 | .207 | .08 | -.10 | -2.65 | .008 | -.17 |
| **Emotional Support** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | 1.79* | 3.94 | <.001 | .23 | 2.57* | 6.78 | <.001 | .38 | 1.51 | 3.34 | .001 | .21 | 1.60 | 3.29 | .001 | .21 |
| Length | -.01 | -.63 | .529 | -.04 | .01 | 1.75 | .079 | .11 | -.05 | -1.53 | .125 | -.10 | -.03 | -.63 | .526 | -.04 |

*Table 35* (continued)

|  | Separately | | | | | | | | All Entered | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Men's Satisfaction | | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | | Men's Satisfaction | | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | |
|  | $\beta$ | t | p | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | t | p | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | t | P | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | t | p | $r_{ES}$ |
| Gracious |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Intercept | -.15* | -.27 | .786 | -.02 | 1.33* | 3.04 | .003 | .18 | -.57 | -.93 | .352 | -.06 | -.59 | -1.10 | .274 | -.07 |
| Length | .00 | -.24 | .815 | .01 | .03 | 1.68 | .093 | .10 | .02* | .33 | .744 | .02 | .18* | 2.93 | .004 | .18 |
| Sex. Affectionate |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Intercept | 1.36 | 3.64 | .001 | .22 | 1.08 | 3.11 | .002 | .19 | 1.16 | 3.06 | .003 | .19 | .49 | 1.26 | .208 | .08 |
| Length | -.01 | -1.11 | .270 | -.07 | .00 | .19 | .853 | .01 | -.02 | -.53 | .599 | -.03 | -.01 | -.20 | .839 | -.01 |
| Time |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Intercept | -.97 | -2.19 | .028 | -.13 | -1.12 | -2.57 | .010 | -.15 | -.46 | -1.14 | .253 | -.07 | -.62 | -1.57 | .117 | -.10 |
| Intercept |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Intercept | 45.80* | 42.90 | <.001 | .98 | 45.50* | 48.69 | <.001 | .99 | 32.36 | 11.11 | <.001 | .80 | 29.19 | 10.70 | <.001 | .79 |
| Average Contact | .11 | .27 | .790 | .03 | .46 | 1.20 | .230 | .14 | -.31 | -.81 | .421 | -.10 | -.75 | -2.07 | .038 | -.24 |

NOTE:  Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine changes in satisfaction, estimating the intercept as a random effect. Separately indicates that each behavior was examined in eight separate analyses and all entered indicates that all variables were entered on one step. Since eight separate analyses were performed when examining behaviors separately, only the strongest time and intercept effects (intrusiveness) are reported in the table to maintain consistency between analyses. The effects examining whether the grand mean of satisfaction differed significantly from zero were significant (*ps* < .001) for Bad Habit (Male: *B* = 43.19, *r* = .97; Female: *B* = 41.71, *r* = .96), Inconsiderate (Male: *B* = 44.53, *r* = .96; Female: *B* = 42.87, *r* = .98), Norm Violating (Male: *B* = 45.80, *r* = .98; Female: *B* = 45.50, *r* = .99), Instrumentally Supportive (Male: *B* = 39.42, *r* = .97; Female: *B* = 35.83, *r* = .96), Emotionally Supportive (Male: *B* = 39.58, *r* = .91; Female: *B* = 37.00, *r* = .94), Gracious (Male: *B* = 27.28, *r* = .73; Female: *B* = 24.15, *r* = .75), and Sexually-Affectionate (Male: *B* = 32.27, *r* = .89; Female: *B* = 35.96, *r* = .92) behaviors. There was no evidence to suggest that average frequency of contact was related to the grand mean of satisfaction in any of the analyses examining each behavior separately (*ps* > .10). Time was coded as –1 for time one and +1 for time two. Intercept indicates the effect for the predictor, regardless of relationships length (at time one) in months, and length indicates the cross-

level interaction between the predictor and relationship length. Standard errors of the intercepts may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope (*β*). Tests of significance are based on 68 *dfs* for random intercepts in all analyses, and 270 *dfs* for fixed effects in analyses examining each behavior separately and 242 *dfs* in analysis entering all behaviors on the same step. Gender differences in intercepts and slopes were tested, and significantly different coefficients (*p* < .05) are indicated by *. $N_{men}$ = 70 & $N_{women}$ = 70

*Table 36*

Change in the individual's satisfaction as a predictor of changes in the individual's commitment in study three.

| | Men's Commitment | | | | Women's Commitment | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $B$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $B$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
| Satisfaction | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .13* | 9.94 | <.001 | .52 | .08* | 6.34 | <.001 | .36 |
| Length | .00 | 1.76 | .078 | .11 | .00 | 1.84 | .065 | .11 |
| Time | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -.01 | -.16 | .870 | -.01 | -.03 | -.39 | .698 | -.02 |
| Intercept | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | 1.56* | 3.05 | .003 | .35 | 3.81* | 7.20 | <.001 | .66 |
| Average Contact | .04 | .52 | .605 | .06 | .11 | 1.57 | .115 | .19 |

NOTE: Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine changes in commitment, estimating the intercept as a random effect. Time was coded as –1 for time one and +1 for time two. Intercept indicates the effect for the predictor, regardless of relationships length (at time one) in months, and length indicates the cross-level interaction between the predictor and relationship length. Standard errors of the intercepts may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 68 *dfs* for random intercepts and 272 *dfs* for all other fixed effects. Gender differences in intercepts and slopes were tested, and significantly different coefficients ($p < .05$) are indicated by *. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$

*Table 37*

Male and female commitment as a predictor of relationship dissolution in study three.

| | Male Individual Responses | | | | | Female Individual Responses | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | *Wald* | *p* | *r* | *Odds* | *B* | *Wald* | *p* | *r* | *Odds* |
| Commitment T1 | -.22 | .64 | .422 | .00 | .81 | .01 | .00 | .973 | .00 | 1.01 |
| Commitment T2 | -.32 | 2.34 | .126 | -.07 | .73 | -.65 | 6.21 | .013 | -.24 | .52 |
| Length | .02 | .31 | .577 | .00 | 1.02 | .02 | .63 | .428 | .00 | 1.02 |
| Contact | -.05 | .06 | .814 | .00 | .95 | .24 | 1.06 | .304 | .00 | 1.27 |
| Intercept | 2.67 | 1.69 | .194 | | -- | 1.88 | .65 | .421 | -- | -- |

NOTE: Logistic regressions were performed estimating separate slopes and intercepts for men and women. As all predictors are continuous, Wald tests are based on 1 *df*. T1 indicates time one and T2 indicates time two. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$

*Table 38*

Male and female commitment and reports of the partner's behavior as predictors of relationship

dissolution in study three.

| | Male Individual Responses | | | | | Female Individual Responses | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | *Wald* | *p* | *r* | *odds* | *B* | *Wald* | *p* | *r* | *odds* |
| Commitment T1 | -.18 | .14 | .711 | .00 | .84 | -.86 | 1.41 | .235 | .00 | .42 |
| Commitment T2 | -.11 | .10 | .755 | .00 | .89 | .76 | .87 | .352 | .00 | 2.14 |
| Bad Habits T1 | -.52 | .71 | .398 | .00 | .59 | -1.86 | 2.81 | .094 | -.11 | .16 |
| Bad Habits T2 | -.06 | .01 | .905 | .00 | .95 | .62 | .53 | .466 | .00 | 1.86 |
| Inconsiderate T1 | 1.11 | 3.30 | .069 | .13 | 3.05 | -.14 | .01 | .911 | .00 | .87 |
| Inconsiderate T2 | -.38 | .26 | .609 | .00 | .69 | -2.74 | 2.38 | .123 | -.07 | .06 |
| Intrusive T1 | -.48 | .95 | .329 | .00 | .62 | -3.42 | 2.34 | .126 | -.07 | .03 |
| Intrusive T2 | .75 | 1.15 | .284 | .00 | 2.12 | 3.87 | 2.50 | .114 | .08 | 48.00 |
| Norm Violations T1 | -1.18 | 1.83 | .176 | .00 | .31 | 7.89 | 2.47 | .116 | .08 | 2674.49 |
| Norm Violations T2 | .47 | .79 | .374 | .00 | 1.60 | -.13 | .01 | .906 | .00 | .88 |
| Instr. Support T1 | -.05 | .01 | .926 | .00 | .95 | 2.06 | 2.38 | .123 | .07 | 7.84 |
| Instr. Support T2 | -.38 | .38 | .538 | .00 | .68 | -2.64 | 1.93 | .165 | .00 | .07 |
| Emotional Support T1 | -1.27 | 2.99 | .084 | -.12 | .28 | .90 | .63 | .427 | .00 | 2.47 |
| Emotional Support T2 | -.92 | 1.97 | .161 | .00 | .40 | -2.17 | 3.51 | .061 | -.15 | .11 |
| Gracious T1 | .89 | 1.38 | .240 | .00 | 2.44 | .61 | .62 | .430 | .00 | 1.83 |
| Gracious T2 | .42 | .28 | .595 | .00 | 1.52 | 2.07 | 1.39 | .239 | .00 | 7.93 |
| Sex. Affectionate T1 | -.24 | .32 | .569 | .00 | .79 | -1.28 | 2.26 | .133 | -.06 | .28 |
| Sex. Affectionate T2 | .25 | .31 | .580 | .00 | 1.29 | .34 | .32 | .569 | .00 | 1.40 |
| Length | .05 | 1.17 | .280 | .00 | 1.05 | .04 | .77 | .381 | .00 | 1.04 |
| Contact | .74 | 1.74 | .187 | .00 | 2.10 | 1.72 | 2.29 | .130 | .06 | 5.60 |
| Intercept | 4.54 | 1.03 | .311 | -- | -- | -8.24 | .86 | .354 | -- | -- |

NOTE:  Logistic regressions were performed estimating separate slopes and intercepts for men and
women.
As all predictors are continuous, Wald tests are based on 1 *df*. T1 indicates time one and T2

indicates time two. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$

**APPENDICES**

*Appendix A*: Possible typologies of positive relationship behaviors.

*Appendix B*: Examination of personality discrepancies between partners in studies two and three.

*Appendix C*: Additional analyses examining the relationship between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's report of own satisfaction in separate analyses for positive and negative behaviors.

*Appendix D*: Informed consent for participation in study three.

*Appendix E*: Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974).

*Appendix F*: Other-Monitoring Scale (Rowatt, 1997).

*Appendix G*: Big-Five Dimensions of Personality (Saucier, 1994).

*Appendix H*: Abridged version of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry, 1988).

*Appendix I*: Short-form of the Sensation Seeking Scale (Madsen, et. al., 1987).

*Appendix J*: Attachment Style Measures (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1990; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000; Shaver & Hazan, 1994)

*Appendix K*: Romantic Inflation Scale.

*Appendix L*: Demographic Questions.

*Appendix M*: Measures of Frequency of Contact (Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto, 1989)

*Appendix N*: Commitment items used in Rusbult (1983).

*Appendix O*: The Post Romanticism Scale.

*Appendix P*: The Romantic Relationship Act Inventory

*Appendix Q*: Accommodation Items from Rusbult et. al.(1991)

*Appendix R*: The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976).

*Appendix S*: Missing value analysis descriptives for study three data.

*Appendix T:* Magnitude of change over time in behavior as a function of relationship length group.

*Appendix U*: Univariate relationships, means, and standard deviations for predictions

*Appendix A*

Possible typologies of positive relationship behaviors.

There is theoretical evidence (Cunningham, et. al., 1997), as well as prior empirical evidence (Cunningham, et. al., 2001) in support of the social allergy typology of negative behaviors. The social allergy circumplex defines negative behaviors along the dimensions of personalism and intentionality:

|  | **Not Personal** | **Personal** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Not Intentional** | 1) Bad Habits | 2) Inconsiderate |
| **Intentional** | 4) Norm Violations | 3) Intrusive |

However, there is no corresponding evidence suggesting an appropriate typology for the positive relationship behaviors examined. Three analysis strategies were used to examine three theoretically feasible typologies of positive and negative behaviors. The purpose of the first two analysis strategies presented here was to determine what positive and negative behaviors should be paired, such that the positive behaviors negative behaviors were optimally matched with respect to positive behaviors buffering the effects of the negative behaviors. The third strategy presented used multidimensional scaling (MDS) to solve for the stimulus coordinates of the positive and negative behaviors in three-dimensional space.

There were three possible typologies that were being considered. The numbers of the negative behavioral dimensions listed above are predicted to correspond to the numbers of the dimensions listed below in each typology:

**Typology 1:**
1) Instrumental Supp.  2) Emotional Supp.
4) Sex. Affectionate    3) Graciousness

**Typology 2:**
1) Instrumental Supp.  2) Graciousness
4) Sex. Affectionate    3) Emotional Supp.

**Typology 3:**
1) Instrumental Supp.   2) Emotional Supp.
4) Graciousness         3) Sex. Affectionate

The first set of analyses is based on the logic that if a particular positive behavior is often used to buffer the effects of a negative behavior, then these behaviors should co-occur with regularity. Thus, there should be a strong, positive correlation between the positive and negative behaviors that are assumed to buffer the effects of one another. Mean correlations were calculated for each typology by transforming the four Pearson correlation coefficients to a z-score, taking the average of these z-scores, and then transforming the z-score back to a correlation coefficient (Rosenthal, 1991). As can be seen below, solution one had the highest average correlation in the two studies, and it was tied for the highest average correlation in the time two data.

|  | Study 1 | Study 2 | Time 1 | Time 2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Typology 1:** | | | | |
| 1) Instrumental Supp. | .25 | .27 | .23 | .33 |
| 2) Emotional Supp. | .18 | .09 | .01 | .12 |
| 3) Graciousness | .32 | .36 | .08 | .30 |
| 4) Sex. Affectionate | .25 | .11 | -.08 | .02 |
| *Mean:* | *.25* | *.21* | *.06* | *.19* |
| **Typology 2:** | | | | |
| 1) Instrumental Supp. | .25 | .27 | .23 | .33 |
| 2) Graciousness | .44 | .48 | .19 | .34 |
| 3) Emotional Supp. | .02 | -.17 | -.26 | -.05 |
| 4) Sex. Affectionate | .25 | .11 | -.08 | .02 |
| *Mean:* | *.24* | *.18* | *.02* | *.16* |

| (continued) | Study 1 | Study 2 | Time 1 | Time 2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Typology 3:** | | | | |
| 1) Instrumental Supp. | .25 | .27 | .23 | .33 |
| 2) Emotional Supp. | .18 | .09 | .01 | .12 |
| 3) Sex. Affectionate | .23 | .19 | .00 | .10 |
| 4) Graciousness | .27 | .24 | .07 | .22 |
| *Mean:* | *.23* | *.20* | *.08* | *.19* |

The second buffering analysis examined the degree to which buffering scores predicted relationship satisfaction in three of the four data sets. Relationship satisfaction was not measured in the first study, which precluded this analysis. Buffering scores were created in each data set by first transforming the behavioral raw-score data to z-scores. Then, differences between these z-scores were calculated for each of the three typologies being tested. Relationship satisfaction was regressed on the four difference scores for each of the three typologies. Averages were calculated across the four beta weights. Typology one had the highest average beta weight in study two and in the time one data, and typology one was tied for the highest average beta weight in the time two data.

| | Study 2 | Time 1 | Time 2 |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Typology 1:** | | | |
| 1) Instrumental Supp. | -.03 | .10 | -.11 |
| 2) Emotional Supp. | -.06 | -.17 | -.07 |
| 3) Graciousness | -.18 | -.30 | -.23 |
| 4) Sex. Affectionate | -.38 | -.35 | -.11 |
| *Mean:* | *-.16* | *-.33* | *-.13* |

| (continued) | Study 2 | Time 1 | Time 2 |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Typology 2:** | | | |
| 1) Instrumental Supp. | -.04 | .00 | -.19 |
| 2) Graciousness | .03 | .15 | .16 |
| 3) Emotional Supp. | -.27 | -.59 | -.48 |
| 4) Sex. Affectionate | -.33 | -.27 | .00 |
| *Mean:* | *-.15* | *-.19* | *-.13* |
| **Typology 3:** | | | |
| 1) Instrumental Supp. | .00 | .09 | -.14 |
| 2) Emotional Supp. | -.03 | -.16 | -.05 |
| 3) Sex. Affectionate | -.34 | -.40 | -.23 |
| 4) Graciousness | .26 | .24 | -.09 |
| *Mean:* | *-.03* | *-.06* | *-.10* |

The circumplex of the positive and negative behaviors were tested using separate MDS analyses for positive and negative behaviors, solving for stimulus coordinates in three-dimensional space. Correlations were used as similarity measures in these analyses. The stimulus coordinates for both studies and for both times one and two of the longitudinal data supported the social allergy model for negative behaviors. The solutions for positive behaviors supported typology two for both studies and the time one data. The time two data did not support any of the three solutions being tested, exhibiting the following structure:

1) Instrumental Supp.   2) Sex. Affectionate

4) Graciousness        3) Emotional Supp.

Although the multidimensional scaling analyses largely supported typology two, this was primarily a function of the small correlation between sexually affectionate behaviors and graciousness, which placed them on a diagonal in the MDS analyses. Thus, if the correlation

between sexually affectionate behaviors and emotional support was slightly smaller than the correlation between sexually affectionate behaviors and graciousness, sexually affectionate behaviors and emotional support would be placed on a diagonal instead, supporting typology one. There was no evidence suggesting differences in these two correlations in studies one, $t(158) = 1.01$, $p = .312$, and two , $t(271) = 1.53$, $p = .126$. There was a small difference between these correlations in the time one data, $t(263) = 2.09$, $p = .037$, and a moderate difference between these correlations in the time two analysis, $t(174) = 2.14$, $p = .003$. Nevertheless, the MDS solution for positive behaviors in the time two data did not support any of the solutions being tested. Thus, these analyses suggest that the MDS support for the second typology is largely a function of unreliable differences between the correlations of graciousness and emotional support with sexually affectionate behaviors.

|  | Sex. Affection. & Gracious $r$ | Sex. Affection. & Emotional Supp. $r$ | $t$ | $df$ | $p$ |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Study 1 | .45 | .51 | 1.01 | 158 | .312 |
| Study 2 | .28 | .37 | 1.53 | 271 | .126 |
| Time 1 | .35 | .46 | 2.09 | 263 | .037 |
| Time 2 | .57 | .68 | 2.14 | 174 | .003 |

These results largely support the first typology. The first typology came out as being the most desirable in six out of the eleven analyses performed. Taking into account that the MDS analyses were equivocal, if the MDS analyses were not considered, the first typology was the most desirable in six out of the seven analyses performed. As a consequence, typology one was used in all analyses reported in the paper.

*Appendix B*

Examination of personality discrepancies between partners in studies two and three.

The strong relationships between the personality and discrepancy scores warranted the further examination of the personality measures. Partner similarities in personality were rather small in studies two ($r_M$ = .01) and three ($r_M$ = .01) (see appendices U.1 and U.2, respectively). Other studies in the literature examining personality similarities between married couples on an omnibus personality inventory (Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire: Tellegen, 1982) have also found a low degree of correspondence ($r$ = .08) between couple members (Lykken & Tellegen, 1993). Although the present study examined dating couples and Lykken and Tellegen (1993) examined married couples, using married couples should maximize similarities, as these couples have reached greater levels of interdependence.

These low correlations between personality dimensions may have also been due to a number of gender differences in personality being found. Study two gender difference in personality results suggested men were higher in emotional stability ($t(238)$ = 2.12, $p$ < .05), narcissism ($t(238)$ = 3.52, $p$ < .01), and self-monitoring ($t(238)$ = 2.82, $p$ < .01); and women were higher in their possession of other monitoring ($t(238)$ = -4.24, $p$ < .01). Study three gender difference in personality results suggested men where higher in the possession of avoidant attachment ($t(138)$ = 2.83, $p$ < .01) and narcissism ($t(138)$ = 3.17, $p$ < .01), whereas women were higher in their possession of agreeableness ($t(138)$ = -5.17, $p$ < .01), conscientiousness ($t(138)$ = -2.15, $p$ < .01), and other monitoring ($t(138)$ = -3.38, $p$ < .01).

A number of studies have found evidence suggesting couple similarities in individual differences are desirable, as similarity on individual differences predicted interpersonal attraction (Byrne, & Lamberth, 1970; Bryne & Nelson, 1964) and relationship satisfaction (Caspi, & Harbener, 1990). It was of interest whether these relationships would emerge in the present samples. Correlations were calculated between personality similarities and men's satisfaction,

women's satisfaction, length of relationship, and relationship dissolution. Similarities in personality were calculated as the absolute value of the difference between partners on each personality dimension. Thus, higher scores represent higher discrepancies. As the questions of interest here deal with similarities, the correlations were multiplied by negative one, such that positive correlations represent personality similarity being related to being more satisfied and greater relationship duration. Appendices U.3 and U.4 contain theses results for studies two and three, respectively.

It was found that personality similarities were related to attraction and satisfaction in study two, as men were more satisfied with their relationships the more similar partners were in emotional stability ($r = .18, p < .05$) and self-monitoring ($r = .23, p < .05$); however, women were not more satisfied with their relationships as a function of personality similarities. Also, couples who were more similar in narcissism were likely to have relationships that were longer in duration ($r = .22, p < .05$). None of these findings remained significant after entering men's and women's personality scores with personality similarities scores. Logistic regressions examining personality similarities as predictors of dissolution separately for each personality dimension found that couples who were similar in self-monitoring were less likely to have relationships that dissolved ($odds = .77, p < .05$), and this relationship remained significant when men's and women's self-monitoring were entered simultaneously ($odds = .79, p < .05$).

Study three findings suggested that men were more satisfied the more similar partners were in other monitoring at time one ($r = .26, p < .05$), which remained significant when both men's and women's other monitoring scores were entered simultaneously in the equation ($\beta = .46, p < .05$). Marginal zero-order relations were only found when the effects of men's and women's personality scores were not partialed, suggesting men were more satisfied with their relationships the more similar partners were in avoidant attachment ($r = .20, p < .10$) and conscientiousness ($r = .22, p < .10$) at time one, and men were more satisfied with their relationships the more similar

partners were in agreeableness ($r = .28$, $p < .05$) and avoidant attachment ($r = .20$, $p < .10$) at time two. Women were only more satisfied with their relationships at time two the more partners were similar in conscientiousness ($r = .24$, $p < .05$); however, this effect did not remain when entering men's and women's conscientiousness scores simultaneously. Personality similarities were not related to relationship duration; however, similarities in agreeableness ($r = .21$, $p < .10$) made relationships marginally less likely to dissolve ($odds = .61$, $p < .10$) and similarities in anxious attachment lead relationships to be more likely to dissolve ($odds = 2.12$, $p < .05$). Only the finding for anxious attachment remained marginally significant after entering men's and women's anxious attachment scores simultaneously ($odds = 2.11$, $p < .10$).

*Do Individuals Present Themselves as Better than They Really Are?— Personality Inflation*

Examination of whether partners present themselves as better than they really are was examined using the format for cross-sectional HLMs specified previously. Each analysis examined personality scores, personality discrepancy predictors (individual's personality - partner's personality), and interaction terms between personality discrepancies and gender as predictors of partners presenting themselves as better than they really are in the beginning of close relationships. Personality inflation (being deceptive) was operationally defined as the difference between the individual's report of the partner's behavior at time two minus the individual's report of the partner's behavior at time one.

Although there have been serious questions raised about the validity and reliability of difference scores being used as a measure of change (Cronbach & Furby, 1970), more recent critiques have shown these concerns to be largely unfounded. Rogosa and his colleagues (Rogosa, Brandt, & Zimowski, 1982) demonstrated quite adequately that difference scores are both valid and reliable measures of change. Furthermore, Allison (1990) echoes these claims, suggesting that difference scores typically are more appropriate as measures of change than using a regressor approach (e.g., using the time one independent measure as a predictor and the time one

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measurement of the dependent variables as predictors of the time two dependent variable). The only case where the regressor approach may be more appropriate is when it is theorized that there is a causal relationship between the dependent variable at time one and the dependent variable at time two.

The goal of the present analyses is to demonstrate that if a partner differs from the individual in a socially undesirable direction on a personality characteristic, that will cause the partner to act in such a way that the individual will see the partner as behaving better than if the individual did not exceed the partner. Presenting one's self as better than he/she really is can be defined as a person's deviations from his/her baseline of behavior at the beginning of the relationship. One way to define this is the individual's report of the partner's behavior at time one (or closer to baseline of behavior) differs from the individual's report of the partner's behavior at time two. This definition of inflating one's personality has the limitation that for the majority of the couples (those dating longer than approximately two months at time one), the individual's report of the partner's behavior at time one does not reflect behavior that occurred at the beginning of the relationship. Nevertheless, this definition of inflation does capture inflation processes that may be ongoing throughout dating relationships. Individual reports on their own romantic inflation (reported below) more adequately deal with inflation processes that occur at the beginning of dating relationships.

Preliminary analyses indicated that the personality scores were highly correlated with the personality discrepancy scores for both men and women ($rs > .52$). As a consequence, centered personality scores were also entered into the model on the same step as the other predictors, such that relationships between discrepancies and personality inflation could be observed after partialing variance shared with personality scores in explaining personality inflation.

Consistent with predictions, men who were lower in self-monitoring were seen as increasing their bad habit behaviors ($r_{ES} = .20$, $p = .021$). Men were seen as becoming marginally more

intrusive if they were lower than the individual on agreeableness ($r_{ES}$ = .14, $p$ = .102). Men who were higher in sensation seeking ($r_{ES}$ = -.16, $p$ = .065) and lower in extraversion ($r_{ES}$ = .18, $p$ = .034) were also (marginally) seen as increasing their norm violating behaviors. Contrary to predictions, women who were higher than the individual in self-monitoring were seen by the individual as increasing their instrumentally supportive behaviors ($r_{ES}$ = .19, $p$ = .030). Partially consistent with predictions, all individuals (not just women) who were higher in anxiety were seen as marginally decreasing their emotionally supportive behaviors ($r_{ES}$ = -.14, $p$ = .114). Partners who were higher than the individual in other-monitoring were seen as marginally decreasing their gracious behaviors ($r_{ES}$ = -.14, $p$ = .108).

Findings for personality inflation that were consistent with predictions suggested men and women were more likely to engage in personality inflation for negative behaviors, and that men were more likely to engage in personality inflation than women. Men were deceptive about their bad habit, intrusive, and norm violating behaviors. A pattern of trends suggested that both men and women were found to be deceptive about their emotionally supportive and  gracious behaviors.

Several predictions of the EDMD were confirmed for both negative and positive behaviors. The general pattern of results suggested that it was men who were likely to be deceptive about their typical pattern of most negative behaviors by inflating their personality, and marginal findings suggested that both men and women may be deceptive about their typical pattern of some emotionally supportive and gracious behaviors by inflating their personalities.

Men who were lower in self monitoring than their partner were seen as presenting themselves as engaging in less bad habit behaviors earlier in relationships. Men who were lower in self-monitoring may have more closely monitored their behavior earlier in the relationship, as bad habit behaviors are consistent with negative stereotypes for men's behavior (Spence, et. al., 1979) and bad habit behaviors are a source of annoyance for women (Buss, 1989). Men who were lower

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than the partner on agreeableness were also seen as becoming less agreeable over time, suggesting these men wished to hide undesirable characteristics associated with a low level of agreeableness, such as being domineering, condescending, abusive, sexually aggressive, and self-centered (Antonioni, 1999; Buss, 1989; Graziano, et. al., 1996). Findings for norm violations suggested that men who were lower than the individual in extraversion and/or higher than the individuals in sensation seeking likely concealed their norm violating behaviors earlier in relationships, as these men increased their norm violating behaviors over time. These men were likely deceptive about their norm violating behavior at the beginning of close relationships, as men's norm violating behaviors were found to be the strongest predictor of relationship dissolution.

One additional findings for positive behaviors were opposite that of the direction predicted by the EDMD. Women who were higher than the individual in self-monitoring were seen as increasing their instrumentally supportive behaviors. This finding likely reflects that high self-monitoring women became more instrumentally supportive, due to their low self-monitoring partner providing them with opportunities for instrumental support. More specifically, partners who decreased instrumentally supportive behaviors and exhibited increases in bad habit behaviors (e.g., not cleaning up after themselves), would provide women with more opportunities for providing instrumental support (e.g., cleaning up after a messy partner).

*Appendix B.1*

Reliabilities, descriptive statistics, gender differences in personality, and gender correspondence in personality in study two.

| | α | M | Med. | SD | Skew | Kurt. | Min | Max. | Theor. Range | t | r | $r_{catt.}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Men** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agreeableness | .80 | 56.34 | 56.00 | 9.66 | -.42 | -.30 | 30 | 72 | 9 - 72 | -1.60 | -.18* | -.23* |
| Conscientious. | .73 | 43.63 | 43.56 | 9.44 | -.03 | -.44 | 18 | 62 | 9 - 72 | -1.83+ | -.05 | -.07 |
| Emot. Stability | .55 | 41.85 | 42.00 | 9.50 | .01 | .43 | 16 | 68 | 9 - 72 | 2.12* | .07 | .11 |
| Extraversion | .77 | 48.88 | 49.00 | 10.27 | -.15 | -.65 | 26 | 71 | 9 - 72 | -1.90+ | .03 | .04 |
| Narcissism | .92 | 132.96 | 132.00 | 22.52 | -.06 | .20 | 65 | 190 | 40 - 200 | 3.52** | .17+ | .18* |
| Openness to Exp. | .78 | 55.02 | 56.57 | 10.44 | -.79** | .38 | 23 | 72 | 9 - 72 | .51 | -.08 | -.11 |
| Other-Monitoring | .77 | 104.38 | 104.00 | 9.34 | .67** | 1.80** | 76 | 150 | 30 - 150 | -4.24** | .16+ | .21* |
| Self-Monitoring | -- | 14.14 | 14.00 | 3.59 | .14 | -.25 | 5 | 24 | 0 - 25 | 2.82** | -.07 | -- |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Women** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agreeableness | .75 | 58.52 | 60.00 | 8.05 | -.89** | .68 | 32 | 72 | 9 - 72 | -1.60 | -.18* | -.23* |
| Conscientious. | .75 | 45.46 | 45.33 | 8.71 | .03 | -.72 | 27 | 67 | 9 - 72 | -1.83+ | -.05 | -.07 |
| Emot. Stability | .69 | 39.49 | 40.00 | 9.77 | .17 | -.05 | 17 | 66 | 9 - 72 | 2.12* | .07 | .11 |
| Extraversion | .84 | 50.69 | 52.00 | 11.43 | -.53** | .41 | 13 | 72 | 9 - 72 | -1.90+ | .03 | .04 |
| Narcissism | .93 | 123.17 | 120.50 | 24.87 | .29 | .06 | 59 | 200 | 40 - 200 | 3.52** | .17+ | .18* |
| Openness to Exp. | .74 | 54.55 | 54.86 | 9.61 | -.55** | .09 | 25 | 72 | 9 - 72 | .51 | -.08 | -.11 |
| Other-Monitoring | .78 | 109.90 | 108.00 | 10.08 | .30 | -.22 | 83 | 140 | 30 - 150 | -4.24** | .16+ | .21* |
| Self-Monitoring | -- | 12.70 | 12.50 | 4.09 | .24 | -.07 | 2 | 24 | 0 - 25 | 2.82** | -.07 | -- |

Note:    N=240 for t-tests and N = 120 for correlations. ** p < .01, * p < .05, + p < .10

*Appendix B.2*

Reliabilities, descriptive statistics, gender differences in personality, and gender correspondence in personality in study three.

| | α | M | Med. | SD | Skew | Kurt. | Min | Max. | Theor. Range | t | r | $r_{catt.}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Men** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agreeableness | .85 | 54.32 | 55.50 | 10.72 | -.73** | .69 | 16 | 72 | 8 - 72 | -5.17** | .01 | .01 |
| Anxiety | .73 | 2.92 | 3.00 | .98 | .06 | -.47 | 1.00 | 5.25 | 1 - 7 | 1.25 | .19+ | .25* |
| Avoidance | .77 | 2.57 | 2.43 | .98 | .25 | -.91 | 1.00 | 4.43 | 1 - 7 | 2.83** | .18+ | .23* |
| Conscientious. | .70 | 54.08 | 55.00 | 9.28 | -.21 | -.71 | 33 | 71 | 8 - 72 | -2.15* | -.16 | .20* |
| Emot. Stability | .64 | 42.96 | 40.50 | 9.52 | .32 | -.61 | 24 | 64 | 8 - 72 | -1.04 | -.09 | -.13 |
| Extraversion | .80 | 49.20 | 48.00 | 11.20 | .05 | .10 | 18 | 72 | 8 - 72 | -1.81+ | .01 | .01 |
| Narcissism | .76 | 136.00 | 134.28 | 23.20 | .36 | .35 | 80 | 200 | 40 - 200 | 3.17** | -.06 | -.08 |
| Other-Monitoring | .81 | 102.73 | 101.00 | 13.19 | .38 | .81 | 67 | 138 | 30 - 150 | -3.38** | -.14 | .18+ |
| Self-Monitoring | -- | 11.94 | 12.00 | 3.57 | -.33 | -.27 | 3 | 21 | 0 - 25 | 1.18 | .19+ | -- |
| Sensation Seek. | -- | 4.50 | 4.44 | 1.33 | .36 | .16 | 2 | 8 | 0 - 10 | -1.19 | -.01 | -- |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Women** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agreeableness | .77 | 62.16 | 63.00 | 6.88 | -.88** | .64 | 41 | 72 | 8 - 72 | -5.17** | .01 | .01 |
| Anxiety | .80 | 2.71 | 2.63 | 1.17 | .49 | -.77 | 1.00 | 5.25 | 1 - 7 | 1.25 | .19+ | .25* |
| Avoidance | .78 | 2.17 | 2.14 | .90 | .44 | -.77 | 1.00 | 4.14 | 1 - 7 | 2.83** | .18+ | .23* |
| Conscientious. | .89 | 57.92 | 58.50 | 10.32 | -.69 | .23 | 25 | 72 | 8 – 72 | -2.15* | -.16 | .20* |
| Emot. Stability | .76 | 44.80 | 45.00 | 10.32 | .14 | .17 | 20 | 72 | 8 – 72 | -1.04 | -.09 | -.13 |
| Extraversion | .88 | 52.72 | 56.00 | 12.40 | -.64* | -.54 | 26 | 72 | 8 – 72 | -1.81+ | .01 | .01 |
| Narcissism | .71 | 123.60 | 120.00 | 22.40 | .69* | 1.52** | 68 | 200 | 40 - 200 | 3.17** | -.06 | -.08 |
| Other-Monitoring | .79 | 110.16 | 109.00 | 11.19 | .20 | .56 | 81 | 141 | 30 - 150 | -3.38** | -.14 | .18+ |
| Self-Monitoring | -- | 11.33 | 11.00 | 3.13 | .11 | -.37 | 5 | 19 | 0 – 25 | 1.18 | .19+ | -- |
| Sensation Seek. | .-- | 4.76 | 5.00 | 1.26 | -.12 | .01 | 2 | 8 | 0 – 10 | -1.19 | -.01 | -- |

*Appendix B.2* (continued)

Note:   Anxiety, Avoidance, and Narcissism, which are based on abridged versions of the author's original scales. Unit weighted averages are reported for Anxiety and Avoidance, and the unit weighted average for Narcissism was multiplied by 40 to put the scale on the same metric as the original 40 item scale. N=140 for t-tests and N = 70 for correlations.
**  $p < .01$, *  $p < .05$, +  $p < .10$

*Appendix B.3*

Zero-order and semi-part relations between personality similarities and satisfaction, relationship

length, and relationship dissolution in study two.

| | **Pearson** | | | | **Semi-Part.** | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Men | Women | Length | Dissolution[†] | Men | Women | Length | Dissolution[†] |
| Agreeableness | .11 | -.15 | -.08 | .68 | -.14 | -.06 | -.17+ | .75 |
| Conscientious. | .02 | .04 | .00 | .78 | .01 | .03 | .04 | .67 |
| Emot. Stability | .18* | .09 | .12 | 1.45 | .14 | .17+ | .11 | 1.34 |
| Extraversion | .03 | .12 | .15 | .75 | .13 | .05 | .12 | .70 |
| Naricissism | .03 | .05 | .22* | .60 | .23* | .05 | .07 | .75 |
| Openess to Exp. | .04 | -.04 | .00 | .73 | -.05 | -.01 | -.07 | .77 |
| Other-Monitoring | .03 | .11 | -.03 | .42 | -.03 | .08 | .08 | .26 |
| Self-Monitoring | .23* | .13 | -.03 | .79* | .00 | -.19* | .09 | .77* |

Note:    N = 109 all for analyses, with exception of analyses for dissolution, where N = 50
couples were contacted. Semi-part relations represent the beta-coefficient/odds ratio
when men's and women's personality scores were entered simultaneously. † Odds ratios
are provided for logistic regressions examining whether individuals are more likely to
dissolve their relationships as a function of personality similarity.

*Appendix B.4*

Zero-order and semi-part relations between personality similarities and satisfaction, relationship length, and relationship dissolution in study three.

| | **Pearson** | | | | | | **Semi-Part** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Satisfaction T1 | | Satisfaction T2 | | | | Satisfaction T1 | | Satisfaction T2 | | | |
| | Men | Women | Men | Women | Length | Dissolution[†] | Men | Women | Men | Women | Length | Dissolution[†] |
| Agreeableness | .17 | .05 | .28* | .17 | .04 | .61+ | -.04 | -.16 | .12 | .18 | .09 | 1.03 |
| Anxiety | .01 | .08 | -.09 | -.04 | -.01 | 2.12* | -.02 | .03 | -.12 | -.05 | -.01 | 2.11+ |
| Avoidance | .20+ | .08 | .20+ | .06 | .10 | .81 | -.01 | .09 | .10 | .04 | .24+ | 1.88 |
| Conscientious. | .22+ | .11 | .14 | .24* | -.01 | .96 | .18 | .08 | .13 | .20 | -.02 | 1.59 |
| Emot. Stability | .10 | .03 | -.03 | .05 | .12 | .86 | .12 | .05 | -.02 | .06 | .11 | .84 |
| Extraversion | .06 | .00 | .05 | .08 | -.06 | .87 | .03 | -.02 | -.02 | .04 | -.08 | .90 |
| Naricissism | .03 | -.10 | .04 | -.01 | .04 | .82 | .00 | -.21 | .16 | -.02 | .02 | .98 |
| Other-Monitoring | .26* | .15 | .13 | .05 | -.04 | 1.14 | .46** | .33* | .30* | .12 | -.01 | .98 |
| Self-Monitoring | .05 | -.15 | .13 | .18 | .07 | 1.00 | -.01 | -.16 | .10 | .18 | .07 | .99 |
| Sensation Seek. | .01 | .05 | -.12 | .00 | -.01 | 1.22 | .02 | .07 | -.10 | .01 | -.01 | 1.25 |

Note:  $N = 70$ all for analyses. Semi-part relations represent the beta-coefficient/odds ratio when men's and women's personality scores were entered simultaneously.† Odds ratios are provided for logistic regressions examining whether individuals are more likely to dissolve their relationships as a function of personality similarity.

*Appendix B.5*

Personality discrepancies (individual – partner) as predictors of the individual's report of the

partner changing his/her behavior (time two behavior – time one behavior) in study three.

| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bad Habits | | | | |
| Conscientious | .04 | .09 | .647 | .04 |
| Conscient. X Sex | -.02 | .06 | .808 | -.02 |
| Self Monitoring | .00 | .03 | .953 | .01 |
| Self Monitor. X Sex | .06 | .03 | .021 | .20 |
| Inconsiderate | | | | |
| Anxiety | .04 | .10 | .672 | .04 |
| Anxiety X Sex | -.04 | .08 | .615 | -.04 |
| Emot. Stability | -.08 | .08 | .340 | -.08 |
| Emot. Stab. X Sex | -.04 | .06 | .532 | -.06 |
| Narcissism | -.16 | .16 | .328 | -.09 |
| Narcissism X Sex | .13 | .12 | .260 | .10 |
| Intrusive | | | | |
| Agreeable | -.07 | .10 | .495 | -.06 |
| Agreeable X Sex | .13 | .08 | .102 | .14 |
| Avoidance | -.10 | .12 | .397 | -.07 |
| Avoidance X Sex | .02 | .09 | .813 | .02 |
| Other Monitoring | .37 | .27 | .162 | .12 |
| Other Monit. X Sex | .07 | .18 | .702 | .03 |
| Norm Violations | | | | |
| Extraversion | .00 | .06 | .961 | .00 |
| Extraversion X Sex | .11 | .05 | .034 | .18 |
| Sensation Seeking | -.03 | .07 | .731 | -.03 |
| Sens. Seek. X Sex | -.10 | .06 | .065 | -.16 |

*Appendix B.5* (continued)

| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Instrumental Supp. | | | | |
| Conscientious | .08 | .10 | .426 | .07 |
| Conscient. X Sex | -.08 | .07 | .199 | -.11 |
| Self Monitoring | .05 | .04 | .194 | .11 |
| Self Monitor. X Sex | .06 | .03 | .030 | .19 |
| Emotional Supp. | | | | |
| Anxiety | -.20 | .12 | .114 | -.14 |
| Anxiety X Sex | .03 | .12 | .766 | .03 |
| Emot. Stability | -.01 | .11 | .903 | -.01 |
| Emot. Stab. X Sex | .02 | .08 | .802 | .02 |
| Narcissism | -.05 | .22 | .815 | -.02 |
| Narcissism X Sex | .14 | .17 | .410 | .07 |
| Gracious | | | | |
| Agreeable | -.03 | .11 | .773 | -.03 |
| Agreeable X Sex | .04 | .09 | .658 | .04 |
| Avoidance | .03 | .13 | .837 | .02 |
| Avoidance X Sex | .13 | .11 | .228 | .11 |
| Other Monitoring | -.47 | .29 | .108 | -.14 |
| Other Monit. X Sex | -.01 | .20 | .971 | .00 |
| Sex. Affectionate | | | | |
| Extraversion | -.14 | .10 | .157 | -.12 |
| Extraversion X Sex | -.02 | .07 | .793 | -.02 |
| Sensation Seeking | .07 | .11 | .503 | .06 |
| Sens. Seek. X Sex | .06 | .08 | .443 | .07 |

*Appendix B.5* (continued)

Note:   Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the relationship between personality discrepancies and differences scores for the individual's report of the partner's behavior. The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships. Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 130 *dfs* for models with six predictors listed and 127 *dfs* for models examining each behavior in a separate analysis. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$.

*Appendix C*

Additional analyses examining the relationship between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's report of own satisfaction in separate analyses for positive and negative behaviors.

*Appendix C.1*

Individual reports of the partner's behavior as predictors of the individual's relationship satisfaction in

study two, examining negative and positive behaviors in two separate analyses.

| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bad Habits | .03 | 1.22 | .222 | .08 |
| Inconsiderate | .08 | 2.72 | .007 | .18 |
| Intrusive | -.10 | -2.83 | .005 | -.18 |
| Norm Violations | -.13 | -3.49 | .001 | -.22 |
| Instrumental Support | -.01 | -.47 | .641 | -.03 |
| Emotional Support | .15 | 4.66 | <.001 | .29 |
| Gracious | -.02 | -.66 | .507 | -.04 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .02 | 1.22 | .224 | .08 |

Note:   Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the cross-sectional relationships between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's report of their own satisfaction. The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships. Standard errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 230 *dfs*. Preliminary models were run examining interactions between gender and behavior; however, these interaction terms were not significant in any model (*ps* > .15). Therefore, these interaction terms were dropped.$N_{men}$ = 119 & $N_{women}$ = 119.

*Appendix C*.2

Cross-sectional relations between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's satisfaction, examining positive and negative behaviors separately at times one and two.

| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Time One** | | | | |
| Bad Habits | .36 | .92 | .359 | .08 |
| Bad Habits X Sex | .07 | .23 | .822 | .02 |
| Inconsiderate | .74 | 1.61 | .108 | .14 |
| Inconsiderate X Sex | .01 | .02 | .984 | .00 |
| Intrusive | -2.50 | -5.79 | <.001 | -.46 |
| Intrusive X Sex | .21 | .55 | .580 | .05 |
| Norm Violations | -2.08 | -2.67 | .008 | -.23 |
| Norm Violations X Sex | .16 | .23 | .822 | .02 |
| Instrumental Support | -.21 | -.60 | .551 | -.05 |
| Instr. Support X Sex | .60 | 1.74 | .082 | .15 |
| Emotional Support | 1.79 | 4.41 | <.001 | .36 |
| Emot. Support X Sex | -.31 | -.82 | .415 | -.07 |
| Gracious | -.13 | -.28 | .780 | -.02 |
| Gracious X Sex | .16 | .39 | .696 | .03 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .33 | 1.06 | .292 | .09 |
| Sex. Affect. X Sex | -.39 | -1.57 | .116 | -.14 |

*Appendix C*.2 (continued)

Cross-sectional relations between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the

individual's satisfaction, examining positive and negative behaviors separately at times one and

two.

|  | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Time Two** | | | | |
| Bad Habits | 1.15 | 2.09 | .036 | .18 |
| Bad Habits X Sex | 1.21 | 2.49 | .013 | .21 |
| Inconsiderate | -.02 | -.03 | .974 | .00 |
| Inconsiderate X Sex | -.61 | -.85 | .397 | -.07 |
| Intrusive | -2.81 | -4.00 | <.001 | -.33 |
| Intrusive X Sex | -.80 | -1.21 | .226 | -.11 |
| Norm Violations | -.54 | -.65 | .513 | -.06 |
| Norm Violations X Sex | .83 | 1.15 | .251 | .10 |
| Instrumental Support | 1.44 | 2.68 | .008 | .23 |
| Instr. Support X Sex | 1.75 | 3.38 | .001 | .29 |
| Emotional Support | 2.09 | 4.07 | <.001 | .34 |
| Emot. Support X Sex | .18 | .38 | .702 | .03 |
| Gracious | -2.65 | -3.65 | <.001 | -.31 |
| Gracious X Sex | -.58 | -.90 | .368 | -.08 |
| Sex. Affectionate | 1.29 | 2.72 | .007 | .23 |
| Sex. Affect. X Sex | -.47 | -1.11 | .269 | -.10 |

Note:   Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine the cross-sectional relationships
between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and the individual's report of
their own satisfaction. The intercept was posed as a random effect, taking into account
random variation due to individuals being nested within couples. Interaction terms were
also added to determine whether sex of participant moderated relationships. Standard
errors may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by
the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 128 *dfs*. $N_{men} = 70$ & $N_{women} = 70$.

*Appendix C.3*

Change in the partner's relationship behavior as a predictor of changes in the individual's satisfaction, examining positive and negative behaviors in separate analyses.

| | Men's Satisfaction | | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
| Bad Habits | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .52 | .97 | .333 | .06 | 1.10 | 2.37 | .018 | .15 |
| Length | .06 | 1.38 | .168 | .09 | .00 | .06 | .956 | .00 |
| Inconsiderate | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | .61 | 1.03 | .306 | .06 | .63 | .89 | .372 | .06 |
| Length | -.02 | -.41 | .679 | -.03 | -.01 | -.12 | .902 | -.01 |
| Intrusive | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -2.56 | -4.61 | <.001 | -.28 | -3.08 | -4.92 | <.001 | -.29 |
| Length | -.08 | -1.43 | .154 | -.09 | .05 | .84 | .403 | .05 |
| Norm Violations | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -1.58 | -2.60 | .010 | -.16 | -.68 | -.66 | .507 | -.04 |
| Length | .02 | .33 | .745 | .02 | -.05 | -.49 | .627 | -.03 |
| Instrumental Support | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -.39 | -.76 | .447 | -.05 | 1.69 | 3.65 | <.001 | .22 |
| Length | .01 | .17 | .863 | .01 | -.09 | -2.28 | .023 | -.14 |
| Emotional Support | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | 1.49 | 3.04 | .003 | .19 | 2.26 | 4.86 | <.001 | .29 |
| Length | -.02 | -.49 | .628 | -.03 | -.04 | -1.02 | .309 | -.06 |
| Gracious | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -1.09 | -1.67 | .095 | -.10 | -1.19 | -2.19 | .028 | -.14 |
| Length | .10 | 1.60 | .110 | .10 | .15 | 2.94 | .004 | .18 |

*Appendix C.3* (continued)

Change in the partner's relationship behavior as a predictor of changes in the individual's

satisfaction, examining positive and negative behaviors in separate analyses.

| | Men's Satisfaction | | | | Women's Satisfaction | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ | $\beta$ | $t$ | $p$ | $r_{ES}$ |
| Sex. Affectionate | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | 1.12 | 2.73 | .007 | .17 | .04 | .09 | .927 | .01 |
| Length | -.07 | -1.76 | .078 | -.11 | .02 | .56 | .576 | .03 |
| Time | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -.82 | -1.88 | .060 | -.12 | -1.05 | -2.48 | .013 | -.15 |
| Intercept | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | 43.71 | 29.52 | <.001 | .96 | 42.79 | 30.27 | .000 | .96 |
| Average Contact | -.12 | -.28 | .781 | -.03 | .08 | .20 | .841 | .02 |

NOTE: Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine changes in satisfaction, estimating the intercept as a random effect. Time was coded as –1 for time one and +1 for time two. Intercept indicates the effect for the predictor, regardless of relationships length (at time one) in months, and length indicates the cross-level interaction between the predictor and relationship length. Since two separate analyses were performed, only the strongest time and intercept effects (negative behaviors) are reported in the table to maintain consistency between tables. Standard errors of the intercepts may be calculated from the information in the table by dividing the *t*-statistic by the value for the slope ($\beta$). Tests of significance are based on 68 *dfs* for random intercepts and 258 *dfs* for all other fixed effects. $N_{men}$ = 70 & $N_{women}$ = 70

*Appendix D*

Informed consent for participation in the study three.

**Experiment:** Men's and Women's Behavior in Close Relationships
**Investigators:** Stephen R. Shamblen, Michael R. Cunningham, Lara K. Ault, Bethany Hayes, Amy Scott, Randi Neuman

I understand that I am being invited to participate in a research study sponsored by the University of Louisville's Department of Psychological and Brain Sciences.

The purpose of this research is to investigate what changes occur in behaviors that are performed in close relationships as the relationship progresses over time. In addition, this research looks at what factors influence changes in relationships over time.

In this study, I will be asked to indicate how often my close relationship partner and I engage in a number of positive and negative behaviors within the context of our relationships.  A questionnaire will be used to ask 254 questions about behaviors by myself and my partner, 500 questions about my relationship and 270 questions about my personality.  Your participation will consist of two sessions. The first session will take 2.5 hours, and the second session will take about 1.5 hours. You will receive 3 information credits and 3 experimental credits for participating in both sessions. In the event you do not complete both sessions, your research participation points will be prorated. You also may be asked to participate in follow ups at 6 months and twelve months, which you may decline to do. If I am not enrolled in Psychology 201, I will be entered in a drawing for a $100 gift certificate for participating in both sessions. The benefit of my participation is to give me first hand information about psychological research while aiding the researchers at U of L in their exploration of issues critical to the science of psychology.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may refuse to participate in the study without penalty to me. I may also withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty or loss of benefits to which I would ordinarily be entitled. I also may decline to answer any questions that make me uncomfortable.

There are no foreseeable risks associated with this study, other than some discomfort in answering personal questions.

I understand that absolute confidentiality cannot be guaranteed. However, my records will be stored in a locked room where only the investigators mentioned above, the sponsor, and the University Human Studies Committee may have access to this information. My responses will <u>not</u> be shown to my partner, and the questionnaires will be shredded upon completion of the study. In all other respects the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. My partner and I will not be identified in any presentation or publication of this research.

If you are completing this study from home on your computer, you should allow enough time to complete the questionnaire. Confidentiality can no longer be maintained if your computer is left unattended with the survey on the computer screen.

By signing below, I acknowledge that all my questions have been answered in language that I understand. Any future questions will be answered in a similar manner. If I have any questions

about this study, I may contact the investigators listed above at 852-6775. If I have any questions about my rights as a research participant, I may contact the Human Studies Committee at 852-5188 to discuss the matter, in confidence, with a member of the Committee. This is an independent committee composed of faculty and staff of the University of Louisville and its' affiliated hospitals, as well as lay members of the community not connected with these institutions. The committee has reviewed this study.

I acknowledge receiving a copy of this Informed Consent Form. By signing this form I freely consent to take part in this study.


_____          _____

Participant Signature                                               Date Signed


_____          _____

Experimenter Signature                                            Date Signed

Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974).

INSTRUCTIONS: The following statements concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. If a statement is true or mostly true as applied to you, select a (2) for true. If a statement is false or mostly false as applied to you, select a (1) for false.

1.  I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
2.  My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs.
3.  At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
4.  I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
5.  I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
6.  I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.
7.  When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.
8.  I would probably make a good actor.
9.  I rarely need the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music.
10. I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am.
11. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone.
12. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention.
13. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
14. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
15. Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time.
16. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
17. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things. in order to please someone else or win their favor.
18. I have considered being an entertainer.
19. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.
20. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
21. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
22. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
23. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.
24. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for the right end.
25. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Other-Monitoring Scale (Rowatt, 1997).

INSTRUCTIONS: This questionnaire contains several statements that describe how you may feel or behave while you are with a person who is important to you (for example: spouse, dating partner, family member, friend, colleague, child). Please read each sentence carefully and then, using the rating scale below, select the number that best describes you for that item.

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neither   Agree   Strongly Agree

1.  I notice when people are dressed badly for the occasion.
2.  When someone else makes a mistake I try to correct them.
3.  I "look the other way" when someone I know cheats.
4.  The physical appearance of people I am with is important to me.
5.  I notice when other people I am working with do not do their share of the work.
6.  I feel bad when a person I am with is unethical.
7.  I observe people I am with to make sure their physical appearance is appropriate.
8.  I do *not* notice how pleasant the people I am with are being to others.
9.  It irritates me when people I am with are not polite to others.
10. I give advice to people about how to dress.
11. I compliment people I am with when they do a good job.
12. I realize that it could make me look bad if I was with someone who shoplifted.
13. It is important for people I am with to have good posture.
14. I do *not* enjoy being associated with people who win.
15. I feel angry when someone who is important to me tries to cheat.
16. I "Shush" people I am with when they are talking too loud in a public place.
17. I feel good when my significant other performs well in front of others.
18. I would *not* insist that my partner apologize if they hurt someone's feelings.
19. I correct people when they mispronounce a word.
20. I do *not* compliment people I am with when they look good.
21. I cringe when someone I am with is rude in public.
22. I am generally *un*concerned with the appearance of people who are important to me.
23. When a person I am with makes a social blunder, I do not help them.
24. It does *not* bother me when a person I am with argues with others in public.
25. I would brush lint off of the shirt of someone I know.
26. I cringe when someone I'm close to uses obscene language.
27. I try to help people be good at what they do.
28. I try to help people who are important to me to be more ethical or virtuous.
29. It bothers me when someone who is important to me abuses alcohol or drugs.
30. I encourage my friends to violate social rules (for example, cutting in line).

*Appendix G*

Big-Five Dimensions of Personality (Saucier, 1994).

INSTRUCTIONS: Please use this list of common human traits to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared with other persons you know of the same sex and of roughly the same age. Please choose which number best describes you using the scale below.

1 = Extremely Inaccurate
2 = Very Inaccurate
3 = Moderately Inaccurate
4 = Slightly Inaccurate
5 = ? (uncertain)
6 = Slightly Accurate
7 = Moderately Accurate
8 = Very Accurate
9 = Extremely Accurate

**Extraversion**

1. Bold
2. Energetic
3. Extraverted
4. Talkative
5. Bashful
6. Quiet
7. Shy
8. Withdrawn

**Agreeableness**

9. Cooperative
10. Kind
11. Sympathetic
12. Warm
13. Cold
14. Harsh
15. Rude
16. Unsympathetic

**Conscientiousness**

17. Efficient
18. Organized
19. Practical
20. Systematic
21. Careless
22. Disorganized
23. Inefficient
24. Sloppy

**Neuroticism**

25. Relaxed
26. Unenvious
27. Envious
28. Fretful
29. Jealous
30. Moody
31. Temperamental
32. Touchy

**Openness to Experience**

33. Complex
34. Creative
35. Deep
36. Imaginative
37. Intellectual
38. Philosophical
39. Unintellectual
40. Uncreative

*Appendix H*

Abridged version of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry,

1988).

```
INSTRUCTIONS: The following items describe how people may see themselves. Please
use a (1) to (5) scale to indicate how well each of the statements describe you,
where a (5) indicates that the statement is very descriptive of you as a person
and (1) indicates that the statement is not at all descriptive of you as a
person.

        Not at All Descriptive    1....2....3....4....5    Very Descriptive

1.  I see myself as a good leader.
2.  I have a natural talent for influencing people.
3.  I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done.
4.  I can live my life in any way I want to.
5.  I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.
6.  I think I am a special person.
7.  I am apt to show off if I get the chance.
8.  I like to be the center of attention.
9.  I would do almost anything on a dare.
10. I can read people like a book.
11. I can make anybody believe anything I want them to.
12. I like to display my body.
13. I expect a great deal from other people.
14. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.
```

Short-form of the Sensation Seeking Scale (Madsen, et. al., 1987).

INSTRUCTIONS: The following items describe how people may see themselves. Please choose which answer (A or B) best describes you as a person.

1. A) I can't wait to get into the doors on a cold day.
   B) I am invigorated by a brisk, cold day.

2. A) I would like to hitchhike across the country
   B) Hitchhiking is too dangerous a way to travel.

3. A) I would like to go water-skiing.
   B) I would not like to go water-skiing.

4. A) I can't stand watching a movie that I've seen before.
   B) There are some movies that I enjoy seeing a second or even third time.

5. A) I would not like to learn to fly an airplane.
   B) I would like to learn to fly an airplane.

6. A) A person should have some sexual experience before marriage.
   B) It's better if two married persons begin their sexual experience with each other.

7. A) There is altogether too much portrayal of sex in movies.
   B) I enjoy watching many of the "sexy" scenes in movies.

8. A) People who ride motorcycles must have some kind of unconscious need to hurt themselves.
   B) I would like to drive or ride on a motorcycle.

9. A) I would like to go scuba diving.
   B) I prefer the surface of the water to the depths.

10. A) I enjoy spending time in the familiar surroundings of home.
    B) I get very restless if I have to stay around home for any length of time.

*Appendix J*

Attachment Style Measures (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1990; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000;

Shaver & Hazan, 1994)

**Hazan & Shaver Attachment Style Measure (1994)**

INSTRUCTIONS: The following three items inquire about how you see yourself in
close relationships with others. Please respond using the given scale.

1. I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to
   trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am
   nervous when anyone gets too close, and often, love partners want me to
   be more intimate than I feel comfortable being. (Description #1)

   | This is not at | | | | | | This is very |
   | all like me | | | | | | much like me |
   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

2. I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often
   worry that my partner doesn't really love me or won't want to stay with
   me. I want to get very close to my partner, and this sometimes scares
   people away.  (Description #2)

   | This is not at | | | | | | This is very |
   | all like me | | | | | | much like me |
   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

3. I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable
   depending on them.  I don't often worry about being abandoned or about
   someone getting too close to me. (Description #1)

   | This is not at | | | | | | This is very |
   | all like me | | | | | | much like me |
   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

4. What is the number of the description (1 through 3) that corresponds most
   closely to yourself in your current or most recent relationship?

**Bartholomew & Horowitz Attachment Style Measure (1990)**

5. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to my partner. I am
   comfortable depending on my partner and having them depend on me. I don't
   worry about being alone or having my partner not accept me.(Description
   #1)

   | This is not at | | | | | | This is very |
   | all like me | | | | | | much like me |
   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

6. I am comfortable without a close emotional relationship with my partner.
   It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient and I
   prefer not to depend on my partner or have my partner depend on me.
   (Description #2)

   | This is not at | | | | | | This is very |
   | all like me | | | | | | much like me |
   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

7. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with my partner but I often
   find that my partner is reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am
   uncomfortable being without a close relationship with my partner but I
   sometimes worry that my partner doesn't value me as much as I value my
   partner. (Description #3)

```
    This is not at                                    This is very
     all like me                                     much like me
         1         2         3         4         5         6         7
```

8. I'm uncomfortable getting close to my partner. I want an emotionally
   close relationship with my partner but I find it difficult to trust my
   partner completely or to depend on my partner. I worry that I will be
   hurt if I allow myself to become too close to my partner. (Description
   #4)

```
    This is not at                                    This is very
     all like me                                     much like me
         1         2         3         4         5         6         7
```

9. What is the number of the description (1 through 4) that corresponds most
   closely to yourself in your current or most recent relationship?

**Abridged Version of the Fraley et. al. (2000) Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire**

**Anxiety Items**

1) I'm afraid that I will loose my partner's love.
2) I often wish that my partner's feelings were as strong as my feelings
   for him/her.
3) When my partner is out of sight; I worry that he/she might become
   interested in someone else.
4) I rarely worry about my partner leaving me.
5) Sometimes romantic partners change their feelings about me for no
   apparent reason.
6) My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.
7) I'm afraid that once a romantic partner gets to know me; he or she won't
   like who I really am.
8) It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from
   my partner.

**Avoidance Items**

9)  I prefer to not show a partner how I feel deep down.
10) I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners.
11) It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need.
12) I tell my partner just about everything.
13) I am nervous when partners get too close too me.
14) I feel comfortable depending on romantic partners.
15) My partner really understands me and my needs.

*Appendix K*

Romantic Inflation Scale.

**General concealment**

1. I did not put on a false front when I started dating my partner.
2. When we first started dating, I acted better than I really was to attract my partner.
3. I told a few lies about myself when I first started dating my current partner.
4. I quickly let my current partner know that I was not perfect.
5. I figured out what my current partner wanted in a date, and tried to act like that kind of person.

**Decreased Effort**

6. When we first started dating, I offered to help my partner out with all of his/her chores.
7. I quickly let my partner know that I would not help them with their tasks, like food preparation or cleaning their car.
8. When we first started dating, I spent a lot of money to create a positive impression.
9. I really put on a show to capture my current partner's interest.
10. I quickly let my partner know that I was not big on celebrating holidays like Valentines day or birthdays.

**Increased Self-Assertion**

11. When my partner was a little depressed early in the relationship, I acted very sensitive and supportive.
12. Even when we first started dating, I did not pretend to be interested in everything my partner had to say.
13. When we first started dating, I made myself appear much more caring than I really was so that my current partner would like me more.
14. I was especially nice when I first started dating my partner.
11. When I first started dating my partner, I tried to be highly romantic to gain their affection.
15. I hugged and kissed my partner a lot at the beginning of the relationship to increase their romantic interest.

**Increased Control**

16. I refrained from contradicting my partner when we first started dating.
17. Even when we first started dating, I was willing to correct my partner's mistakes.
18. As I was getting to know my partner, I did not let the fact that he/she was sometimes irresponsible bother me too much.
19. I usually ignored my partner's behaviors that bothered me as our relationship began.

**Decreased Disclosure**

20. Early in our relationship, I concealed my character flaws from my current partner.
21. I quickly let my partner know the real me.
22. With a few weeks of dating, I admitted my bad habits to my current partner.
23. I let my partner know that I liked doing things that many people disapproved.

*Appendix L*

Demographic Questions.

```
These last few questions are three demographic questions:

1. Please indicate your sex:
   1) Male
   2) Female

2. Please indicate your exact age.

3. Please choose which of the following best describes your level of
   educational attainment:
   1) Less than a high-school education
   2) High school graduate
   3) Bachelor's Degree
   4) Graduate or professional degree (e.g., M. A., Ph.D., M.D., J.D.)
```

*Appendix M*

Measures of Frequency of Contact (Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto, 1989)

**Frequency Scale**

```
We would like you to estimate the amount of time you typically spend alone with
your partner (referred to below as 'X' during the day. We would like you to make
these time estimates by breaking the day into morning, afternoon, and evening,
although you should interpret each of these time periods in terms of your own
typical daily schedule. (For example, if you work a night shift, 'morning' may
actually reflect time in the afternoon, but is nevertheless time immediately
after waking.)

Think back over the past two months of your relationship and write in the
average amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with X, with no one else
around, during each time period. If you did not spend any time with X in some
time periods, write 0 minutes.

3. DURING THE PAST TWO MONTHS OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP, what is the average
   amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with X in the MORNING
   (e.g., between the time you wake and 12 noon) in minutes?

4. DURING THE PAST TWO MONTHS OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP, what is the average
   amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with X in the AFTERNOON
   (e.g., between 12 noon and 6 pm) in minutes?

5. DURING THE PAST TWO MONTHS OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP, what is the average
   amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with X in the EVENING
   (e.g., between 6 pm and bedtime) in minutes?

6. Compared with the 'normal' amount of time you usually spend alone with X,
   how typical were the past two months?

   1=not typical
   2=typical
```

**Item Created for the Present Study**

```
5.  Please indicate on average, how many days out of the seven days of the
    week did you usually see your partner in the past two months of your
    relationship using the following scale:

        1        2       3       4       5       6       7       8
       day     days    days    days    days    days    days   Lived
     or less                                                 together
      often
```

*Appendix N*

Commitment items used in Rusbult (1983).

```
INSTRUCTIONS: The following questions inquire about specific aspects of your
relationship. Please respond using a 1 to 9 scale. Please respond about the past
2 months of the relationship.

1. How likely is it that you will end your relationship in the near future?

     Not at All    1....2....3....4....5....6....7....8....9    Extremely
     Likely                                                     Likely

2. For what length of time would you like your relationship to last?

     Week or So    1....2....3....4....5....6....7....8....9    Lifetime

3. How attractive an alternative would you require before adopting it and
   ending your relationship?

     Extremely    1....2....3....4....5....6....7....8....9    Moderately
     Attractive                                                Attractive
     Alternative                                               Alternative

4. To what extent are you "attached" to your partner?

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

5. To what extent are you committed to your relationship?

   Not at All    1....2....3....4....5....6....7....8....9    Extremely
```

*Appendix O*

## The Post Romanticism Scale, and Perceptions of Post Romantic Motives.

```
INSTRUCTIONS: For the following statements please indicate how strongly
you agree/disagree with each statement using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Strongly Agree

(r indicates it is presumably reverse scored).
```

**Post Romantic Motives (Time 1)**

### INCREASED SELF-ASSERTION (k=11)

```
1. I have too many other things to worry about than my partner.
2. It doesn't bother me much if I hurt my partner's feelings occasionally.
3. I really don't care if my partner is annoyed by some of the things that I
   do.
4. I cannot base all of my actions on how they will affect my partner.
5. I often find it easier to tune my partner out when they are upset with me
   than dealing with the problems at hand.
6. I cannot please my partner all of the time.
7. I don't care if my partners bored, I need to talk about my day.
8. I tell my partner about my medical problems, regardless of how disgusted
   they become.
9.r I care very much about what my partner thinks of me.
10.r When I have made my partner angry, it is important to apologize and
    make them feel better.
11.r I do everything I can to prevent my partner from being disgusted with
    me.
```

### DECREASED EFFORT (k=9)

```
12. I'm not willing to always try to be cheerful and upbeat around my
    partner.
13. I prefer wearing comfortable clothing around my partner, even if it
    makes me look grungy and unattractive.
14.r I work to be on my best behavior when I am with my partner.
15. My partner sees me when I have not taken a shower for days.
16. My partner sees me when I have not shaved for days.
17. It's too difficult to maintain a false front around my partner.
18. I cannot help letting my partner see me when I do not look my best
    occasionally.
19. I'm too busy to put a lot of effort into impressing my partner.
20.r I make sure that my partner is unaware of some of my bad habits.
```

### DECREASED DISCLOSURE (k=11)

```
21. I often let my partner know that if they do not like who I am they can
    either "take it or leave it."
22. I expect my partner to accept my past experiences--even those that might
    upset them.
23. I've got to be myself, and I don't care what my partner thinks.
24. I don't want my partner to limit my freedom.
25. I don't believe that I should have to refrain from expressing my
    personal tastes or preferences around my partner.
26. I need to pursue my favorite activities even if my partner does not
    approve.
27. I believe that I should live my life, and my partner should lives
    theirs.
28. I don't believe in ever having to say I'm sorry to my partner.
29.r If my partner really gets to know me, I am afraid that they might not
    like what they see.
30.r I sometimes feel like I can't be myself in front of my partner.
```

31.r There are many things that I can't tell my partner about myself,
    because I would get too embarrassed.

**CONTROL (k=13)**

32. My partner will not be what I want them to be unless I tell them what to
    do.
33. I believe that if my relationship partner is not doing their share in
    the relationship, it is OK to complain or yell at them.
34. It is reasonable for me to manipulate my partner some of the time.
35. I believe in telling my partner what I expect of them.
36. Occasionally, it is OK for partners to tell each other what to do.
37. It is sometimes easier to be mean to get what I want from my partner
    instead of being nice.
38. Expressing anger towards one's relationship partner occasionally is
    normal.
39. To make a point, I am willing to interrupt my partner when talking about
    important matters.
40. If it comes to a choice of being nice to my partner or getting what I
    want, I'll choose getting what I want.
41.r In our relationship, I believe my partner and I should have equal say
     in making decisions about issues relevant to the relationship.
42.r I don't believe in giving corrective feedback to my partner, regardless
     of how badly they behave.
43.r I am more concerned about making my partner happy than I am in getting
     what I want from them.
44.r I don't believe in trying to change my partner.

**CATEGORICAL ITEMS**

INSTRUCTIONS: Please indicate how strongly you agree with each of the following
statements using the following scale:

    Strongly Disagree  1..2..3..4..5..6..7..8..9  Strongly Disagree

In the first stage of a relationship, you win the partner's affection, and in
the second stage, you:

1. Start to lose interest
2. Relax and coast
3. Show what you're really like
4. Mold them into what you want

5. Please indicate which statement (1-4) best describes how you feel about
   your relationship.

INSTRUCTIONS: Please indicate how strongly you agree with each of the following
statements using the following scale:

    Strongly Disagree  1..2..3..4..5..6..7..8..9  Strongly Disagree

If my partner loves me they will:

1. Understand that I have concerns other than them
2. Not expect too much of me
3. Accept that I have to be myself
4. Take my suggestions and change accordingly

5. Please indicate which statement (1-4) best describes how you feel about
   your relationship.

**Post Romantic Motives (Time 2)**

**Increased Self-Assertion**

1.r I always need to show my partner that I still care about them.
2. I'm less interested in my partner's feelings than I used to be.

3. I now take my relationship partner for granted much of the time.
4. I don't care as much about my partner's image of me as I used to.

**Decreased effort**

5.r I still try to surprise my partner with good things (besides on birthdays and holidays).
6.r I believe that I should still try to look my best around my partner so they will continue to be attracted to me.
7. I don't have the energy to impress my partner anymore.
8. I don't feel like spending a lot of money to impress my partner anymore.

**Increased self-assertion**

9. I now expect my partner to stay with me stay with me regardless of what I do.
10. These days, I insist that my partner accept the real me, including my bad qualities.
11. I tried conforming to what my partner wanted, but at this point in the relationship, I've got to express my own interests.
12. I am much more likely to express my true feelings now, compared to when we first started dating.

**Increased control**

13. I've learned that my partner will disappoint me unless I set clear expectations.
14. I've discovered that my partner does not handle responsibilities very well, so I have to watch them all the time.
15. My partners actions in public have embarrassed me a few times, so now I watch them very closely.
16. When we first started dating, I let my partner be themselves, but not anymore.


**Perceptions of Romantic Inflation by Ones Partner (Time 2)**

INSTRUCTIONS: For the following items; please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree  1..2..3..4..5..6..7..8..9  Strongly Agree

**Increased self-assertion**

1. My partner always needs to show me that he/she stills cares about me.
2. My partner is less interested in my feelings than he/she used to be.
3. My partner now takes me for granted much of the time.
4. My partner doesn't care as much about my image of him/her as he/she used to.

**Decreased effort**

5. My partner still tries to surprise me partner with good things (besides on birthdays and holidays).
6. My partner believes that he/she should still try to look his/her best around me so I will continue to be attracted to him/her.
7. My partner doesn't seem to have the energy to impress me anymore.
8. My partner doesn't seem to feel like spending a lot of money to impress me anymore.


**Decreased disclosure**

9. My partner now expects me to stay with him/her regardless of what he/she does.
10. These days; my partner insists that I accept the real him/her; including his/her bad qualities.
11. My partner tried conforming to what I wanted; but at this point in the relationship; he/she seems to want to express his/her own interests.
12. My partner is much more likely to express his/her true feelings now; compared to when we first started dating.

**Increased control**

13. My partner has become concerned that I will disappoint him/her unless he/she sets clear expectations for me.
14. My partner has begun feeling that I do not handle responsibilities very well; so he/she seems to watch over me all the time now.
15. My actions in public have embarrassed my partner a few times; so now he/she seems to watch me very closely.
16. When we first started dating; my partner let me be myself; but not anymore.

**Perceived Deception and Negative Affect as a Result of a Partner's Post Romanticism**

INSTRUCTIONS: For the following items; please use the given scale for each item.

**Decreased effort**

1) To what extent do you now feel that the way that your partner presented his/her politeness; grooming and self-control at the beginning of the relationship was misleading.

   Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
   Misleading                              Misleading

2) To what extent are you bothered by feeling that you were misled by your partner about his/her politeness; grooming and self-control

   Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
   Bothered                                Bothered

**Increased self-assertion**

3) To what extent do you now feel that the way that your partner presented his/her sensitivity to your needs and feelings at the beginning of the relationship was misleading.

   Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
   Misleading                              Misleading

4) To what extent are you bothered by feeling that you were misled by your partner about his/her sensitivity to your needs and feelings

   Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
   Bothered                                Bothered

**Increased control**

5) To what extent do you now feel that the way that your partner presented his/her willingness to let you be yourself at the beginning of the relationship was misleading

   Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
   Misleading                              Misleading

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6) To what extent are you bothered by feeling that you were
   misled by your partner about his/her willingness to let you
   be yourself

    Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
    Bothered                                Bothered

**Decreased disclosure**

7) To what extent do you now feel that the way that your
   partner presented his/her willingness to follow social norms
   in such areas as partying; flirting; and taking risks at the
   beginning of the relationship was misleading.

    Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
    Misleading                            Misleading

8) To what extent are you bothered by feeling that you were
   misled by your partner about his/her willingness to follow
   social norms

    Not at All  1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9  Very
    Bothered                                Bothered

*Appendix P*

The Romantic Relationship Act Inventory

INSTRUCTIONS: The following items reflect common behaviors that relationship partners may engage in. Each item refers to a behavior in which your close relationship partner has engaged around you. In these instructions; your close relationship partner will be referred to as 'your partner'. For each item you will be asked two questions: one concerns the frequency of a behavior, the second is how you feel about the behavior.

--PLEASE ONLY RESPOND ABOUT THE PAST 2 MONTHS OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP!--

Please indicate how often YOUR PARTNER has performed each behavior around you in the PAST 2 MONTHS; using the following scale:

```
0) Never                         5) About once a week
1) Less than once in 2 months    6) 2-3 times per week
2) Once every two months         7) 4-6 times per week
3) Once a month                  8) Once per day
4) Once every two weeks          9) 2 or more times per day
```

Second; please indicate how you would feel if YOUR PARTNER engaged in each behavior described. By Very Pleased=+4 we mean very happy delighted gratified perhaps thinking about making a stronger commitment. By Very Annoyed=-4 we mean very irritated angry upset or disgusted perhaps thinking about breaking up. If your partner engaged in each behavior described; please indicate how you felt about it. (NOTE: if your partner did not do the behavior; indicate how you guess you would feel).

Very Annoyed  -4...-3...-2...-1...0...1...2...3...4  Very Pleased

**Positive Behaviors**

1a. How often did your partner help you set up or assemble appliances that were purchased in the past 2 months?

1b. How did you feel when your partner helped you set up or assemble appliances that were purchased?

2a. How often was your partner a good listener for you in the past 2 months?

2b. How did you feel when your partner was a good listener for you?

3a. How often has your partner initiated a constructive talk about your relationship with you in the past 2 months?

3b. How did you feel when your partner initiated a constructive talk about your relationship?

4a. How often did your partner performed oral sex on you in the past 2 months?

4b. How did you feel when your partner performed oral sex on you?

5a. How often did your partner help you in financial matters (e.g. Saving money; taxes) in the past 2 months?

5b. How did you feel when your partner helped you in financial matters (e.g. Saving money; taxes)?

6a. How often did your partner ask you how your day went in the past 2 months?

6b. How did you feel when your partner asked you how your day went?

7a. How often did your partner take you out to eat at an expensive restaurant in the past 2 months?

7b. How did you feel when your partner took you out to eat at an expensive restaurant?

8a. How often did your partner initiate sexual activity with you in the past 2 months?

8b. How did you feel when your partner initiated sexual activity with you?

9a. How often did your partner loan you books or CDs in the past 2 months?

9b. How did you feel when your partner loaned you books or CDs?

10a. How often did your partner spend time just talking with you in the past 2 months?

10b. How did you feel when your partner spent time just talking with you?

11a. How often did your partner do something out of the ordinary that they knew would surprise you in the past 2 months?

11b. How did you feel when your partner did something out of the ordinary that they knew would surprise you?

12a. How often did your partner arrange to have a 'nooner' or 'quickie' sexual encounter with you in the past 2 months?

12b. How did you feel when your partner arranged to have a 'nooner' or 'quickie' sexual encounter with you?

13a. How often did your partner represent you in disputes with other people (e.g. pushy salespeople; auto mechanics) in the past 2 months?

13b. How did you feel when your partner represented you in disputes with other people (e.g. pushy salespeople; auto mechanics)?

14a. How often did your partner talk about their day with you in the past 2 months?

14b. How did you feel when your partner talked about their day with you?

15a. How often did your partner wait until they cooled off before discussing a problem with you in the past 2 months?

15b. How did you feel when your partner waited until they cooled off before discussing a problem with you?

16a. How often did your partner engage in foreplay with you in the past 2 months?

16b. How did you feel when your partner engaged in foreplay with you?

17a. How often did your partner investigate a scary noise in the apartment/house in the middle of the night in the past 2 months?

17b. How did you feel when your partner investigated a scary noise in the apartment/house in the middle of the night?

18a. How often did your partner cheer you up when you were distressed in the past 2 months?

18b. How did you feel when your partner cheered you up when you were distressed?

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19a. How often did your partner initiate a talk about the problems in your relationship with you in the past 2 months?

19b. How did you feel when your partner initiated a talk about the problems in your relationship with you?

20a. How often has your partner told you that they love you in the past 2 months?

20b. How did you feel when your partner told you that they love you?

21a. How often has your partner repaired things for you around your apartment or house in the past 2 months?

21b. How did you feel when your partner repaired things for you around your apartment or house?

22a. How often did your partner share their successes and accomplishments you in the past 2 months?

22b. How did you feel when your partner shared their successes and accomplishments with you?

23a. How often did your partner plan a romantic evening for the two of you in the past 2 months?

23b. How did you feel when your partner planed a romantic evening for the two of you?

24a. How often did your partner tell you that you are physically attractive in the past 2 months?

24b. How did you feel when your partner told you that you are physically attractive?

25a. How often did your partner provide advice to you when making major purchases (e.g. computer; a car) in the past 2 months?

25b. How did you feel when your partner provided advice to you when making major purchases (e.g. computer; a car)?

26a. How often did your partner complimented you in the past 2 months?

26b. How did you feel when your partner complimented you?

27a. How often did your partner take time off work so that they could spend more time with you in the past 2 months?

27b. How did you feel when your partner took time off work so that they could spend more time with you?

28a. How often did your partner just want to stay at home with you instead of going out and doing something in the past 2 months?

28b. How did you feel when your partner just wanted to stay at home with you instead of going out and doing something?

29a. How often did your partner help you solve a personal problem in the past 2 months?

29b. How did you feel when your partner helped you solve a personal problem?

30a. How often did your partner ask you if there was anything that they can do to help out in the past 2 months?

30b. How did you feel when your partner asked you if there was anything that they could do to help out?

31a. How often did your partner share their hopes and dreams with you in the past 2 months?

31b. How did you feel when your partner shared their hopes and dreams with you?

32a. How often did your partner hug you in the past 2 months?

32b. How did you feel when your partner hugged you?

33a. How often did your partner do yard work or other outdoor tasks for you in the past 2 months?

33b. How did you feel when your partner did yard work or other outdoor tasks for you?

34a. How often did your partner do activities with you (e.g. going bowling; taking a walk) in the past 2 months?

34b. How did you feel when your partner did activities with you (e.g. going bowling; taking a walk)?

35a. How often did your partner say things to you that implied that the relationship would continue into the future (e.g. talking about moving in together in the future; talking about where the both of us want to live) in the past 2 months?

35b. How did you feel when your partner said things to you that implied that the relationship would continue into the future (e.g. talking about moving in together in the future; talking about where the both of us want to live)?

36a. How often did your partner display affection towards you in public (e.g. holding hands; kissing) in the past 2 months?

36b. How did you feel when your partner displayed affection towards you in public (e.g. holding hands; kissing)?

37a. How often did your partner offer to pay for things that you wanted when you were out shopping together in the past 2 months?

37b. How did you feel when your partner offered to pay for things that you wanted when you were out shopping together?

38a. How often did your partner engage in common courtesies towards you (e.g. holding the door open for you; unlocking your car door first) in the past 2 months?

38b. How did you feel when your partner engaged in common courtesies towards you (e.g. holding the door open for you; unlocking your car door first)?

39a. How often did your partner wear sexy underwear for you in the past 2 months?

39b. How did you feel when your partner wore sexy underwear for you?

40a. How often did your partner kiss you in the past 2 months?

40b. How did you feel when your partner kissed you?

41a. How often did your partner spend a lot of money on presents that they bought for you in the past 2 months?

41b. How did you feel when your partner spent a lot of money on

presents that they bought for you?

42a. How often did your partner prepare themselves so that they would be sexy for you (e.g. putting on cologne; wearing an outfit that they know you like) in the past 2 months?

42b. How did you feel when your partner prepared themselves so that they would be sexy for you (e.g. putting on cologne; wearing an outfit that they know you like)?

43a. How often did your partner reminisce with you about past pleasurable experiences that you shared together in the past 2 months?

43b. How did you feel when your partner reminisced with you about past pleasurable experiences that you shared together?

44a. How often did your partner show appreciation for favors that you did for them in the past 2 months?

44b. How did you feel when your partner showed appreciation for favors that you did for them?

45a. How often did your partner loan you money in the past 2 months?

45b. How did your feel when your partner loaned you money?

46a. How often did your partner offer to be there for you when you were going through a difficult emotional experience (e.g. when a loved one had died) in the past 2 months?

46b. How did you feel when your partner offered to be there for you when you were going through a difficult emotional experience (e.g? when a loved one had died)?

47a. How often did your partner refrain from criticizing you in the past 2 months?

47b. How did you feel when your partner refrained from criticizing you?

48a. How often did your partner lovingly joke around with you in the past 2 months?

48b. How did you feel when your partner lovingly joked around with you?

49a. How often did your partner pay for the activities that you did together (e.g. paying for dinner; paying for a movie) in the past 2 months?

49b. How did you feel when your partner paid for the activities that you did together (e.g. paying for dinner; paying for a movie)?

50a. How often did your partner kiss and make up with you in the past 2 months?

50b. How did you feel when your partner kissed and made up with you?

51a. How often did your partner give in to you when they were right in the past 2 months?

51b. How did you feel when your partner gave in to you when they were right?

52a. How often did your partner do antics to get you to laugh in the past 2 months?

52b. How did your feel when your partner did antics to get you to laugh?

53a. How often did your partner take care of you when you were sick in the past 2 months?

53b. How did your feel when your partner took care of you when you were sick?

54a. How often did your partner compliment your accomplishments in the past 2 months?

54b. How did you feel when your partner complimented your accomplishments?

55a. How often did your partner buy you a small present when it was not a special occasion (e.g. flowers; picking up something I wanted without my asking) in the past 2 months?

55b. How did you feel when your partner bought you a small present when it was not a special occasion (e.g. flowers; picking up something I wanted without my asking)?

56a. How often did your partner show that they care about you in the past 2 months?

56b. How did you feel when your partner showed that they care about you?

57a. How often did your partner protect you by not letting you walk alone through a dangerous part of town in the past 2 months?

57b. How did you feel when your partner protected you by not letting you walk alone through a dangerous part of town?

58a. How often did your partner show sympathy for your feelings in the past 2 months?

58b. How did you feel when your partner showed sympathy for your feelings?

59a. How often did your partner take you places that you could have taken yourself (e.g. taking you to work so that you could spend more time together when you could have driven yourself)?

59b. How did you feel when your partner took you places that you could have taken yourself (e.g. taking you to work so that you could spend more time together when you could have driven yourself)?

60a. How often was your partner romantic towards you in the past 2 months?

60b. How did you feel when your partner was romantic towards you?

61a. How often did your partner assist you in fixing computer problems in the past 2 months?

61b. How did you feel when your partner assisted you in fixing computer problems?

62a. How often did your partner know what you were feeling without you needing to explain in the past 2 months?

62b. How did you feel when your partner knew what you were feeling without you needing to explain?

63a. How often did your partner cook your favorite meal in

the past 2 months?

63b. How did you feel when your partner cooked your favorite meal?

64a. How often did your partner assure you that they were faithful in the past 2 months?

64b. How did you feel when your partner assured you that they were faithful?

65a. How often did your partner tell you not to worry about your physical appearance when you were concerned about your looks?

65b. How did you feel when your partner told you not to worry about your physical appearance when you were concerned about your looks?

66a. How often was your partner polite to you in the past 2 months?

66b. How did you feel when your partner was polite to you?

67a. How often did your partner call you during the day just to say 'Hi' in the past 2 months?

67b. How did you feel when your partner called you during the day just to say 'Hi'?

68a. How often was your partner warm towards you in the past 2 months?

68b. How did you feel when your partner was warm towards you?

69a. How often did your partner carry heavy things for you in the past 2 months?

69b. How did you feel when your partner carried heavy things for you?

70a. How often did your partner try to build your self-esteem in the past 2 months?

70b. How did you feel when your partner tried to build your self-esteem?

71a. How often did your partner spend time with you and your friends in the past 2 months?

71b. How did you feel when your partner spent time with you and your friends?

72a. How often was your partner cheerful around you in the past 2 months

72b. How did you feel when your partner cheerful around you?

73a. How often did your partner do small tasks for you (e.g. fixed your favorite meal; cleaned your car) in the past 2 months?

73b. How did you feel when your partner did small tasks for you (e.g. fixed your favorite meal; cleaned your car)?

74a. How often was your partner supportive of the activities you were involved in the past 2 months?

74b. How did you feel when your partner was supportive of the activities you were involved in?

75a. How often did your partner engage in religious activities (e.g. going to church) with you in the past 2 months?

75b. How did you feel when your partner engaged in religious activities (e.g. going to church) with you?

76a. How often did your partner tell you what they like for you to do sexually in the past 2 months?

76b. How did you feel when your partner told you what they like for you to do sexually?

77a. How often was your partner nice and polite to your parents even though they do not like them in the past 2 months?

77b. How did you feel when your partner was nice and polite to your parents even though they do not like them?

78a. How often did your partner discuss a common enemy with you in the past 2 months?

78b. How did you feel when your partner discussed a common enemy with you?

79a. How often did your partner share their religious faith with you in the past 2 months?

79b. How did you feel when your partner shared their religious faith with you?

80a. How often did your partner give you a massage in the past? 2 months?

80b. How did you feel when your partner gave you a massage?

81a. How often did your partner try to resolve relationship misunderstandings with you in the past 2 months?

81b. How did you feel when your partner tried to resolve relationship misunderstandings with you?

82a. How often did your partner plan fun activities for the both of you to do in the past 2 months?

82b. How did you feel when your partner planned fun activities for the both of you to do?

83a. How often did your partner tell you white lies about your appearance (e.g. yes you look fine in those shoes) in the past 2 months)?

83b. How did you feel when your partner told you white lies about your appearance (e.g. yes you look fine in those shoes)?

84a. How often did your partner encourage you to discuss personal matters with you in the past 2 months?

84b. How did you feel when your partner encouraged you to discuss personal matters with you?

85a. How often did your partner take you out to go shopping in the past 2 months?

85b. How did you feel when your partner took you out to go shopping?

86a. How often was your partner the designated driver when you were both out drinking in the past 2 months?

86b. How did you feel when your partner was the designated driver when you were both out drinking?

87a. How often did your partner assist you in doing work around your home/apartment (e.g. taking out the trash; instrumental support with food preparation) in the past 2 months?

87b. How did you feel when your partner assisted you in doing work around your home/apartment (e.g. taking out the trash; instrumental support with food preparation)?

**Negative Behaviors**

1a. How often did your partner let you see them when they did not look their best (e.g. not wearing make-up; not having brushed their hair) in the past 2 months?

1b. How did you feel when your partner let you see them when they did not look their best (e.g. not wearing make-up not having brushed their hair)?

2a. How often did your partner make you wait for them while you were getting ready to go out in the past 2 months?

2b. How did you feel when your partner made you wait for them while you were getting ready to go out?

3a. How often did your partner not give you a chance to give an account for your behavior that has angered them in the past 2 months?

3b. How did you feel when your partner did not give you a chance to give an account for your behavior that has angered them?

4a. How often has your partner got drunk in front of you in the past 2 months?

4b. How did you feel when your partner got drunk in front of you?

5a. How often did your partner threaten to physically harm you in the past 2 months?

5b. How did you feel when your partner threatened to physically harm you?

6a. How often did your partner noisily belch (burped) around you in the past 2 months?

6b. How did your feel when your partner noisily belched (burped) around you?

7a. How often did your partner ask you for details of your current activities with people of the opposite sex that occurred when they were not around in the past 2 months?

7b. How did you feel when your partner asked you for details of your current activities with people of the opposite sex that occurred when they were not around?

8a. How often did your partner yell at you in the past 2 months?

8b. How did you feel when your partner yelled at you?

9a. How often did your partner go out with their friends instead of you in the past 2 months?

9b. How did you feel when your partner went out with their friends instead of you?

10a. How often did your partner give you an ultimatum or threaten to end

the relationship in the past 2 months?

10b. How did you feel when your partner gave you an ultimatum or threatened to end the relationship?

11a. How often did your partner noisily flatulate (fart) around you in the past 2 months?

11b. How did you feel when your partner noisily flatulated (farted) around you?

12a. How often did your partner inspect your personal belongings when you were not around in the past 2 months?

12b. How did you feel when your partner inspected your personal belongings when you were not around?

13a. How often was your partner sarcastic towards you in a non-humorous way in the past 2 months?

13b. How did you feel when your partner was sarcastic towards you in a non-humorous way?

14a. How often did your partner take risks while driving with you in the past 2 months?

14b. How did you feel when your partner took risks while driving with you?

15a. How often did your partner tell you that the relationship has no future in the past 2 months?

15b. How did you feel when your partner told you that the relationship has no future?

16a. How often has your partner been around you when he or she was inappropriately clothed (e.g. walking around in non-sexy underwear; walking around in old tattered clothing) in the past 2 months?

16b. How did you feel when your partner has been around you when he or she was inappropriately clothed (e.g. walking around in non-sexy underwear walking around in old tattered clothing)?

17a. How often did your partner spend a lot of money on clothing and shoes in the past 2 months?

17b. How did you feel when your partner spent a lot of money on clothing and shoes?

18a. How often did your partner demand that you do something for them (e.g. being dominant or bossy rather than being polite) in the past 2 months?

18b. How did you feel when your partner demanded that you do something for them (e.g. being dominant or bossy rather than being polite)?

19a. How often did your partner tell obscene jokes to their friends which embarrassed you in the past 2 months?

19b. How did your feel when your partner told obscene jokes to their friends which embarrassed you?

20a. How often did your partner not work hard on the job or in their school work and let you know in the past 2 months?

20b. How did you feel when your partner did not work hard on the job or in their school work and let you know?

21. My partner failed to clean up after themselves in the bathroom (e.g. taking the hair off the soap cleaning a toilette that they made messy)?

22a. How often did your partner get tired really early in the evening in the past 2 months?

22b. How did you feel when your partner got tired really early in the evening?

23a. How often did your partner become annoyed with or angered by you and let you know in the past 2 months?

23a. How often did your partner become annoyed with or angered by you and let you know?

24a. How often did your partner smoke cigars/cigarettes around you in the past 2 months?

24b. How did you feel when your partner smoked cigars/cigarettes around you?

25a. How often did your partner demonstrate that he or she has no ambition in the past 2 months?

25b. How did you feel when your partner demonstrated that he or she has no ambition?

26a. How often did your partner say rude or unkind things to you in the past 2 months?

26b. How did you feel when your partner said rude or unkind things to you?

27a. How often did your partner ask you whether or not they were physically attractive in the past 2 months?

27b. How did you feel when your partner asked you whether or not they were physically attractive?

28a. How often was your partner stubborn and refused to give in or compromise with you in the past 2 months?

28b. How did you feel when your partner was stubborn and refused to give in or compromise with you?

29a. How often did your partner flirt with persons of the opposite sex around you in the past 2 months?

29b. How did you feel when your partner flirted with persons of the opposite sex around you?

30a. How often did your partner push or hit you in the past 2 months?

30b. How did you feel when your partner pushed or hit you?

31a. How often did your partner use a lot of profanity (cursing) around you in the past 2 months?

31b. How did you feel when you partner used a lot of profanity (cursing) around you?

32a. How often did your partner complain to you about you not being as committed to the relationship as they are in the past 2 months?

32b. How did you feel when your partner complained to you about you not being as committed to the relationship as you are?

33a. How often has your partner been critical of you in the past 2 months?

33b. How did you feel when your partner has been critical of you?

34a. How often has your partner gambled for stakes greater than $5 in the past 2 months?

34b. How did you feel when your partner gambled for stakes greater than $5?

35a. How often was your partner rude; insulting; impolite; or disrespectful to you in the past 2 months?

35b. How did you feel when your partner was rude; insulting; impolite; or disrespectful to you?

36a. How often did your partner show a lack of concern for being clean around you (e.g. not taking a shower for two days or longer; not taking a shower after getting hot and sweaty) in the past 2 months?

36b. How did you feel when your partner showed a lack of concern for being clean around you (e.g. not taking a shower for two days or longer; not taking a shower after getting hot and sweaty)?

37a. How often did your partner make you stay longer on a shopping trip than you really wanted to in the past 2 months?

37b. How did you feel when your partner made you stay longer on a shopping trip than you really wanted to?

38a. How often did your partner bring up things that you have done in the distant past to disappoint or anger them in the past 2 months?

38b. How did you feel when your partner brought up things that you have done in the distant past to disappoint or anger them?

39a. How often did your partner decide to buy you something cheap instead of a more favorable expensive alternative in the past 2 months?

39b. How did you feel when your partner decided to buy you something cheap instead of a more favorable expensive alternative?

40a. How often did your partner have a sexual experience with someone else other than you during your relationship in the past 2 months?

40b. How did you feel when your partner had a sexual experience with someone else other than you during your relationship?

41a. How often did your partner roll over and go to sleep immediately after having a sexual encounter with you in the past 2 months?

41b. How did you feel when your partner rolled over and went to sleep immediately after having a sexual encounter with you?

42a. How often did your partner declined having sex with you when you really wanted to in the past 2 months?

42b. How did you feel when your partner declined having sex with you when you really wanted to?

43a. How often did your partner argue or fight with you in the past

2 months?

43b. How did you feel when your partner argued or fought with you?

44a. How often did your partner talk about past dating partners with you in the past 2 months?

44b. How did you feel when your partner talked about past dating partners with you?

45a. How often did your partner show a lack of concern for your property (e.g. burning a hole in your couch; borrowing your money and forgetting to return it) in the past 2 months?

45b. How did you feel when your partner showed a lack of concern for your property (e.g. burning a hole in your; couch borrowing your money and forgetting to return it)?

46a. How often did your partner insist on watching their television shows when with you in the past 2 months?

46b. How did you feel when your partner insisted on watching their television shows when with you?

47a. How often did your partner become overly emotional when it could have been avoided (e.g. crying at the end of a sad movie) in the past 2 months?

47b. How did you feel when your partner became overly emotional when it could have been avoided (e.g. crying at the end of a sad movie)?

48a. How often did your partner demand that you help them do some task 'NOW!' in the past 2 months?

48b. How did you feel when your partner demanded that you help them do some task 'NOW!'?

49a. How often did your partner stare at members of the opposite sex when you were together in the past 2 months?

49b. How did your feel when your partner stared at members of the opposite sex when you were together?

50a. How often did your partner prefer to watch television rather than talking to you in the past 2 months?

50b. How did you feel when your partner preferred to watch television rather than talking to you?

51a. How often did your partner let you know when they found someone else to be physically attractive in the past 2 months?

51b. How did you feel when your partner let you know when they found someone else to be physically attractive?

52a. How often did your partner's feelings become hurt too easily in the past 2 months?

52b. How did you feel when your partner's feelings became hurt too easily?

53a. How often did your partner interrupt you when you were trying to tell them something in the past 2 months?

53b. How did you feel when your partner interrupted you when you were trying to tell them something?

54a. How often did your partner forget important dates in your relationship (e.g. my birthday; anniversaries) in the past 2 months?

54b. How did you feel when your partner forgot important dates in your relationship (e.g. my birthday; anniversaries)?

55a. How often did your partner not discuss the day's activities with you in the past 2 months?

55b. How did you feel when your partner did not discuss the day's activities with you?

56a. How often did your partner stop listening to you when you when you were talking about your problems in the past 2 months?

56b. How did you feel when your partner stopped listening to you when you were talking about your problems?

57a. How often was your partner jealous whenever members of the opposite sex paid attention to you in the past 2 months?

57b. How did your feel when your partner was jealous whenever members of the opposite sex paid attention to you?

58a. How often did your partner give you the silent treatment in the past 2 months?

58b. How did you feel when your partner gave you the silent treatment?

59a. How often did your partner forget to pass along important information to you (e.g. forgetting to tell you about an important phone message) in the past 2 months?

59b. How did you feel when your partner forgot to pass along important information to you (e.g. forgetting to tell you about an important phone message)?

60a. How often did your partner show a lack of respect for your opinions and ideas (e.g. opinions on religion; opinions on controversial topics like abortion) in the past 2 months?

60b. How did you feel when your partner showed a lack of respect for your opinions and ideas (e.g. opinions on religion; opinions on controversial topics like abortion)?

61a. How often has your partner been rude at the dinner table when around you (e.g. chewing with their mouth open) in the past 2 months?

61b. How did you feel when your partner had been rude at the dinner table when around you (e.g. chewing with their mouth open)?

62a. How often did your partner talk in baby talk in the past 2 months?

62b. How did you feel when your partner talked in baby talk?

63a. How often did your partner express their disagreement with you in an angry manner in the past 2 months?

63b. How did you feel when your partner expressed their disagreement with you in an angry manner?

64a. How often did your partner spend time with you out of a feeling of obligation rather than an interest in spending time with you in the past 2 months?

64b. How did you feel when your partner spent time with you out of a feeling of obligation rather than an interest in spending time with you?

65a. How often did your partner not show appreciation for the presents that you bought for them in the past 2 months?

65b. How did you feel when your partner did not show appreciation for the presents that you bought for them?

66a. How often did your partner not take care of their physical attractiveness in the past 2 months?

66b. How did you feel when your partner did not take care of their physical attractiveness?

67a. How often did your partner fill the apartment with another new furry stuffed-animal in the past 2 months?

67b. How did you feel when your partner filled the apartment with another new furry stuffed-animal?

68a. How often did your partner give you the cold shoulder in the past 2 months?

68b. How did your feel when your partner gave you the cold shoulder?

69a. How often did your partner cheat so he/she could win at games in the past 2 months?

69b. How did you feel when your partner cheated so he/she could win at games?

70a. How often did your partner view opposite-sex pornography when around you (e.g. Playgirl; Penthouse; Playboy; internet porn site.) in the past 2 months?

70b. How did you feel when your partner viewed opposite-sex pornography when around you (e.g. Playgirl Penthouse Playboy internet porn site.)

71a. How often did your partner have bad breath when around you in the past 2 months?

71b. How did you feel when your partner had bad breath when around you?

72a. How often did your partner have difficulty making simple decisions (e.g. where to go for the night) in the past 2 months?

72b. How did you feel when your partner had difficulty making simple decisions (e.g. where to go for the night)?

73a. How often did your partner become highly anxious around you when minor problems arose in the past 2 months?

73b. How did you feel when your partner became highly anxious around you when minor problems arose?

74a. How often did your partner arrive late when you were waiting for them in the past 2 months?

74b. How did you feel when your partner arrived late when you were waiting for them?

75a. How often did your partner make extreme demands that you behave in a certain way (e.g. telling you that you cannot go out of the house wearing revealing clothing) in the past 2 months?

75b. How did you feel when your partner made extreme demands
that you behave in a certain way (e.g. telling you that you cannot
go out of the house wearing revealing clothing)?

76a. How often did your partner cause unpleasant sounds around you
(e.g. loud stereo; tapping pencil) in the past 2 months?

76b. How did you feel when your partner caused unpleasant sounds
around you (e.g. loud stereo; tapping pencil)?

77a. How often was your partner too hot or too cold
when indoors in the past 2 months?

77b. How did you feel when your partner was too hot or too
cold when indoors?

78a. How often did your partner tell you about your faults
in the past 2 months?

78b. How did you feel when your partner told you about your
faults?

79a. How often did your partner lie to you in the past 2 months?

79b. How did you feel when your partner lied to you?

80a. How often did your partner refuse to play sports or do other
physical activities in the past 2 months?

80b. How did you feel when your partner refused to play sports or
do other physical activities?

81a. How often has your partner picked their nose in front of you
in the past 2 months?

81b. How did your feel when your partner picked their nose in front
of you?

82a. How often was your partner two-faced (e.g. telling someone how they
do not like a person and acting nice to that person when they are in their
presence) in the past 2 months?

82b. How did you feel when your partner was two-faced (e.g. telling someone
how they do not like a person and acting nice to that person when they are
in their presence)?

83a. How often was your partner overly concerned about things being neat
when around you in the past 2 months?

83b. How did you feel when your partner was overly concerned about things
being neat when around you?

84a. How often did your partner go to the kitchen without asking if
you want anything in the past 2 months?

84b. How did you feel when your partner goes to the kitchen without
asking if you want anything?

85a. How often did your partner walk out angrily without telling you
when they would return in the past 2 months?

85b. How did you feel when your partner walked out angrily without
telling you when they would return?

86a. How often did your partner display nervous habits like fidgeting
or biting nails when around you in the past 2 months?

86b. How did you feel when your partner displayed nervous habits like fidgeting or biting nails when around you?

87a. How often did your partner withhold sex when they were angry with you in the past 2 months?

87b. How did you feel when your partner withheld sex when they were angry with you?

88a. How often did your partner give you unsolicited advice in the past 2 months?

88b. How did you feel when your partner gave you unsolicited advice?

89a. How often did your partner keep illegal drugs in the car when you were with them?

89b. How did you feel when your partner kept illegal drugs in the car when you were with them?

90a. How often did your partner refuse to tell you things about themselves in the past 2 months?

90b. How did you feel when your partner refused to tell you things about themselves?

91a. How often did your partner tell boring stories when around you in the past 2 months?

91b. How did you feel when your partner told boring stories when around you?

92a. How often did your partner complain about how much tiny injuries hurt when around you in the past 2 months?

92b. How did you feel when your partner complained about how much tiny injuries hurt when around you?

93a. How often did your partner whine or complain to you in the past 2 months?

93b. How did your feel when your partner whined or complained to you?

94a. How often did your partner consume illegal drugs when around you in the past 2 months?

94b. How did you feel when partner consumed illegal drugs when around you?

95a. How often did your partner let you know that they were not interested in your sexual advances in the past 2 months?

95b. How did you feel when your partner let you know that they were not interested in your sexual advances?

96a. How often was your partner messy when around you (e.g. letting trash accumulate in their personal space) in the past 2 months?

96b. How did you feel when your partner was messy when around you (e.g. letting trash accumulate in their personal space)?

97a. How often was your partner overly sentimental when around you (e.g. keeping every birthday card that they have ever received) in the past 2 months

97b. How did you feel when your partner was overly sentimental when

around you (e.g. keeping every birthday card that they have ever received)?

98a. How often did your partner refuse to provide you with the usual favors that they do for you in the past 2 months?

98b. How did you feel when your partner refused to provide you with the usual favors that they do for you?

99a. How often did your partner carry a weapon with them when around you in the past 2 months?

99b. How did you feel when your partner carried a weapon with them when around you?

100a. How often did your partner not spend enough time with you in the past 2 months?

100b. How did you feel when your partner would not spend enough time with you?

101a. How often did your partner not put things back where they belong when around you in the past 2 months?

101b. How did you feel when your partner did not put things back where they belong when around you?

102a. How often did your partner focus on tiny spots on their clothing (e.g. a spot where food was spilled; lint) in the past 2 months?

102b. How did you feel when your partner focused on tiny spots on their clothing (e.g. a spot where food was spilled; lint)?

103a. How often did your partner not bring up a relationship problem until they were ready to explode and then brought it up loudly in the past 2 months.

103b. How did you feel when partner did not bring up a relationship problem until they were ready to explode and then brought it up loudly?

104a. How often was your partner too possessive of you in the past 2 months?

104b. How did you feel when your partner was too possessive of you?

105a. How often did your partner tell you boring stories in the past 2 months?

105b. How did you feel when your partner told boring stories to you?

106a. How often did your partner worry about every hair being in place in the past 2 months?

106b. How did you feel when your partner worried about every hair being in place?

107a. How often did your partner tease you about your personal characteristics in the past 2 months.

107b. How did you feel when your partner teased you about your personal characteristics?

108a. How often did your partner call in sick to work or skip school to have more free time in the past 2 months?

108b. How did you feel when your partner called in sick to work or skipped school to have more free time?

109a. How often did your partner demand too much attention from you in the past 2 months?

109b. How did you feel when your partner demanded too much attention from you?

110a. How often did your partner not help you out around the house/apartment in the past 2 months?

110b. How did you feel when your partner did not help you out around the house/apartment?

111a. How often did your partner take too many things when traveling in the past 2 months?

111b. How did you feel when your partner took too many things when traveling?

112a. How often did your partner hurt your feelings in the past 2 months?

112b. How did you feel when your partner hurt your feelings?

113a. How often did your partner call in sick to work or skip school to have more time to spend with you in the past 2 months?

113b. How did you feel when your partner called in sick to work or skipped school to have more time to spend with you?

114a. How often did your partner touch your body without permission (or when you didn't want him or her to touch you) in the past 2 months?

114b. How did you feel when your partner touched your body without permission (or when you didn't want him or her to touch you)?

115a. How often did your partner play at the computer for a long period of time when around you in the past 2 months?

115b. How did you feel when your partner played at the computer for a long period of time when around you?

116a. How often did your partner tell you that your personal problems were not serious in the past 2 months?

116b. How did you feel when your partner told you that your personal problems were not serious?

117a. How often did your partner tell your secrets to other people in the past 2 months?

117b. How did you feel when partner told your secrets to other people?

118a. How often did your partner quit their job without giving notice to their place of employment in the past 2 months?

118b. How did you feel when your partner quit their job without giving notice to their place of employment?

119a. How often did your partner force you to have sex in the past 2 months?

119b. How did you feel when your partner forced you to have sex?

120a. How often did your partner talk too much around you in the past 2 months?

120b. How did you feel when your partner talked too much around you?

121a. How often did your partner make unhelpful comments about how to handle your personal problems (e.g. just get drunk and forget about it) in the past 2 months?

121b. How did you feel when your partner made unhelpful comments about how to handle your personal problems (e.g. just get drunk and forget about it)?

122a. How often did your partner not consult you on important issues in the past 2 months?

122b. How did you feel when your partner didn't consult you on important issues?

123a. How often did your partner commit minor traffic violations (e.g. a California roll through a stop sign; running red lights when no one is around; changing lanes without signaling) in the past 2 months?

123b. How did your feel when your partner committed minor traffic violations (e.g. a California roll through a stop sign running red lights when no one is around; changing lanes without signaling)?

124a. How often did your partner have sex with someone else while still involved with you in the past 2 months?

124b. How did you feel when your partner had sex with someone else while still involved with you?

125a. How often did your partner not call you when he/she said they would in the past 2 months?

125b. How did you feel when your partner did not call you when he/she said they would?

126a. How often did your partner embarrass you in public in the past 2 months?

126b. How did you feel when partner embarrassed you in public?

127a. How often did your partner responded aggressively to other drivers when the other drivers committed minor traffic violations in the past 2 months?

127b. How did you feel when your partner responded aggressively to other drivers when the other drivers committed minor traffic violations?

128a. How often did your partner only think about themselves when they were around you in the past 2 months?

128b. How did you feel when your partner only thought about themselves when they were around you?

129a. How often did your partner not defend you when you were insulted by another person in the past 2 months?

129b. How did you feel when your partner did not defend you when you were insulted by another person?

130a. How often did your partner not respond to you when you said 'I love you' in the past 2 months?

130b. How did you feel when your partner did not respond to you when you said 'I love you'?

131a. How often did your partner not keep promises to you in the past 2 months?

131b. How did you feel when your partner didn't keep promises to you?

132a. How often did your partner ignored your feelings when you were upset in the past 2 months?

132b. How did you feel when your partner ignored your feelings when you were upset?

133a. How often did your partner treat you like you were stupid or inferior in the past 2 months?

133b. How did you feel when your partner treated you like you were stupid or inferior?

134a. How often did your partner insult your appearance in the past 2 months?

134b. How did you feel when your partner insulted your appearance?

135a. How often did your partner keep you on the phone or engaged in a conversation for longer than you wished to remain in the conversation in the past 2 months?

135b. How did you feel when your partner kept you on the phone or engaged in a conversation for longer than I wished to remain in the conversation?

136a. How often did your partner claim to you that they had experiences or had accomplishments that did not really occur in the past 2 months?

136b. How did you feel when your partner claimed to you that they had experiences or had accomplishments that did not really occur?

137a. How often did your partner shoplift when around you in the past 2 months?

137b. How did you feel when your partner shoplifted when around you?

138a. How often did your partner lie to you about their relations with people of the opposite sex in the past 2 months?

138b. How did you feel when your partner lied to you about their relations with people of the opposite sex?

139a. How often did your partner ran up large credit card debts that were larger than they could reasonably afford to pay in the past 2 months?

139b. How did you feel when your partner ran up large credit card debts that were larger than they could reasonably afford to pay?

**Open-Ended Items**

INSTRUCTIONS: Think of your current romantic relationship. Describe three specific qualities that first attracted you to your partner. Please list them from the thing that most attracted you to your partner as #1 to the thing that attracted you to your partner next most as #2 and the third quality that attracted you as #3.

Please indicate what attracted you to your partner (#1):
Please indicate what attracted you to your partner (#2):
Please indicate what attracted you to your partner (#3):

INSTRUCTIONS: Think of your current romantic relationship. Describe the specific qualities that you find least attractive or most unattractive about your partner. Please list them from the thing that is most unattractive about your partner as #1 to the thing you find 3rd most unattractive about your partner as

#3.

Please indicate what is unattractive about your partner (#1):
Please indicate what is unattractive about your partner (#2):
Please indicate what is unattractive about your partner (#3):

INSTRUCTIONS: For the following questions; please indicate how long in weeks it took you to notice the qualities that you find to be least unattractive in your partner.

1. How many weeks from the beginning of the relationship did it take you to notice the quality that you find first most unattractive in your partner.
2. How many weeks from the beginning of the relationship did it take you to notice the quality that you find second most unattractive in your partner.
3. How many weeks from the beginning of the relationship did it take you to notice the quality that you find third most unattractive in your partner.

INSTRUCTIONS: For the following questions; please indicate how long in weeks it took you to become annoyed with the qualities that you find to be least unattractive in your partner.

1. How many weeks from the beginning of the relationship did it take you to become annoyed with the quality that you find first most unattractive in your partner.
2. How many weeks from the beginning of the relationship did it take you to become annoyed with the quality that you find second most unattractive in your partner.
3. How many weeks from the beginning of the relationship did it take you to become annoyed with the quality that you find third most unattractive in your partner.

*Appendix Q*

## Accommodation Items from Rusbult et. al. (1991)

```
INSTRUCTIONS: Everyone behaves in an unpleasant manner now and then (we're rude,
lack consideration, etc.). Use this scale to indicate how you react when your
partner performs negative behaviors.

I never do this   1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9   I frequently do this
                             I sometimes
                              do this
```

**Exit**

```
1. I'd tell my partner to take a hike and stop being such a creep.
2. I begin to think about ending our relationship.
3. I'd feel so angry that I'd want to walk out the door.
4. When my partner is rude and inconsiderate, I consider breaking up.
5. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I begin to
   think about ending our relationship.
```

**Voice**

```
6. I'd ask if my partner might want to talk to me about what was going on.
7. I talk to him/her about what is going on.
8. I talk to him/her about what's going on, trying to work out a solution.
9. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I talk to
   him/her about what's going on.
10. When my partner is rude and inconsiderate, I calmly discuss things with
    my partner.
```

**Loyalty**

```
11. I'd be a good sport, give my partner a smile, and just live with it even
    though it wasn't my fault.
12. I give my partner the benefit of the doubt and forget about it.
13. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I remain
    loyal and quietly wait for things to get better.
14. When my partner is rude and inconsiderate, I give my partner the benefit
    of the doubt and forget about it.
```

**Neglect**

```
15. I'd say something mildly unpleasant, and ignore my partner.
16. I'd sulk and try to avoid my partner for a while.
17. When my partner is rude and inconsiderate, I sulk and try to avoid my
    partner for awhile.
18. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I ignore the
    whole thing and try to spend less time with him/her.
```

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The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976).

Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below
the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner
for each item using the given scale.

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Always<br>Disgree | Almost<br>Always<br>Disagree | Frequently<br>Disagree | Occasionally<br>Disagree | Almost<br>Always<br>Agree | Always<br>Agree |

1. Handling family finances
2. Matters of recreation
3. Religious matters
4. Demonstrations of affection
5. Friends
6. Sex relations
7. Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)
8. Philosophy of life
9. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws
10. Aims, goals, and things believed important
11. Amount of time spent together
12. Making major decisions
13. Household tasks
14. Leisure time activities and interests
15. Career decisions

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All<br>the Time | Most of<br>the Time | More Often<br>than Not | Occa-<br>sionally | Rarely | Never |

16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or
    terminating your relationship?
17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?
18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your
    partner are going well?
19. Do you confide in your mate?
20. Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together)
21. How often do you and your partner quarrel?
22. How often do you and your mate get on each others nerves?
23. Do you kiss your mate?

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Never | Rarely | Occa-<br>sionally | Almost<br>Every Day | Every Day |

24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| None of<br>Them | Very Few<br>of Them | Some of<br>Them | Most of<br>Them | All of<br>Them |

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Never | Less than<br>Once a Month | Once or Twice<br>a Month | Once or Twice<br>a Week | Once a Day | More<br>Often |

25. Having a stimulating exchange of ideas.
26. Laugh together.
27. Calmly discuss something.
28. Work together on a project.

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes
disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were
problems in your relationship during the past few weeks. (Choose yes or no)

0=Yes
1=No

29. Being too tired for sex.
30. Not showing love.

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in
    your relationship. The middle point, happy, represents the degree of
    happiness of most relationships. Please choose the dot which best
    describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your
    relationship.

    *         *         *         *         *         *         *
    _____

Extremely   Fairly    A Little   Happy      Very      Extremely   Perfect
 Unhappy    Unhappy   Unhappy                Happy      Happy

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the
    future of your relationship?
    0) My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do
       to keep the relationship going.
    1) It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I
       am doing now to keep the relationship going.
    2) It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I cant do much
       more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
    3) I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and I will do my
       fair share to see that it does.
    4) I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and I will do all I
       can to see that it does.
    5) I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to
       almost any length to see that it does.

*Appendix S*

Missing value analysis descriptives for study three data.

| | | | | Missing | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *N* | *M* | *SD* | *Count* | *%* |
| Relationship Characteristics | | | | | |
| Average Days/Week Spent with Partner | 140 | 6.04 | 1.45 | 0 | .00 |
| Length | 140 | 13.53 | 10.83 | 0 | .00 |
| Individual Differences | | | | | |
| Agreeableness | 132 | 7.28 | 1.26 | 8 | 5.71 |
| Anxiety | 137 | 2.82 | 1.09 | 3 | 2.14 |
| Avoidance | 137 | 2.37 | .97 | 3 | 2.14 |
| Conscientiousness | 132 | 7.01 | 1.29 | 8 | 5.71 |
| Emotional Stability | 133 | 5.48 | 1.28 | 7 | 5.00 |
| Extraversion | 133 | 6.37 | 1.52 | 7 | 5.00 |
| Narcissism | 132 | 3.25 | .61 | 8 | 5.71 |
| Other Monitoring | 133 | 3.55 | .44 | 7 | 5.00 |
| Sensation Seeking | 132 | 4.63 | 1.34 | 8 | 5.71 |
| Self-Monitoring | 121 | 11.61 | 3.61 | 19 | 13.57 |
| Romantic Inflation | | | | | |
| Negative Face | 138 | 3.95 | 1.36 | 2 | 1.43 |
| Positive Face | 138 | 3.58 | 1.68 | 2 | 1.43 |
| True Face | 139 | 6.95 | 1.34 | 1 | .71 |
| Post Romanticism | | | | | |
| Decreased Effort T1 | 139 | 4.63 | 1.49 | 1 | .71 |
| Increased Self-Assertion T1 | 139 | 6.59 | 1.33 | 1 | .71 |
| Inceased Control T1 | 139 | 2.67 | 1.18 | 1 | .71 |
| Decreased Disclosure T1 | 139 | 2.93 | 1.59 | 1 | .71 |
| Decreased Effort T2 | 135 | 4.55 | 1.37 | 5 | 3.57 |
| Increased Self-Assertion T2 | 135 | 6.22 | 1.33 | 5 | 3.57 |
| Inceased Control T2 | 135 | 3.04 | 1.42 | 5 | 3.57 |
| Decreased Disclosure T2 | 134 | 3.31 | 1.77 | 6 | 4.29 |

*Appendix S* (continued)

| | N | M | SD | Missing Count | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| RRAI Behaviors | | | | | |
| Bad Habits T1 | 140 | 2.93 | 1.34 | 0 | .00 |
| Insensitivity T1 | 140 | 2.20 | 1.21 | 0 | .00 |
| Intrusiveness T1 | 140 | 1.85 | 1.19 | 0 | .00 |
| Norm Violations T1 | 140 | .97 | .72 | 0 | .00 |
| Instrumental Supp. T1 | 140 | 2.78 | 1.48 | 0 | .00 |
| Emotional Supp. T1 | 140 | 6.79 | 1.18 | 0 | .00 |
| Gracious T1 | 140 | 3.50 | 1.12 | 0 | .00 |
| Affection T1 | 140 | 5.04 | 1.61 | 0 | .00 |
| Bad Habits T2 | 140 | 2.12 | 1.45 | 0 | .00 |
| Insensitivity T2 | 140 | 1.25 | 1.24 | 0 | .00 |
| Intrusiveness T2 | 140 | 2.27 | 1.38 | 0 | .00 |
| Norm Violations T2 | 140 | 2.96 | 1.54 | 0 | .00 |
| Instrumental Supp. T2 | 140 | 2.66 | 1.52 | 0 | .00 |
| Emotional Supp. T2 | 140 | 6.38 | 1.66 | 0 | .00 |
| Gracious T2 | 140 | 3.56 | 1.32 | 0 | .00 |
| Affection T2 | 140 | 4.93 | 1.73 | 0 | .00 |
| Relationship Outcomes | | | | | |
| Dyadic Adjustment Satisfaction T1 | 140 | 41.77 | 5.95 | 0 | .00 |
| Dyadic Adjustment Satisfaction T2 | 139 | 38.81 | 8.50 | 1 | .71 |
| Commitment T1 | 139 | 7.99 | 1.29 | 1 | .71 |
| Commitment T2 | 136 | 7.64 | 1.59 | 4 | 2.86 |
| Dissolution | 140 | | | 0 | .00 |

*Appendix T*

Magnitude of change over time in behavior as a function of relationship length group.

A series of follow-up descriptive analyses were conducted to examine when the largest changes occur in the relationship behaviors measured by the RRAI. These analyses were performed to inform future research about when the largest changes in behavior occur in dating relationships. Study three examined change in relationship behaviors both longitudinally and cross-sectionally. More specifically, longitudinal, linear change was examined across the two months couples were followed, and relationship length was used as a cross-sectional predictor of this change. Nevertheless, this approach does address when the largest changes occur in relationship behavior.

Although there is no clear strategy to address when the *largest* changes occur in relationship behavior, curvilinear regression can be used to attempt to fit a number of geometric functions to the data (a linear or straight line function; a quadratic or u-shaped function; and a cubic or s-shaped function) to determine the trajectory of change over time in behavior. Direct examination of a scatter-plot between relationship length and change over time may provide a distorted picture of when the largest changes occur over time in relationships, whereas curvilinear regression smoothes the linear, quadratic, and cubic functions according to the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) criteria. These plotted functions are a more stable and accurate estimate of when the maximum change occurs in relationships, as opposed to the scatter-plot, which is possibly biased by the idiosyncratic characteristics of those sampled. Thus, the results of the curvilinear regression are more generalizeable to other samples. More specifically, the peaks and troughs of significant curvilinear functions serve as a more stable estimate of when the most change occurs in dating relationship behaviors.

Examination of these questions was addressed by first calculating difference score (time 2 - time 1) for each behavior, and then regressing these change scores on relationship length in eight

analyses. These analyses were run as curvilinear regressions. Linear, quadratic, and cubic transformations of the relationship length variable were entered simultaneously as predictors of change scores for each of the eight behaviors. Significant higher order polynomial effects were interpreted only when lower order polynomials were also significant. The observed trend, the linear trend, the quadratic trend, and the cubic trend were plotted with relationship length on the abscissa and change in frequency on the ordinate for each of the eight behaviors (see accompanying figures below). Nevertheless, the results of all statistical tests are reported in the figures.
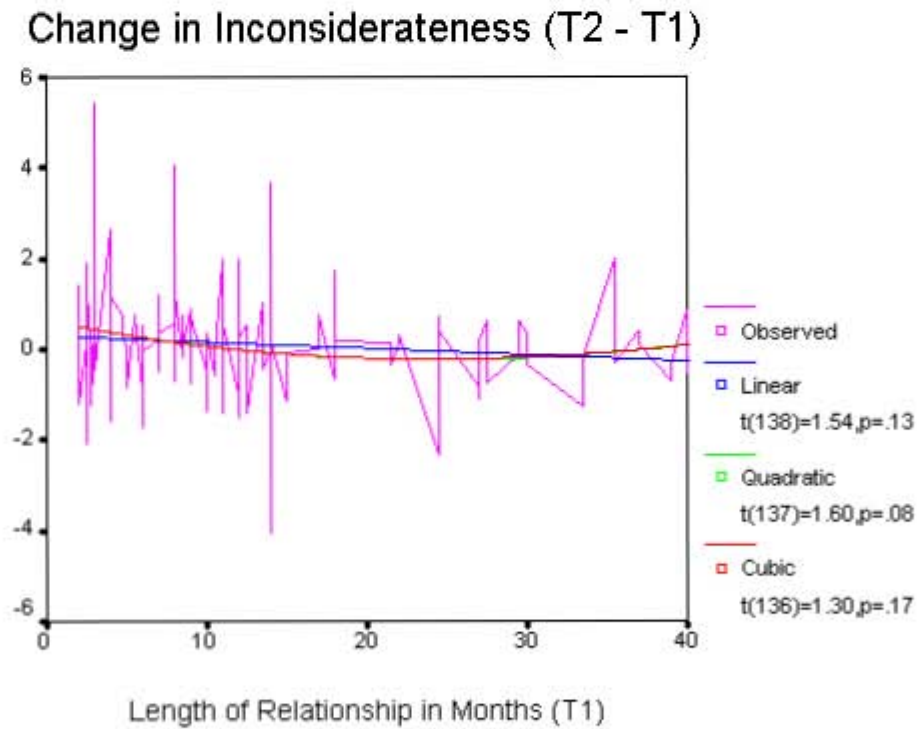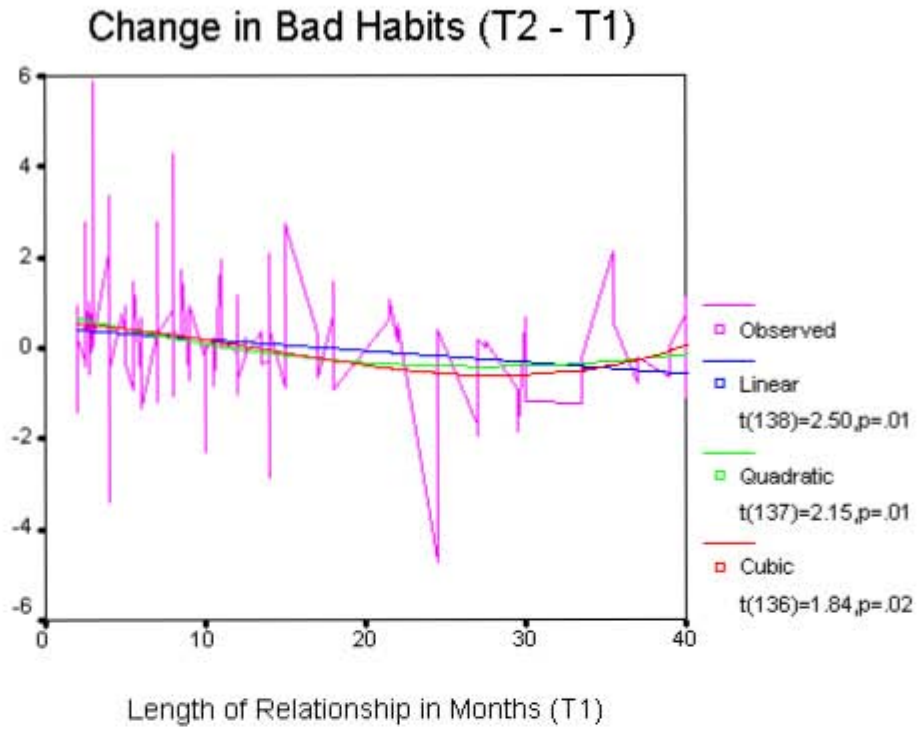
These analyses were performed treating couple members as independent observations ($N =$ 140), due to the distribution of relationship lengths being positively skewed and more subjects were needed in some categories). More specifically, for couples dating up to 40 months at time one, only 17 couples (23%) were in dating relationships that were greater than 20 months in length. Thus, examining men and women separately would provide an insufficient number of observations to adequately examine the trajectory of changes in relationship behaviors after 20 months. Further, these analyses are largely descriptive in nature, and it is of more interest to examine when the largest changes occur in relationships, as opposed to examining when the largest changes occur for men and women separately.

As can be seen in the graph for bad habit behaviors, significant linear, $t(138) = 2.50$, $p = .01$; quadratic, $t(137) = 2.15$, $p = .01$; and cubic, $t(136) = 1.84$, $p = .02$, trends were found for changes in bad habit behaviors. The cubic trend suggested that changes in bad habit behaviors were rather small in the first month of relationships, but larger increases were a declining function of relationship length. Bad habit behaviors exhibited their largest increases between 31 one and 40 months of relationships, where increases in bad habit behaviors were accelerated by increasing relationship length. There were marginal linear, $t(138) = 1.54$, $p = .13$, and quadratic, $t(137) =$ 1.60, $p = .08$, trends for changes in inconsiderateness; however, the cubic trend was not
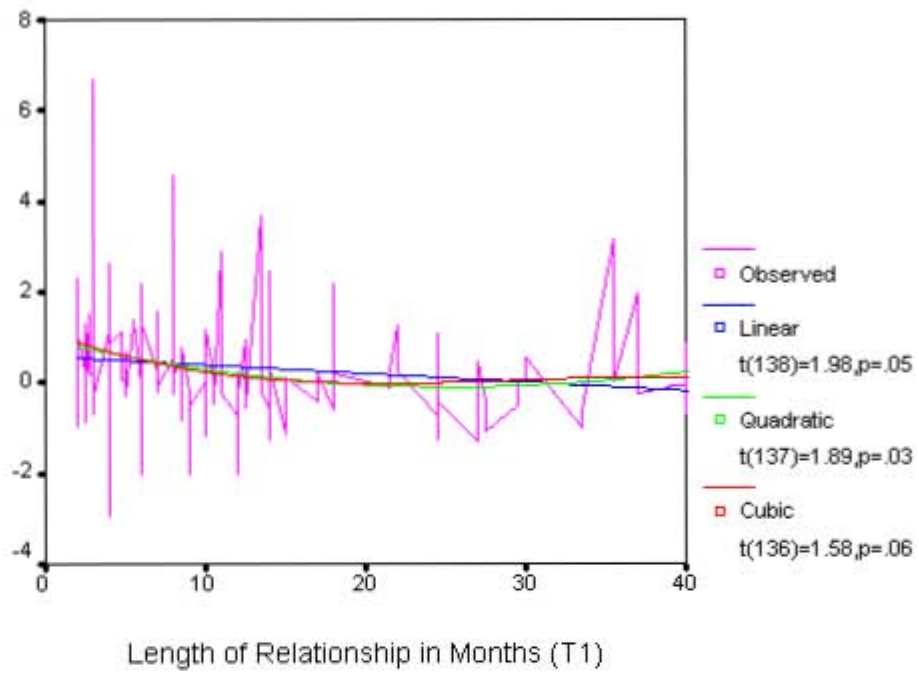
344

significant ($p = .17$). The quadratic trend for changes in inconsiderateness plotted in the figure for inconsiderateness suggested that inconsideration increased in frequency in the first ten months of relationships and between 31 and 40 months in relationships, but there was relatively little change in inconsideration between 11 and 30 months into relationships. Between two and ten months into relationships, increasing inconsideration was declining function of relationship length, and for those dating between 31 and 40 months, increasing inconsideration was accelerated as function of relationship length.

Linear, $t(138) = 1.98$, $p = .05$; quadratic, $t(137) = 1.89$, $p = .03$; and cubic, $t(136) = 1.58$, $p = .06$, trends were found for changes in intrusiveness. Inspection of the graph for changes in intrusiveness suggested that the cubic effect was due to intrusive behaviors increasing in frequency throughout the first 15 months of relationships, but this increase was a declining function of relationship length through the first 15 months of relationships. Those dating between 16 and 25 months had relatively few changes in the frequency of intrusive behaviors, but intrusive behavior started to increase in frequency at approximately 26 months in relationships, and these increases were a positive function of relationship length for those dating between 26 and 40 months.

There was no evidence to suggest that there was a pattern to changes over time in norm violating behaviors, as linear, quadratic, and cubic trends were all non-significant ($ps > .20$). Similar to the analyses reported for changes over time in positive behaviors, there was no evidence to suggest that there was a pattern to changes over time on positive behaviors, as linear ($ps > .20$), quadratic ($ps > .40$), and cubic ($ps > .15$) trends were all non-significant for all behaviors.

# Change in Bad Habits (T2 - T1)



Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Observed
Linear
t(138)=2.50,p=.01
Quadratic
t(137)=2.15,p=.01
Cubic
t(136)=1.84,p=.02

# Change in Inconsiderateness (T2 - T1)



Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Observed
Linear
t(138)=1.54,p=.13
Quadratic
t(137)=1.60,p=.08
Cubic
t(136)=1.30,p=.17

Change in Intrusiveness (T2 - T1)

Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Observed
Linear
t(138)=1.98,p=.05
Quadratic
t(137)=1.89,p=.03
Cubic
t(136)=1.58,p=.06



Change in Norm Violations (T2 - T1)

Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Observed
Linear
t(138)=1.11,p=.27
Quadratic
t(137)=1.17,p=.26
Cubic
t(136)=1.22,p=.22

347
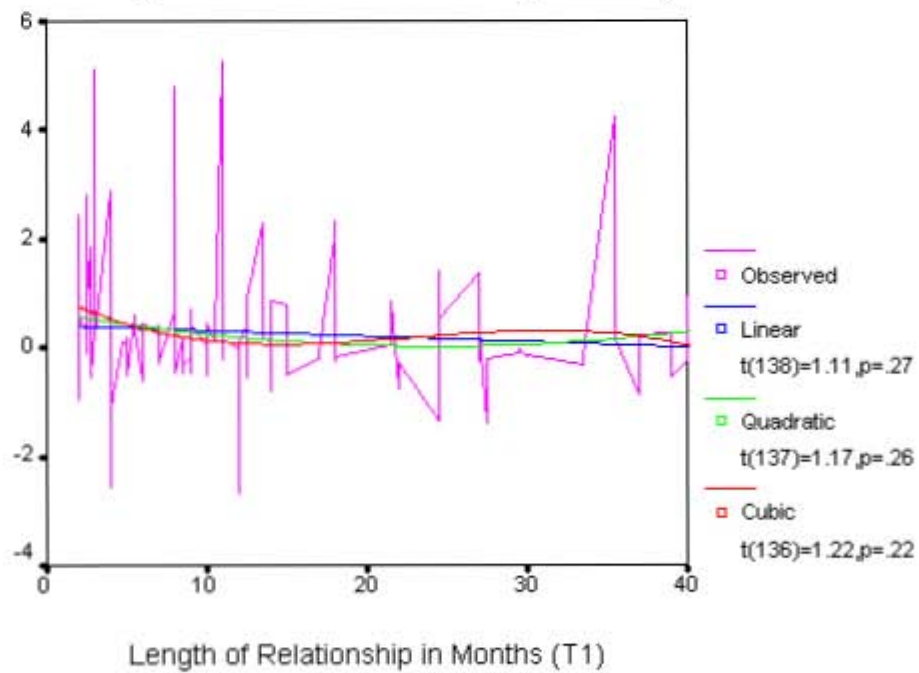
Change in Instrumental Supp. (T2 - T1)

Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Observed
Linear
t(138)=1.19,p=.24
Quadratic
t(137)=.96,p=.40
Cubic
t(136)=.89,p=.50
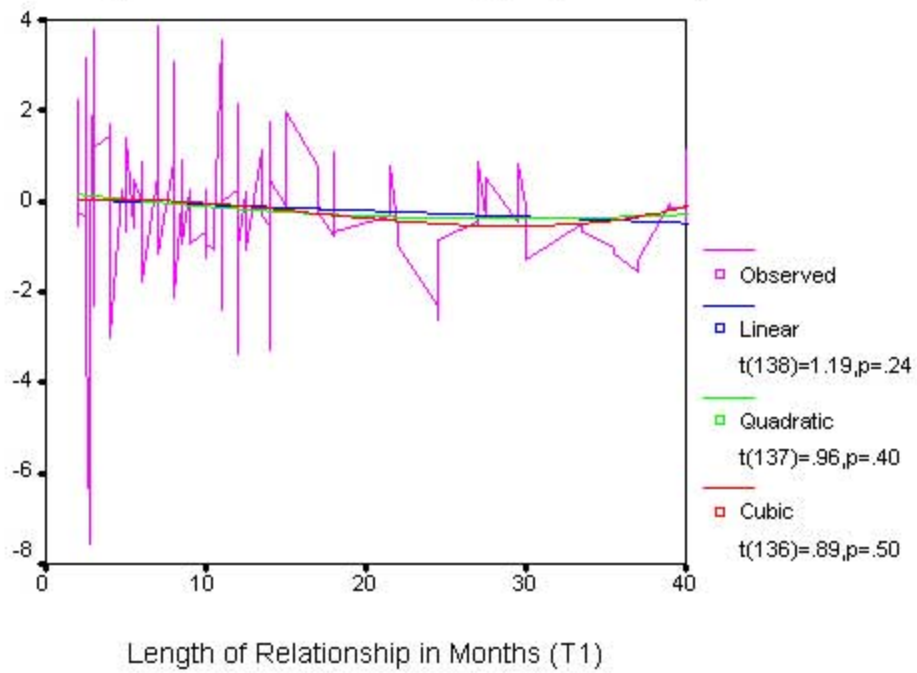


Change in Emotional Supp. (T2 - T1)

Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Observed
Linear
t(138)=.28,p=.77
Quadratic
t(137)=.89,p=.45
Cubic
t(136)=1.26,p=.20

348
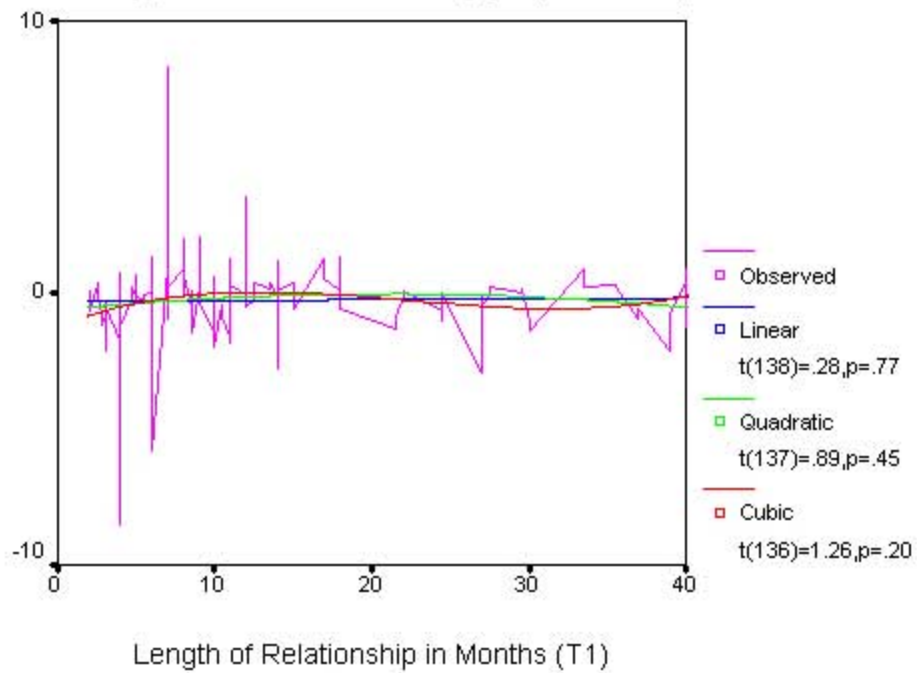
# Change in Graciousness (T2 - T1)



Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Legend:
- Observed
- Linear t(138)=1.27,p=.21
- Quadratic t(137)=.89,p=.45
- Cubic t(136)=1.08,p=.33
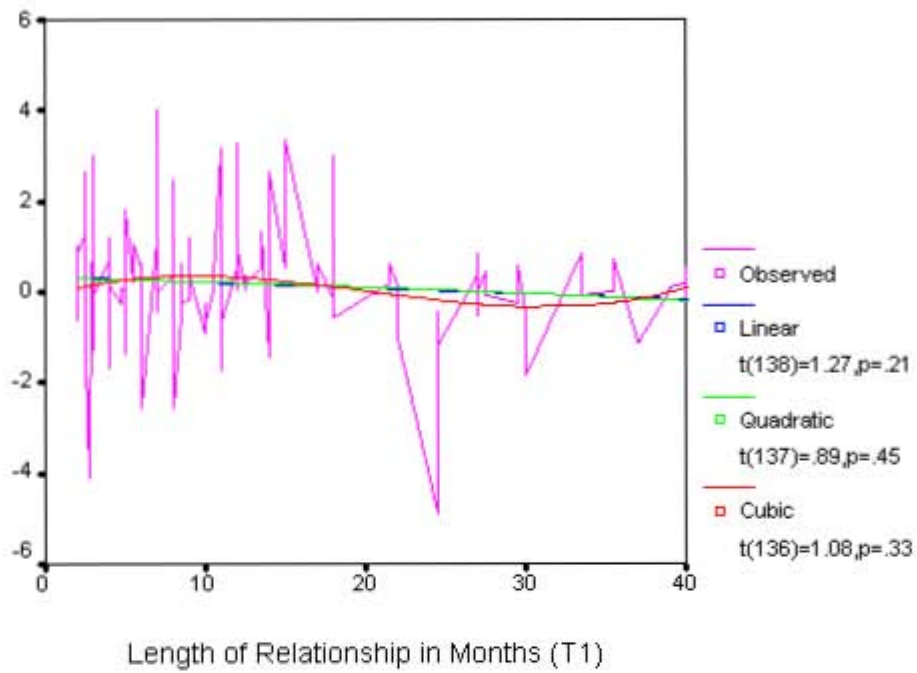
# Change in Sexual Affection (T2 - T1)
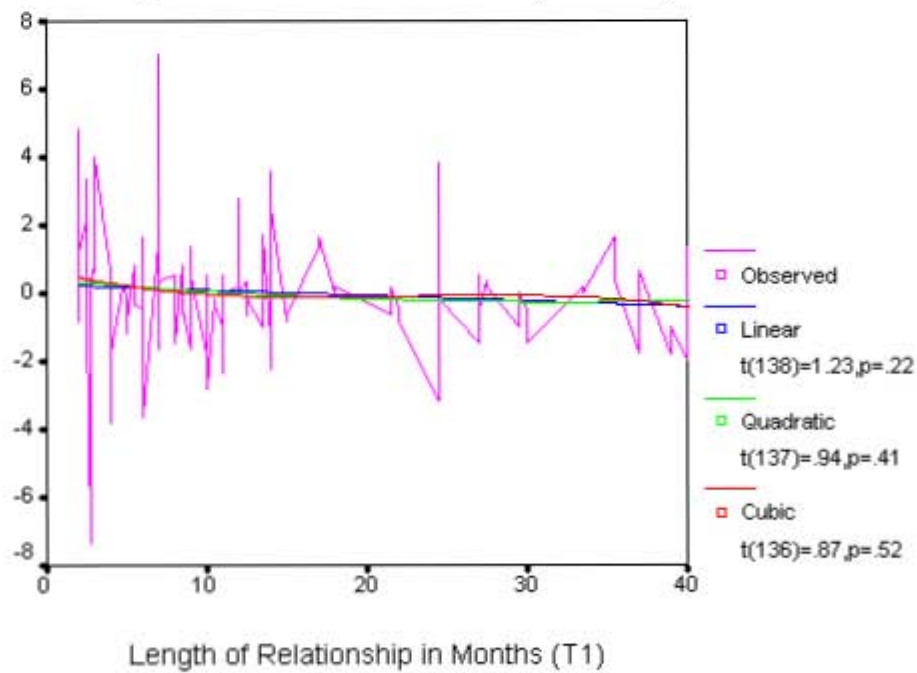


Length of Relationship in Months (T1)

Legend:
- Observed
- Linear t(138)=1.23,p=.22
- Quadratic t(137)=.94,p=.41
- Cubic t(136)=.87,p=.52

*Appendix U*

Univariate relationships, means, and standard deviations for predictions

*Appendix U.1*

Correlations, means, and standard deviations for analyses examining the moderating effects of sex of participant and time period on differences in perceptions of male and female targets in study one.

|  | Sex | Time | Mean | SD |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Bad Habits | .00 | .11 | 1.09 | 1.32 |
| Inconsiderate | .07 | -.08 | -1.24 | 1.23 |
| Intrusive | .15 | -.03 | -.07 | 1.03 |
| Norm Violations | .06 | .04 | .42 | .93 |
| Instrumental Supp. | -.25** | .07 | 1.08 | 1.16 |
| Emotional Supp. | -.32** | -.17* | .06 | 1.10 |
| Gracious | -.26** | -.05 | -.43 | 1.12 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.05 | -.14 | .44 | 1.02 |

Note:    $n_{men}$ = 79 & $n_{women}$ = 82; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

*Appendix U.2*

Repeated measures t-tests examining changes over time in men's and women's post romantic

motives in study three.

|                      | Men    | Women   |
|----------------------|--------|---------|
| Decr. Effort         | -.55   | -.51    |
| Incr. Self-Assertion | -1.57+ | -2.92** |
| Incr. Control        | 1.80+  | 2.81**  |
| Decr. Disclosure     | 2.47*  | 1.25    |

Note: $n_{men} = 70$ & $n_{women} = 70$; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .15$

*Appendix U.3*

Zero-order correlations for the individual's romantic inflation as a predictor of the partner's report of the individual's behavior in study three.

| | Men's Romantic Inflation | | | Women's Romantic Inflation | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Neg. Face | Pos. Face | True Face | Neg. Face | Pos. Face | True Face |
| Bad Habits | .22+ | -.11 | .26* | .08 | .06 | -.07 |
| Inconsiderate | .22+ | -.09 | .09 | .06 | -.08 | .01 |
| Intrusive | .26* | -.03 | .12 | -.11 | .01 | .02 |
| Norm Violations | .40** | .02 | .13 | .11 | -.14 | .05 |
| Instrumental Supp. | -.09 | -.10 | .26* | .14 | -.08 | .14 |
| Emotional Supp. | -.31** | -.11 | .15 | .12 | .15 | .16 |
| Gracious | -.15 | -.23 | .18 | .05 | -.11 | -.02 |
| Sex. Affectionate | -.07 | -.34** | .21+ | .17 | -.06 | .03 |

Note:  $n_{men} = 70$ & $n_{women} = 70$; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$

*Appendix U.4*

Zero-order correlations for the individual's romantic inflation as a predictor of the individual's post romanticism in study three.

| | Men's Romantic Inflation | | | Women's Romantic Inflation | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Neg. Face | Pos. Face | True Face | Neg. Face | Pos. Face | True Face |
| Decr. Effort | .46** | .01 | -.02 | .13 | .03 | .18 |
| Incr. Self Assertion | .03 | .01 | .05 | -.06 | -.13 | -.03 |
| Incr. Control | .25* | .23 | -.03 | .00 | .07 | -.07 |
| Decr. Disclosure | .33** | .37** | .16 | .03 | .28* | -.03 |

Note:   $n_{men}$ = 70 & $n_{women}$ = 70; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$

*Appendix U.5*

Correlations, means, and standard deviations for the relationships of relationship length, average days/week of contact, individual commitment at time one, and interaction terms between individual commitment and relationship length at time one with the partner's report of his/her post romanticism at time two in study three.

|  | Effort | Assertion | Control | Conceal | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Men's Commitment | | | | | | |
| Length | .03 | .28* | -.18 | -.02 | 13.53 | 10.87 |
| Avg. Contact | .26* | -.01 | -.10 | .05 | 6.05 | 1.38 |
| Commitment | -.12 | -.05 | -.43** | -.17 | 6.75 | 1.34 |
| Commitment X Length | .04 | .28* | -.13 | .03 | 1.97 | 73.68 |
| Women's Commitment | | | | | | |
| Length | .20 | .00 | -.07 | .01 | 13.53 | 10.87 |
| Avg. Contact | -.03 | -.31** | -.05 | -.03 | 6.09 | 1.50 |
| Commitment | -.21 | -.03 | -.27* | -.05 | 7.23 | 1.19 |
| Commitment X Length | .18 | -.02 | -.05 | .03 | 2.19 | 79.32 |

Note: $n_{men} = 70$ & $n_{women} = 70$; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

*Appendix U.6*

Repeated measures t-tests examining changes over time in perceptions of men's and women's behavior for study three.

|  | Men | Women |
|---|---|---|
| Bad Habits | -.53 | 1.58+ |
| Inconsiderate | .78 | .74 |
| Intrusive | 1.17 | 2.85** |
| Norm Violations | 1.06 | 2.58* |
| Instrumental Supp. | -1.55+ | .04 |
| Emotional Supp. | -1.18 | -1.96+ |
| Gracious | 1.15 | .94 |
| Sex. Affectionate | .65 | -.26 |

Note:  $n_{men}$ = 70 & $n_{women}$ = 70; ** $p$ < .01, * $p$ < .05, + $p$ < .15

*Appendix U.7*

Correlations, means, and standard deviations for the cross-sectional relationships of relationship length, average days/week of contact, the individual's report of the partner's behavior, and interaction terms between the individual's report of the partner's behavior and relationship length at time one with the individual's report of satisfaction in study three.

| | Men | | | | Women | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Satisfaction T1 | Satisfaction T2 | Mean | SD | Satisfaction T1 | Satisfaction T2 | Mean | SD |
| Satisfaction T1 | -- | .51** | 40.71 | 6.51 | -- | .18 | 42.82 | 5.17 |
| Satisfaction T2 | .51** | -- | 37.34 | 8.46 | .18 | -- | 40.27 | 8.29 |
| Length | -.06 | -.08 | 13.53 | 10.87 | -.11 | .22 | 13.53 | 10.87 |
| Average Contact | .10 | .12 | 6.05 | 1.38 | -.03 | .07 | 6.09 | 1.50 |
| Bad Habits T1 | -.33** | -.25* | 2.68 | 1.35 | -.24* | .03 | 3.17 | 1.30 |
| Bad Habits T1 X Length | -.02 | -.06 | 4.98 | 36.07 | -.13 | .18 | 4.18 | 37.09 |
| Inconsiderate T1 | -.34** | -.25* | 2.86 | 1.17 | -.17 | -.03 | 1.53 | .80 |
| Inconsiderate T1 X Length | .00 | -.05 | 1.81 | 32.70 | -.10 | .22 | -.33 | 16.65 |
| Intrusive T1 | -.69** | -.35** | 2.11 | 1.30 | -.56** | -.13 | 1.58 | 1.00 |
| Intrusive T1 X Length | -.03 | -.06 | 1.54 | 26.72 | -.18 | .14 | .33 | 18.54 |
| Norm Violations T1 | -.56** | -.39** | 1.06 | .88 | -.47** | -.13 | .88 | .49 |
| Norm Violations T1 X Length | .11 | .07 | -.32 | 15.62 | -.10 | .19 | 1.10 | 12.19 |
| Instrumental Supp. T1 | -.01 | -.19 | 2.31 | 1.35 | .29* | .18 | 3.25 | 1.45 |
| Instrumental Supp. T1 X Length | -.01 | -.05 | -.74 | 29.89 | -.09 | .16 | .63 | 39.59 |
| Emotional Supp. T1 | .39** | .15 | 6.71 | 1.06 | .57** | .00 | 6.88 | 1.29 |
| Emotional Supp. T1 X Length | -.08 | -.09 | -1.21 | 71.73 | -.13 | .23 | -1.75 | 73.57 |
| Gracious T1 | .08 | -.05 | 3.64 | .99 | .36** | .03 | 3.36 | 1.23 |
| Gracious T1 X Length | -.03 | -.03 | -2.16 | 40.68 | -.12 | .21 | -1.82 | 38.93 |
| Sex. Affectionate T1 | .32** | .16 | 5.00 | 1.56 | .17 | .15 | 5.08 | 1.67 |
| Sex. Affectionate T1 X Length | -.07 | -.10 | 1.05 | 57.70 | -.15 | .19 | 5.15 | 60.02 |

| | Men | | | | Women | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Satisfaction T1 | Satisfaction T2 | Mean | SD | Satisfaction T1 | Satisfaction T2 | Mean | SD |
| Bad Habits T2 | -.19 | -.35** | 2.95 | 1.54 | -.26* | .09 | 3.09 | 1.41 |
| Bad Habits T2 X Length | -.05 | .01 | 2.22 | 38.42 | -.09 | .20 | .95 | 35.20 |
| Inconsiderate T2 | -.05 | -.38** | 2.98 | 1.32 | -.26* | -.17 | 1.62 | .99 |
| Inconsiderate T2 X Length | -.05 | -.02 | -.37 | 34.63 | -.08 | .25* | -1.40 | 17.34 |
| Intrusive T2 | -.29* | -.54** | 2.63 | 1.50 | -.43** | -.38** | 1.70 | 1.17 |
| Intrusive T2 X Length | -.04 | .00 | -1.60 | 33.00 | -.16 | .25* | -1.00 | 20.32 |
| Norm Violations T2 | -.16 | -.50** | 1.52 | 1.49 | -.36** | -.24* | .97 | .86 |
| Norm Violations T2 X Length | .05 | .07 | -1.35 | 23.64 | -.02 | .23 | -.27 | 14.31 |
| Instrumental Supp. T2 | .05 | -.11 | 2.32 | 1.37 | .13 | .44** | 3.00 | 1.60 |
| Instrumental Supp. T2 X Length | .02 | .01 | -3.41 | 26.72 | -.06 | .09 | .12 | 37.40 |
| Emotional Supp. T2 | .35** | .42** | 6.40 | 1.40 | .25* | .48** | 6.65 | 1.31 |
| Emotional Supp. T2 X Length | -.08 | -.11 | -.66 | 67.56 | -.10 | .18 | -1.52 | 70.31 |
| Gracious T2 | .08 | -.09 | 3.78 | 1.11 | .09 | .17 | 3.55 | 1.23 |
| Gracious T2 X Length | -.06 | -.03 | -3.92 | 40.44 | -.08 | .21 | -3.06 | 39.00 |
| Sex. Affectionate T2 | .08 | .32** | 4.94 | 1.43 | .12 | .42** | 5.20 | 1.57 |
| Sex. Affectionate T2 X Length | -.07 | -.15 | -.59 | 54.32 | -.13 | .15 | 3.01 | 60.90 |

Note:    $n_{men} = 70$ & $n_{women} = 70$; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

*Appendix U.8*

Correlations, means, and standard deviations for the cross-sectional relations between satisfaction and commitment, and the relationship between differences in satisfaction (T2 – T1) to difference in commitment (T2 – T1) in study three.

| | **Men** | | | **Women** | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Satisfaction | Mean | SD | Satisfaction | Mean | SD |
| Commitment T1 | .65 | 6.75 | 1.34 | .38 | 7.23 | 1.19 |
| Commitment T2 | .69 | 6.30 | 1.74 | .58 | 6.98 | 1.30 |
| Commitment Diff. | .52 | -.46 | 1.46 | .42 | -.25 | 1.35 |

Note:    All correlations significant at $p < .01$. $n_{men} = 70$ & $n_{women} = 70$

**CURRICULUM VITAE**

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Research Associate, Pacific Institute of Research and Evaluation (PIRE); July 2002 to present

## ACADEMIC TRAINING

University of Louisville
      Ph.D., Experimental Social Psychology, 1998-2004
      Dissertation Advisor: Michael R. Cunningham, Ph.D.

University of Louisville
      M.A., Experimental Social Psychology, 1996-1998
      Thesis Advisor: Michael R. Cunningham, Ph.D.

University of Cincinnati
      B.A., Psychology, 1990-1994
      Honors Thesis Advisor: Dee Graham, Ph.D.

## SUPERVISORY EXPERIENCE

Research Associate, PIRE; July 2002 to present: supervised data analysts in completing projects
Assistant Lab Coordinator (1999-2002), University of Louisville: supervised undergraduate collaborators
Lab Technician (1999-2002), Univ. of Louisville: setup/maintenance of computer bank, audio/video setup
Supervisor (1995-1996), Market Logistics: supervised market research interviewers

## COMPUTER SKILLS

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| MS Word | MS Excel | MS Access | MS PowerPoint |
| Visual Basic | SPSS | SYSTAT | LISREL |
| HLM | R/S-PLUS | SAS | Unix/Linux |

**TEACHING EXPERIENCE**

Part-time Instructor, University of Louisville, 1998-2002

**COURSES TAUGHT**

Introduction to Psychology (2 semesters)
Research Methods and Statistics (4 semester)
Introduction to Social Psychology (2 semesters)

**FUNDED RESEARCH**

Cunningham, M. R., Barbee, A. P., & Shamblen, S. R. (graduate investigator) (2001). *Social allergies and close relationships: Effect of acquired hypersensitivity on liking, love, and health*. Funding for 2 years on an internal research initiation grant -- $4000.

**SCHOLARLY ACTIVITIES**

Shamblen, S. R. (2003). *Commonly Unused STATistics 1.6: An applet to perform statistical tests not offered in most popular statistical packages for the Intel x86 and the Macintosh* [Computer Program]. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY, USA. (available at http://jacquelynsteve.tripod.com/programs/)

Shamblen, S. R. (2002). *FreeCoder 0.2: A freeware applet to code behavioral data* [Computer Program]. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY, USA. (available at http://jacquelynsteve.tripod.com/programs/)

Shamblen, S. R. (2001). *Easy Question 0.8.0: A data collection program for the social/behavioral sciences on the Intel x86 and the Macintosh* [Computer Program]. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY, USA. (available at http://jacquelynsteve.tripod.com/programs/)

**PUBLICATIONS/SUBMITTED FOR PUBLICATION**

Cunningham, M. R., & Shamblen, S. R. (in press). Beyond Classicism versus Constructivism: A Multiple Fitness analysis of variations in grooming. In E. Voland & K. Grammer, *Evolutionary Aesthetics.* Germany: Springer-Verlag.

Cunningham, M. R., Rowatt, T. J., Shamblen, S. R., Rowatt, W., Miles, S. M., Ault, L. K, & Bettler, R. F. (2003). *Men and women are from earth: Life trajectory dynamics in mate choice*. Submitted for publication to the Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin.

**CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS**

Cunningham, M. R., Ault, L. K., & Shamblen, S. R. (2001). *From impression motivation to social allergy: Romantic deflation and aversive behaviors*. Paper presented at the 2001 meeting of the International Network on Personal Relationships.

Cunningham, M. R., & Shamblen, S. R. (2001). *The erosion and revitalization of love: Social allergies and pleasantries in romantic relationships*. Paper presented at the 2001 meeting of the International Network on Personal Relationships.

Cunningham, M. R., & Shamblen, S. R. (1999). *My partner wasn't such a disgusting pig when we started dating*. Paper presented at the 1999 meeting of the Society of Southeastern Social Psychologists.

Shamblen, S. R., Cunningham, M. R., & Barbee, A. P. (1999). *The effects of instrumentality and expressivity on communication: Cheerful and supportive interactions*. Paper presented at the 1999 meeting of the International Network on Personal Relationships.

Shamblen, S. R., & Cunningham, M. R. (2001). *Pleasantries and allergies: Perceptions of changes in behavior over the first year of close relationships*. Paper presented at the 2001 meeting of the International Network on Personal Relationships.

## HONORS AND AWARDS

Graduate Teaching Assistantship, Psychology, U of L, 1996 to present
Arthur G. Bills Award, Psychology, U Cincinnati, 1996
Member, Golden Key National Honor Society, May 1994 to present

## PROFESSIONAL REFERENCES

Michael Cunningham, Ph.D., Psychology, U of L  502/852-5953, mrcunn01@athena.louisville.edu
John Birkimer, Ph.D., Psychology, U of L  502/852-6775, jcbirk01@athena.louisville.edu
Wayne Usui, Ph.D., Sociology, U of L  502/852-6836, wayne.usui@louisville.edu

## PERSONAL REFERENCES

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