ASSUMED SIMILARITY IN ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION AND RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION IN DATING AND MARRIED COUPLES

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ABSTRACT

Studies in interpersonal attraction have focused primarily on actual similarity, with very little attention been given to assumed similarity or to the relative importance of both actual and assumed similarity. Several studies have addressed alcohol use and relationship satisfaction, however, the role of assumed similarity in alcohol consumption and relationship satisfaction has not been explored. Therefore, this study explored the role of both assumed and actual similarity in relationship satisfaction in the context of alcohol consumption. Participants were recruited from dating and married couples in a university setting as well as the community. Assumed similarity and actual similarity were calculated using difference scores. Correlations computed between the variables were not large enough to address the hypotheses with the utility of regression equations. The results revealed that (1) Assumed similarity in alcohol consumption was greater than actual similarity only in the case of males’ reporting and only on two dimensions: frequency of alcohol consumption and the number of days drinking for the past 90 days. (2) Actual similarity in the frequency of alcohol consumption was positively correlated with males’ satisfaction. (3) The greater the actual discrepancy in frequency, the lower the level of male satisfaction; and (4) the greater the discrepancy in females’ assumed similarity the lower the level of males’ satisfaction.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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I will always cherish the opportunity I had at UNCW to interact with and benefit from the tremendous knowledge, warmth and support of the academic staff of the Psychology Department. Thanks also to the administrative staff who were always pleasant and willing to help.

Special thanks to my precious husband. I would not have been able to complete this project without his consistent support. Thanks to my mother, who is always there for me. Last, but most importantly, thanks to my Heavenly Father who has watched over and guided me throughout the course of my life.
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INTRODUCTION

The Dimensions of Similarity

It has long been observed that similarity along a number of dimensions is an important factor in attracting people to one another and to the development and maintenance of relationships (Kassin, Fein, & Markus, 2008; Berscheid & Reis, 1998). For example, Byrne, Clore and Smeaton proposed a Two-Stage model of the attraction process that illustrates the role of similarity in attraction (see Figure 1) (Kassin et al., 2008; Byrne, Clore, & Smeaton, 1986). Other research has indicated that similarity in alcohol consumption is associated with friendships (Hagman, Clifford, and Noel, 2007) and close relationships (Homish and Leonard, 2007). However, further research is required to extend the present knowledge on how both actual and assumed similarity in alcohol consumption is related to relationship satisfaction among dating and married couples. To address this research goal a clear understanding of the dimensions of similarity is required.

People can be similar in different ways. Kassin et al. (2008) identified four classes of similarity that are important in the attraction process: similarity in attitude, similarity in demographics (e.g. education, race, socioeconomic status, age, religion, height), similarity in physical attractiveness, and similarity in subjective experience. In one study conducted in a dormitory setting, students were asked to fill out questionnaires indicating their values and attitudes (Newcomb, 1961; Taylor, Peplau, & Sears, 2003). Then they were assigned roommates based on their attitudes. Some students were assigned to roommates that were similar and some to roommates that were dissimilar in attitudes. It
was found that roommates who were similar in attitudes liked each other and became friends, whereas those who were not similar in attitudes disliked each other.
People You Meet

The Negative Screen of Dissimilarity

Dissimilar
Avoidance

The Positive Screen
of Similarity

Low Similarity
Indifference

Not Dissimilar

High Similarity
Attraction

Continuing Contact

Figure 1: A Two-Stage Model of the Attraction Process (Kassin et al. 2008)
Byrne (1971) demonstrated the importance of similarity in attitudes while controlling for factors such as appearance and personality. He first asked participants to fill out questionnaires about their personal attitudes. Subsequently, the participants were asked to read questionnaires which they were led to believe were filled out by a stranger, when in fact they were created by the researcher. Participants were then asked to indicate whether they would like this other person. The researcher found that participants had greater anticipation of liking this “phantom” person whenever he/she was similar in attitudes to the subject.

When two people share similarity in subjective experiences, they can reminisce about the positives as well as the negatives of these experiences, for example, they can cry or laugh together. This is termed “I-sharing” (Pinel, Long, Laundau, Stanley, & Pyszczynski, 2006, p. 2). According to these researchers, “when people I-share, they believe that they and at least one other person have had the same subjective experience in response to a given stimulus” (Pinel et al., 2006, p. 2). People who I-share tend to have a sense of bonding or “kindred spirits” to each other even when they are dissimilar in other areas.

Pinel and her colleagues demonstrated the importance of I-sharing in five studies (Pinel et al., 2006). Participants were asked to read about a first day class experience involving two students. One of the students in the scenario came from participants’ hometown, that is, an objective similar other. A second student was from an unspecified country, that is, objectively dissimilar. Both students were the same gender as the participants. In some cases, the similar other I-shared with the participant and in other cases they did not I-share. In other instances, the dissimilar I-shared and sometimes they
did not. Participants then expressed whether they liked the similar or dissimilar other. The results showed that participants’ liking was linked to I-sharing for both similar and dissimilar others. In addition, participants indicated liking for the objectively similar only in cases where they I-shared.

In a study of 291 newlywed couples, Luo and Klohnen (2005) found that couples shared similar attitudes in politics, religion and values to one another. The results did not support the concept of convergence, that is, the belief that couples become more similar the longer the relationship. These and other research suggest that in terms of relationships, people tend to be attracted to others who are similar to themselves.

Assumed and Actual Similarity

While persons are attracted to others who are similar to themselves, one question of interest is whether this similarity is assumed or whether this similarity actually exists. Assumed similarity may be defined as one person holding an opinion of himself which he assumes is true about another person. In a research context, the partner reports his or her perception. For example, I like baseball and I report that my partner likes baseball. The term “assumed similarity” was first used by Cronbach in 1955 (Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000). The term “actual similarity” is when a person reports sharing a similar attribute with another person. For example, I report that I like baseball and my partner likes baseball as well.

According to Schul & Vinokur (2000), not only are assumed similarity effects prevalent in social perceptions, but in fact assumed similarity is even more prevalent when relationships were close. The pervasiveness of assumed similarity may be explained by an understanding of the role of egocentrism in close relationships.
Egocentrism may be defined as determining the qualities, values & experiences of others from the perspective of the self. Egocentric individuals make assumptions about other persons based on their own attitudes and opinions. Murray, Holmes, Bellavia, Griffin, & Dolderman (2002), conducted research on the role egocentrism plays in the quality (satisfaction, felt understanding) of close relationships. The authors tested several hypotheses: (1) Egocentrism provides a critical foundation for feeling understood and being happy. (2) More egocentric intimates would report greater satisfaction (i.e., perceived similarity between themselves and their partners). (3) Couples who saw relatively little of themselves in their partners would report less satisfaction. (4) The partners of more egocentric intimates would report greater relationship satisfaction (an interpersonal benefit of assimilating the partner to self). (5) Long term dating intimates who are more egocentric would report greater relationship stability because of the presumed buffering effect of seeing one’s partner as a kindred spirit.

The results from this study revealed that in satisfying and stable relationships, egocentrism was present as individuals assimilated their partners to themselves and assumed their partners were similar in areas where they were actually dissimilar. In addition, the research results indicate that egocentrism predicted greater feelings of being understood which in turn, mediated the link between egocentrism and satisfaction in marriage. This research suggests a reason for the pervasiveness of assumed similarity in social perception and close relationships. If assuming one’s partner is similar leads to greater feelings of being understood and greater relationship satisfaction then in order to realize these benefits, persons may be tempted to make assumptions about their partners, especially if they have no evidence to the contrary.
Watson et al. (2000), conducted research on the five factor personality model as well as affectivity. Affectivity was classified as negative affect scale (fear, sadness, guilt, hostility), positive affect scale (joviality, self-assurance, attentiveness), and other affect scale (shyness, fatigue, serenity, surprise). The results revealed that: (1) correlations for assumed similarity were highest for dating couples, (2) significant self-other agreement was reported for all scales except surprise, (3) evidence of assumed similarity was consistently stronger for affective traits than the five-factor model, (4) assumed similarity was greatest in negative affectivity ratings, (5) there were higher agreement correlations for the five-factor model than for affectivity scales, and (6) no evidence was found to support the notion that “Opposites Attract”.

Research data related to a phenomenon of interest is sometimes collected from two sources: the subject and a person who knows the subject. This technique allows the data collected from the subject to be corroborated by information from the second person who is sometimes called a collateral informant. The level of congruence between the data supplied by the subject and that from the collateral informant is referred to as the level of self-other agreement. Several researchers, for example, John & Robins (1993) and Paulhus & Reynolds (1995), have looked at the processes that affect the level of self-other agreement. Other researchers have focused on self-other agreement for affective traits (Watson et al., 2000).

Watson, Hubbard and Weise (2000) showed that self-other agreement was greater for pairs of persons who knew each other most, and less for persons who were not well acquainted. Subjects were dating couples, married couples and friendship pairs. While intuition would suggest that length of acquaintance and liking would influence the level
of self-other agreement, published research reveal mixed results. For example, Watson & Clark (1991) and Paunonen (1989), found that there was an increase in self-other agreement as acquaintanceship increased. However, McCrae, Stone, & Fagan (1998) found that self-other agreement was not consistently related by either liking the target or length of acquaintanceship, and that neither the length of a marital relationship nor the level of marital satisfaction was significantly related to self-spouse agreement.

Collateral informants have been used in studies to corroborate self-reported data. However, according to Hagman et al. (2007), not many studies have examined the correspondence between the subject and collateral for non-clinical populations. To address this vacuum, these authors conducted research to examine the correspondence of information using subject-collateral pairs of college students. The research results indicated moderate to good statistically significant correlations between subject-friend pairs for use of alcohol and other types of substances.

According to Klohnen & Luo (2003), most research designed to address attraction in close relationships, employ beliefs, attitudes and values as the primary means of measuring similarity. Moreover, research in interpersonal attraction has focused primarily on actual similarity with very little attention to assumed similarity. In addition, there is very little research that focuses on the importance of both actual similarity and assumed similarity. The authors tested four attraction hypotheses: similarity to self, complementarity, attachment security and ideal-self similarity. The similarity to self hypothesis proposed that people are attracted to individuals with similar attachment characteristics. The complementarity hypothesis proposed that people are attracted to individuals with complementary personality characteristics. The attachment security
hypothesis proposed that people are attracted to secure individuals. The ideal-self similarity hypothesis proposed that people are attracted to individuals who share the attachment characteristics of their ideal self rather than their current self.

The authors hypothesized that assumed similarity is very active in the initial attraction process, for example, during dating. As such, assumed similarity should have a greater influence on attraction than actual similarity. The research results indicated that actual security and self similarity predicted attraction - across samples and design. However, no support for complementarity was found.

Alcohol Consumption and Marital Satisfaction

Homish and Leonard (2007) conducted research to determine whether the level of marital satisfaction could be predicted by discrepancies in heavy drinking patterns of husbands and wives during the past-year. In their study, subjects indicated their alcohol use and level of marital satisfaction on three occasions: at marriage, at their first anniversary and at their second anniversary. The results of the research suggest that differences in drinking patterns between husbands and wives have a greater effect on the level of marital satisfaction than the volume of alcohol consumed. These results were true for both men and women. Other researchers have also obtained similar research results. According to Mudar, Leonard, K. E. & Soltysinski (2001), for example, lower levels of marital satisfaction were achieved by couples with different alcohol usage patterns at marriage when compared to couples where both partners used alcohol or neither partner used alcohol. These research results were also true for use of drugs, frequency of alcohol intoxication, and heavier drinking. Since it is the difference in drinking patterns that most influence marital satisfaction, if assuming one’s partner is
similar leads to greater relationship satisfaction, then it is reasonable to infer that persons may make assumptions about the drinking patterns of their partners to increase their level of their relationship satisfaction. Assumed similarity with respect to alcohol use could therefore potentially play an important role in the level of relationship satisfaction.

Present Study

From the foregoing it is clear that while some work has been done on assumed similarity, more research, specifically research that addresses both actual and assumed similarity is needed. In addition, research that addresses the role of assumed similarity in relationship satisfaction and alcohol consumption has not been done. For example, Homish and Leonard (2007) explored alcohol use and relationship satisfaction but only for actual similarity. Accordingly, the goal of the present study was to explore the role of assumed similarity in relationship satisfaction in the context of alcohol consumption. The role of both actual similarity and assumed similarity were explored along with a determination of whether it was the assumed similarity or the actual similarity or both that affected the level of relationship satisfaction. The study identified assumptions dating and married couples make about the alcohol consumption of their partners and how these assumptions related to the level of satisfaction experienced in their relationships. The study also explored the finding of Homish and Leonard (2007) that it was the discrepancy in drinking pattern not the discrepancy in amount of alcohol consumed that affected the relationship satisfaction in married couples. Specifically, the current research sought to determine if it was the assumed discrepancy in the drinking pattern, or the actual discrepancy in the drinking pattern that affected relationship satisfaction.
Deriving from the research goals, the following research questions were explored:

Is there greater assumed similarity in alcohol consumption among people who are satisfied with their relationship? Is there greater actual similarity in alcohol consumption among people who are satisfied with their relationship? Is assumed similarity greater than actual similarity in couples who are satisfied in their relationship? What role does the discrepancy in drinking pattern play in relationship satisfaction?

HYPOTHESES

In order to answer these research questions the four hypotheses listed below were explored:

Hypothesis 1: Assumed similarity is greater than actual similarity in alcohol consumption in close relationships.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between assumed similarity alcohol consumption and relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between actual similarity in alcohol consumption and relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: Both the assumed and actual discrepancy in drinking pattern of partners are associated with the level of relationship satisfaction.
METHOD

Participants

Participants were 100 couples (200 individuals). Three couples were same-sex females who were dropped from the data analysis, leaving 97 heterosexual couples. The age range for the 97 couples was 18 to 57 years: females (M Years = 20.55, SD = 5.8), and males (M Years = 21.74, SD = 6.78).

The majority of the participants were Caucasian: 76.3% of the females who participated were Caucasian compared to 80.4% males. African Americans comprised 7.2% of both the male and female samples. Hispanics made up 6.2% of females who participated and 4.1% of the males. The remaining participants identified themselves as American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian/Pacific Islander or Multiple Ethnicity.

Participants were recruited from undergraduate and graduate populations in various departments of a medium-sized southeastern university, as well as from the community. Partners of students were not required to be members of the university population in order to qualify for participation in the study. Some students participated in exchange for research credits, and other who did not qualify for research credits were entered in a drawing. The first place and second place winners received visa gift cards of $100 and $50, respectively. There were two drawings, one at the end of the Fall 2008 semester and the other at the end of the Spring 2009 semester.

The majority of the sample was college freshman: 53.6% and 42.3% of the female and male sample, respectively. A larger percentage of the male sample (9%) was not currently in school compared to 4% of the female sample.
Materials

Informed Consent Document

Each participant was asked to sign an informed consent document in duplicate (See Appendix A). One copy was kept by the experimenter and the other was given to the participant.

Demographic Information Sheet

All participants were asked to report their age, gender, height, weight, the length of their relationship with their partner, current relationship status, current educational status, their ethnicity, and current employment status (see Appendix B).

Quantity-Frequency-Variety Index (QFI)

Alcohol consumption was assessed by the use of the Quantity-Frequency-Variety Index (QFI) derived by Cahalan, Cisin, and Crossley (1969). This scale has been used in other studies such as Barnett and Fagan (1993) and Hagman et al. (2007). The QFI is designed to measure self-reported alcohol consumption during the past three months in term of 3 subscales: amount of alcohol consumed, the frequency of consumption, and the number of drinking days (see Appendix C).

The amount of alcohol consumed in the last three months was determined from the QFI and was measured using the number of standard drinks (one standard drink contains approximately 0.5oz or 14.75ml of ethanol) in the form of hard liquor, beer, or wine. An average of the amount of hard liquor, beer and wine \[\frac{\text{Amt Hdl} + \text{Amt Br} + \text{Amt Wi}}{3}\] was calculated. The frequency of alcohol used was measured on an 8-point scale in terms of the number of days that alcohol (hard liquor, beer, and/or wine) was consumed during the last three months. Again, an average was calculated \[\frac{\text{Days Hl} + \text{Days Br} + \text{Days Wi}}{3}\].
Days Br + Days Wi)/3]. The total number of days that participants drank in the last 90 days was indicated on the questionnaire.

The Drinking Motives Questionnaire (DMQ)

The Drinking Motives Questionnaire (Cooper, 1994) is a self-administered instrument consisting of 20 items. The Drinking Motives Questionnaire measures participants’ motives for consuming alcohol. The 20 items load onto four factors (social, coping, enhancement, and conformity motives) each of which has five associated items (MacLean & Lecci, 2000). Participants indicate how often they consume alcohol for a specific reason on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (almost always) (see Appendix E).

Rutgers Alcohol Problems Index (RAPI)

The Rutgers Alcohol Problem Index (RAPI) is used to assess problem drinking. It is a 23-item screening tool that is rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=once, 3=2-3 times, 4=4-6 times, and 5=7 or more times) (see Appendix F). The RAPI is an instrument that is easily administered which yields a total score of all the items. None of the items are reverse scored. RAPI was used in a study of 1,308 adolescent males and females whose age range from 12 to 21. RAPI was positively correlated with alcohol-use intensity for all age groups in the sample, r values ranging from .20 to .57 (White and Labouvie, 1989).

Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

To assess relationship satisfaction, this study used the Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS) which was developed by Susan Hendrick (Hendrick, 1988; Hendrick, Dicke, & Hendrick, 1998). The RAS is a 7-item Likert scale (see Appendix G) that has
established reliability and validity in a number of studies. One study in a university setting had a test-retest reliability of .85 (Hendrick et al., 1998). The scale has a mean inter-item correlation of .49 and an alpha of .86. The RAS has demonstrated validity in terms of its ability to predict whether couples would stay together or break up. In one study, the RAS correctly predicted 91% couples who would stay together and 86% of those who would split up (Hendrick, 1988).

The RAS has relatively high correlations with other measures of relationship satisfaction. For example, in two separate studies, the RAS had correlations of .80 and .88 with the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Hendrick et al., 1998). The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier, 1976; Graham, Liu, & Jeziorski, 2006) was used in excess of a thousand within the first 10 years of its development and is a respected measure of relationship satisfaction. However, the Relationship Assessment Scale has some advantages over other measures of relationship satisfaction. These advantages include (1) the RAS is a brief 7-items measure compared to the 32-item DAS scale, (2) it can be used to measure relationship satisfaction in several relationship dimensions (married couples, dating relationships, persons who are co-habitating, same-sex relationships), and (3) it is easy to administer (Hendrick, 1988; Hendrick et al., 1998).

In the Relationship Assessment Scale, two of the items (items 4 and 7) are reversed scored and scores for individual items range from one to five (A=1, B=2, C=3, D=4, E=5). A relationship satisfaction score was obtained by computing the mean score for the seven items. The mean scores can range from one, representing low relationship satisfaction, to five, representing high relationship satisfaction.
Procedure

The study was advertised on Bulletin Boards in several departments of the university as well as through the university computerized research sign-up system. Each participating couple signed up for a specific date and time to complete the study instruments consisting of several questionnaires. The couple entered the lab together, but completed the questionnaires separately. Each participant was asked to sign two informed consent documents (see Appendix A). One copy was given to the participant and the other copy was retained for the research records.

Each participant was then given an envelope with the questionnaires which they completed and replaced in the envelope. The questionnaires contained demographic and relationship satisfaction questions as well as questions related to alcohol use. Participants were asked to complete the QFI for themselves as well as for their partners (see Appendix D), and the QFI was counterbalanced between couples. However, participants completed the demographic Information Sheet (see Appendix B), the Drinking Motives Questionnaire (see Appendix E), the RAPI (see Appendix F), and the 7-item relationship assessment scale (see Appendix G) for themselves only. The experimenter collected the envelopes with the questionnaires. In order to ensure that the identity of participants were kept anonymous, informed consent documents were kept separate from questionnaire packets. The participant’s contact information was entered for a drawing as described above. The procedures for this study were approved by the University of North Carolina Wilmington Institutional Review Board.
Data Analysis

Data analysis was done for 97 couples. Assumed and actual similarity was derived using the absolute value of difference scores. Actual similarity in alcohol consumption for each couple was derived by calculating the difference scores using the self-report of both partners. Assumed similarity in alcohol consumption was derived by calculating difference scores of the subject’s report and the subject’s report of partner, this was done separately for both partners (see Appendix H for sample calculations). This approach allowed for gender comparisons as was the case in the Homish’s and Leonard’s (2007) study where the couple was not the unit of analysis. The actual alcohol consumption for each partner was captured from the questionnaire.

In the original design of the study, the plan was to examine the association between relationship satisfaction and alcohol consumption in terms of assumed and actual similarity by the use of multiple regressions. However, correlations computed between the variables were not large enough to address the hypotheses with the utility of regression equations.
RESULTS

Relationship Characteristics

The average relationship length for couples in this study was three years and three months for females (M months = 39.38, SD = 54.01) and three years and two months for males (M months = 38.7, SD = 54.45).

The majority of the sample comprised of steady dating relationships: 75.3% of the female sample and 72.3% of the male sample. From Figure 2, it would appear that there is some agreement between the couples’ reporting of the status of their relationship in the friendship without steady dating and the married couples categories, that is, males and females report the same type of relationship. However, there seem to be some discrepancy in the reports for couples who are in the co-habitating category (11.3% females and 15.5% males) and the steady dating category (75.3% females and 72.3% males).
Figure 2: Relationship Status
Participants’ Drinking Behavior

A significant portion of our sample included persons who have had alcoholic drinks during the last 90 days. As seen in Figure 3, 82.5% percent of females reported consuming alcohol in the last three months ($M$ days drinking = 17.61, $SD$ = 20.98) while 90.7% males reported drinking during the past 90 days ($M$ days drinking = 22.34, $SD$ = 23.78).
Figure 3: Distribution of Drinking
Females consistently reported higher alcohol consumption for their male partners while males consistently report lower levels of alcohol consumption for their female partners (see Table 1). Males’ self-report indicate that on average they drank 1-3 days per month and that they perceived that their female partners drank on average less than once per month. The converse is true for females’ reporting, that is, females report their average frequency of drinking as less than once per month and report that their partners drank 1-3 days per month. Similar reporting is observed for males and females in terms of the average number of days alcohol was consumed during the last 90 days. Males report that they drank 22 days during the past 90 days while they perceived that their female partners drank 16 days during the past 90 days. However, females report that they drank 18 days for the past 90 days while they perceived that their male partners drank 25 days out of the 90 days. A similar trend is observed in males’ and females’ reporting in term of the average amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days: males reporting 1.99 and 1.51 number of standard drinks for themselves and their partners, respectively. Females report their average alcohol consumption as 1.37 standard drinks for the past 90 days, and their male partners amount as 1.64 standard drinks for the past 90 days.
Table 1: Self-Reported Data for Days Drinking, Frequency and Amount.

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<th>Mean (Median)</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<td><strong>Self-Report - Days Drinking (past 90 days)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>17.61 (10.00)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>22.34 (15.00)</td>
<td>23.78</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Report – Drinking Frequency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2.36 (2.67)</td>
<td>1.37</td>
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<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2.65 (3.00)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Report - Amount (past 90 days)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.37 (1.33)</td>
<td>.86</td>
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<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.99 (2.00)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Perception - Days Drinking (past 90 days)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>25.19 (15.00)</td>
<td>27.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>16.09 (10.00)</td>
<td>18.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perception – Drinking Frequency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2.62 (2.67)</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2.35 (2.67)</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perception - Amount (past 90 days)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.64 (1.67)</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.51 (1.50)</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Binge Drinking

Binge drinking was defined by the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA) in their 2004 winter newsletter as:

A “binge” is a pattern of drinking alcohol that brings BAC to 0.08 gram percent or above. For the typical adult, this pattern corresponds to consuming five or more drinks (male), or four or more drinks (female), in about two hours. (p. 3)

Table 2 presents data on the average amount of self-reported alcohol consumption for both males and females along with their perception of their partners’ drinking for three time periods: on a typical weekday, on a typical weekend day, and the largest amount of alcohol consumed within one 24-hour period. Both males and females self-report and perception report for their partner revealed that on a typical weekday the level of drinking is below the definition for “binge drinking.” However, the alcohol consumption for a typical weekend day and the largest amount of alcohol consumed within a 24-hour for males and females meets the definition for “binge drinking.” Approximately forty four percent of females reported binge drinking on a typical weekend day (M = 4.53, SD = 4.19) compared to 56.8% males self-report (M = 7.02, SD = 6.21). Similar findings are reported for females and males drinking in terms of binge drinking during a given 24-hour period. Approximately sixty five percent of females reported binge drinking during a 24-hour period (M = 7.17, SD = 6.42) compared to 71.1% males self-report (M = 10.33, SD = 10.00). From the table, the results show that both males and females reported that their partners participated in binge drinking during a typical weekend day and during a 24-hour period.
Table 2: Week Day, Weekend Day and Largest 24-hr Amount of Consumption

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean (Median)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Report (Female)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Week Day</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>2.20 (1.00)</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>21.6 (&gt;=4 st.drinks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Weekend Day</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>4.53 (3.50)</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Largest Amount (in 24 hours)</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>7.17 (6.00)</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Report (Male)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Week Day</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>4.00 (2.25)</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>36.7(&gt;=5 st. drinks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Weekend Day</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>7.02 (6.0)</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Largest Amount (in 24 hours)</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>10.33 (10.00)</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perception (Female)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Week Day</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2.74 (1.5)</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>27.8 (&gt;=5 st. drinks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Weekend Day</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>5.98 (5.50)</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Largest Amount (in 24 hours)</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>7.52 (7.00)</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perception (Male)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Week Day</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>2.24 (2.00)</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>26.5(&gt;= 4 st. drinks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Weekend Day</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>4.30 (4.00)</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Largest Amount (in 24 hours)</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>7.30 (6.00)</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Evidence of Actual Similarity

Correlations were computed to determine whether or not there was an association between the self-report of males and the self-report of their female partners’ drinking on the three levels of alcohol consumption: number of drinking for the past 90 days, frequency of alcohol consumption, and amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days. The results revealed that there was evidence of actual similarity for the three measures of drinking: number of drinking days for the past 90 days, frequency of alcohol consumption, and amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days.

A significantly positive correlation was found between females’ self-report of the number of days drinking for the past 90 days and their male partners’ self-report of the number of drinking days, \([r = .65, p<.01]\). Similarly, the results revealed that there was a positive correlation between females’ self-report of the frequency of drinking and their male partners’ self-report of frequency of drinking, \([r = .62, p<.01]\). A significantly positive correlation was found between females’ self-report of the amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days and their male partners’ self-report of the amount of alcohol consumed during the same time frame.

Evidence of Assumed Similarity

A number of correlations were computed to determine whether or not there was an association between the self-report of males and females and their corresponding perception of their partners’ drinking on the three levels of alcohol consumption: number of drinking days for the past 90 days, frequency of alcohol consumption, and amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days. The results showed that there was strong evidence of assumed similarity for both males and females.
A significantly positive correlation was found between females’ self-report of the number of drinking days and females’ perception of the number of drinking days for their partner, \([r = .80, p<.01]\). Similarly, a significantly positive correlation was found between females’ self-report of their frequency of alcohol consumption and females’ report on the frequency of their partners’ drinking, \([r = .74, p<.01]\). The results also revealed that there was a positive correlation between females’ self-report of the amount of alcohol they consumed during the past 90 days and females’ perception of their partners’ amount of alcohol consumed within the same time frame, \([r = .63, p<.01]\).

There was also evidence of assumed similarity in male’s self-report and males’ perception of their partners’ drinking. The results revealed that there was a significantly positive correlation between males’ self-report of the number of days that they drank during the past 90 days and the number of days that their female partners’ drank during the past 90 days, \([r = .77, p<.01]\). A significantly positive correlation was found between males’ self-report on their frequency of drinking and males’ perception of their partners’ frequency of drinking, \([r = .78, p<.01]\). A significantly positive correlation was also found between males’ self-report on the amount of alcohol they consumed during the last 90 days and the males’ report on the amount of alcohol their partners’ consumed during the same 90 days, \([r = .74, p<.01]\).

Accuracy in Perception

Accuracy in perception was examined by a series of correlations between males’ and females’ perception of their partners’ drinking and the self-report of the corresponding partners. The results revealed that there were significantly positive correlations between male and females’ perception and the self-report of their partners on
all three dimensions of alcohol consumption: number of days drinking for during the past 90 days, frequency of alcohol consumption, the amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days.

A significantly positive correlation was found between females’ perception of their partner’s number of drinking days and their males partners’ self-report of the number of drinking days $[r = .70, p < .01]$. Similarly, a significantly positive correlation was found between females’ perception of their partners’ frequency of alcohol consumption and their male partners’ self-report of frequency of drinking, $[r = .65, p < .01]$. In addition, the results showed a positive correlation between females’ perception of their partners’ amount of alcohol consumption and their male partners’ self-report of the amount of alcohol consumed, $[r = .50, p < .01]$. The results also revealed that there was significant accuracy of males’ perception of their partner’s drinking and their female partner’s self-report on drinking pattern. A significantly positive correlation was found between males’ perception of their partners’ days drinking during the past 90 days and their female partners’ self-report of the number of drinking, $[r = .75, p < .01]$. The results also showed a positive correlation between males’ perception of their partners’ frequency of drinking and their female partners’ self-report of the frequency of drinking, $[r = .75, p < .01]$. It was also found that males’ perception of their partners’ amount of alcohol consumption was positively correlated with their female partners’ self-report of the amount of alcohol consumed, $[r = .72, p < .01]$. 
Assumed Similarity Bias

Assumed similarity bias refers to the correlation between the self-report of alcohol consumption for each gender and their corresponding perception of their partners’ consumption while statistically controlling for the self-reported consumption of their partners. The correlation between females’ perception of their partners’ frequency of drinking and the females’ own self-report on frequency of drinking was significant, \( r = .74, p < .01 \). After statistically controlling for their male partners’ self-reported frequency, it was found that there is still a large amount of assumed similarity bias remaining, \( r = .57, p < .01 \). Also, females’ perception of their partners’ amount of alcohol consumed was positively correlated with the females’ own self-report of their amount of alcohol consumption, \( r = .62, p < .01 \). After their male partners’ actual amount was accounted for, their remained a moderately significant similarity bias, \( r = .44, p < .01 \). In addition, a significantly positive correlation was found between females’ self-report of the number of drinking days and the females’ perception of their male partners’ number of drinking days, \( r = .80, p < .01 \). After statistically controlling for their male partners’ number of drinking days, the results revealed that a substantial amount of similarity bias remained, \( r = .64, p < .01 \).

There was also evidence of assumed similarity bias for males. The correlation between males’ perception of their partners’ frequency of drinking and the males’ own self-report on frequency of drinking was significant, \( r = .78, p < .01 \). After statistically controlling for their female partners’ actual frequency, it was found that there is still a large amount of assumed similarity bias remaining, \( r = .61, p < .01 \). Also, males’ perception of their partners’ amount of alcohol consumed was positively correlated with
the males’ own self report of their amount of alcohol consumption, \( r = 0.74, p < .01 \). After their female partners’ actual amount was accounted for, a significant similarity bias was left, \( r = 0.50, p < .01 \). In addition, a significantly positive correlation was found between males’ self-report of the number of drinking days and the males’ perception of their female partners’ number of drinking days, \( r = 0.77, p < .01 \). After statistically controlling for their female partners’ number of drinking days, the results revealed that a substantial amount of similarity bias remained, \( r = 0.57, p < .01 \).

**Assumed Similarity Greater Than Actual Similarity**

In order to test the hypothesis that assumed similarity in alcohol consumption was greater than actual similarity, a dependent sample t-test was calculated between the assumed similarity in alcohol consumption and the actual similarity in alcohol consumption separately for each gender. The results revealed that males’ assumed similarity in frequency of alcohol consumption was greater than actual similarity \( (M = 0.22, SD = 0.80) \) in frequency of alcohol consumption, \( t(96) = -2.80, p < .01 \). In addition, males’ assumed similarity in the number of days drinking for the past 90 days was greater than the actual similarity \( (M = 3.10, SD = 11.56) \) in the number of days drinking for the past 90 days, \( t(96) = -2.64, p = .01 \). There were no other significant results.
Relationship Satisfaction and Self-Reports for Males and Females

Relationship satisfaction scores were computed for each gender. Correlations were computed between relationship satisfaction and the self-report of both genders on the three aspects of alcohol consumption. Females’ relationship satisfaction was negatively correlated with females’ self-report for the following variables: days drinking for the past 90 days, $[r = -.28, p < .01]$; females’ frequency of drinking, $[r = -.34, p < .01]$; and the amount of alcohol females consumed over the past 90 days, $[r = -.26, p < .05]$. A significantly negative correlation was found between males’ level of satisfaction and males’ self-report of the amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days, $[r = -.21, p < .05]$. Table 3 provides a summary of the association between relationship satisfaction for both partners and their corresponding self-reports. No other significant correlations were observed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Females' Days Drinking</th>
<th>Females' Frequency</th>
<th>Females' Amount</th>
<th>Males' Days Drinking</th>
<th>Males' Frequency</th>
<th>Males' Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female Relationship Satisfaction</td>
<td>-.28*</td>
<td>-.34**</td>
<td>-.26*</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Relationship Satisfaction</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, two-tailed; **p < .01, two-tailed
Relationship Satisfaction and Perception

A series of correlations were done to examine the association between relationship satisfaction and both males’ and females’ perception of their partners’ drinking for the three dimensions of drinking. A summary of the results for the correlations between relationship satisfaction and partners’ perception is provided in Table 4. The results revealed that there was a significantly negative correlation between males’ level of satisfaction and males’ perception of the amount of alcohol consumed by their female partners, \( r = -.21, p < .05 \). Females’ level of relationship satisfaction was negatively correlated with both females’ perception of males’ drinking as well as males’ perception of females’ drinking for the three levels of drinking. A significantly negative correlation was found between females’ relationship satisfaction and males’ perception of females’ drinking, \( r = -.28, p < .01 \). The results also showed that females’ level of satisfaction was negatively correlated with the following variables: females’ perception of the number of drinking days, \( r = -.21, p < .05 \), females’ perception of drinking frequency, \( r = -.23, p < .05 \), females’ perception of the amount of alcohol consumed, \( r = -.20, p < .05 \), males’ perception of the number of drinking days, \( r = -.21, p < .05 \), and males’ perception of the amount of alcohol consumed by females, \( r = -.26, p < .05 \). No other significant correlations were observed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female Perception (Drinking Days)</th>
<th>Female Perception (Frequency)</th>
<th>Female Perception (Amount)</th>
<th>Male Perception (Drinking Days)</th>
<th>Male Perception (Frequency)</th>
<th>Male Perception (Amount)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female Relationship</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
<td>-.23*</td>
<td>-.20*</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
<td>-.28**</td>
<td>-.26*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>N 97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Relationship</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>N 97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, two-tailed; **p < .01, two-tailed
Relationship Satisfaction and Congruence

In order to determine the association between relationship satisfaction and similarity of self-reported consumption and partner perception of consumption, correlations were computed between relationship satisfaction scores and congruence of self-reported and partner perceived consumption. These congruence scores were derived by calculating the absolute difference of the participants’ self-report of alcohol consumption (frequency, amount and days drinking) and partner perceived level of consumption. These associations are listed in Table 5. The higher difference score indicates a lower level of accuracy in perception, therefore, a negative correlation in effect means that greater accuracy is associated with greater relationship satisfaction.
Table 5: Relationship Satisfaction and Congruence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female Accuracy Scores (Frequency)</th>
<th>Female Accuracy Scores (Amount)</th>
<th>Female Accuracy Scores (Daysdrink)</th>
<th>Male Accuracy Scores (Frequency)</th>
<th>Male Accuracy Scores (Amount)</th>
<th>Male Accuracy Scores (Daysdrink)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.24∗</td>
<td>-.35**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Relationship</td>
<td>N 97</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Relationship</td>
<td>-.21∗</td>
<td>-.26∗</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>N 97</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, two-tailed; **p < .01, two-tailed
From the table, females’ level of satisfaction was negatively correlated with male’s congruence in reporting the amount of alcohol consumed by their partners, \[ r = -.24, p < .05 \]. Similarly, females’ level of satisfaction was negatively correlated with male’s congruence in reporting their partners’ of number of drinking days during the past 90 days, \[ r = -.35, p < .01 \]. Correlations revealed that males’ level of satisfaction was negatively associated with females’ congruence in reporting their partners’ frequency of drinking, \[ r = -.21, p < .05 \]. Also, males’ level of satisfaction was negatively correlated with females’ accuracy in reporting the amount of alcohol consumed by their partners, \[ r = -.26, p < .05 \]. No other significant correlations were observed.

Relationship Satisfaction and Actual Similarity

A series of correlations were analyzed to examine the relationship between females’ and male’s level of satisfaction and the following variables: actual similarity of the number of number of days drinking for the past 90 days, the actual similarity of the frequency of drinking, and the actual similarity of the amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days (see Table 6). The results revealed that males’ relationship satisfaction was negatively correlated with actual similarity scores in frequency of alcohol consumption, \[ r = -.24, p < .05 \]. No other significant correlations were observed for males. There were no significant results for females.
Table 6: Relationship Satisfaction and Actual Similarity in Consumption

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Actual Similarity Scores (Frequency)</th>
<th>Actual Similarity Scores (Amount)</th>
<th>Actual Similarity Scores (Days Drinking)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>-0.24*</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = .017, two-tailed
Relationship Satisfaction and Assumed Similarity

As noted above, assumed similarity scores were calculated by taking the absolute value of the difference between the participants’ self-reported consumption and their perception of their partners’ consumption. Correlations were computed between assumed similarity scores and relationship satisfaction scores separately for each gender for the three dimensions of alcohol consumption: females’ assumed frequency of drinking, females’ assumed amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days, females’ assumed number of days drinking during the past 90 days, males’ assumed frequency of drinking, males’ assumed amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days, and females’ assumed number of days drinking during the past 90 days (see Table 7). There was a significant negative correlation between males’ relationship satisfaction and females’ assumed similarity in the frequency of alcohol consumption, \( r = -.21, p < .05 \). No other significant correlations were observed.
Table 7: Relationship Satisfaction and Assumed Similarity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female Assumed Frequency</th>
<th>Female Assumed Amount</th>
<th>Female Assumed Days Drinking</th>
<th>Male Assumed Frequency</th>
<th>Male Assumed Amount</th>
<th>Male Assumed Days Drinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female Relationship Satisfaction</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Relationship Satisfaction</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>97</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = .043, two-tailed
DISCUSSION

Although the major hypotheses regarding relationship satisfaction and assumed similarity were not confirmed, a number findings in the present study indicated: (1) an important series of associations between alcohol consumption and actual and assumed similarity, (2) an assumed similarity perceptual bias when it comes to alcohol consumption, (3) a relationship between congruence in reporting and relationship satisfaction and (4) perceived levels of partner alcohol consumption and relationship satisfaction. The present study differed from previous work in that a wider range of levels of closeness of the participants’ relationships were included, but it should be noted that most of the couples reported relatively long standing acquaintances.

The Homish and Leonard (2007) study on drinking partnership and marital satisfaction was a longitudinal study where all the participants were married couples. The current study included participants who were married, steady dating, co-habitating, or were friends without steady dating. Although the present study is different from Homish and Leonard (2007) where participants were all married, the majority of the couples in the present study were together for a relatively long time: females (M months = 39.38, SD = 54.01) and males (M months = 38.7, SD = 54.45).

There is substantial evidence of actual similarity between males’ self report and females’ self-report for all aspects of alcohol consumption. Among the participants in this study, individuals seem to partner with others who have similar drinking patterns in all aspects of self-reported consumption. This result is consistent with that obtained by Hagman, Clifford and Noel, (2007), who found that people tend to hang out with persons having similar drinking patterns. The inclination for individuals to partner with others
who have similar drinking patterns might be due to individuals’ belief that they share similar subjective experience. This is termed I-sharing. Pinel, Long, Laundau, Stanley and Pyszczynski (2006) found that people who I-share tend to have a sense of bonding or “kindred spirits” to each other even when they are dissimilar in other areas. For over 50 years, psychologist observed that individuals are attracted to others who are similar to themselves.

There is also substantial evidence of assumed similarity, that is, individuals’ self-reported alcohol consumption is substantially correlated with the individuals’ perception of their partners’ drinking. This was true for both males and females in all aspects of alcohol consumption. This could mean that individuals in relationships assume that their partners’ alcohol consumption is similar to their own. These results for assumed similarity are consistent with findings in personality domain (Klohnen and Luo, 2003). Klohnen and Luo (2003) found that perceptual factors (i.e., assumed similarity) predicted attraction. In fact, these authors found that perceptual self-similarity was much greater than actual-self similarity in the initial attraction process.

The results also revealed that after statistically accounting for partners’ self-report on all three dimensions of drinking, there remained moderate to high significant correlations of assumed similarity bias. This implies that individuals in relationship assume that much more similarity exists between the couples than there actually is. This is consistent with findings from research conducted by Schul & Vinokur (2000) where they found that not only was assumed similarity prevalent in social perceptions, but in fact assumed similarity was even more prevalent when relationships were close. In the
Schul & Vinokur (2000) research, variables such as affective states and attitudes were examined.

When hypothesis 1 was tested, it was found that assumed similarity in alcohol consumption was greater than actual similarity only in the case of males’ reporting and only on two of the three dimensions of alcohol consumption. Males’ assumed similarity in frequency of alcohol consumption was greater than actual similarity in frequency of alcohol consumption, and males’ assumed similarity in the number of days drinking for the past 90 days was greater than the actual similarity in the number of days drinking for the past 90 days. This is another indicator that assumed similarity does exist in relationships and that generally speaking these relationships hold up for frequency more than amount.

The results revealed that there were significantly positive correlations between male and females’ perception and the self-report of their partners on all three dimensions of alcohol consumption: number of days drinking for during the past 90 days, frequency of alcohol consumption, the amount of alcohol consumed during the past 90 days. If partners were accurate in their self-reporting, then this is an indicator of accuracy in the perception of the pattern of alcohol consumption. If the self-reports of partners were not accurate, then this could mean that individuals in relationships are being deceived into thinking that they know their partners when they actually do not.

It is important to note that the current study provides increased evidence that similarity in alcohol consumption is a factor in the selection of partners in relationships. This study also provides new evidence that there is an assumed similarity bias about alcohol consumption among people in close relationships. This is particularly important
because of the association between alcohol consumption and numerous social and health problems among youths. Due to its cross-sectional nature, the present study did not address whether these similarities are part of the partner selection process or whether they are necessary for the maintenance of the relationship.

The results show that females’ level of relationship satisfaction was negatively correlated with self-reports of alcohol consumption for both males and females. That is, females who consume a lot of alcohol are not happy with their relationships or females who have a bad relationship (less satisfaction) tend to drink a lot more alcohol. Males’ level of satisfaction was negatively correlated with only males’ self-reported amount of alcohol consumption. This suggests that the more males drink, the less satisfied they are or the less satisfied males are the greater the tendency to drink.

A significantly negative correlation was found between males’ level of relationship satisfaction and males’ perception of the amount of alcohol their female partners’ consume. This is an indication that males are less satisfied if they perceive their female partners are heavy drinkers. It could also mean that the less satisfied males are in their relationships, the greater the tendency for the female partners to drink more. It is interesting that females’ relationship satisfaction is negatively correlated with both males’ and females’ perception in all three aspects of alcohol consumption: drinking days during the past 90 days, frequency of consumption, and the amount consumed during the past 90 days. This means that females are less satisfied in their relationships when they think that their partners are drinking more and with greater frequency as well as in the case that their male partners’ perceive that the females are drinking more and with greater frequency. The results could also be interpreted that the less satisfied females are, the
greater the likelihood that the males will perceive the females as drinking more and the more likely the female is to think that the male is drinking more.

In the current study, females’ relationship satisfaction is negatively correlated with males’ congruence in reporting on the amount of alcohol females consume as well as females number of drinking days for the past 90 days. This could mean that females are more satisfied when their male partners are better at predicting the amount of alcohol that the females drink as well as the number of days that the females drink. That is, females are happier when their male partners know how much they drink. Also, when females are happy in their relationship, their male partners are better at predicting the females’ amount of alcohol consumed and the number of days the females consume alcohol. Similarly, males are happier when their female partners know how much alcohol they consume and the frequency of that consumption. Further research is needed to pinpoint the exact reasons for these results.

The results showed that males’ level of satisfaction was negatively correlated with actual similarity scores in frequency of alcohol consumption. This means that males are more satisfied when their frequency of alcohol consumption is more similar to their female partners. As expected, the greater the dissimilarity in the relationship, the lower the level of satisfaction. Since we cannot establish causality, this could also mean that the lower the level of satisfaction, the greater the dissimilarity. These findings are supported by the results from Homish and Leonard (2007) study which showed that discrepancy in drinking patterns between males and females have a greater effect on the level of satisfaction rather than the amount of alcohol consumption. In Homish and Leonard
(2007) study, this was true for both males’ and females’ satisfaction, but in the current study it was true only for males.

Males’ relationship satisfaction was modestly correlated with females’ assumed frequency. This seems to indicate that in the case where females’ assume that their partners drink heavily, males are less satisfied. This indicates that potential stress in the relationship may affect the males’ level of satisfaction.

The results did not confirm Hypothesis 2. That is, there was a negative correlation between females’ assumed similarity and males’ relationship satisfaction only in the case of frequency of alcohol consumption. The results did not correlate for all variables for hypotheses 3 and 4. The only significant correlation was in terms of frequency of alcohol consumption. For hypothesis 3, there was a positive relationship between actual similarity in the frequency of alcohol consumption and relationship satisfaction for males only. Perhaps one of the reasons for failure to find good result for assumed and actual similarity comparable to Klohnen and Luo (2003), is the fact that attitude similarity might be related to attraction but not to long term relationship satisfaction (Luo and Klohnen, 2005). In other words, similarity may be an indicator of screening for partners, but not a factor in satisfying relationship. According to Luo and Klohnen (2005) personality-related domains were more important during relationships than attitude-related domains.

Hypothesis 4 was validated by the results, that is, assumed and actual discrepancy in frequency of alcohol consumption were associated with relationship satisfaction. For actual discrepancy, the hypothesis held only in the case of males’ level of satisfaction and frequency of alcohol consumption. As expected, the greater the dissimilarity in the relationship, the lower the level of satisfaction. For assumed discrepancy, the hypothesis
held only in the case of males’ level of satisfaction and females’ assumed similarity in the frequency of alcohol consumption.

Limitations

This research has some possible limitations. First, similarity may be a screening device rather than a source of relationship satisfaction and as such deserves future research. Secondly, the calculations in this study are based on self-report measures given by participants and therefore, this calls into question the accuracy of the measures. However, each participant in our study provided projected data for their partner and this served as a mechanism for corroborating the data. Hagman, Clifford, and Noel, (2007) conducted using subject-collateral pairs of college students and found moderate to good statistically significant correlations between subject-friend pairs for use of alcohol and other types of substances. Thirdly, the research data was drawn from a limited sample of the population. It is however, a population for which drinking is a major issue. In addition, this study is a correlational study and as such the research is therefore limited in its ability to predict causality. This research is also a cross-sectional rather than longitudinal study. One advantage of longitudinal studies is that they allow tracking of the chain of events and relationship satisfaction. However, longitudinal studies are costly and subject dropout tends to be a problem because of the extended time frame of longitudinal studies.

Implications

There are some important implications for this study. An understanding of alcohol use and relationship satisfaction can be explored for therapeutic applications. For example, if someone who is a high alcohol consumer assumes his/her partner is also a
high alcohol consumer, this may validate their high consumption behavior. In this scenario, if the partner is not a high alcohol consumer, then this assumed similarity may have implications for the long term stability of the relationship. In addition, if someone assumes other people (e.g. their partner) are involved in deviant behavior, then it might reinforce their behavior. Therefore, an understanding of the role of assumed similarity in alcohol use and relationship satisfaction may provide insight into the dynamics of relationships and enhance the support made possible through therapy and intervention.
REFERENCES


Hagman, B. T., Clifford, P. R. & Noel, N. E. (2007). The utility of collateral


National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism. National Institute of Alcohol Abuse


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

Relationships in Dating and Married Couples Informed Consent Document

Thank you for participating in this experiment. The purpose of this study is to get a better understanding of dating and married couples’ perception of their relationships. You will be asked to complete a packet of surveys. The information you provide us in this study will help us in our desire to add to the existing body of knowledge on this important topic.

Approximately 200 subjects (100 couples) will be participating in this study, and it will take approximately 40 minutes to complete the questionnaire. For your participation in this study, you will receive one unit of research credit for your PSY105 course or for a course where the instructor gives extra credit. If you are not eligible to receive credit, you will be entered in a drawing upon completion of the data collection process. A prize of $100 will be awarded to first prize winners and second prize winners will receive $50.00. If you are a winner, you will be notified. There are no risks associated with this study and your participation is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time or refuse to answer any questions without giving a reason. You will not be penalized if you choose to withdraw.

All the information you provide us with will be kept confidential and anonymous. Your name will not appear on any of the materials, except for your signature on this informed consent document which will be kept separate from the surveys. Your survey packet will be assigned a random number so no one will be able to link your name with this number.

At the end of the session, we will answer any questions or concerns that you have about the study. If you have any further questions or concerns regarding this study, please contact Ann Simmonds (910-599-3397) or Dr. Lee Jackson (910-962-3376). If you have any questions regarding your rights as a participant, please contact Dr. Candace Gauthier, Chair of the UNCW Institutional Review Board (962-3558).

If you do NOT agree with the above statements, you can decline participation in the study now without giving a reason. If you do agree with the above statements, please sign below to indicate that you understand that: (1) Your participation is completely voluntary; (2) You are free to stop the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits. Thank you again for your participation.

__________________________            __________________________            ________
Participant’s Signature                  Participant’s Name (please print)       Date

Experimenter’s Statement
“I certify that I have explained to the participant the nature, purpose, procedures, and outcomes of this study. I have answered any questions and addressed any concerns the participant had. I have witnessed the above signature and have given a copy of this signed informed consent document to the participant”.

__________________________
Experimenter’s Signature
APPENDIX B

Demographic Information Sheet

Instructions: Please respond to the following questions about YOURSELF.

Age ___________(years)   Gender (please circle one)   M   F
Weight ______(lbs.)   Height ______ft_____ins (needed to calculate typical BAC)

How long have you known your partner who is participating in this study?______________

Current Relationship Status with Partner participating in this Study (Please place a “X” beside the appropriate response)

Friendship without Steady Dating______   Steady Dating Situation______
Co-habiting______   Married______

Current Educational Status (Please place a “X” beside the appropriate response):

College Freshman______   College Sophomore______   College Junior______
College Senior______   Graduate Student______   Special/Unclassified
Student______   Less than High School______   High School Graduate______
Not currently in school______   Other____________________

Primary Ethnic Background (Please place a “X” beside the appropriate response):

African American______   American Indian/Alaska Native______   Hispanic______
White/Caucasian______   Asian/ Pacific Islander______
Multiple Ethnicity______   Other____________________

Current Employment Status (please circle most applicable response)

Employed Full Time       Employed Part Time       Full Time Student       Unemployed
APPENDIX C

QFI (Self Report)

Adapted from Cahalan, Cisin, & Crossley, (1969)

Instructions: Please answer the following questions about **YOUR** alcohol use. Please answer to the best of your ability.

I. Frequency of your alcohol use in the LAST THREE MONTHS:

a. ___ If you have never had an alcoholic beverage (beer, wine, or liquor) in your life, check here and go to I c.

b. ___ If you have not had any alcoholic beverage in the LAST THREE MONTHS, check here and go to I c.

c. If you checked I a or I b, please check the reasons for deciding not to drink (check all that apply)

   1. ___ Not old enough (it’s illegal)
   2. ___ Religious or moral disapproval of alcohol use
   3. ___ Health reasons (e.g. illness, pregnancy)
   4. ___ Concern that you might have (or develop) an alcohol problem
   5. ___ Other (specify): _____________________________

Note: If you did not check I a, b, or c, please answer the following questions:

d. During the LAST THREE MONTHS (about 90 days) about how many days would you estimate that you drank at least one alcoholic beverage? (Think about weekends, parties, stressful events, celebrations with friends, meals, and so on.) **Remember to estimate between 1 and 90 days:**

   _______ Days

e. During the LAST THREE MONTHS (about 90 days), have you experienced a major change in your drinking habits?

   1. ___ No, my drinking stayed the same as usual
   2. ___ Yes, I quit drinking altogether
   3. ___ Yes, I started drinking for the first time
   4. ___ Yes, I started drinking much more than I usually do
   5. ___ Yes, I started drinking much less than I usually do

**PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE**
II. Varieties of alcohol used in the last three months:

a. Think carefully about all the times in the LAST THREE MONTHS that you drank any HARD LIQUOR (including, for example, scotch, gin, bourbon, crème de menthe, khalua, schnapps, mixed drinks, or similar beverages with high alcohol content).

1. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, how often did you drink HARD LIQUOR?
   ___ almost everyday
   ___ 5-6 days/week
   ___ 3-4 days/week
   ___ 1-2 days/week
   ___ 1-3 days/month
   ___ less than once per month
   ___ never (go to II b)

2. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, on the average, how much HARD LIQUOR did you drink PER DAY on the days you drank?
   ___ 4 or more pints
   ___ 1-3 pints
   ___ 8-10 shots/drinks
   ___ 5-7 shots/drinks
   ___ 3-4 shots/drinks
   ___ 1-2 shots/drinks

b. Think carefully about all the times in the LAST THREE MONTHS that you drank any WINE (including, for example, table wine, dinner wine, desert wine, port, or sherry).

1. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, how often did you drink WINE?
   ___ almost everyday
   ___ 5-6 days/week
   ___ 3-4 days/week
   ___ 1-2 days/week
   ___ 1-3 days/month
   ___ less than once per month
   ___ never (go to II c)

2. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, on the average, how much WINE did you drink PER DAY on the days you drank?
   ___ 5 fifths or more
   ___ 3-4 fifths
   ___ 2 fifths
   ___ 1 fifth
   ___ 16 oz (3-4 wine glasses or 2 water glasses)
   ___ 8 oz (1-2 wine glasses)

PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE
c. Think carefully about all the times in the **LAST THREE MONTHS** that you drank any **BEER** or similar low alcohol beverages (including, for example, beer, ale, wine coolers, Zima, light or ice beer).

1. In the **LAST THREE MONTHS**, how often did you drink **BEER**?
   ___ almost everyday
   ___ 5-6 days/week
   ___ 3-4 days/week
   ___ 1-2 days/week
   ___ 1-3 days/month
   ___ less than once per month
   ___ never (go to III)

2. In the **LAST THREE MONTHS**, on the average, how much **BEER** did you drink PER DAY on the days you drank?
   ___ 16 or more 12 oz cans/bottles (or 6 or more quarts)
   ___ 13-15 12 oz cans/bottles (5-6 quarts)
   ___ 11-12 12 oz cans/bottles (4-5 quarts)
   ___ 8-10 12 oz cans/bottles (3-4 quarts)
   ___ 3-7 12 oz cans/bottles (1-2 quarts)
   ___ 1-2 12 oz cans/bottles

**III. Quantity of alcohol used in the **LAST THREE MONTHS**:**

a. People often drink more than one type of alcoholic beverage on a given day. In addition, their drinking often varies depending on whether it is a weekday or weekend. Therefore, we want you to think of a **TYPICAL WEEKDAY** on which you drank, and estimate the amounts of each of these three beverages you had to drink. (Example: “On Thursdays, when I would get together with friends, I would drink about three 12 oz beers and two mixed drinks”)

1. Estimated average drinking on a **TYPICAL WEEKDAY** in the **LAST THREE MONTHS**:

Now we want you to think of a typical **WEEKEND DAY** (Friday, Saturday, or Sunday) on which you typically drank, and estimate your average drinking on that day.

2. Estimated average drinking on a **TYPICAL WEEKEND DAY** in the **LAST THREE MONTHS**:

3. Finally, of all the days in the last three months, what is the **LARGEST AMOUNT** of alcohol you have had in one 24 hour period?

**PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE**
How often have you used any of these psychoactive substances in the LAST THREE MONTHS?

Code frequency of use according to the following:

0 = Never  
1 = 1 or 2 times in the last three months  
2 = once per month  
3 = once every two weeks  
4 = once per week  
5 = 2 - 4 times per week  
6 = almost everyday

<table>
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<td>Other Tranquilizers (&quot;&quot;&quot;&quot;)</td>
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<td>Birth Control</td>
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<td>Any drugs by injection ever</td>
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Current Prescribed medications:
- Amphetamines
- Barbiturates
- Benzodiazapines
- Other Tranquilizers
- Opiates (e.g. Methadone, Darvon)
- Antidepressants (e.g. Prozac)
- Antipsychotics (e.g. Haldol)
- Antimanic (e.g. Lithium)

Other psychoactive medication:

Name of other psychoactive medication

PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE
Do you feel you currently have a drinking or drug problem? N Y
(What substances and when did the problems first begin?)

Have you ever in the past had a problem with or been dependent on any of these substances? N Y (what? and when did it first become a problem? When did it stop being a problem?)

Have you ever "needed" a drink, or a "hit" or a dose of a drug first thing in the morning? N Y

Have you ever had a blackout (a period of time when you continued to behave normally, but didn't remember at all the next day) from alcohol or other drugs? N Y (what substances?)

Have you ever had bad "shakes" or high fevers, seizures, hallucinations, heavy sweating or other such withdrawal symptoms when you have gone without drinking or substance use for awhile? N Y

Have you ever attended a self-help group (like Alcoholics Anonymous, or Women for Sobriety, or Narcotics Anonymous) for yourself? N Y

Have you ever had treatment for an alcohol or drug problem? N Y

Do, or did, any of your family members have an alcohol or drug problem? N Y
If yes, closest relative and what kind of problem (alcohol, drugs or both?)
APPENDIX D

QFI (for Partners)

Adapted from Cahalan, Cisin, & Crossley, (1969)

Instructions: Please answer the following questions about YOUR PARTNER’S alcohol use. Please answer to the best of your ability.

I. Frequency of your alcohol use in the last three months:

a. ___ If your PARTNER has never had an alcoholic beverage (beer, wine, or liquor) in his/her life, check here and go to I c.

b. ___ If your PARTNER has not had any alcoholic beverage in the LAST THREE MONTHS, check here and go to I c.

c. If you checked I a or I b, please check the reasons for your PARTNER deciding not to drink (check all that apply)

1. ___ Not old enough (it’s illegal)
2. ___ Religious or moral disapproval of alcohol use
3. ___ Health reasons (e.g. illness, pregnancy)
4. ___ Concern that you might have (or develop) an alcohol problem
5. ___ Other (specify): ____________________________

Note: If you did not check I a, b, or c, please answer the following questions:

d. During the LAST THREE MONTHS (about 90 days) about how many days would you estimate that your PARTNER drank at least one alcoholic beverage? (Think about weekends, parties, stressful events, celebrations with friends, meals, and so on.) Remember to estimate between 1 and 90 days:

_______ Days

e. During the LAST THREE MONTHS (about 90 days), has your PARTNER experienced a major change in his/her drinking habits?

1. ___ No, his/her drinking stayed the same as usual
2. ___ Yes, he/she quit drinking altogether
3. ___ Yes, he/she started drinking for the first time
4. ___ Yes, he/she started drinking much more than I usually do
5. ___ Yes, he/she started drinking much less than I usually do

PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE
II. Varieties of alcohol used in the LAST THREE MONTHS:

a. Think carefully about all the times in the LAST THREE MONTHS that YOUR PARTNER drank any HARD LIQUOR (including, for example, scotch, gin, bourbon, crème de menthe, khalua, schnapps, mixed drinks, or similar beverages with high alcohol content).

1. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, how often did your PARTNER drink HARD LIQUOR?
   ___ almost everyday
   ___ 5-6 days/week
   ___ 3-4 days/week
   ___ 1-2 days/week
   ___ 1-3 days/month
   ___ less than once per month
   ___ never (go to II b)

2. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, on the average, how much HARD LIQUOR did YOUR PARTNER drink PER DAY on the days he/she drank?
   ___ 4 or more pints
   ___ 1-3 pints
   ___ 8-10 shots/drinks
   ___ 5-7 shots/drinks
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b. Think carefully about all the times in the LAST THREE MONTHS that YOUR PARTNER drank any WINE (including, for example, table wine, dinner wine, desert wine, port, or sherry).

1. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, how often did YOUR PARTNER drink WINE?
   ___ almost everyday
   ___ 5-6 days/week
   ___ 3-4 days/week
   ___ 1-2 days/week
   ___ 1-3 days/month
   ___ less than once per month
   ___ never (go to II c)

2. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, on the average, how much WINE did YOUR PARTNER drink PER DAY on the days he/she drank?
   ___ 5 fifths or more
   ___ 3-4 fifths
   ___ 2 fifths
   ___ 1 fifth
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   ___ 8 oz (1-2 wine glasses)

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1. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, how often did YOUR PARTNER drink BEER?
   ___ almost everyday
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   ___ 3-4 days/week
   ___ 1-2 days/week
   ___ 1-3 days/month
   ___ less than once per month
   ___ never (go to III)

2. In the LAST THREE MONTHS, on the average, how much BEER did YOUR PARTNER drink PER DAY on the days he/she drank?
   ___ 16 or more 12 oz cans/bottles (or 6 or more quarts)
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a. People often drink more than one type of alcoholic beverage on a given day. In addition, their drinking often varies depending on whether it is a weekday or weekend. Therefore, we want you to think of a TYPICAL WEEKDAY on which YOUR PARTNER drank, and estimate the amounts of each of these three beverages he/she had to drink. (Example: “On Thursdays, when my PARTNER would get together with friends, he/she would drink about three 12 oz beers and two mixed drinks”)

1. Estimated average drinking on a TYPICAL WEEKDAY in the LAST THREE MONTHS:

Now we want you to think of a typical WEEKEND DAY (Friday, Saturday, or Sunday) on which YOUR PARTNER typically drank, and estimate his/her average drinking on that day.

2. Estimated average drinking on a TYPICAL WEEKEND DAY in the LAST THREE MONTHS:

3. Finally, of all the days in the last three months, what is the LARGEST AMOUNT of alcohol YOUR PARTNER has had in one 24 hour period?

PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE
How often has **YOUR PARTNER** used any of these psychoactive substances in the LAST THREE MONTHS?

Code frequency of use according to the following:

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**Current Prescribed medications:**

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| Barbiturates                     |                  |
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| Opiates (e.g. Methadone, Darvon) |                  |
| Antidepressants (e.g. Prozac)    |                  |
| Antipsychotics (e.g. Haldol)     |                  |
| Antimanic (e.g. Lithium)         |                  |
| Other psychoactive medication:   |                  |

Name of other psychoactive medication

**PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE**
Do you feel your **PARTNER** currently has a drinking or drug problem?  N  Y
(What substances and when did the problems first begin?)

Has your **PARTNER** ever in the past had a problem with or been dependent on any of these substances?  N  Y (what? and when did it first become a problem? When did it stop being a problem?)

Has your **PARTNER** ever "needed" a drink, or a "hit" or a dose of a drug first thing in the morning?  N  Y

Has your **PARTNER** ever had a **blackout** (a period of time when you continued to behave normally, but didn't remember at all the next day) from alcohol or other drugs?  N  Y (what substances?)

Has your **PARTNER** ever had bad "shakes" or high fevers, seizures, hallucinations, heavy sweating or other such withdrawal symptoms when you have gone without drinking or substance use for awhile?  N  Y

Has your **PARTNER** ever attended a self-help group (like Alcoholics Anonymous, or Women for Sobriety, or Narcotics Anonymous) for yourself?  N  Y

Has your **PARTNER** ever had treatment for an alcohol or drug problem?  N  Y

Do, or did, any of your **PARTNER's** family members have an alcohol or drug problem?  N  Y
If yes, closest relative and what kind of problem (alcohol, drugs or both?)
APPENDIX E

DMQ

**Instructions:** Here is a list of reasons people give for drinking alcoholic beverages. Using the response categories below, please indicate how often YOU drink for each of the following reasons. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. We just want to know about the reasons why you usually drink when you do.

1 = Never
2 = Almost Never
3 = Some of the time
4 = About half of the time
5 = Most of the time
6 = Almost always

_____1. How often do you drink because it’s exciting?
_____2. How often do you drink to celebrate a special occasion with friends?
_____3. How often do you drink because it helps you enjoy a party?
_____4. How often do you drink to get high?
_____5. How often do you drink so that others won’t kid you about not drinking?
_____6. How often do you drink because it’s fun?
_____7. How often do you drink because it helps you when you feel depressed or nervous?
_____8. How often do you drink because it improves parties and celebrations?
_____9. How often do you drink because it makes social gatherings more fun?
_____10. How often do you drink to cheer up when you’re in a bad mood?
_____11. How often do you drink because it gives you a pleasant feeling?
_____12. How often do you drink to forget about your problems?
_____13. How often do you drink because your friends pressure you to drink?
_____14. How often would you say you drink to fit in with a group you like?

*PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE*
15. How often do you drink because you like the feeling?

16. How often do you drink to be liked?

17. How often do you drink to forget your worries?

18. How often do you drink because you feel more self-confident or sure of yourself?

19. How often would you say you drink to be sociable?

20. How often do you drink so you won’t feel left out?
Instructions: Please rate these negative consequences as a result of drinking that have happened to you in the last year.

1 = Never        2 = Once        3 = 2 – 3 times        4 = 4 – 6 times        5 = 7 or more times

___ 1. Not able to do your homework or study for a test
___ 2. Got into fights, acted bad or did mean things
___ 3. Missed out on other things because you spent too much money on alcohol
___ 4. Went to school high or drunk
___ 5. Caused shame or embarrassment to someone
___ 6. Neglected your responsibilities
___ 7. Relatives avoided you
___ 8. Felt that you needed more alcohol than you used to use in order to get the same effect
___ 9. Tried to control your drinking by trying to drink only at certain times of the day or certain places
___ 10. Had withdrawal symptoms, that is, felt sick because you stopped or cut down on drinking
___ 11. Noticed a change in your personality
___ 12. Felt that you had a problem with alcohol
___ 13. Missed a day (or part of a day) of school or work
___ 14. Tried to cut down or quit drinking
___ 15. Suddenly found yourself in a place that you could not remember getting to
___ 16. Passed out or fainted suddenly
___ 17. Had a fight, argument or bad feelings with a friend
___ 18. Had a fight, argument or bad feelings with a family member
___ 19. Kept drinking when you promised yourself not to
___ 20. Felt you were going crazy
___ 21. Had a bad time
___ 22. Felt physically or psychologically dependent on alcohol
___ 23. Was told by a friend or neighbor to stop or cut down drinking
APPENDIX G

Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS; Hendrick, 1988)

**Instructions:** For each item, please circle the letter which best answers that item for YOU.

1. How well does your partner meet your needs?

   A  B  C  D  E
   Poorly   Average   Extremely
   well

2. In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?

   A  B  C  D  E
   Unsatisfied   Average   Extremely
   Satisfied

3. How good is your relationship compared to most?

   A  B  C  D  E
   Poor   Average   Excellent

4. How often do you wish you hadn’t gotten in this relationship?

   A  B  C  D  E
   Never   Average   Very often

5. To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?

   A  B  C  D  E
   Hardly at all   Average   Completely

6. How much do you love your partner?

   A  B  C  D  E
   Not much   Average   Very much

7. How many problems are there in your relationship?

   A  B  C  D  E
   Very few   Average   Very many
APPENDIX H

Sample Calculations

Data Reported by Two Partners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Partner A</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner B</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Actual similarity score = \( |15 - 20| = 5 \)
- Assumed similarity score (Partner A) = \( |15 - 17| = 2 \)
- Assumed similarity score (Partner B) = \( |20 - 27| = 7 \)
- Self-reported alcohol consumption (Partner A) = 15
- Self-reported alcohol consumption (Partner B) = 20