

HUSBANDS' AND WIVES' PERCEPTION OF TEMPERAMENT
IN SELF AND SPOUSE AS RELATED TO
MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

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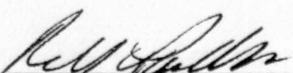
We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared under
our supervision by Carnell Martin Barnes
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and Spouse as Related to Marital Adjustment

be accepted as fulfilling this part of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The annual divorce rate in the United States has now reached 50 percent of the annual marriage rate. In 1979 there were 10.7 marriages and 5.3 divorces per thousand population. Recently an alarming 51.5 percent of young families (all members under age 35) was headed by a single female (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1980). Remarriage now accounts for 30 percent of all marriages (Lorimer & Feldmen, 1980). Eighty percent of all the divorced will remarry (Gurak & Dean, 1978).

The statistics translate into reality for today's families. At no other time in history has marriage been more likely to end in divorce.

Professionals in the field of marriage and family therapy have increased drastically in the last decade, up 777 percent from 1970 to 1979 (Gurman & Kniskern, 1981). This increase in the field of marriage and family therapy would appear to reflect a growing demand from couples and families for assistance in their battle to remain intact.

If family therapy is to succeed in arresting the trend toward family dissolution, therapist must have a

thorough understanding of couples and families and the pressures they encounter from within the family structure as well as external disruptive forces. Is the erosion primarily from within the family or from outside forces?

Carl Rogers (1977) presented six factors within our society which he believes influence the modern marital relationship. They are:

Improved methods of contraception; the social acceptance of divorce; lengthened life span, adding 10 to 15 years to the marriage; family mobility and transiency; more women working outside the home; and, increased sexual freedoms. (p. 42)

There are also many needs and desires within the individual that must be met by the marriage relationship. Sager (1976) lists thirteen individual parameters which he feels must be satisfied within the marital system.

They are:

Independence-dependence; activity-passivity; dominance-submission; gender identity; fear of loneliness or abandonment; use-abuse of power; cognitive styles; acceptance of self and others; closeness-distance; need to possess and control; level of anxiety; mechanisms of defense; and, characteristics desired in one's sex partner. (p. 13)

Each person enters marriage with certain expectations of their mate. According to Sager (1976) some of the most common areas of initial expectations are:

A mate who will be loyal, devoted, loving and exclusive; a mate who will offer constant support against the world; companionship and insurance against loneliness; sanctioned and readily available sex; a home, a refuge from the world; status in society; and a respectable cover for aggressive drives. (p. 11)

Statement of the Problem

Individuals bring into marriage different life experiences and perceptions. Each personality has been formed by a plethora of previous encounters with life. At marriage each must construct a perception of their mate and of their marriage.

Is an accurate perception of one's mate necessary in order to have a meaningful and satisfying marital relationship? Previous research has attempted to answer this question. But, the research to date has proven to be inconclusive and contradictory (Murstain & Beck, 1972; Clayman, 1975; Lammers, 1979).

Purpose of the Study

This study examines the relationship between marital adjustment and perception of temperament in married couples. Each member of the marital dyad was asked to rate self-temperament as well as to rate their spouse's temperament.

The Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis (T-JTA) was used to assess personality traits. Marital adjustment was determined by scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) as developed by Graham Spanier.

The specific purposes of this study were:

1. To examine the relationship between marital adjustment and the accurate perception of temperament in spouses.
2. To examine the relationship between length of marriage and marital adjustment.
3. To examine whether mates of similar temperament report greater marital adjustment than mates of dissimilar temperament.
4. To evaluate the relationship between adjustment and previous marital status.
5. To examine the relationship of various temperament traits to marital satisfaction.

6. To examine the relationship of length of marriage to accuracy of perception of mate.

7. To examine the difference, if any, in accuracy of perception of mate as reported by males or females.

Assumptions

It is assumed that maritally adjusted dyads will differ in their accuracy of prediction of their spouse's response from couples with less satisfactory marital adjustment. It is also assumed that a wide range of temperament similarities and differences exist in the couples' personality traits.

Hypotheses

This study tested the following hypotheses:

1. There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment between individuals with accurate and those with inaccurate perception of their mate.

2. There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment between couples of similar and dissimilar temperament as measured by the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis.

3. There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment between couples with (a) no previous

marriages, (b) one mate previously married, or (c) both mates previously married.

4. There will be no significant relationship between marital adjustment and length of marriage.

5. There will be no specific temperament traits, as measured by the individuals self-perception, which significantly relate to marital adjustment.

6. There will be no significant difference in accuracy of perception of mate's temperament between couples married for varying lengths of time.

7. There will be no significant difference between males and females in accuracy of perception of temperament of mates.

Definition of Terms

Marital adjustment. "degree of consensus, satisfaction, cohesion, and affectional expression between partners" (Spanier, 1976, p. 34)

Temperament. "personality variables or behavioral patterns or tendencies" (Taylor & Johnson, 1977, p. 1)

Trait. "a constellation of behavioral patterns and tendencies sufficiently cohesive to be used to measure a unit" (Taylor & Johnson, 1977, p. 4)

Perception. direct or intuitive recognition or insight

Self-perception. direct or intuitive recognition or insight as related to one's view of self

Accurate perception of temperament. the ability to assess, with at least seventy percent accuracy, the assessment of temperament traits in one's self or in one's mate

The Delimitations

This study was limited to (a) legally married couples abiding within the same residence, and (b) couples who were willing to voluntarily participate in this research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This review will focus on two aspects of the marital relationship. First, the literature pertaining to marital adjustment will be reviewed. Then, the literature on interpersonal perception of temperament, as it relates to marital adjustment, will be presented.

Marital Adjustment

Spanier (1979) states that marital quality can be viewed as subjective evaluation of a married couple's on-going relationship, and that the everchanging process in this relationship can be evaluated at any point in time on a continuum from well-adjusted to maladjusted. He further states that in order for a marriage to be evaluated as well-adjusted, the marriage process should:

- (1) reduce troublesome marital differences
- (2) reduce interspousal tension and personal anxiety
- (3) increase marital satisfaction
- (4) enhance dyadic cohesion and consensus on matters important to marital functioning.

A common theme in the literature of marriage and the family is that the marital relationship protects the individual from the normlessness and alienation of an impersonal world (Ryan, 1981). For most people in modern societies, the quality of their marriage has a strong effect on their happiness and satisfaction with life (Glenn & Weaver, 1981).

The study of marital adjustment is relatively new in our culture. Although marriage has been a part of western civilization since recorded history began, investigation into marital adjustment is less than a century old.

The earliest studies of marital adjustment were the classic works of Hamilton (1929), Terman and Bittenweiser (1935), Terman (1938), and Burgess and Cottrell (1939). Before these studies, marriage was viewed primarily from the standpoint of the individual member of the dyad, with little attention paid to adjustment.

Hamilton, a physician, interviewed one hundred married men and an equal number of married women (Hamilton, 1929). Marital adjustment was classified into five groups, graded from "A" to "E", or from "obviously successful marriages" down to "marriages which have terminated or which have low satisfaction scores". The primary importance of this study

is its historical significance in initiating studies of marital adjustment.

Terman and Bottenweiser (1935) conducted a search for psychological factors associated with marital compatibility. Nine hundred subjects were administered the Bernreuter Personality Inventory and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. On the basis of their scores subjects were assigned to three groups: (a) Hi-adjusted married; (b) Lo-adjusted married; and (c) Divorced couples. They were not able to find any significant difference between groups, using both trait and item analysis.

Husband-wife correlations on the individual items of the Strong Vocational Interest and Bernreuter test were investigated for the 100 most happily married, the 100 least happily married, and the 100 divorced couples. Nearly 25 percent of the items resulted in correlation which "showed enough difference between the Hi group and either the Lo or Divorced group to suggest that it was not due to chance factors." (p. 274)

These studies provided a basis for Terman's later research. In 1938 Terman developed an index of marital happiness. His questions included areas of common interest, agreements and disagreements, manner of dealing with agreements, and disagreements, frequency of regretting

marriage, contemplation of divorce, rating of marital happiness, and a number of complaints about the marriage. Terman collected questionnaires from 792 middle and upper middle class urban California couples. He concluded that high scoring husbands were emotionally stable, cooperative, egalitarian, extroverted, responsible, methodical, conservative and conventional. Maritally adjusted wives were described as self-assured, optimistic, kindly, cooperative, methodical, meticulous, conservative, and conventional (pp. 144-164). Burgess and Cottrell (1939) constructed an index of marital adjustment based on the premise that a well adjusted marriage is one which:

1. both partners regard the marriage as happy
2. both partners are in agreement on critical issues of their relationship
3. both partners share common interests and activities
4. both partners exhibit minimum regret in choice of mate
5. both partners frequently demonstrate affection.

Research in the 40's was dormant. After World War II the field of marital therapy began to develop and grow into a profession. And, research into marital adjustment resumed.

In 1951 Locke used as his sample a divorced group and a group that had been previously identified as happily married. His test for marital adjustment included 19 items from the Burgess-Cottrell marital adjustment test, two of Terman's items and eight of Locke's own items. Locke found that the adjustment score varied considerably between happily married and divorced persons. Locke obtained correlations between .83 and .88 with the Burgess-Cottrell Index and his marital adjustment test over many testings.

Also in 1951, Karlsson conducted a companion study using Locke's index on Swedish couples (Karlsson, 1951; Lock & Karlsson, 1952). Karlsson's results in Sweden were almost identical to Locke's results in the United States.

A longitudinal study spanning 17 years (from 1936 to 1953) was conducted by Burgess and Wallin (1953). The study began with a prediction of marital success by 1,000 engaged couples in 1936. Those who had remained married (666 couples) were tested again to determine the accuracy of the couple's prediction of marital success. Burgess and Wallin used several criteria of marital success rather than a single composite index. The authors felt that the multiple score obtained from their nine indices gave a

more complete picture of the marital relationship than previous single composite index scores. The nine indices on the Burgess and Wallin instruments were (a) permanence (attitudes toward separation and divorce), (b) marital happiness, (c) marital satisfaction, (d) specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions with specific aspects of the marriage relationship, (e) consensus about family matters, (f) love for mate and perception of reciprocity, (g) sexual satisfaction, (h) companionship, and (i) compatibility of personality and temperament.

Bowerman (1957) concurred with Burgess and Wallin in their support of separate measures of adjustment for various aspects of marriage. Bowerman's work utilized a model which included both positive and negative dimensions of role satisfaction. He computed adjustment on each of several aspects of married life such as self-rated satisfaction minus self-rated conflict.

Bradbury and Caplovitz (1965) supported Bowerman's bipolar model of marital adjustment. They concluded that happiness in life is not a single dimension, but a complex state resulting from two independent dimensions, satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Orden and Bradbury (1968) used a similar approach in their study of marital happiness. They concluded that

global marital happiness is a result of the balance between these two uncorrelated dimensions (satisfaction and dissatisfaction). However, Orden and Bradbury were not able to predict satisfaction from dissatisfaction or vice versa.

Condie and Doan (1978) obtained ratings for family roles; spouse, parent, provider, housekeeper, social, educational, religious, community and professional. For each role subjects were asked to rate role satisfaction and role demandingness. The results indicated only very rough correspondence between role satisfaction and role demandingness. Since a perfect correspondence would have demonstrated unidimensionality, Condie and Doan concluded that role satisfaction is a separate dimension from role demandingness.

Two other studies (Renne, 1970; Wadsworth, Wilson, & Barker, 1975) also infer that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and do not belong on the same continuum. Both studies found that happiness could not be predicted by the removal of a source of unhappiness.

McNamara and Dahr (1980) conducted a study of 1,618 couples (predominately white, middle-class residents of Utah) to test the hypotheses: (a) that marital role satisfaction is a separate dimension from marital role stress, and (b) that marital role satisfaction is a separate dimension from marital role conflict. The

research data supported both hypotheses. McNamara and Bahr suggest that their research has relevance to marriage counseling, since their data indicates that the simple reduction of negative stress states will not automatically increase marital satisfaction.

The relationship between marital role behavior and perceived marital role ideal behavior in maritally distressed couples has been the subject of several studies (Crago & Tharp, 1968; Tavris, 1973; Frank, Anderson, & Kupfer, 1976). Frank, Anderson, and Rubinstein (1980) conducted research with distressed couples (one member of dyad receiving psychotherapy) and non distressed (non-clinical) couples. Their results indicated that the individuals of distressed marriages were experiencing greater disparity between ideal and actual marital role behavior than normal controls.

Recent criticism of the research in marital adjustment has been leveled at the homogeneous characteristics of marital research subjects (predominately white, middle-class, in early years of marriage). Sporakowski and Hughston (1978) are concerned that "relatively little is written about the postparental years and even less about marriages that have been in existence 40, 50, or more years" (p. 321). In order to help correct this deficiency

in the research, Sporakowski and Hughston interviewed couples who had been married for a minimum of 50 years (average length of marriage was 52.7 years). The results indicated that congruency of perception of spouses was of major significance in relation to marital satisfaction. The males obtained higher scores on the Locke-Wallace, indicating a greater degree of marital satisfaction than the women in the study. According to the authors the most significant outcomes of their research were the findings that the persons interviewed said marriage was a very positive experience.

Many researchers have studied marital adjustment over the family life cycle. The early studies indicated a steady decline in marital adjustment over time, suggesting that the longer couples are married, the lower their marital adjustment. Bernard (1934) found a negative correlation between length of marriage and marital happiness. Burgess and Cottrell (1939) reported a steep decline in marital adjustment over the first six years of marriage. Terman (1938) also found a similar decline over the first eight years of marriage.

Bossard and Bell (1955) found a relationship between marital satisfaction and age rather than length of marriage. They suggested that, for women, the late forties

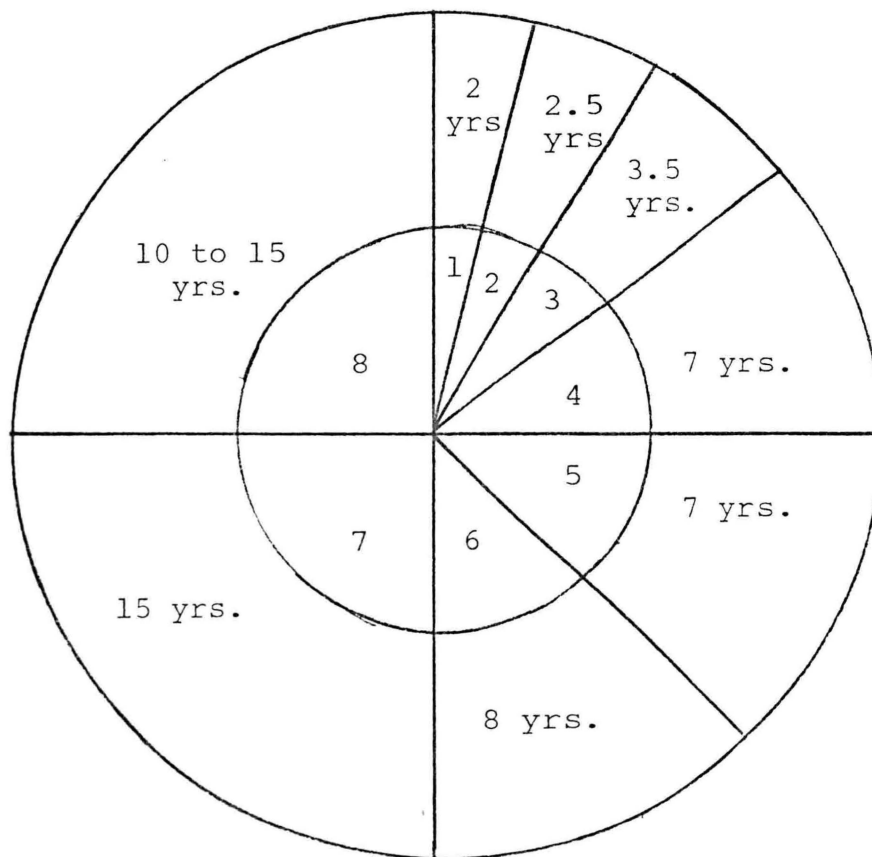
and early fifties appear to be an age of crisis, and that the fifties for men was a crisis time. It was in these age groups that lower marital satisfaction was reported.

In 1961 Pineo reported a study with couples married for at least twenty years. He concluded that a general decline in marital satisfaction had occurred.

Although these previous studies point to a linear and decreasing model of marital satisfaction over the years of marriage, recent studies challenge this assumption and point more toward a curvilinear model of marital adjustment over the family life cycle. Some research indicates that, after declining during the early years of marriage, marital satisfaction levels off for a period and then in the later years actually increases.

Blood and Wolfe (1966) discovered a gradual decrease in marital satisfaction until the low was reached in the "unlaunched" stage (see figure 1 - Stage VI). But, after the children were launched there was an increase in marital satisfaction, then later another decline in the "retired" stage.

Burr (1970) found marital satisfaction was lowest during the elementary school-age children years. Satisfaction later began to rise during the children's teen



(Adapted from Duvall, 1977, p. 148)

Fig. 1. The Family Life Cycle by Length of Time in Each of the Eight Stages

- | | |
|------------|--|
| Stage I | Beginning Families (married with no children) |
| Stage II | Families with Infant(s) (oldest child, birth to 30 months) |
| Stage III | Families with Pre-school Children (oldest child 2½ to 6 years) |
| Stage IV | Families with School Children (oldest child 6 to 13 years) |
| Stage V | Families with Teenagers (oldest child 13 to 20 years) |
| Stage VI | Families as Launching Centers (first child gone, to last child's leaving home) |
| Stage VII | Post-parental Families (all children launched) |
| Stage VIII | Retired Families (husband and wife retired) |

years and continued on the upswing until the husband's retirement.

Renne (1970) concluded that couples rearing children were less satisfied with their marriages than couples with no children in the home. Rollins and Feldman (1970) also found a curvilinear relationship between marital satisfaction and length of marriage, again reporting the lowest period of satisfaction during the stage with school aged children. Several research studies associating the presence of children with low marital satisfaction offers an explanation focusing on interference by children with the interaction and intimacy of spouses (Miller, 1976; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Rollins & Galligan, 1978).

Later, Rollins and Cannon (1974) found that males and females had a similar U-shaped pattern of marital adjustment over the family life cycle. Spanier et al. (1975) conducted research with couples in Ohio, Georgia, and Iowa and found the same U-shaped trend of marital satisfaction.

In 1979 Gilford and Bengtson reported a study with 1,056 married members of three-generation families. Their data was used to develop a two-dimensional measure of marital satisfaction reflecting positive interaction and negative sentiment. Results indicated a difference with the oldest generation scoring highest on both positive and

negative factors. The oldest group showed moderately low levels on positive interaction and even lower scores on negative sentiment. Gilford and Bengston could find no support for the linear decline model of marital satisfaction. Their research indicated that the positive interaction curve was curvilinear while the negative sentiment appeared to be linear and decreasing.

The major body of research in the 60's and 70's tends to support the curvilinear model of marital satisfaction. Marital adjustment is reported highest in Stage I (see figure 1) then begins a steady decline for the next few years (Stage II through VI). Later marital satisfaction appears to level off and remain fairly stable. Then, after the children leave home (Stage VII and VIII) an increase in marital adjustment occurs.

Swenson, Eskew and Kohlhepp (1981) offer one explanation for the rise in reported marital satisfaction during the later years of marriage. They found that married couples in the later stages of the family life cycle discussed fewer personal facts about themselves with each other, were less tolerant of each other, and kept more of their feelings to themselves than married couples in earlier stages.

Good ✓

Schafter and Keith (1981) reported that perceived equity in the performance of selected marital roles increased over the length of the marriage. Couples in the later years of marriage tended to report a higher degree of marital satisfaction only when they perceived the marriage to be equitable.

Schram (1979) conducted a critical evaluation of research which explored the relationship between marital satisfaction and the family life cycle. She concluded that previous research was inconsistent, ambiguous, and inconclusive. Schram was critical of the methodologies employed, the research designs utilized and the narrow interpretations presented. Schram was especially critical of the acceptance by researchers of the curvilinear model of marital happiness. She suggested that at least three factors might account for the greater satisfaction in later years of marriage, i.e. the likelihood of acquiescence with increasing age; the greater tendency to report happy marriages after increasing length of time in order to rationalize the length of the unhappy marriage, and, lessening of sex role constraints with advancing age.

There are some indications that men and women assess their marriages in different ways (Rhyne, 1981). Regardless of the family life cycle stage, women tend to be more

satisfied with the extent to which their sexual needs are met and men tend to be more satisfied with spouses' help at home, spouses' time with children, and friendship.

Bernard (1976) found that women reported a greater degree of marital happiness than men. The women, paradoxically, reported lower levels of psychological well-being. Bernard's explanation for this was the woman's belief that "marriage equal happiness" (p. 26). Mugford and Lally (1981) found evidence that this paradox in reported marital happiness in women was due to the characteristic of Bernard's sample, i.e. a predominance of "traditional" women.

Another criticism of the research in marital satisfaction has been of the instruments used to measure marital satisfaction, marital quality, marital adjustment, etc. Good Spanier (1976) reviewed seventeen published measures of marital adjustment ranging from Hamilton's Marital Adjustment test developed in 1929 to Orden and Bradburn's Dimension of Marital Happiness publishing in 1968 (p. 8).

In his evaluation of these instruments, Spanier states that "no measure has been developed yet which could be considered an evaluation of marriage per se. Researchers have tried techniques like combining or averaging a husband's and wife's score, but this approach is really

just an interpolation between two individual perceptions, it is not a true marriage score" (Spanier, 1979, p. 203).

In 1976 Spanier developed the Dyadic Adjustment Scale for assessing the quality of marriage and other similar dyads. In developing this scale the author was guided by his previous research with Cole (Spanier & Cole, 1976). Spanier and Cole suggested that an adequate scale to measure adjustment of dyads should meet the following conditions:

1. It would be distinguishable from other concepts
2. It would be operationalizable (a measure could be developed which follows from and is consistent with the definitions proposed)
3. It would account for all criteria thought to be important in the conceptualization of adjustment
4. It would not be so abstract that it could not be clearly conceptualized nor would it be so specific that it could not apply to a study of all marriages (Spanier, 1976, p. 16).

The final scale developed by Spanier is designed to serve a number of different needs. For those who want an overall measure of dyadic adjustment, the entire 32-item scale should be used. Researchers with more limited needs may use one or more of the subscales to measure (a)

satisfaction, (b) cohesion, (c) consensus, or (d) affectional expression (Spanier, 1976).

Spanier suggests that the scale be used in one of three ways: first, as a very general indicator, to help formulate an overall impression of the quality of the marital relationship; second, a husband's and wife's responses can be compared, and the similarities and differences used as a starting point for discussion; third, specific problem areas can be identified by examination of responses to individual items or to the subscales, and these responses can serve as a basis for discussion and for the development of a treatment program (Spanier, 1979, p. 298).

An alternative to the paper-and-pencil questionnaires previously mentioned is the direct observation of dyads by independent observers. One instrument developed for this purpose is the Marital Interaction Coding System (MICS) which is used to assess communication skillfulness from video taped negotiation sessions. There are 29 MICS codes which include both verbal and nonverbal behaviors (Weiss & Margolin, 1977).

Other instruments to measure marital adjustment have been developed for use in various other ways. The Leisure Activity Interaction Index was developed by Orthner (1975) to assess frequency of leisure activities engaged in alone,

with spouse and/or with others. Bircher, Weiss and Vincent (1975) had spouses record Pleasing (P) and Displeasing (D) behaviors that their spouses emitted. Klausner (1968) investigated marital satisfaction and one-to-one interaction by studying the number of shared leisure activities.

Williams (1979) utilized time lines (amount of time spent with spouse recorded in quarter-hour segments then rated as pleasant, unpleasant, or neutral) to distinguish between happy and distressed couples on four dimensions of marital interactions; (a) the quality of dyadic interactions; (b) the quality of interaction intervals; (c) the ratio of positive time to negative time; and (d) the degree of husband-wife agreement as to quality of time together. Williams' research indicated that the relationship between quality and quantity of time couples spend together is not random. She reported "that quality influences the amount of time together and the amount of time spent together affects the quality, and they both affect marital satisfaction" (Williams, 1979, p. 675).

Roach, Frazier, and Bowden (1981) developed a scale designed to measure the level of satisfaction of the individual's marriage. These authors' Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS) does not attempt to measure the status or

quality of the marital relationship, only the respondents attitude toward the marriage.

During the last decade more emphasis on a detailed examination of actual interaction between members of the marital dyad seems to have replaced the paper-and-pencil search for marital adjustment. Researchers are looking toward sociological theory, communication theory, systems theory and behavioral theory for answers to questions of marital discord. These theories recognize various malfunctions in the marital relationship rather than innate defects in the marital partners as the cause of the marital discord. Thibau and Kelly (1959) hypothesized that there existed an interdependence of social behavior among individuals engaged in dyadic interaction. Each partner is constantly trying to maximize the rewards they receive while minimizing the cost each must incur.

Interpersonal Perception of Temperament

"In every marriage there are two marriages--his and hers" (Bernard, 1972).

The association between marital adjustment and temperament of the individual partners has been recognized for many years. In 1938 Terman stated, "in a large proportion of unsuccessful marriages it is possible to discover either in the husband or wife, or perhaps in both, numerous

elements of the unhappy temperament and evidence that these elements have played a role" (Terman, 1938, p. 111).

One of the first studies to investigate the association between marital adjustment and perception of personality traits in married couples was conducted by Kelly (1941). Kelly used his personality rating scale to determine perception of self and spouse. He found that in happy marriages subjects rated themselves more negatively than their spouse had rated them. Kelly concluded that the "actual relative position . . . on a personality trait continuum was not as important in determining compatibility as the belief of the husband and wife regarding their position" (p. 193).

Mudd, Preston, Froscher, and Pelty (1950) developed a personality inventory for use with couples. They had couples complete a questionnaire appraising both self and spouse's personality. The results indicated that spouses show a strong tendency to report their own and their partner's personality in similar terms. Couples who reported themselves as being happier seemed less realistic and more complimentary of each other (Mudd et al., 1950).

Dymond (1954) reported a contradiction to the Mudd et al. study. Using 115 items selected from the MMPI, he investigated the relationship between interpersonal

perception and self-rated marital happiness. Spouses were instructed to score the items for themselves and for their spouse. Dymond found that those persons describing themselves as happily married predicted their spouse's response more accurately. These "happily married" also made fewer errors in the prediction of similarity of their spouse's answers and showed a higher degree of similarity in self-concepts than their mates. Dymond concluded that the better each partner understands the other's perception of self and one's own world, the more satisfactory the relationship.

The Burgess-Wallin Marital Happiness scale paired with an adjective Q-sort was used by Corsini (1956) to determine if marital happiness is related to perception of self/spouse. Corsini found a positive significant correlation between marital happiness and similarity of self-perception and the ability of the wife to predict her husband's self perception. He concluded that wives hold a common "ideal" of the perfect husband and the closer her husband conforms to this "ideal" the happier the marriage.

In 1960 Katz, Glucksberg, and Krauss explored husband-wife personality relationships by using the Edward's Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS). Self-rating and

predicted self-rating of spouse were obtained. Results indicated that high satisfaction wives showed a trend toward less similarity to their husband's on Aggression and more similarity to their husband's on Nurturance and Succorance. Among husbands, there was a greater complementarity in the high satisfaction group than in the low satisfaction group. Husbands' prediction of their spouses' total satisfaction was lower than their own rating and lower than their spouses' prediction for them.

Luckey (1964) utilized items from Locke (1939) and Terman (1938) to construct a marital adjustment scale. She also used Leary's Interpersonal Checklist (ICL) to study the couple's perceptual congruency of self and spouse. Luckey found more discrepancy between the scores of marital adjusted and maritally maladjusted men than those of women. Satisfied husbands' self concepts correlated with the perceptions of them held by their wives more closely than similar measures of less satisfied couples.

Kitlar (1965) used basically the same procedure as Luckey. Results indicated that adjusted husbands scored higher on the ICL Affection dimension and less adjusted husbands scored higher on Hostility. Better adjusted wives perceived their husbands as more dominant and affectionate.

Byrne and Blaylock (1963) tested similarity of attitudes in married couples by asking each person to complete two political attitude scales, one for themselves and one for the way they believed their mates would respond. Results indicated a significant difference between the self-scores and the assumed spouse scores, regardless of length of marriage.

Pickford, Signori, and Rempel (1966) used the Burgess-Wallin General Satisfaction Schedule to determine marital adjustment and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey to measure personality traits. Three groups of couples were tested (happily married, having-trouble, and on-the-verge-of separation). There was a consistent difference found between the happily married and the other two groups. Similarity on General Activity, Restraint, Friendliness, and Personal Relations appeared to be significantly related to marital happiness and dissimilarity on Emotional Stability and Objectivity seemed to be significantly related to marital unhappiness. The authors concluded that marital happiness appears to be related to personality traits.

Taylor (1967) used couples with high scores on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) as a control group. Couples with low scores were placed in another

group. Adjusted and maladjusted couples were found to vary significantly on a number of personality comparisons. Wives who predicted their husbands' responses most accurately appeared to have greater marital congruence. Couples with a greater degree of marital adjustment showed less deviation between self-prediction and spouse-prediction of personality factors.

Murstein and Beck (1972) used the Locke-Wallace (MAT) and the Edmond's Marital Conventionality Scale to test similarity, self-acceptance, accuracy of prediction of spouses' responses and role compatibility as they relate to marital adjustment. They reported that marital satisfaction was more highly correlated with the wife's accuracy in prediction of her husband's responses than for husband's prediction of the wife's responses. Murstein and Beck's findings suggest that "the sexes are not of equal importance in determining marital adjustment, indicating that marriage is more often oriented towards men's satisfaction than women's satisfaction" (p. 402).

The effects of personality and perception as related to marital conflict was studied by Bean and Kerckhoff (1971). Leary's ICL and the Prisoner's Dilemma Game were used. Both personality variables and interpersonal perception correlated with the subjects' responses.

Personality factors were more highly related with wives' play, but spouses' perception was more related with husbands' play. Cooperation was more in evidence when two players were of similar personality, or viewed themselves as similar.

Leary's ICL was also used by Morse (1972) in a study of marital adjustment and marital interaction. Rather than use self-ratings, Morse had independent observers rate each couple as they related to each other. He found that adjusted couples were more affectionate and submissive while maladjusted couples appeared to be locked in a power struggle. Although couples had rated themselves as high in dominance, the adjusted couples were rated high in submission by the observers.

Linder (1972) using the Meyer-Briggs Type Indicator found that a median level of congruence was more highly correlated with marital satisfaction than either high or low levels of congruence. The Meyer-Briggs was also used by Norton (1971) to study the relationship between empathy and marital adjustment. An accurate prediction of spouses' responses was related to marital adjustment for both husbands and wives.

Meck and Unes (1977) used Cattell's 16 PF Questionnaire. They hypothesized that, (a) if couples were

experiencing marital dysfunction a negative correlation between husband and wife scores will be found over most of the personality characteristics in the 16 PF, and (b) that couples can be maritally dysfunctional without either having a diagnosed psychological disorder. Their research supported the latter postulate but failed to support the first hypotheses.

Schafer and Braitto (1979) conducted a study which demonstrated that marriage partner's self-concept and perceived response of spouse were related to evaluation of marital role performance. A self-concept measure devised from Gough and Heilbrum's (1965) Adjective Checklist and other items selected by the authors was administered by interview teams. The couples were interviewed separately to prevent spouse-interaction and contamination. There was no significant relationship between spouses' actual responses and marriage partners' role performance evaluation. They found that individuals with favorable attitudes toward themselves also have favorable attitudes towards others. And, if those with positive self-evaluations also believed that their spouse gave them a favorable evaluation, then they evaluated the marital roles favorable.

It would appear that since research points to a link between an accurate perception of mate and marital

happiness, it would be wise to train the spouse to have a more accurate picture of their mate. However, at least one researcher (Drudge, 1969) unveiled a weakness in this hypothesis.

Drudge (1969) conducted an experimental study with 54 couples who were in treatment because of marital disturbances. He used a pretest/treatment/post-test design to determine whether increased accuracy of trait perception resulted in increased marital adjustment. Drudge reported that increased trait perception by both husband and wife failed to increase marital adjustment.

These studies have viewed interpersonal perception between spouses and have attempted to determine if any particular temperament traits contributed to marital adjustment. Many researchers have also tried to determine if either the homogamy theory or complementary-needs theory of mate selection is credible.

The theory of homogamy (similarity) proposes that maritally adjusted couples more closely resemble each other than maritally maladjusted couples. Terman and Bittenwieser (1935) found that maritally adjusted couples resembled each other in social background, education, intelligence, weight, and height. Others have reported that maritally adjusted persons are very much alike as

far as social status, race, religion, age, and ethnic origin (Bennett, 1971; Kerckhoff & Bean, 1971).

Terman (1938) investigated the couples' similarity of personality. He found "in a large proportion of unsuccessful marriages . . . numerous elements of the unhappy temperaments" (p. 111).

Murstein (1967) found a considerable correlation between similarity of personality and progress in courtship. Corsini (1955) reported similar results in his study of married couples.

A study of temperament and marital happiness conducted by Pickford, Signori, and Remple (1966) found that marital happiness was associated with fewer trait differences between husbands and wives. Other studies have tended to support these findings (Bowerman & Day, 1956; Cattell & Nesselroade, 1967).

On the other side of the question, the proponents of the theory of complementarity argue that mates are selected to balance personalities. Winch (1958) was one of the first to advance the theory of complementary needs. He believed that a person high in one need would be attracted to a person low in that particular need.

In a study of 25 young married couples, Ktsanes (1953) found that, on 15 need factors, persons who showed a high

need in one area tended to select partners with a low need in that area. Ktsanes also reported that people tend to marry persons who differ from themselves in personality make-up.

Summary

Marital adjustment cannot be viewed as a product, but rather as an ongoing process that serves to reduce troublesome differences; reduce interpersonal and personal tension; increase satisfaction; and enhance dyadic cohesion and consensus on matters important to marital functioning (Spanier, 1979). Marital adjustment is viewed as a fluid, everchanging process. Many researchers (Hamilton, 1929; Terman & Bottenweiser, 1935; Burgess & Cottrell, 1936; Locke, 1951; Burgess & Wallin, 1954; Bowerman, 1957; Bradbury & Caplovitz, 1965) view marital satisfaction as falling on a continuum from maladjusted to well adjusted, or dissatisfied to satisfied, i.e. that global marital happiness is a result of the balance between two uncorrelated dimensions--dissatisfaction and satisfaction.

However, recent work (Condie & Doan, 1976; Renne, 1970; Wadsworth et al., 1975; McNamara & Bahr, 1980) does not support the bipolar dimension model of marital satisfaction. These studies suggest that satisfaction and

dissatisfaction do not belong on the same continuum, but are separate dimensions.

Perception of the personality traits in one's self and one's spouse has received considerable interest in research. Kelly (1941) concluded that high marital adjustment is associated with a favorable self-rating along with a rating by the spouse which is even more favorable. Dymond (1954) concluded that the better each partner understands the other's perceptions of oneself and one's world, the more satisfactory the relationship. However, Corsini (1956) and Luckey (1960) suggest that it is understanding of the husband by the wife that is crucial in marital adjustment. Murstein explains this phenomenon by stating "because of the greater economic and social advantages men possess . . . men are more powerful . . . than women. Men are not dependent on marriage to acquire status as is often the case for women. The effect of the superior masculine status should be reflected in the greater importance of men as perceptual targets and the greater need for women to gauge accurately their husbands' perceptual world so as to adjust themselves to these more powerful individuals" (Murstein & Beck, 1972, p. 398).

A more recent study by Clayman (1975) reported that marital adjustment was related not to the wife's accuracy

of perception but to the husband's accurate perception of his wife. Perhaps this recent reversal in perception between couples reflects the change in our culture toward a more egalitarian view of marriage. Perhaps now, at last, the wife can also be understood.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

One hundred couples participated in this research. The population consisted of couples of various ages, education, and religious backgrounds, and socio-economic levels (see Table 1). Five couples were eliminated from the original 105 couples recruited due to incomplete forms, failure to give permission for data to be used in research or failure to return material.

Subject Recruitment

Subjects for this study were recruited in various ways. Notices explaining the study and requesting volunteers were placed on bulletin boards in (a) public school teachers' lounges, (b) an insurance company, (c) a public utilities company, (d) an ironworkers union hall, and (e) several churches. Several marriage counselors in private practice were contacted for volunteers. Two community agencies which specialized in family counseling also provided research subjects. Also, volunteers were solicited by telephone contact. A selection of names was taken from

Table 1
Demographic Data

Variable	Classification	Number	Percent
Age	-19	2	01
	20-20	51	26
	30-39	80	40
	40-49	49	24
	50-59	18	09
Years married	0-10	45	45
	11-20	37	37
	21-30	16	16
	31-40	2	02
Number of marriages	1	148	74
	2	38	19
	3	10	05
	4	4	02
Number of children	0	30	15
	1	32	16
	2	75	38
	3	35	16
	4	17	09
	5	11	06
Education	less than h.s.	6	03
	h.s. grad.	108	54
	college grad.	86	43
Religion	protestant	144	72
	catholic	12	06
	jewish	8	04
	other	22	11
	none	14	07
Race	white	198	99
	other	2	01
Parents marital status	happy	112	56
	not happy	88	44
Employed	wife employed	88	44
	wife not employed	12	06
	husband employed	98	49
	husband not employed	2	01

the Mesquite and Garland, Texas phone directories. This recruitment yielded a final population of: (a) 18 couples who were participating in marriage counseling at community agencies (from Dallas, Texas and Little Rock, Arkansas), (b) 11 couples from within the public school system of Mesquite, Texas (teachers, counselors, aids, etc.), (c) 12 couples from a rural Oklahoma church group, (d) nine couples employed in large corporations, (e) 10 couples from a Houston, Texas Ironworker's Union, (f) 18 couples from a Dallas, Texas marital enrichment group, and (g) 27 couples contacted by telephone in the cities of Mesquite and Garland, Texas.

Design

A correlation research design was used in this study. Correlational research involves collecting data in order to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables (Gay, 1976).

Instruments

The Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis (T-JTA) and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) were used in this study. Both of these instruments have been standardized by their authors.

The T-JTA measures nine personality traits. They are:

- a. Nervous (vs. Composed)
- b. Depressive (vs. Lighthearted)
- c. Active-Social (vs. Quiet)
- d. Expressive-Responsive (vs. Inhibited)
- e. Sympathetic (vs. Indifferent)
- f. Subjective (vs. Objective)
- g. Dominant (vs. Submissive)
- h. Hostile (vs. Tolerant)
- i. Self-disciplined (vs. Impulsive) (Taylor & Johnson, 1977, pp. 4-6).

The T.JTA is designed so that a couple profile and/or a couple criss-cross may be prepared. The couple profile is a profile on which the self-evaluation scores of two individuals are drawn for purpose of comparison. A criss-cross is a test in which one person records his impression or evaluation of another individual. A complete cross-cross for a couple consists of an individual profile of each, a couple profile on which the two self-evaluations are scored, and two criss-cross profiles, one giving a picture of the man as evaluated by himself and by his wife, and the other showing the woman as evaluated by herself and by her husband (Taylor & Johnson, 1977, p. 12).

According to the T-JTA Manual (1977) the reliability of the nine scale scores has been established with test-retest correlation coefficients, with split-half correlations, and with Hoyt's analysis of variance approach. The test-retest (over 2-week intervals) yielded correlation coefficients ranging from .71 on scale E to .87 on scale A.

Validity of the T-JTA has been established by various means. Empirical validity of the T-JTA was first studied by using professional clinical ratings of subjects as substitutes for pure criteria. This comparison yielded very close comparison between the psychologist rating of the subjects and the T-JTA trait scores.

A study completed by W. Lee Morrison of Clarion State College provided support for the validity of the T-JTA. He asked elementary teachers to answer on the T-JTA as they believed the "ideal young teacher" would answer. The results indicate a consensus among the elementary teachers as to the traits of the "ideal" teacher. According to Morrison "the results of the study attest to the validity of the shading on the T-JTA profile, and suggest that the test is indeed measuring what it is suppose to measure" Morrison in Taylor & Johnson, p. 19).

The T-JTA has also been correlated with other personality tests (Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the

MMPI). The T-JTA was found to correlate significantly at the .05 and the .01 levels (Taylor & Johnson, 1977) with both the EPPS and MMPI.

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was developed by Graham B. Spanier in 1976. It was designed to overcome some of the weaknesses of other marital adjustment instruments. The DAS has demonstrated content validity by evaluation rating of independent judges, and criterion validity by virtue of it's ability to discriminate between married and divorced subjects (Spanier, 1976). Spanier claimed construct validity because the DAS correlated highly with the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (MAT). The MAT and DAS were correlated .86 for married subjects and .88 for divorced subjects.

Reliability was determined for each of the component scales as well as for the total scale. Using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha, Spanier found reliability estimates ranged from .73 on the Affectional Expression subscale to .94 on the Dyadic Satisfaction subscale (Spanier, 1976). The correlation coefficient for the total scale score was .96. The data indicated that the total scale and it's components have sufficiently high reliability to justify their use (Spanier, 1976).

Procedures

During the initial contact with the couples, the purpose of the study (see Appendix D) and the procedures involved in obtaining data were explained. Couples were given the option of being tested by the researcher in the researcher's office or taking the test packet to their home for completion. Those who chose to be tested in the researcher's office were separated and asked to complete:

1. permission to use results in this study
2. demographic data
3. the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)
4. the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis for themselves
5. the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis for their mate.

Couples who elected to take the test packet home were given a set of instructions (see Appendix C) to follow. The packet of material they received was the same as the material for the couples tested by the researcher.

After testing was complete, the answer forms were hand-scored and tabulated. Results of testing was made available to couples who requested the outcome. Seventy-six of the couples tested made a request for follow-up. These

couples received a profile and explanation of their Taylor-Johnson scores and an analysis of their DAS scores.

~~Summary~~ Marital adjustment was judged as either high or low, according to the scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. The theoretical range of the scores is from 0 to 151 on this scale. The degree of marital adjustment was determined by placing the individual's score into one of the following seven categories (Spanier, 1976, p. 28).

1. Extremely unhappy (below 60)
2. Fairly unhappy (61-75)
3. A little unhappy (76-90)
4. Happy (91-105)
5. Very happy (106-120)
6. Extremely happy (121-135)
7. Perfect (136-151)

The couples' personality traits were examined using the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis (T-JTA). Each couple was asked to take the T-JTA for themselves and again as they perceived their mate would answer.

Also, three demographic items from each subject were selected to be used as variables. They were (a) length of marriage, (b) ~~previous marital status~~ previous marital status, and (c) sex.

The hypotheses were tested using analysis of variance, t-test, and multiple regression (Minium, 1970).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Characteristics of the Population

The couples participating in this study were primarily white, middle-class, middle-aged, protestant residents of (a) Dallas, Texas metroplex area, (b) Little Rock, Arkansas, (c) Houston, Texas, and (d) McCurtain County, Oklahoma. Table 2 presents a description of the subjects.

All the subjects were married at the time of the study, with the number of years married ranging from two weeks to thirty-eight years. Most subjects (74%) had been married only once. Nineteen percent of the couples had been married twice and seven percent had been married more than twice. The number of children ranged from zero to five.

The subjects' ages ranged from 19 years to 58 years. Fifty-four percent were high school graduates while forty-three percent had graduated from a college. Three percent had less than a high school education. Ninety-nine percent listed their race as white.

Table 2
Table of Variables

Marital State	Demographic Data	Personality Traits
1. Maritally adjusted	1. Length of marriage	1. Nervous vs. Composed
	2. Previous marital status	2. Depressive vs. Lighthearted
		3. Active-Social vs. Quiet
		4. Expressive- Responsive vs. Inhibited
		5. Sympathetic vs. Indifferent
		6. Subjective vs. Objective
		7. Dominant vs. Submissive
		8. Hostile vs. Tolerant
		9. Self-Disciplined vs. Impulsive

Tests of Hypotheses

A variety of statistical techniques was used to analyze the data presented in testing the seven hypotheses of this study. The seven hypotheses concerning marital adjustment and/or perception of temperament, stated in their null form, are presented below. The significance level for each hypotheses was set at .05.

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment score between individuals with accurate and those with inaccurate perception of their mate.

The mean of the marital adjustment scores for each of the two groups (couples with accurate perception of their mate and couples with inaccurate perception of their mate) is presented in Table 3. Using the t-test for independent groups in the analysis of the data, the two group means were not found to differ significantly ($p = .65$). On this basis hypothesis number one was not rejected.

The t-test is used to determine whether two means are significantly different as a selected probability level. The strategy of the t-test (Gay, 1976) is to compare the actual mean difference observed ($\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$) with the difference expected by chance. The t-test involves forming a ratio of these two values (numerator equals difference between sample means \bar{X}_1 and \bar{X}_2 and the denominator equals

Table 3

Results of t-test Between Marital Adjustment of
Accurate vs. Inaccurate Perception of
Personality Traits in Couples

Subjects	N	M	SD	SE	T	p
Group 1	14	109.28	9.54	2.55		
					.45	.652*
Group 2	186	111.55	18.63	1.36		

Note: Group 1=subjects with less than 70% accuracy of perception of mate, Group 2=subjects with at least 70% accuracy of perception of mate.

* $p > .05$

the chance difference which would be expected, if the null hypothesis were true). The t-ratio determines whether the observed difference is sufficiently larger than could be expected by chance. The t-test for independent means was used to analyze the data in hypothesis one, two, and seven.

A two-way ANOVA was computed on the data in hypothesis one (see Table 4). The two factors were group (inaccurate or accurate) and sex. The results confirm the outcome of the t-test, indicating no significant difference at the .05 level between the mean personality trait score of individuals with accurate perceptions and those with

inaccurate perceptions of their mates ($p = .265$). Also, no significant difference was found between the males and females ($p = .671$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance: The Relationship Between
Marital Adjustment and Accurate or Inaccurate
Perception of Personality Traits Between
Individual Members of a Marital Dyad

Source of variation	DF	MS	F	p
Main effects				
group	4	440.450	1.318	.265*
Sex	1	60.381	0.181	.671*
Two-way interaction				
accuracy X sex	4	56.752	0.170	.954*
Total	199	329.005		

Note: group = subjects with accurate or inaccurate perception of mate.

* $p > .05$

A simple, or one-way analysis of variance is used to test the difference between two or more means at selected probability levels. If a study is designed to investigate two or more independent variables and the interaction

between them, a two-way ANOVA is used. Two-way ANOVA yields a separate F ratio for each independent variable and one for each interaction.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment score between individuals of similar and dissimilar temperament.

The data indicated that no significant difference existed between the marital adjustment scores (as measured by the DAS) obtained by couples with similar temperament and the scores obtained by couples with dissimilar temperament. Table 5 gives a summary of the results obtained.

Table 5

Results of t-test Between Marital Adjustment Score
of Similar vs. Dissimilar Temperament
Traits in Couples

Subjects	N	M	SD	SE	T	p
Group 1	24	113.12	8.77	1.79		
					0.50	.621*
Group 2	176	111.16	19.07	1.43		

Note: Group 1 = dissimilar temperament traits; Group 2 = similar temperament traits.

*p > .05

The t-test was used to compare the means between the two populations (couples with similar temperament and couples with dissimilar temperament) to determine if any significant difference existed between the two population means. Since no significant difference was found hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Data in hypothesis 2 was also tested using a two-way ANOVA (see Table 6). No significant difference was found to exist in the marital adjustment scores between couples of similar and dissimilar temperament.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance: The Relationship Between
Marital Adjustment and Similar or
Dissimilar Temperament
Traits in Couples

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	p
Main effects				
similarity	5	280.272	.841	.501*
sex	1	5.780	.017	.895*
Two-Way interaction				
similarity X sex	4	257.536	.773	.544*
Total	199	329.005		

* $p > .05$

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant relationship between marital adjustment score and the length of the couple's marriage.

Multiple regression was used to examine the relationship between the individual's self-reported marital adjustment and the length of the couple's marriage. As indicated in Table 7 a significant relationship existed between the length of marriage and marital adjustment ($r = .171$, $p = .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Table 7

Multiple Regression of Marital Adjustment
on Length of Marriage

Variable	b	Beta	SE
Marital adjustment	-.839*	-.170	.034
Length of marriage (constant)	.210		

$R^2 = -.17$
 $F = 5.934$, $p = .05$

* significant at .05 level. $p. < .05$

The data in hypothesis 3 was analyzed using multiple regression. Multiple regression is a general statistic through which one can analyze the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable and a set of independent

or predictor variables. Multiple regression can be viewed as either a descriptive tool or as an inferential tool by which the relationships in the population are evaluated from the examination of the sample data (Nie et al., 1975).

Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment score of males or females with (a) no previous marriages, (b) one mate previously married, or (c) both mates previously married.

The means for each cell are given in Table 8. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyze the data. The two factors were previous marital status and the sex of the individual. The dependent variable was the marital adjustment score. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 9. No significant sex difference was found ($p = .892$), but a significant previous marriage group difference was found ($p = .047$). Further analysis indicated that the females in marriages where one mate was previously married had a significantly higher mean score than the individuals in the other cells. The means in the other five cells did not differ significantly from each other. Hypothesis 4 was rejected.

The males were consistent in their marital adjustment across all three categories (see Table 8). The males indicated a slightly higher degree of marital adjustment in

Table 8

Cell Means for Marital Adjustment of Males and Females
With No Previous Marriage, One Mate Previously
Married and Both Mates Previously Married

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Females	108.75	126.50*	108.65
Males	111.03	111.81	111.47

Note: Group 1 = no previous marriage, Group 2 = one mate previously married, Group 3 = both mates previously married.

*p. < .05

Table 9

Analysis of Variance: The Relationship Between
Marital Adjustment and No Previous Marriage,
One Mate Previously Married, and Both
Mates Previously Married

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	p
Main effects				
sex	1	5.780	0.018	.892
previous marital status	2	1146.289	3.633	.028*
Two-way interaction				
sex X previous marital status	2	981.230	3.110	.047*
Total	199	329.005		

*p. < .05

the categories, no previous marriages and both mates previously married than the females in those two categories, but the obvious difference in marital adjustment was the higher degree of marital adjustment for the females in the category, one mate previously married.

Analysis of female responses in the category, one mate previously married, indicated that of the 16 females responding, 11 of the females were previously married to mates with no previous marriages. Eight of these 11 females reported a marital satisfaction score higher than the score reported by their mates. Only three males reported a higher marital satisfaction score than their wives in the female previously married--male not previously married group.

Hypothesis 5: There will be no specific temperament traits, as measured by the individual's self-perception, which contribute to marital adjustment scores.

In an attempt to determine relationships between the variables, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was employed (Cohen & Cohen, 1975). In this analysis, the sets of variables comprise part of the set of predictors. The variables used and the order of entry are included in Table 10. The total multiple R^2 for each analysis is included in Table 11. Five of the nine factors were found

to be significantly related to marital adjustment scores
($r = .404$, $p = .001$).

Table 10

Order of Entry for Predictor Variables in
Multiple Regression Analysis

Criterion	Order Predictor Variables
Marital adjustment score	1. Nervous 2. Depressive 3. Active-Social 4. Expressive-Responsive 5. Sympathetic 6. Subjective 7. Dominant 8. Hostile 9. Self-Disciplined

Note: Predictor variable = personality traits as measured by the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis.

Table 11

Multiple R^2 for Hierarchical Multiple Regression of
Significant Personality Factors on
Marital Adjustment

Predictor Variable	Multiple R^2
Hostility	-.268*
Active-Social	.343*
Self-Disciplined	.371*
Dominant	.385*
Nervous	.403*

* $p. < .05$

A negative coefficient reveals that a negative relationship exists, while a positive coefficient reveals that a positive relationship exists. In other words, as the value of the Hostility score increases, the value of the marital adjustment score tends to decrease since the coefficient is negative. The positive coefficient on the four scales (Active-Social, Self-Disciplined, Dominant, and Nervous) indicate that as the score increases the marital adjustment scores tends to increase. Hypothesis 5 was rejected.

Conversely, the personality traits Depressive, Subjective, and Sympathetic presented no significant correlation with marital adjustment. These personality variables do not appear to be related to marital adjustment.

Hypothesis 6: There will be no significant relationship in accurate perception of mate's temperament between couples married for varying lengths of time.

Multiple regression was used to test this hypothesis. Table 12 gives the results of the analysis. There was no significant relationship between accuracy of prediction of mate's temperament over the varying years of marriage. Hypothesis 6 was not rejected. This study suggests that length of marriage does not increase the accuracy of perception of personality traits between mates.

Table 12

Multiple Regression of Length of Marriage on
Perception of Temperament in Mate

Variable	b	Beta	SE
Length of marriage	-.923	-.083	.001
Perception of temperament (constant)	.889		
$R^2 = -0.083$ $F = 1.382, p = .05$			

Hypothesis 7: There will be no significant difference between male and female scores in accuracy of perception of temperament of mate.

The t-test for independent groups was used to test the means between the two groups (males and females) and the accuracy of their perception of personality traits in their mates. As seen in Table 13, the female had a more accurate perception of her mate's personality traits than the male had of his mate's traits. Hypothesis 7 was rejected.

The accuracy of the perception of the temperament of mate was determined by correlating the nine temperament traits obtained from the spouse with the score on the

Table 13

Results of t-test of Accuracy of Prediction of
Temperament in Mates by Males and Females

Subjects	N	M	SD	T	p
males	100	.8627	.101	2.32	.021*
females	100	.8947	.094		

*p < .05

individual's perception of the spouse. Thus, a correlation coefficient was obtained for each of the 200 subjects. The higher the correlation coefficient the more accurate the perception of the spouse's temperament. The t-test for independent groups was used to determine if a significant difference in the mean correlation coefficients existed. The evidence in Table 13 indicates that females have a significantly higher mean score than the males ($p = .021$), thus, hypothesis 7 was rejected.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The broad purpose of this research was to examine the relationships between marital adjustment and the perception of personality traits in a population of married couples. Specifically the study sought to evaluate:

1. The relationship between marital adjustment and accurate/inaccurate perception of temperament in spouses
2. The relationship between marital adjustment and similar/dissimilar temperament in spouses
3. The relationship between marital adjustment and length of marriage
4. The relationship between marital adjustment and previous marital status
5. The relationship between marital adjustment and various temperament traits
6. The relationship between length of marriage and accurate/inaccurate perception of spouses
7. The difference between males and females in accuracy of perception of spouse.

Marital adjustment was measured by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976). Personality traits were measured by the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis (Taylor & Johnson, 1977).

The participants in this study were residents of Dallas and Houston, Texas, McCurtain County, Oklahoma, and Little Rock, Arkansas. Both husbands and wives participated by completing the previously mentioned questionnaires. There were 210 participants (105 couples). Questionnaires from five couples were eliminated due to incomplete data, leaving a total of 200 participants.

Seven null hypotheses were posited and tested:

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment score between individuals with accurate and those with inaccurate perception of their mate.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment score between individuals of similar and dissimilar temperament.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant relationship between marital adjustment score and the length of the couple's marriage.

Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference in marital adjustment score of males or females with (a)

no previous marriages, (b) one mate previously married, or (c) both mates previously married.

Hypothesis 5: There will be no specific temperament traits, as measured by the individual's self-perception, which contribute to marital adjustment.

Hypothesis 6: There will be no significant relationship in accurate perception of mate's temperament between couples married for varying lengths of time.

Hypothesis 7: There will be no significant difference between male and female scores in accuracy of perception of temperament of mate.

Using appropriate statistical analysis (analysis of variance, multiple regression, and t-test) hypotheses three, four, five, and seven were rejected at the .05 level of significance. Hypotheses one, two, and six were not rejected.

Conclusions

The major findings of this study were:

1. There was no significant difference in marital adjustment scores between individuals with an accurate perception of their mates' personality traits and individuals with inaccurate perception of personality traits.

2. There was no significant difference in marital adjustment scores between individuals of similar and dissimilar temperament.

3. Marital adjustment scores varied over the length of the couples' marriage. A negative correlation ($r = -.171$, $p. > .05$) between length of marriage and marital adjustment was noted, indicating a decline in marital adjustment over the length of the marriage.

4. Females in marriages with one mate previously married indicated a higher level of marital adjustment ($M = 126.5$) than females in marriages with neither mate previously married ($M = 108.7$), both mates previously married ($M = 108.6$). There was no significant difference in marital adjustment among the males in the three groups (no previous marriages ($M = 111.0$)), one mate previously married ($M = 111.8$), or both mates previously married ($M = 111.4$).

5. Five of the nine personality traits measured by the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis were related to marital adjustment. There was a negative correlation ($r = -.268$, $p. > .05$) between the trait Hostility and marital adjustment. Positive correlations existed between the traits Active-Social ($r = .343$, $p. > .001$), Self-Disciplined ($r = .371$, $p. > .001$), Dominant ($r = .385$,

$p. > .001$), Nervous ($r = .403$, $p. > .001$), and marital adjustment.

6. There was no significant relationship between the length of a couple's marriage and the accuracy of their prediction of their mate's temperament.

7. Females ($M = .89$) in this study exhibited a slightly higher degree of accuracy than the males ($M = .86$) in their ability to predict the personality traits of their mates ($p = .021$).

Limitations

One of the major limitations of this study was imposed by the method of investigation. By evaluating the individual members of the marital dyad rather than the dyad itself, the marital system loses much of its structure. Any division of the marital dyad into its component parts (wife and husband) prevents an effective evaluation of the total system. Therefore, this study was limited to a study of individuals rather than systems.

As with all self-report measures, it is assumed that the respondents answer honestly. However, self-report inventories in the very personal areas of personality and marital adjustment may be contaminated with socially desirable answers. Research in the area can be only as valid as the subjects' honesty.

Many couples, when approached to participate in this study, appeared defensive and suspicious of the researcher's motives. Dysfunctional couples are an essential ingredient in this type research. An oversupply of "good" subjects was a limitation in this study. The population was too homogenous. It included a predominance of white, middle-class, middle-aged, protestant residents withing a 300 mile radius of Dallas, Texas.

Every study is limited by the validity of the instruments employed. Many instruments have been developed to measure personality factors and to access marital adjustment. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale and Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis are both widely used in marriage and family research but neither instrument is considered perfect (Roach, 1981). Therefore, this research can be only as valid as the two instruments used.

Recommendations for Future Research

Any future research in this area should attempt to test a broader range of subjects. Subjects should be included from dysfunctional families, blended families, minority families, older couples, second marriages, and couples from a wider locale.

This research did not utilize the different sub-scales of the DAS (Consensus, Satisfaction, Cohesion, and

Affectional expression). Future research might examine and correlate these sub-scales with personality factors.

Another topic for future research might focus on sex role constraints. Schram (1979) suggested that the sex role constraints lessen with advancing age. A correlation study between marital adjustment and decreasing sex role constraints in older age might support her theory and clarify some of the issues surrounding the relationship of marital adjustment and length of marriage.

Considerably debate still exist between proponents of the linear-decline and the curvilinear models of marital adjustment. Bossard and Bell (1955) found a significant relationship between age and marital adjustment rather than length of marriage and marital adjustment.

Several researchers have established a positive link between ages of children in the family and marital adjustment (Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Miller, 1976; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Rollins & Galligan, 1978). Further research in these two areas should be pursued.

Most of the previous research in marital adjustment has reported a higher degree of marital adjustment by the wife than by the husband. Mugford and Lally (1981) discuss the "apparent paradox" (p. 969) of the women's reported happiness, i.e. that, although women report higher levels

of marital satisfaction than men, they also report lower levels of psychological well-being. This interesting paradox should be pursued in future research.

Research into marital adjustment can only be as valid as the instruments used to measure that adjustment. Measurements of marital adjustment in the marital dyad are usually obtained by evaluating the individual, then determining a composite score. This method of examination does not present an accurate view of the marital system. Future research should be directed toward development of instruments to measure dyadic adjustment from a systems theoretical orientation.

Since this study was the first study to employ the T-JTA as a measure of personality traits and their relationship to marital adjustment no comparisons can be made with previous studies. It is recommended that future research utilize the T-JTA to further study the relationship of personality factors and marital adjustment.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

This research examined the relationship between self-reported marital adjustment scores and accuracy of perception of mate's personality characteristics. Most earlier studies of accuracy of prediction supported the view that marital adjustment was related to the wife's accuracy of perception of the husband's self-perception. Results of this study indicated that the females had more accurate perception of their mates' personality traits but no significant difference in marital adjustment scores was found between individuals with accurate or inaccurate perception of their mates.

Clayman (1975) reported that marital adjustment was related to the accuracy of the husband's prediction. Cowden (1955) also found husbands to be more accurate in their predictions than wives. Corsini (1956) and Luckey (1960) suggested that it is the understanding of the husband by the wife that is crucial in marital adjustment. Another study by Taylor (1967) concluded that the wives who predicted their husbands' responses more accurately appeared to have greater marital congruence.

Theories of marital adjustment in relation with perception of personality traits appear to fall within several categories. Those who believe that:

- (a) husband's more accurate predictions contribute to greater marital adjustment
- (b) wife's more accurate predictions contribute to greater marital adjustment
- (c) accuracy of prediction is not related to marital adjustment.

This research supports previous studies which have indicated that:

- (a) wives are more accurate than husbands in their perception of their mate's personality traits
- (b) perception of temperament is not significantly related to marital adjustment.

This study also examined the relationship between similar and dissimilar temperament traits and their relation to marital adjustment. One of the most researched areas in marriage theory has been the "complementary-needs" theory vs. the "homogamy" theory.

Winch (1958) has been one of the primary proponents of the complementary-needs theory. Winch hypothesized that differences that permit a symbiosis between members of a dyad promote a more or less permanent relationship.

Satir (1967) suggests that an individual will actively seek out in marriage a partner who is capable of complementing his or her personality and talents.

Supporters of the homogamy theory believe that individuals are attracted to each other as a function of the similarity of their personalities. Murstein (1967) has found support for the homogamy theory, but he has not found any evidence to support the complementary-needs theory. Becker (1964) reported negative and inconsistent findings in the area of complementary needs. Burgess and Wallin (1953) also presented data supporting the homogamy needs theory.

This research indicates that no significant difference exists in marital adjustment between couples with similar temperament and those with dissimilar temperament. It should be noted that of the 100 couples tested only 12 couples reported major dissimilarities in their personality traits.

This small percentage of married couples with dissimilar personality traits tends to support the homogamy theory of marital choice. It appears that people of similar temperament traits do marry. A surprising outcome of this research is that, although individuals of dissimilar personalities do attract on occasion, there does not seem

to be any major difference between the reported marital satisfaction of the two groups.

Early studies generally showed a steady decline in marital adjustment over time. They have suggested that the longer couples are married, the lower the marital adjustment tends to be (Lang, 1953). Burgess and Cottrell (1939) found a steep decline in marital adjustment over the first six years of the marriage. Terman (1938) found similar declines over the first eight years. Pineo (1961) studied couples who had been married at least 20 years and concluded there had been a general decline in marital adjustment over the life of the marriage.

However, this linear decline model has been disputed in recent studies. Current research suggests that marital adjustment over the years of marriage is curvilinear. Most studies show an initial decrease in marital satisfaction after the birth of the first child (Spanier et al., 1975). There is some data which show marital satisfaction either reaching a plateau after the first child or declining (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Pineo, 1961; Luckey, 1966). Still other studies indicate marital satisfaction to be curvilinear, or high among young couples, declining after the birth of the first child, continuing to decline through the launching stage, and then increasing in satisfaction

during the postparental years (Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Burr, 1970; Glenn, 1975).

The results of this study support the linear decline model of marital adjustment. In the 100 couples surveyed there was a significant relationship between the length of marriage and marital adjustment. The correlation was a negative one, suggesting that as the length of the marriage increases the marital adjustment decreases.

However, note should be made that the subjects in this study were primarily in the middle years of marriage. Eighty-two percent of the couples had been married less than 20 years.

An unexpected result was revealed in this research when the perception of personality traits between mates was compared at different levels of years married. It was expected that couples married for longer periods of time would have a more accurate perception of their mate's personality traits than couples who had been married for only a short time. This did not prove to be true. No significant difference was found in the perception of mate's personality traits over the life-cycle of the marriage.

Another area of investigation in this study was the relationship between previous marital status and marital adjustment. Information on the nature of second marriages

is difficult to find. Little research has compared the nature of first and second marriages. The majority of research on marital adjustment in second marriages is more than 20 years old (Locke, 1951; Bernard, 1956; Goode, 1956).

While research on second marriages is sparse, remarriage is booming. In the United States there are approximately one million divorces (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1980) each year. And eighty percent of these divorced people will remarry.

Dean and Gurak (1978) compared levels of marital homogamy in age, education, and religious identification between women in first and second marriages. The authors speculated that heterogamy in second marriages may not be as disruptive as in first marriages, due to an increased maturity of the woman.

This research indicated that women show a significant difference in their marital adjustment between first and second marriages. The women, in the one mate previously married group had a higher marital adjustment score. Further analysis revealed that the female who is married for the second time and is married to a man who has not been previously wed is most maritally satisfied of all. The marital adjustment scores of males was consistent in all three marital status groups.

Many researchers (Katz, Glucksberg, & Krauss, 1960; Pickford & Remple, 1966; Meyer & Pepper, 1977; Meck & Unes, 1977) have attempted to link specific personality factors to marital adjustment. They theorized that the absence or presence of certain personality factors contributed to marital adjustment.

A study conducted by Meyer and Pepper (1977) hypothesized that couples in well adjusted marriages would be similar in nine of the twelve needs as assessed on the Jackson Personality Research Form. Their results revealed that well adjusted spouses were more similar than poorly adjusted spouses in their self and spouse ratings in the areas of Affiliation, Aggression, Autonomy, and Nurturance.

In 1960 Katz, Glucksberg, and Krauss studied the relationship between personality and marital satisfaction. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) was used to measure eleven personality traits. Results of interpersonal correlations on the eleven EPPS variables were close to the random level. Twenty-one pairings of like and unlike EPPS variables produced five relationships contradictory to the complementary needs theory and none supportive of the theory. Four pairs of the like needs (Abasement, Affiliation, Autonomy, and Nurturance and one pair of unlike needs - husband Succorance, wife

Nurturance) were related to marital satisfaction.

Meck and Unes (1977) studied personality similarity/dissimilarity in couples seeking marriage counseling. They concluded that no specific personality factors can be isolated that predict marital dysfunction. They were unable to support the hypothesis that maritally dysfunctional couples would produce a negative correlation of scores on the Sixteen Personality Factor test.

Research by Pickford and Remple (1966) presented an analysis of personality traits among three groups of married couples, (a) happily married, (b) having trouble, and (c) on the verge of separation. Group A, happily married, scored lowest on Ascendence, General Activity, and Masculinity and the highest on Restraint, Friendliness, and Personal Relations.

Results of this study indicate that several personality traits are positively correlated with marital adjustment. They are the traits Dominant, Self-Disciplined, Active-Social, and Nervous.

A previous study by Kotlar (1965) also found Dominance related to Marital Adjustment, i.e. wives who perceived their husbands as more dominant indicated greater marital satisfaction. Morse (1972) reported that couples who rated themselves as high in dominance also reported a high level

of marital satisfaction. It should be noted, however, that in the Morse study independent observers rated these couples as more submissive than the couples had rated themselves. The data supports these two previous studies, linking dominance to marital adjustment.

Pickford, Signori, and Rempel (1966) reported that couples with a similar level of general activity had greater marital adjustment. This study also indicated that similar and high levels of the trait Active-Social was associated with marital adjustment.

No previous research was found to support a correlation between the traits Self-Disciplined and Nervous and marital adjustment. In fact, the inclusion of the trait Nervous in the positive correlates was unexpected. Some speculations on it's occurrence in the more highly adjusted marriage might include: (a) the more nervous person tending to seek refuge from a disquieting world within the marriage, (b) the more nervous person not willing to admit to marital discord, or (c) the nervous person being viewed as a more sensitive person who might make an extra attempt to succeed in marriage.

One personality trait was negatively correlated with marital adjustment. That trait was Hostility. Kotlar (1965) found that less adjusted husbands scored higher on

Hostility than better adjusted husbands. This study supports Kotlar's data which indicated that when the hostility level was high the marital adjustment level was low.

It should be noted that none of the previously cited research utilized the same instrument as this study. Since different personality scales were used in the previous evaluations, no positive correlations can be claimed.

APPENDIX A
HUMAN SUBJECTS CONSENT FORM

Consent Form
TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW COMMITTEE

(Form B)

Title of Project: Husbands' and Wives' Perception of Temperament
in Self and Spouse as Related to Matital Adjustment

Consent to Act as A Subject for Research and Investigation:

I have received an oral description of this study, including a fair explanation of the procedures and their purpose, any associated discomforts or risks, and a description of the possible benefits. An offer has been made to me to answer all questions about the study. I understand that my name will not be used in any release of the data and that I am free to withdraw at any time. I further understand that no medical service or compensation is provided to subjects by the university as a result of injury from participation in research.

Signature

Date

Witness

Date

Certification by Person Explaining the Study:

This is to certify that I have fully informed and explained to the above named person a description of the listed elements of informed consent.

Carnell M. Barnes
Signature

Date

Graduate Student
Position

Witness

Date

One copy of this form, signed and witnessed, must be given to each subject. A second copy must be retained by the investigator for filing with the Chairman of the Human Subjects Review Committee. A third copy may be made for the investigator's files.

APPENDIX B
ORAL DESCRIPTION OF STUDY

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Oral Description of Study

Name Carnell Martin Barnes

I will introduce myself and state that I am a Graduate Doctoral student in the Marriage and Family Therapy program at Texas Woman's University. Then, I will describe my study by stating:

"I am investigating the way married people perceive their partners' personalities, or, how well they seem to know each other. I will be testing married couples in many different age groups, and of different occupations and backgrounds.

If you agree to participate in this study, both of you must complete several sets of forms. The papers will take about an hour to an hour and a half to complete. We will need to schedule a time that I can come to your home and administer the tests, or if you prefer you may come to my office for the testing.

Should you both agree to participate you will be given three inventories to complete. They are:

1. The Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis Test,

which is a personality inventory. On this test you can score in nine different areas, such as Nervous vs. Composed, Expressive vs. Inhibited, Subjective vs. Objective, or Self-disciplined vs. Impulsive.

2. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale, which measures marital adjustment.

3. A demographic data sheet, which gives some basic information on your background (such as age, number of children, length of marriage, and occupation).

Also, you will be asked to sign a consent form, which is required by the University. This states that you have been given a description of the study and that you agree to participate.

About a week after you complete the material you may choose to participate in a follow-up evaluation of your profile. At this time I will explain to you how your personality profile has been plotted, and how the high and low scores in different areas indicate different aspects of your personality. You will be able to see how accurate you were in the prediction of your mates' personality traits. This inventory is one that is used often in marriage counseling with couples. Counselors have found that quite often being able to see how individuals view themselves and their mates can be a very important step in

gaining a greater understanding of yourself, your mate, and your marriage.- I hope that you will find this information beneficial.

I want to assure you that your privacy will be respected. No one will have access to these profiles but me and no names will be placed on any of the answer sheets. Only coded numbers will be used. Your names will not be published or displayed in any manner. The only record of your participation will be your consent form which will be filed with the Graduate School at Texas Woman's University.

Your agreement to participate in this study may be withdrawn at any time, including the time of testing. If you decide to withdraw before the testing session you may contact me and cancel. Or, if during the actual administration of the inventories, you find any part of the test to be objectionable you may discontinue your participation."

APPENDIX C
INSTRUCTIONS FOR PARTICIPANTS

INSTRUCTIONS

Inside the envelope you will find two packets, one marked "HIS" and one marked "HERS". Each packet contains:

- ✓ 1. a demographic data sheet
- ✓ 2. the Dyadic Adjustment Scale
3. the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis Test booklet
4. answer sheets for the Taylor-Johnson
- ✓ 5. a consent form for human subjects
- ✓ 6. brown envelopes marked "HIS" or "HERS"

Please complete the test as follows:

The wife should complete the "HERS" set and the husband should complete the "HIS" set. The Taylor-Johnson is first taken by the husband then the wife for themselves and then taken again as they believe their spouse would answer the questions. It is important that no part of the test be discussed with the spouse during the testing. Please do not place your name on any part of the test, answer sheets, or other forms. On each answer sheet of the Taylor-Johnson please write either "wife", "wife-for-husband", "husband" or "husband-for-wife" to indicate if the answer sheet pertains to yourself or your mate. Immediately after

completion of all sets of forms (items one through six listed above) please place the answer sheets in the proper brown envelope and seal.

APPENDIX D
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Age _____ 2. Sex _____
3. Length of present marriage _____
4. Number of previous marriages _____
5. Ages of children (please circle those still residing
in your home) _____
6. Occupation _____
7. Highest level of education _____
8. Religion _____
9. Annual income _____
10. Length of courtship _____ engagement _____
11. Have you ever separated from your present spouse? _____
If yes, please explain _____
12. Do you live in an apartment or house? _____
Own or rent? _____
13. Have you ever received counseling, marriage counseling,
psychological or psychiatric help? _____ If yes,
please explain and give dates of treatment _____

14. What is your race or national origin? _____
15. Were either of your parents divorced? _____
16. Did you live with both your parents when you were a
child? _____ If not please explain _____

17. Do you believe your parents had a happy and successful marriage? _____

APPENDIX E

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE (DAS)

Spanier Dyadic Adjustment Scale

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 on the following list.

	always agree	almost always agree	occasionally disagree	frequently disagree	almost always disagree	always disagree
1. Handling family finances						
2. Matters of recreation						
3. Religious matters						
4. Demonstration 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 interests and activities						
15. Career decisions						

	all the time	most of the time	more often than not	occasionally	rarely	never
16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or termination of 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?						
21. How often do you and your mate quarrel?						
22. How often do you get on each others nerves?						

	everyday	almost everyday	occasionally	rarely	never
23. Do you kiss you mate?					

	all of them	most of them	some of them	very few of them	none of them	
24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?						
	never	less than once a month	once or twice a month	once or twice a week	once a day	more often
25. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas						
26. Laugh together						
27. Calmly discuss something						
28. Work on a project together						

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 weeks. (check yes or no)

	yes	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 circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
.
extremely unhappy	fairly unhappy	a little unhappy	happy	very happy	extremely happy	perfect

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

_____ I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to any length to see that it does.

_____ I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.

_____ I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.

_____ It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing to keep the relationship going.

_____ My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

APPENDIX F

TAYLOR-JOHNSON TEMPERAMENT ANALYSIS

Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis

Devised by Roswell H. Johnson, 1941 Revised by Robert M. Taylor, 1967

INSTRUCTIONS

Do not open this booklet until you have read all of these instructions.

1. Fill in carefully the personal information asked for in the upper right-hand corner of the answer sheet.
2. Please do not write or mark on this booklet.
Indicate your answers on the answer sheet as explained below.
3. Please answer every question, even if you feel uncertain about the answer. Do not think too long about any one question.
4. The blank space . . . in each question applies to yourself, unless you are describing another person. As you read each question, insert mentally the appropriate name in the space . . . indicated.
5. On the answer sheet you are given three columns in which to mark your answer.

+	Mid	-
1. --- 		2.

Plus (+) means "decidedly yes" or "mostly so."

Mid means "undecided."

3. --- Minus (-) means "decidedly no" or "mostly not so."
6. Decide how each question applies to you or to the person you are describing. Record your decision by making a heavy pencil mark between the pair of dotted lines in the column which best indicates your answer. If you change an answer, please erase your first mark completely.
7. Try to give a definite plus (+) or minus (-) response.
Avoid MID scores when possible.

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Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis

QUESTIONS

Mark your answers on the answer sheet. Do not mark on this booklet.

Please answer every question.

1. Is . . . by nature a forgiving person?
2. Does . . . take an active part in community affairs or group activities?
3. Is . . . relatively calm when others are upset or emotionally disturbed?
4. Can . . . put himself sympathetically in another person's place?
5. Does . . . have a marked influence on the thinking of family or associates?
6. Does . . . prefer a restful, inactive vacation to an energetic one?
7. Does . . . have difficulty concentrating while reading or studying?
8. Does . . . prefer to be a follower rather than a leader in group activities?
9. Does . . . lead a quiet life, without becoming involved in many relationships outside of home and work?
10. Does . . . take the initiative in making arrangements for family outings and vacations?
11. Does . . . make many unrealistic plans for the future, which later have to be abandoned?
12. Does . . . feel compassion for those who are weak or insecure?
13. Does . . . enjoy belonging to clubs or social groups?
14. Does . . . seek to keep peace at any price?
15. Is . . . easily bothered by noise and confusion?
16. Does . . . avoid physical exertion and strenuous activity?
17. Does . . . usually appear composed and serene?
18. Is . . . seriously concerned about social problems, such as poverty and unemployment, even when not directly affected by them?
19. Does . . . like to keep on the move in order not to waste time?
20. Is . . . a well-organized person who likes to do everything according to schedule?
21. Is . . . sensitive to the feelings and needs of any member of the family who is ill?
22. Does . . . act deliberately rather than impulsively?
23. Is . . . highly competitive in games, business, or personal relations?
24. Does . . . prefer to be alone rather than with people?
25. Does . . . feel uneasy when riding or driving in traffic?
26. Does . . . exercise regularly in order to keep in condition?
27. Is . . . more excitable than most people?
28. Does . . . like to entertain guests at home?
29. Does . . . like to be in charge and supervise others?
30. Is . . . extremely neat and orderly?
31. Is . . . so self-assured that at times it is annoying even to friends?

32. Does . . . quickly recover composure after an accident or other disturbing incident?
33. Does . . . move briskly and with energy?
34. Would . . . prefer to accept an unfair situation rather than complain?
35. Do noisy, active children get on . . . 's nerves?
36. Is . . . quick to know when someone needs encouragement or a kind word?
37. Is . . . the kind of person one might call a "self-starter" or a "go-getter"?
38. Does . . . often allow tension to build up to the point of feeling "ready to explode"?
39. Does . . . need encouragement and approval in order to work effectively?
40. Does . . . frequently use medication to aid in relaxation?
41. Does . . . stand up for his rights?
42. Does . . . have a wide variety of interests?
43. Does . . . like to let people know where he stands on issues?
44. Is . . . relatively free from worry and anxiety?
45. Does . . . like to have plenty to do?
46. Is . . . deeply concerned about the welfare of others?
47. Does . . . worry a great deal about health?
48. Is . . . self-confident in most undertakings?
49. Is . . . too soft-hearted to be a strict disciplinarian?
50. Does . . . tend to rely on others when there are decisions to be made?
51. Do many people consider . . . to be incapable of deep feeling?
52. Does . . . find it easy to give way to wishes of others?
53. Is . . . a sympathetic listener when someone needs to talk about himself?
54. Is . . . always trying to convert someone to a particular point of view?
55. Is . . . considered an industrious and tireless worker?
56. Does . . . have any nervous mannerisms such as nail-biting, foot-tapping, etc.?
57. Is . . . the kind of person to whom others turn in time of stress or trouble?
58. Does . . . find it difficult to follow a definite plan?
59. Does . . . insist on prompt obedience?
60. Does . . . believe that everyone is entitled to a second chance?
61. Does . . . get into difficulty occasionally because of some impulsive act?
62. Does . . . suffer from indigestion or loss of appetite when worried or under tension?
63. Is . . . easily taken advantage of by others?
64. Does . . . limit himself to one or two friends?
65. Does . . . find it difficult to relax because of a restless need to be constantly busy?
66. Is . . . easily tempted by a bargain?
67. Does . . . like to speak in public and enjoy the challenge of a debate?
68. Does . . . seek release from tension by excessive smoking, eating, or drinking?
69. Is . . . easily moved to pity?

70. Does . . . sleep well, and find it easy to relax when sitting or lying down?
71. Would . . . take a special interest in helping young people who are frequently in trouble?
72. Is . . . regarded as a "high-strung" person?
73. Is . . . quick to sense another person's feelings and moods?
74. Is . . . very emphatic and forceful in voice and manner?
75. Does . . . often have "the jitters" for no particular reason?
76. Does . . . prefer to read or watch television after a day's work, rather than go out or engage in social activities?
77. Does . . . make plans well in advance of the event and carry them out?
78. Does . . . prefer to listen and observe rather than take part in discussions?
79. Does . . . enjoy taking chances?
80. Does . . . get tense and anxious when there is much work to be done in a short time?
81. Does . . . think our nation concerns itself too much with the needs and suffering of people in other countries?
82. Does . . . enjoy activity and excitement?
83. Does . . . prepare a budget and make every effort to stay within it?
84. Would . . . do everything possible to protect an animal from neglect or cruelty?
85. Does . . . find it difficult to say "no" to a persuasive salesman?
86. Does . . . have little interest in other people's emotional problems?
87. Is . . . interested in people and in making new friends?
88. Is . . . considerate and understanding when dealing with an elderly person?
89. Would people refer to . . . as a person who is "always on the go"?
90. Does . . . think it unnecessary to apologize after hurting someone's feelings?
91. Is . . . able to express affection without embarrassment?
92. Is . . . apt to make thoughtless, unfeeling remarks?
93. Is . . . thought of as a warm-hearted, outgoing person?
94. Does . . . often feel left out or unwanted?
95. Does . . . have a place for everything and everything in its place?
96. Is . . . free from racial and religious prejudice?
97. Does . . . feel disillusioned about life?
98. Is . . . openly affectionate with members of the immediate family?
99. Does . . . sometimes become so emotional as to be unable to think or act logically?
100. Does . . . find it difficult to express tender feelings in words?
101. Is . . . hopeful and optimistic about the future?
102. Does . . . tend to analyze and dwell on inner thoughts and feelings?
103. Is . . . understanding when someone is late for an appointment?
104. Does . . . have phobias or a deeply disturbing fear of any object, place, or situation?
105. Does . . . tend to be reserved in manner?
106. Does anyone ever complain that . . . is "bossy" or unreasonable?

107. Do people sometimes accuse . . . of being illogical?
108. When . . . offers a suggestion, is it apt to be more helpful than critical?
109. Does . . . reach conclusions only after looking at all sides of a question?
110. Does . . . find any discussion of sexual matters difficult or embarrassing?
111. Does . . . have a quick temper?
112. Does . . . express appreciation and pleasure when looking at beautiful things?
113. Is . . . inclined to be argumentative?
114. Does . . . sometimes get the uncomfortable feeling of being stared at or talked about?
115. Does . . . like to stick to one job until it is finished?
116. Are there times when . . . feels discouraged or despondent over lack of progress or accomplishment?
117. Is . . . inclined to "tell people off"?
118. Does . . . feel that life is very much worth living?
119. Does . . . tend to be suspicious of people's motives and actions?
120. Is . . . apt to be too hasty in making decisions?
121. Does . . . find it difficult to be friendly and responsive in contacts with people?
122. Does . . . have a deep respect for all human beings?
123. Is . . . easily embarrassed?
124. Is . . . inclined to stop and think before acting?
125. Does . . . tend to be impatient with someone who is frequently ill?
126. Is . . . always working toward some future goal?
127. Is . . . bothered at times by feeling unappreciated or by the idea that "nobody cares"?
128. Does . . . readily show tenderness to children?
129. Is . . . apt to be sarcastic when annoyed with someone?
130. Does . . . often dwell on past misfortunes?
131. Is . . . apt to keep feelings "bottled up inside"?
132. Does . . . feel contempt for men who seem unable to make a living?
133. Is . . . very methodical about keeping records of personal and business affairs?
134. Is . . . likely to be jealous?
135. Is . . . often so low in spirit as to be close to tears?
136. Does . . . find it hard to accept criticism or blame?
137. Is . . . frequently depressed because of personal problems?
138. Does . . . speak with animation, enthusiasm, or frequent gestures?
139. When deeply disturbed about something, has . . . ever contemplated suicide?
140. Is . . . inclined to carry a grudge?
141. Does . . . have many friends and acquaintances?
142. Is . . . often troubled by a lack of self-confidence?
143. Does . . . find it difficult to express sympathy to someone in sorrow?
144. Is . . . logical in thinking and speaking?

145. Is . . . considered lenient and easy-going?
146. Is . . . easily disheartened by criticism?
147. Does . . . frequently tend to dominate those around him?
148. Does . . . feel a bit uncomfortable when expected to express enthusiasm over a gift?
149. Is . . . quick to forgive a mistake and overlook a discourtesy?
150. Is . . . a fair-minded, reasonable person?
151. Is . . . a talkative person?
152. Does . . . often have "the blues" or feel downhearted for no apparent reason?
153. Does . . . work methodically and deliberately?
154. Does . . . frequently misinterpret what others do and say?
155. Does . . . at times suffer extreme physical exhaustion resulting from emotional conflicts?
156. Is . . . overly critical of some member of the family?
157. Does . . . feel self-conscious with most people?
158. Does . . . often make such blunt, cutting comments that someone's feelings are hurt?
159. Does . . . smile or laugh a good deal?
160. In voting, does . . . study personalities and issues, sometimes supporting a candidate of another party?
161. Is . . . superior or overbearing in attitude toward others?
162. Is . . . thought of as being overly sensitive?
163. Does . . . feel free to discuss personal problems as well as joys with close friends?
164. Is . . . slow to complain when inconvenienced or imposed upon?
165. Is . . . inclined to daydream about things that can't come true?
166. Does . . . often decide to do things on the spur of the moment?
167. Does . . . find it difficult to get over an embarrassing situation?
168. Does . . . find it hard to break a habit such as smoking or overeating?
169. Does . . . often feel discouraged because of a sense of inferiority?
170. Is . . . inclined to be shy and withdrawn?
171. Does . . . have periods of idleness when it is difficult to find any reason for either physical or mental effort?
172. Does . . . maintain that most people are "out for all they can get"?
173. Does . . . avoid letting emotion influence sound judgment?
174. Does . . . find it difficult to be complimentary to members of the family?
175. Is . . . especially self-conscious and concerned about what others might think?
176. Does . . . often feel depressed by memories of childhood or other past experiences?
177. Does . . . 's interest often shift from one thing to another?
178. Does . . . feel restrained and inhibited in a love relationship?
179. If called upon, would . . . be fair and impartial in helping others to settle their differences?
180. Does . . . have periods of depression which last for several days or more without apparent reason?

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