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LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
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Marital Adjustment Over Segments
of the Family Life Cycle: The
Issue of Value Similarity

by James M. Medling

Thesis presented to the School of Graduate
Studies of the University of Ottawa as
partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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James M. Medling, Ottawa, Canada, 1979.

ABSTRACT

This report contains a review of the literature related to Byrne's (1971) attraction paradigm, Rokeach's (1973) theory of human values, and research in the area of macrolevel models of dyadic attraction and marital adjustment. A void in the literature was found in two areas: 1) the atheoretical nature of research within the latter area, 2) the lack of standardized instruments used in assessing adjustment and related variables. The present study was designed to investigate the area. An in vivo design was employed wherein the effect of two independent variables on marital adjustment were investigated. The two independent variables included: value similarity with two levels (high and low degree), and length of time married with 3 levels (1-12, 13-24, 25-50 years). A total of 172 couples voluntarily responded to a mail survey questionnaire packet which contained demographic inquiries, the Value Survey, and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

The major statistical analyses consisted of eighteen 2x3 analyses of variance. The results indicated that value similarity was a borderline or peripheral phenomenon as measured in the present study that accounted for a low percentage of the variance within marital adjustment. While a significant main effect for length of marriage was consistently demonstrated in each of the analyses, results are interpreted in light of the hazards cross sectional sampling.

Post hoc comparisons between high and low value similarity groups yielded a significant value similarity effect upon marital adjustment in the third level, (25-50 years) of marriage. The results are discussed in light of the changes that occur in the relationship during this phase which places more salience upon values and upon the effects of belief similarity.

A discriminant function analysis showed a complex of both terminal and instrumental values to be the best discriminating value variables between high and low levels of adjustment. Correlation coefficients between demographic indices tended to confirm the efforts of past research.

The results are discussed in terms of the issue of spouse value similarity and the number of years married on marital adjustment. The discussion's focus is upon the limitation of the cross section design, the theoretical foundation, the sampling method, and research tool in accounting for the results. Conclusions and directions for future research are also included.

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CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of marital adjustment holds a prominent place in the study of marriage and family relations. Research appears abundant as Spanier and Cole (1976) have cited over 150 empirical studies and 300 articles since 1950 in which adjustment or a related concept has been the focus. Unfortunately, progress within the field has been uneven and has not followed in a chronological fashion. This appears to be due chiefly to the atheoretical nature of an overwhelming majority of the studies (Klein, 1969), and the lack of standardized instruments employed by social scientists. While critics such as Lively (1969) have suggested a resultant abandonment of the use of this term, it is evident that his advice has not been heeded since a multitude of studies have been published since his argument appeared. Instead, Hicks and Platt (1970), Murstein (1976), and Spanier and Cole (1976) have called for the clear continuing need to ground research in theory, to operationalize constructs, and to employ standardized instruments in assessing the quality of adjustment in marital relationships.

Historically, research within the field has amassed a seemingly endless list of demographic, social and personality variables suggested as possibly important for marital happiness and/or adjustment (Hicks & Platt, 1970). In addition to obtaining a measure of these variables on a single occasion, research strategies have also employed cross sectional and longitudinal designs in an assessment of the family life cycle. During the past few years theorists of marital adjustment have addressed the issue of an individual's value system (Klemer & Smith, 1975; McCary, 1975) and the importance of value harmony

in marital success (Fishbein, 1963). Despite this attention little work has actually been done in the area of value consensus and marital adjustment. Murstein (1976) also notes this area too, suffers from both theoretical and methodological deficits.

The present study seeks to address the concept of marital adjustment over segments of the family life cycle with specific reference to the issue of value similarity. This study also seeks to address the theoretical and methodological deficits identified within the field. The work of Milton Rokeach and Donn Byrne will be utilized to accomplish this task. Briefly, Rokeach's Theory of Human Values is comprehensive and appears as a good fit, both theoretically and methodologically, within Donn Byrne's Reinforcement-Affect Model of Interpersonal Attraction. Moreover the present study serves to extend the work of both theories when viewed within the context of marital relations. Finally, advances made through the use of factor analytic techniques have been realized in assessing marital adjustment. Thus the work of Graham Spanier is seen to provide a needed element of sophistication to the field.

Chapter one consists of a review of the literature regarding marital adjustment, as a subcategory of the larger study of interpersonal attraction. Attraction theories and research strategies are outlined and then examined before an examination of the role of values and value harmony in relationships is undertaken. The chapter ends with an integration, formal statement of the problem and hypotheses of the present study.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Conceptually, the area of marital adjustment may be subsumed within the study of interpersonal attraction. The study of attraction can be analyzed in terms of three significant facets: (a) the degree of relationship between the people involved; (b) whether measurement of the dependent variable is made on one or on two or more occasions and (c) whether the study is concerned with the antecedents, the consequences or the correlates of attraction (Huston, 1974). A 2x2 matrix follows as a result of facets (a) and (b) (as (c) is incorporated in the total system) with two levels of relationship (strangers versus established pairs) and two types of designs (single occasion versus longitudinal measurement).. A combination of the factors generates four research prototypes: strangers-single occasion of measurement, strangers-longitudinal measurement, established pairs-single occasion of measurement and established pairs-longitudinal measurement.

The crux of the present design lies within the design: established pairs-single occasion of measurement. However it is important to note that there is no clearcut demarcation separating the four prototypes in terms of theory or method employed. All appear conjoined and possess a communality within the study of interpersonal attraction. This overlap will become evident in our investigation of value similarity research as well as with the work of Byrne.

The chapter structure will proceed with an examination of two major approaches to the study of interpersonal attraction, (i.e., the cognitive and reinforcement models). This review will cover the foundation of balance theory,

exchange theory and a reinforcement-affect theory of attraction. Based upon this foundation relevant research regarding the area of marital adjustment will be reviewed and critiqued. From this point several macro level models of dyadic attraction will be covered. As a group they highlight the importance of values and value similarity as a salient facet of interpersonal attraction. A critique of this area will demonstrate the need for a more comprehensive theory of values as our attention shifts to the work of Rokeach (1973). Finally the area of marital adjustment is viewed from three vantage points (the institutional marriage, the companionship marriage and marital adjustment over time) before an integration of the literature is put forth and hypotheses stated.

Interpersonal Attraction

Major theoretical models concerning interpersonal attraction may be broadly classed as (a) cognitive and (b) reinforcement theories.

A. Cognitive Theories

Heider's Balance Theory (1958) laid the basic foundation for cognitive theorists (Ableson et al., 1968; Cartwright & Harary, 1956; Feather, 1961; Newcomb, 1961, 1963). His theory postulates a basic "need" for consistency (balance), as inconsistency (strain), in either attitude or behavior produces a state of psychological tension or stress which an individual seeks to reduce.

Interpersonal behavior involves a closed triadic system comprised of two individuals-person and other (P and O) - and an object (X) of communication. The basic unit of such a system is the cognition, which refers to any belief,

or opinion held by an individual. A triadic set is formed by P's perception of O's attitude toward X. A balanced state can occur in two situations: a) P likes O, and P and O agree concerning their attitude toward X, and b) P dislikes O, and P and O disagree concerning X. Inconsistency producing strain arises when P likes O, and P and O disagree about X. Attraction is positively related to similarity of attitudes concerning X as a by-product of attempts to maintain or to restore cognitive balance.

Heider has done little empirical research investigating his model. However Newcomb and others have been involved in expanding, refining and testing Heider's postulates. For example, Newcomb considers the perceptions of both P and O in predicting balance or imbalance, calculated upon the "degree of strain" between the subjects perceptions. Strain is considered to be a basic force which has drive like qualities motivating a dyad toward symmetry. Cartwright, Feathers, and Ableson have also offered their own reformulation of Heider's postulates in hopes of making the balance model more quantifiable. These theories have generated tests of the model which have tended to support the presuppositions of the theory (Jordan, 1953; Burdick & Burnes, 1958; Horowitz et al., 1951; Gerard, 1967). However the majority of these studies have been carried out in simple, restricted and artificial contexts (Kiesler, 1969; Murstein, 1970). Researchers have subsequently been made aware of the increasing number of exceptions and complications that arise in interactions between individuals. As a result, the theories' simplicity has become a major weakness.

In addition, critics are quick to attack the sheer number of balance theories, all of which are viewed as theoretically insufficient. The various theories lack precision and have a conceptual looseness in defining constructs.

No provisions are made for varying intensity of feelings or degrees of balance, (for example, liking and loving). Predictions remain unclear as the complexities of individual cases and states of imbalance are overlooked. The role of the self concept is scarcely considered, nor is the concept of ambivalence, as an interpersonal variable. The value of the theory lies in some of its basic tenets, and the fact that it has served to generate research regarding cognition and cognitive consistency. Unfortunately, the initial appeal of the theory, in terms of its simplicity, brevity and parsimony, has proved to be the grounds from which critics (Kiesler, 1969; Murstein, 1970) have called for its abandonment.

More recently Anderson (1971) has proposed a cognitively oriented theory of Information Integration. He holds that attraction is governed by the meaning of informational stimuli, (e.g., similarity of attitudes), that bears upon judgement in the form of a weighted mathematical model of impression formation. Here each informational unit has a scale value (s) and a weight (w) that indicates the psychological importance of the information. Anderson's model indicates attraction is equal to a constant plus the sum of the products of w and s for each stimulus. This formulation by Anderson (1971) has led to an interesting interchange with Byrne and his colleagues (Byrne, Clore, Griffith, Lamberth, & Mitchell, 1973) that will be explored later.

B. Reinforcement Theory

The reinforcement hypothesis is viewed in terms of two major approaches: Exchange theory and Reinforcement-affect theory.

1. Exchange Theory

Exchange theorists take a hedonistic position regarding attraction and human behavior. The position postulates that social transactions are regulated by the individual's desire to derive maximum pleasure and minimum pain from others. More formally stated, exchange theory holds that individuals are most attracted to persons who provide the highest ratio of rewards to costs in transactions (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961; Levinger, 1976; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

Exchange theory views interpersonal relations in terms of the participants profit, cost, reward, losses and outcomes (Burr, 1973). Simply stated, any behavior on the part of a person which provides a measure of need satisfaction to another is said to be rewarding for the latter person. On the debit side of the ledger are costs. These are unpleasant consequences which behavior may bring about. To determine the worth of an activity, the cost must be subtracted from the reward to yield the outcome. If the reward is greater than the cost, the outcome is said to yield a profit. If the reward is outweighed by the cost it is said to yield a loss (Mustein, 1970).

Attraction is dependent on the degree to which the profit is above a minimum level of expectation called a comparison level. This level is dependent upon past experience, assessment of the current set and the general adaptation level of the individual at the present moment. By comparing his outcome against his comparison level, a person decides to what degree he is satisfied or dissatisfied with a transaction. However, dissatisfaction is not invariably equivalent to a lack of attraction, as attraction also depends on the alternatives to the present situation. Hence satisfaction is a relative variable

dependent upon an individual's comparison level regarding a situation and the strength of his alternatives. Exchange theory holds that the strongest interpersonal attraction occurs between individuals with equal rewarding power, even if the factors involved in the rewards are different for the partners. In this context it should be noted that the role of similarity is one of consensual validation. It is held that people of similar character tend to congregate together. Similar backgrounds, experiences, etc., provide consensual validation that the individual is right in adhering to his particular attitudes or modes of conduct.

Broderick (1971), Huston (1974), and Murstein (1970) have critiqued the conceptual and methodological difficulties within the theory. They state that exchange theory requires a strong foundation of information regarding rewards and costs of various dimensions of social transactions. While the framework can prove most useful when it can pinpoint in advance the course of interactions and reward-cost estimates, attraction research has generally failed in this respect. Instead, research typically begins with an assumption about the rewards and costs of two or more situations; then, if the situations induce differences in attraction, they are assumed to differ in reward value. Research has shown similarity in personality, social backgrounds and attitudes all lead to attraction and hence are presumed to be rewarding. Yet little research has been directed toward determining the conditions under which these conditions occur. In the case of contradictory results, theorists have generally examined unintended differences between studies in reconciling discrepancies. As a result, Huston (1974) cites Byrne's (1971) paradigm as an

example of the knowledge that can be gained by means of systematic investigation of variations in the reward quality of social stimuli and interpersonal events.

a. Exchange theory and marital adjustment. Despite the criticisms exchange theory has received it has been one of the most evident theories of the 1960's. And many of its principles have been applied to the process of courtship, family development and marital adjustment. Viewed under the rubric of the Structural-Interactionist school of thought, research within the latter area has made up a good deal of the marital happiness and stability literature conducted over the past 18 to 20 years.

This area of study has focused upon: the congruence of role perceptions (Katz, 1963; Kotlar, 1965; Luckey, 1960; Stuckert, 1963; Taylor, 1967) as well as the compatibility between role expectations-evaluations and performance (Aller, 1962; Axelson, 1963; Cutler & Dyer, 1965; Hurvitz, 1965; Levinger, 1964, 1965, 1966; Murstein & Beck, 1972; Orden & Bradburn, 1969; Westely & Epstein, 1960). General findings ^{have} supported the homogamy assumption that there exists a positive relation between adjustment and higher occupational status, incomes and educational levels, as well as with husband and wife similarities in SES, age and religion.

One interesting finding concerned the importance of the males instrumental role in determining increased adjustment. Regarding the congruence of role expectations: the husband's expectations and role concepts and the wife's perception of these were found to be important aspect leading to adjustment. No significance was found for husbands' perceptions of their wives.

In summary the theory has stimulated a good deal of thought and research. The assumptions of homogamy theory have generally been supported, as well as advanced, in the consideration of marital adjustment. Congruence of role expectations, perceptions and performance does appear to play a role in adjustment. Yet critics (Huston, 1974; Murstein, 1976) have demonstrated the need for more rigor and operationalization in defining constructs. This also applies to the adjustment research reviewed in which conceptualizations and standardization of measurement represented a flaw within the approach. Murstein (1970) holds that future research in the area should restrict itself to certain specific types of interactions (employing an even finer gauge than the term marital adjustment) or begin to treat in a more adequate fashion the complexities of human behavior and interaction.

2. Reinforcement-Affect Theory

The reinforcement-affect theory is a conception of interpersonal attraction that stresses the role of affect and conditioning in the development of liking between people. Byrne (1961, 1971) employs a classical conditioning model which borrows salient features from the Hull-Spence learning paradigm and the work of Lott and Lott (1960).

Attitude similarity is proposed as a special case of the relationship between reinforcing stimuli and evaluative responses. The model holds that attitude statements, which express similar or dissimilar views, constitute positive and negative reinforcing stimuli, respectively. Byrne posits that any stimulus with reinforcing properties functions as an unconditional stimulus for an implicit affective response (see Figure 1). Affect in this case is assumed to fall

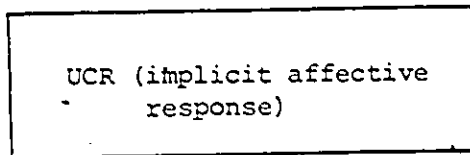
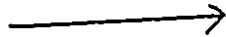
Figure 1

Evaluative Responses as a Function of Reinforcing Stimuli Associated
with a Conditioned Stimulus.

UCS (reinforcing stimulus)



CS (discriminable stimulus)



UCR (implicit affective response)



Evaluative Response

along a continuum of pleasant to unpleasant. A stimulus such as attitude similarity can be labelled as a reinforcer if it increases or decreases the probability of the occurrence of a response with which it is paired. In so doing, reinforcing properties of a stimulus are defined in terms of the empirical law of effect. Furthermore any discriminable stimuli, such as a person, associated with such unconditioned stimuli becomes a conditioned stimulus which elicits the implicit affective response. Byrne postulates that these implicit responses mediate verbal assessments, approach-avoidance behavior, choices and preferences. Hence the evaluation of others, in our case attraction, is a function of these stimuli with various reinforcements as the implicit affective response mediates the relation between the CS and the evaluative response (Byrne, 1971; Clore & Byrne, 1974; Byrne & Griffit, 1973; Murstein, 1970).

An additional facet of Byrne's model involves the concept of consensual validation. Attraction theorists (Heider, 1958; Newcomb, 1961; Byrne, 1971; Byrne & Clore, 1967) agree that attitude similarity functions within what is termed the effectance motive. This motive is a learned drive to be logical, to interpret the environment correctly, and to be functionally effective in predicting events. Regarding the physical world, the effectiveness of one's system of beliefs is seen in terms of direct perceptual evidence of sensory stimuli. However in man's social world this drive is satisfied through consensual validation-by learning that others hold similar beliefs, values and attitudes. Attitude similarity between individuals provides consensual validation for one's own beliefs, (values and attitudes) as others become rewarding to us and become associated with our good feeling, hence, we like them. Attitude dissimilarity provides one with consensual invalidation and fails to satisfy

this need, Hence, some individuals are experiences as frustrating. It is in this way that attitude similarity or dissimilarity, in relation to ones own beliefs are related to subsequent evaluations of others.

Byrne's approach has employed the "similar stranger" design, appears functional and widely used by social scientists. Huston (1974) cites this type of measurement as accounting for over 80% of the research findings about attraction. Results have supported a linear relation between attraction and attitude similarity throughout the research. Byrne posits that attraction

is a linear function of the proportion of similar attitudes expressed.

Byrne's theory has been criticized (Murstein, 1970; Anderson, 1971, Levinger & Snoek, 1972; Taylor, 1970) on a number of grounds. The most common criticism is based upon the laboratory nature of the design and the strength of the generalizability or applicability of the model in the "real world." A second criticism stems from Byrne's law of attraction, as a positive linear function of the proportion of positive reinforcements. Here attraction has been called too comprehensive a term. Others cite the use of the term reinforcement as being null in void because attitude similarity arouses expectancies, despite the fact that the concept of expectancies fits easily within the reinforcement framework.

Finally Anderson (1971) and Kaplan and Anderson (1973) critique Byrne's conceptualizations of stimuli as reinforcers. Anderson holds attraction is governed by the meaning of the stimuli in evaluational data leading to impression formation in social situations. He posits we like people not because the information leads to an unconditioned stimulus, but because it leads us to

expect he has positive aspects to his personality. Finally Anderson feels Byrne's model has serious shortcomings in terms of these basic structural flaws, that his model is inappropriate in handling many experimental issues now under consideration, and that the paradigm stands at a rudimentary level with limited applicability.

In what has become an almost amusing dialogue between the two camps, Byrne and his associates have taken a more global-integrative and philosophical position in response to Anderson's charges. Byrne notes the progress made and the limitations of his findings within the confines of the paradigm. Yet he urges for approaches to be integrated systematically. Byrne states genuine advances will follow from a testing and reformulation of hypotheses, not from intellectual arguments attempting to negate the theory itself. Along these lines Byrne formulates that the direction of future research is crucial. Byrne himself has extended his work onto the decision making process (Golightly, Huffman & Byrne, 1972; Mitchell & Byrne, 1970), compatibility in dating and marriage (Byrne, Ervin & Lamberth, 1970), affective determinants of behavior (Griffith & Veitch, 1971) and task performance (Nelson & Meadow, 1971). Furthermore Byrne has urged his model to be taken out of the laboratory and for researchers to begin to substitute alternative constructs for the use of attitude similarity in experimental designs (Byrne, 1971).

a. Reinforcement-affect theory and marital adjustment. A number of researchers have worked to extend Byrne's principles to other areas. These include marital adjustment, dating relationships, judgements about the performance and aptitude of others and studies relating to the legal process. Due to the nature of the present design, this review will only focus upon those studies related to marital adjustment.

Research from a number of studies (Cattell & Nesselroade, 1967; Pickford, Signori & Remple, 1967; Signori, Remple & Pickford, 1968) have assessed the relation of similar or dissimilar personality traits as a factor in marital happiness. Results of these studies have corroborated the assumption that marital happiness is related to similarity of traits and dissimilarity is related to unhappiness.

An interesting finding in the Cattell and Nesselroade (1967) study demonstrated that these results are not necessarily incompatible with the theory of complementary needs. The authors correlated three principles of personality (likeness, complementary needs and dynamic adjustment) with instability. Subjects included 102 'stable' and 37 'unstable' (separated or engaged in counselling) couples who received the 16 PF. Instability was associated with large differences in outgoingness, enthusiasm, sensitivity and drive. Stability was facilitated by differences in dominance, emotional stability, imagery, social boldness and guilt proneness. Although there is some question as to the representativeness and subsequent partitioning of the population, the results highlight the importance of similar traits and adjustment.

In addition to correlational studies, Byrne and Blaylock (1963) and Levinger and Breedlove (1966) found that assumed similarity varies directly with the marital relation. Byrne and Blaylock had 36 married couples, at the University of Texas, complete the Rokeach (1960) Opinionation Scale twice, once for themselves and once as they assumed their spouse would answer. They hypothesized that the number and intensity of rewards exchanged by a couple, through consensual validation, would be greater than the number and intensity of reciprocal

punishments. Husband and wife correlations were obtained for assumed similarity between couples. They concluded that similar beliefs, in this case political, were rewarding and there is a tendency to distort actual similarity to greater similarity. Hence, rewards are increased through misperceptions.

Levinger and Breedlove (1966) employed a student population to corroborate the trend of assumed similarity and adjustment. Sixty couples, 24 of whom were engaged in marital counselling, and 36 of whom were obtained through an elementary school, comprised the sample. Separate interviews assessed attitudes toward family life for each spouse and how they assumed their mate would respond on 9 marital goals and 11 marital communication topics. Marital satisfaction was derived from a composite score on 15 of these indicies. Results concluded that a positive relationship exists between assumed similarity and marital satisfaction.

Major flaws within both designs center around the population and measures employed to test the hypotheses. Both samples are relatively small and little information is provided to adequately determine their representativeness. Secondly, the measures employed are called into question regarding their level of sophistication, reliability and validity in assessing and generalizing from the data. Nonetheless the studies do represent early attempts at quantifying an area that poses a good deal of difficulty for researchers. Perhaps their most laudible feature lies in the direction they provide for future research.

In another attempt at assessing the importance of the attraction principle in husbands and wives, Byrne, Ervin and Lamberth (1970) focused upon the similarity of sexual responses in couples. Forty two couples at Purdue University

were exposed, singly, to a variety of erotic stimuli on 19 different themes through visual and imaginary modes. Results showed significant high correlations between husband and wife when compared to the average correlations of 41 random couple pairings. Those who marry showed greater than chance similarity in positive and negative responses to erotic stimuli, their evaluation judgements about the stimuli and the effect of the stimuli in subsequent behaviors.

Finally, Kindelan (1978) in a simulated design tested Byrne's paradigm with 447 undergraduates at the University of Ottawa. Students were given packets containing varying value similarity rankings of bogus couples on the Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973), as they were asked to rate the couples level of adjustment. A significant effect was obtained for the degree of value similarity and marital adjustment. While Kindelan also hypothesized a significant difference between value type on the Value Survey between terminal and instrumental values, no difference was found.

C. Macrolevel Models of Dyadic Attraction

During the past decade a number of macrolevel models of dyadic attraction have been proposed. The scope and focus of these theories (Coombs, 1961, 1962, 1966; Kerckhoff, 1972; Kerckhoff & Davis, 1962; Murstein, 1970, 1976) has been to explicate the process by which people sort out partners as potential mates. Process-filter and value models of mate selection either explicitly or implicitly tie relationship development to the strength of affective bonds between

couples. Levinger and Snoek (1972) have noted the speculative nature of these positions due to the fact that the study of attraction and the link between attraction and interaction has not been given systematic attention, as in the case of Byrne. Yet their contribution is significant in that an individual's values and value congruence between couples has been found to play an integral role in attraction.

1. Value theory

Coombs' (1961) value theory of mate selection is a sociological position which stresses the importance of homogamy. Values are held by Coombs to be criteria by which goals are chosen. They are modes of organizing conduct that arise in any situation when an object is invested with our preferential interest as being good, bad, or desirable. Value congruence is a salient facet of this position. Value congruence, when in the form of social validation, satisfies an individual's basic need for security, provides a feeling of competence and aids in the definition and reinforcement of one's self concept. Hence acceptance of one's values implies one is accepted, and this promotes attraction (Coombs, 1961).

Murstein and Lamb (1971) in support of this last supposition found that of some 20 correlates of liking, the most potent correlation of liking another was the belief that one was, in turn, liked by that person. Perceiving another has the same values may lead to the conclusion that the other would like us, as well as to the satisfaction of having our values confirmed.

a. Research on value consensus. In addition a number of researchers have examined the issue of value consensus. Their results have revealed the complexity of this phenomenon.

Benson (1955) examined the commonality of interests between engaged and married couples. He concluded that engagement success and marital adjustment were not significantly related to the number of shared interests. However, he did find a significant but slight correlation ($r = .2$) between belief regarding the number of interests in common and engagement success. At this point he categorized interests into 'familialistic', 'undefined', and 'individualistic' and found familialistic to be the one strongly correlated with success. He concluded that value consensus may be a phenomena that is related to the type and nature of the relationship.

Value consensus was found not to be distributed equally across various social classes in two separate studies. Dentler and Hutchinson (1961) divided families into three classes: professional-executive, lower-managerial-clerk-sales, and skilled-service workers. They found value consensus decreased linearly from the professional to service groups. Kerckhoff (1972) obtained similar results in a population of recently married young people. He concluded that individual selection for value consensus, as opposed to class selection, becomes more and more important in the higher classes, although at the same time class value consensus also improves from lower to upper classes.

Walster and Walster (1963) addressed the need for similarity. Their results supported their hypothesis as they reasoned that a primary factor making people want to associate with those similar to themselves was the fear that they might not be liked if they associated with persons who were dissimilar. To test the hypothesis they divided subjects into two groups. Group 1 was informed that it was important to talk to people at a social gathering who liked them. They found subjects choose more often to interact with similar

rather than dissimilar people. A second group, assured everyone would like them, appeared more willing to associate with dissimilar people when compared to the subjects in group 1.

In a related study Goldstein and Rosenfeld (1969) measured subjects on a scale of security. They found those less secure preferred more similar subjects to associate with than did more secure subjects.

A critique reveals the initial attempts of researchers to investigate a complicated facet of human life with the tools currently at their disposal. The studies themselves lack precision in control technique, operationalization and measurement standardization. Nonetheless, their efforts must be viewed within the history and context of value research. In this light it appears that value homogamy is important but not all inclusive in accounting for attraction. It appears most influential in the higher social classes when there exists a direct correspondence between values and the nature of the relationship. Finally, personality factors also play a role in the desire for value consensus in terms of an individual's need for acceptance or security.

b. Value consensus and marital choice. In addition to the foregoing research, social scientists have also addressed the issue of value consensus in its relation to marital choice.

In a study designed to test his theory, Coombs (1966) computer matched college students on date preference with respect to five items: campus popularity, fraternity membership, good looks, stylish clothes and dancing ability. Subjects were divided into three groups of similar, moderate and dissimilar matchings and sent out on a date. A post date interview inquired as to the

subjects' satisfaction and ease of communication with their partners. Satisfaction data correlated with value consensus for female subjects significantly at $p < .01$ with $r = .17$, while males were non significant at $r = .07$. Communication was significant for both females and males at ($p < .01$) with correlations of $r = .16$ and $r = .13$, respectively. As a result Coombs found only a trend, in the expected direction between value orientation and satisfaction.

The study on first inspection appears flawed and almost superfluous, given his matching criteria and treatment methods. Barry (1970) criticizes the already established homogamy ^{of the sample} and Murstein (1976) notes that the role value consensus plays was probably understated by the results.

Schellengerger and Bee (1960) used 36 premarried and 64 married couples in an administration of Allport, Vernon and Lindzey's Study of Values. The test measures the relative emphasis regarding six values: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religion. To serve as a control, Schellenberger created an artificial group of 67 couples by matching homogamous background variables. A score of 100 represents chance value convergence on the test. Results showed the control groups mean was 115.3 ($p < .01$). The means for the premarital and marital groups was 132 and 134.5, significant ($p < .01$) when compared to the control. The study concludes with the importance of value consensus as a factor in relationships.

Employing the same dependent measure, Hutton (1974) tested 54 dating or engaged couples. He found significant correlations between partners on four of the six values. Rich (1973) tested Farbers Index of Marital Integration (1957) and Morris' (1956) "Ways to Live" test on engaged couples and randomly

paired students. His results confirmed the conclusions postulated by Schellenberger and Hutton. Rich found actual couples were more homogamous than students on most preferred and least preferred values, with middle range values showing no difference between groups.

In sum, the studies within this section demonstrate the current "state of the art" regarding value research and marriage. On the whole, studies appear as early attempts to investigate a complex phenomena. Trends have been realized in that values do seem to play a role in bringing people together so they can interact. At this point critics (Burr, 1973; Murstein, 1976) call for a more profound, comprehensive scale of values. Coombs' homemade items, Farber's Index and the Study of Values have been useful but they appear too brief, and riddled with social desirability.

2. Stimulus - Value - Role Theory

Murstein's (1970, 1976) stimulus-value-role theory (SVR) is a general model of the development of dyadic relationships. It is a complex model that Murstein (1976) himself has characterized as an exchange-process-filter theory. As such he has selectively chosen, extended, amended and extrapolated upon salient features of theories considered heretofore in the construction of his own model.

Murstein posits three variables that can influence the course of a relationship: they include, 1) stimulus categories, such as physical attractiveness, voice, poise and status. 2) Value categories such as interests, attitudes and beliefs. 3) Role categories such as needs, expectations, and perceptions of behavior. While all variables operate throughout a relationship

they appear to be maximally influential within the early stages of the relationship. Murstein's chief concern is the degree to which his theory explains marital choice. And it is at this point that it deviates from the study of attraction per se. Nonetheless, Murstein has attempted to conjoin three variables of attraction into an integrated system. For our purposes it is important to note his emphasis upon values and value comparison in the enhancement and promotion of a relationship.

In a test of the value comparison stage of SVR theory Murstein (1967, 1971, 1972) found partial confirmation for his model. Murstein collected his data between 1964 to 1969 and subjects were studied in three groups.

Results obtained from groups 1 and 2 supported the hypothesis that individuals considering marriage tend to show greater than chance similarity with regard to their hierarchy of values concerning marriage. Unfortunately the results of group 3, designed to replicate his earlier findings, proved to be less supportive. In this case correlations between the values of actual couples and randomized pairings of men and women showed no significance and a trend in the opposite direction.

In accounting for this partial confirmation Murstein focuses his discussion upon the adequacy of his measurement tool, The Marriage Value Inventory, as an appropriate measure of value homogamy. In this context he cites the work of Rokeach (1973) as a possible alternative in the study of values in marriage. Other factors also involved the cultural-population variables influencing the cross sectional differences between groups 1 and 3. This difference was also postulated to influence the results of the Levinger, Senn and Jorgenson (1970) attempted replication of the Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) study.

D. Summary

The initial section of this review has focused upon the major trends which have evolved in the study of interpersonal attraction. This has included an examination of cognitive and reinforcement theories and several macrolevel models of dyadic attraction.

An examination of the cognitive approach, via balance theory, has demonstrated an appealing yet insufficient model in accounting for the complexities of human interaction. Balance theory is a phenomenological approach whose focus is upon the perception of a subject within a closed triadic system of other and object. The theories' assumptions are stated simply and heuristically, hence its initial appeal. Alternative models, to the basic notions of Heider, have been offered to help quantify the approach. Unfortunately, this attempt at reformulation, through theory and method has come under wide attack by critics. As a result its intuitive appeal and simplicity has become its greatest weakness in its test of tenets and its applicability.

Reinforcement theory was covered in the form of exchange theory and reinforcement-affect theory. Each appear to be more rigorous than the balance model, yet each are hampered by theoretical difficulties. Exchange theory provides a hedonistic view of man, while the reinforcement-affect model offers a social learning view of attraction. Both have generated a good deal of thought and research, and herein lies their chief contribution. Exchange theory principles have been applied to married couples in assessing satisfaction and/or adjustment. Results have shown the importance of role performance, expectations and

perceptions upon adjustment. Byrne's model has also focused upon couples, but to a much lesser extent. When it has, results have supported his postulate that there exists a positive linear relationship between the proportion of similar attitudes and attraction. This maxim is the corner stone of this theory and has been overwhelmingly supported in two decades of research using the similar stranger design. Furthermore, Huston (1974) has cited Byrne's paradigm as an excellent example of the type of knowledge that can be gained through a detailed and systematic study of attraction.

Dyadic models of attraction have generally addressed the development of a relationship and the importance of value consensus in that context. They are typically models of mate selection which tie relationship development to the strength of affective bonds between couples. They are more speculative than definitive due to the fact that attraction is linked to interaction and not given systematic attention. The review covered value theory and SVR theory.

A review of the literature concludes that an individual's values and value consensus between couples appear to be significant factors in the development and maintenance of a relationship. Values are seen to vary between social classes and influenced by personal needs. Admittedly, these conclusions could be construed as merely confirming common sense notions regarding interpersonal attraction. However it is important to acknowledge the relative merits of the studies reviewed, given the current level of theory construction and research tools at the disposal of social scientists. Although elementary, these designs stand as a first phase in helping to broaden our understanding of attraction and interpersonal relations.

Critics of these theories have shown the need for a more comprehensive theory of values (Burr, 1973; Murstein, 1976) in assessing its effect upon a relationship. Furthermore, Murstein adds that the work of Rokeach may make a significant contribution to this field. Hence the present review now turns its attention to Rokeach's (1973) theory of human values, as the basic theoretical and research evidence is examined. Following this, marital adjustment literature will be explored and an integration section will conjoin the work of Rokeach with Byrne's attraction paradigm, thus making possible the use of value similarity in the study of attraction in married couples.

Human Values

A. Rokeach's Theory of Human Values

During the past two decades a number of different theorists, working along a variety of perspectives, have put forth theories on human values. Included are the works of Allport, Vernon and Lindzey (1960), Kluckhohn (1951), Maslow (1959, 1964), Rokeach (1973), Smith (1969), and Williams (1968). Of these theories, the work of Rokeach (1973) appears to be the most comprehensive in scope and provides the best empirical test of its tenets. It is for these reasons that this work will be employed to address the issue of values and value similarity in marriage.

Rokeach defines a value as an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence (Rokeach, 1973). In an earlier

work Rokeach (1968) has distinguished three types of belief. Beliefs may be descriptive or existential (i.e., true or false); evaluative or proscriptive (i.e., good or bad); or prescriptive (i.e., where a means or end of action is judged to be desirable or undesirable). Rokeach considers a value to be a belief of the prescriptive type. Here he corroborates Allport (1961) position that a value is a belief upon which man acts.

Values represent modes of conduct, and as such possess a cognitive, affective and behavioral component. Previous theorists (Allport et al., 1960; Maslow, 1959; Smith, 1969) have focused upon certain values as end states of existence. Rokeach (1973) goes one step further by postulating the existence of two types of values: terminal and instrumental values. As in previous writings, terminal values are seen to represent end states of existence. They may hold either personal or social, intrapersonal or interpersonal investments respectively, for the person. In contrast, instrumental values represent modes of behavior. Again one finds two instrumental subtypes as these values may have an interpersonal and moral focus, or an intrapersonal and competence-self actualization focus.

At this point it is important to distinguish the concept of value and attitude. Rokeach (1968) refers to an attitude as an organization of several beliefs around a specific object or situation. A value refers to a single belief of a different and specific kind. Values are in fact determinants of attitudes as they possess a motivational and integrative function, whereas attitudes function only inferentially in this aspect. As a result, values concern desirable modes of conduct and are seen to guide judgements, actions and attitudes. Finally Allport (1961), Rokeach (1973), Watson (1966), and Woodruff (1942)

concur that values occupy a more central position than attitudes in an individual's cognitive system and personality integration.

Viewed from this perspective values are hierarchically organized to form a single, functionally interconnected belief system. The relativity of this hierarchy enables one to define change through a reordering of priorities, as it promotes the relative stability of one's total belief system over time. Within an individual's belief system terminal values are held to be more central than instrumental values and instrumental values are more central than attitudes. Values and attitudes are organized around one's self or self concept, i.e., beliefs which stand as cognitions about oneself. Such cognitions run the gamut from sexual and role identities to one's physical image, conscious and unconscious thoughts and fantasies, etc, and may be positive or negative. These cognitions go to make up the heart of the total belief system for an individual. Rokeach postulates ten subsystems of the total belief system which aid the individual in perceiving and relating to the environment and others. All the subsystems are functionally interconnected and insure the maintenance and enhancement of one's total self concept.

Rokeach (1973) has identified 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values and has provided an instrument, the Value Survey which can measure the order and changes within an individual's value system. The Value Survey is composed of two parts: 1) 18 terminal values are listed in alphabetical order and the subject is instructed to rank these in order of importance, and 2) 18 instrumental values are listed and the same instructions are applied. Rokeach (1973) reports a test-retest reliability (utilizing Form D, with a college population) of

.78 (terminal values) and .72 (instrumental values) over a three week interval, and .69 (terminal values) and .61 (instrumental values) over a 14 to 16 month interval. Rokeach also notes some wide individual differences in value system stability to exist, the determinants of which are enigmatic. The validity of the Value Survey was presented in terms of discriminant and convergent validity. Rokeach (1973) offers evidence that his measure demonstrates certain values are differentially related to behavior and attitudes, while other values are not (discriminant validity), and certain values are related to certain behaviors and attitudes (convergent validity).

In a test of Rokeach's theory, Sikula (1970) employed the Value Survey within an interpersonal conflict design. The Value Survey was administered to 50 pairs of roommates who got along well and 50 pairs who stopped being roommates due to conflict. Sikula found that the means correlations on terminal values for compatible and incompatible roommates was ($r = .41$, and $.26$), respectively. These values differ significantly at ($p < .01$). Instrumental values were non-significant between groups at a mean of ($r = .21$) for compatibles and ($r = .16$) for incompatible roommates. In a more qualitative look at the profiles Sikula found trends regarding the values 'an exciting life', 'mature love', and 'wisdom' for compatibles in contrast to 'social recognition' for incompatibles.

Shotland (1968) employed an earlier version of the Value Survey at the counselling center of Michigan State University. He compared the correlations of therapist's values with those clients who continued and discontinued counselling after the first interview. Clients who continued counselling showed a

correlation of ($r = .60$) with the therapist's values as opposed to a correlation of ($r = .37$) for the discontinuing group with the therapist's values. While this difference is significant, it is unclear whether Sikula's hypothesis was adequately tested, i.e., whether similarity is a crucial issue after one session, or whether it was simply a function of the clients values. As with the Sikula study, Shotland found no significance in instrumental values between groups.

Despite the problems encountered with Shotland's study and the range of adjustment-personality factors untapped by both researchers the studies appear as initial steps in testing-evaluating-advancing Rokeach's theory. Based upon the data Rokeach points to the importance of terminal values on interpersonal interaction.

Formal criticism of Rokeach's theory has appeared from a number of sources. Jellison (1975) states the theory has been seen before in the sense that the theory of human values represents a common tradition, and approach to values. The theory is felt to be weakened by the use of the cognitive consistency model in understanding values and behavior change. Concepts such as self concept, inconsistency and self dissatisfaction are felt to be ambiguous, and as is the process by which an individual resolves inconsistency. The Value Survey comes under fire as providing no guide for the prediction of behavior, given one's value rankings. Subsequent, post hoc analysis and interpretations of experimental ranking-behavior groups are considered common sense as the question of prediction is left unresolved.

Campbell and Hannah (1976) addressed a change induction procedure, derived from the theory and empirically supported by Conroy, Katkin and Barnett (1973)

and Sherrid and Beech (1976). They call into question Rokeach's sole reliance on 'self dissatisfaction' as the motivating force underlying the value changes observed. In a design based upon the Rokeach model, the authors demonstrate apprehension, in conjunction with a cue to rank a particular value high can dramatically raise the ranking of a target value on the Value Survey. However their results also indicated that while apprehension can produce short term change, only self dissatisfaction can result in long term change. A final criticism offered by Grube et al. (1977) also concerns itself with the theory as it is related to change and self dissatisfaction. As a result of the authors' study they suggest a reinterpretation of the self confrontation process as a means toward behavior change.

The criticism and research efforts stand as an integral component of Rokeach's theory. The critique of the model highlights deficits that should be addressed, in order to further refine and delimit areas and to increase the sophistication and comprehensiveness of the theory. Despite these criticisms the model and instrument appears to be able to contribute to the area of human values and the issue of value consensus.

Marital Adjustment

This section includes a review of marital adjustment literature. Specifically, the review will cover designs that employ single and multiple (longitudinal and cross sectional) designs of measurement in assessing the relationship of an established pair (married couple).

A. Single Occasion of Measurement: General Trends

In a comprehensive review of the adjustment literature of the 1960's Hicks and Platt (1970) draw an initial distinction between two basic types of marriage based upon research findings: the institutional and companionship type.

1. Institutional marriage

Research from the institutional type was actually reviewed under the auspices of Exchange theory. To briefly recapitulate: this is a tradition-oriented marriage in which model roles exist along sexual identities-stereotypes. The husband's role is held to be more instrumental, the wife's role, more expressive and integrative. The instrumental role of the husband was also found to predominate the relation. As a result, the closer the couple can accommodate to these role specifications the more likely the probability of achieving happiness-success or adjustment.

2. Companionship marriage

A second type of marriage has been referred to as the companionship marriage. Emphasis is placed upon personality interactions as role specifications exist as a given and may even be enhanced as a result. Research within this type of relation appears less abundant, yet showing several interesting trends.

Affective involvement has been addressed by Gurin et al. (1960), Luckey (1964), Chilman and Meyers (1966) and Levinger (1964). Results have shown some evidence of a positive relationship between happiness in marriage and affective involvement. Secondly, a similar positive correlation was found to exist

between happiness and open communication in marriage (Navran, 1967; Levinger & Senn, 1967; Cutler & Dyer, 1965). These results appear somewhat more tentative due to the abstract nature of this concept and the inadequacy of the tools used in assessing assumptions. Finally, a number of studies have focused upon the issue of personality factors and need satisfaction. Results are viewed in terms of a pattern that may be expected from common sense: a balance of good or redeeming qualities (Murstein & Glaudin, 1966), emotional stability (Dean, 1966) and adaptability and flexibility (Buerkle et al., 1961) all appear as important for marital happiness.

A critique of this area will follow within the concluding section of this review. At the present time it is considered important to note the basic trends that research has established. Secondly, while research within this area has appeared to achieve little more than the establishment of common sense baselines for future endeavors, an interesting phenomenon has been brought to light. This involves the relationship between marital adjustment and marital stability.

3. The myth of marital stability

It has been generally assumed that the constructs of adjustment and stability represent interdependent functions within marriage. Happiness or adjustment was thought to lead to stability and unhappiness or maladjustment to lead to instability. Findings have demonstrated that instability leads to unhappiness, however recent trends indicate stability may not be dependent upon happiness or adjustment, as was assumed.

Levinger (1966) in an interview study of 600 divorce applicants, found middle class marriage more concerned with psychological and emotional interaction. In contrast, white lower class partners viewed financial problems and unstable physical factors as important. While there is a clear social class factor that may confound the data, Levinger interprets his results to indicate an ordering and mastery of instrumental needs before psychological and emotional aspects can be addressed. The implication dichotomizes marital adjustment into levels in which a couple may vary according to need satisfaction. Hawkins (1968) also notes the critical importance of instrumental factors in marriage in a study of satisfaction and overt hostility between couples.

Finally, Cuber and Harroff (1963) found stable marriages are not necessarily stable because they are deeply satisfying. While marriages may be fulfilling, vibrant and stable relationships, stable couples were also dichotomized into a group of individuals feeling entrapped, bitter and resentful toward their spouses. The authors attempt to explain their findings regarding pseudo-adjustment in terms of exchange theory, as a function of alternative choices. However other explanations are possible.

In addressing this issue Levinger (1966) views marriage as a special case of social groups in general. His cohesiveness theory stresses the strength of the marital relation as a direct function of the attractions within and barriers around the marriage, and as an inverse function of such attractions and barriers from other relationships.

Scanzoni (1966) attempts an explanation around organizational and disorganizational principles. Included are differential states of system maintenance-

dissolution of the social system. A combination of these patterns and their various levels are seen to handle situational satisfaction in marriage.

B. Marital Adjustment over Time

A fourth prototype employed by attraction researchers have assessed established pairs using two or more occasions of measurement. Studies in this area have typically addressed the issue of marital adjustment over time and can be viewed under two main headings: longitudinal and cross sectional designs. There exist approximately a half dozen studies in this area prior to 1960. While they demonstrate a consistent decline in adjustment they were also plagued with imperfections and an inability to account for all the data. Later in the decade renewed interest in the families developmental adjustment spawned researchers to look once again at adjustment in this context.

1. Longitudinal Designs

Burgess and Wallin (1953) began a study of engaged couples which was followed up after five years of marriage. Twenty years after the initial measurement, Pineo (1961), in a second longitudinal analysis concluded there was a gradual decrease in 'happiness' in marriage. Pineo postulated the construct of disenchantment as he noted a decline in the areas of common interests, beliefs, marital adjustment scores and demonstration of affection among couples.

Paris and Luckey (1966) selected two groups of 40 married couples from an original population of 594 former students at the University of Minnesota in 1957. Groups were selected on the basis of extreme high and low, quartile

scores, ^{subjects} responded to Locke's Marital Adjustment Scale LS and Terman's self ratings happiness scale ^{and} showed a significant difference at ($p < .01$). The mean number of years married for the group was 7.7 years. In the spring of 1963 the wives were sent the LS and a questionnaire regarding her level of happiness now and five years ago. Subjects also responded to inquiries regarding employment status and number and ages of children. Husbands were mailed the same tests upon receipt of the wife's response. Their questionnaire concerned their subjective evaluation of the marriage, their occupation, income, and amount of time spent at home and at work.

The data were analyzed from 31 couples in each group. A chi-square analysis revealed satisfied couples in 1957 tended to decrease in satisfaction over time while those shown to be dissatisfied increased in satisfaction over time. Overall results show all couples tended to score lower on adjustment in 1963, with wives, more so than husbands, revealing their dissatisfaction. No significance was found between any of the questionnaire items and adjustment.

Clark and Wallin (1965) began with an initial population of 1000 engaged couples. Four years after marriage 602 couples and 17-20 years after marriage 428 couples were restudied in regard to the wives sexual response in marriage. Sexual responsiveness was measured by frequency of orgasm, and quality of marriage by general satisfaction on a number of questionnaire items determined by the researcher to tap adjustment. The authors found women who shared a mutual love and respect with their mates to be more responsive in contrast to women with a persistently negative quality in marriage. However, serious limitations are noted in this study in terms of attribution rate, which the authors merely

allude to, the adequacy and nature of their sampling measures numerous confounding variables (e.g., class distinctions and social desirability influence) and the very restricted scope of the study.

Overall conclusions show research efforts within this type of design have been few in number. Results have been of a common sense nature yet to some degree conflicting. Critics seem to agree that this method provides perhaps one of the best approaches to a couple's adjustment yet inherent difficulties including attribution, sampling bias and problems with measurement techniques have obstructed progress in the area.

2. Cross sectional Designs

In a global approach to the problem areas encountered in marriage Mathews and Milhanovich (1963) employed volunteer catholic subjects. Of the 3800 questionnaires, containing a 400 item problem checklist of ten tension areas and the Burgess-Wallin Adjustment Scale BW, the authors received a return rate of 26.4 per cent or a total of 984 individual responses. Responses were not, in this case solicited from both partners. The BW distinguished two groups, happy and unhappy, within the sample which included 64.02 per cent and 35.98 per cent of the sample population respectively. The authors used a chi-square analysis to test whether the happy and unhappy groups had the same problems. Their findings indicated unhappy marriages have many more and different problems than happy marriages. They also found that relatively few problems decline in frequency or disappear for either group. The unhappy group were seen as neglected, as receiving little affection, understanding or appreciation.

Basic flaws within this design begin with the representiveness of the sample, the lack of control of covariates (length of marriage, age, socioeconomic status, number of children), the relative adequacy of the checklist and the power of the chi-square analysis at distinguishing anything but trends which are of a lay nature.

The general findings of Luckey (1966) indicated that increase in length of marriage is accompanied in the increase in the perception of unfavorable characteristics in one's spouse. Luckey's subjects included 80 married couples from an earlier study, Paris and Luckey (1965). In addition to the LS and Terman scales, a shortened version of Leary's Interpersonal Checklist was completed in terms of self and spouse for each subject. A Pearson correlation was performed on the Leary data, the LS and Terman scores. While both groups, happy and unhappy, appeared 'disillusioned' with marriage, subjects in happy marriages viewed their spouses as less admirable than formerly, while unhappy mates saw their partners as being more undesirable than formerly. Luckey indicates this subtle difference in perception may be a factor in influencing happiness.

As with the Mathews and Milahonivich study, a critic of Luckey's study reveals difficulties with the adequacy of her test measures and limited power of her statistical analysis. It is unfortunate that she was unable to make a finer distinction within years married as well as controlling for possible confounding variables in her sample population. As a result her general findings appear to add to the common sense notions of marital disillusionment. Yet her findings on perceptions bear further consideration.

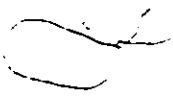
Contradictory findings were reported by Bradburn and Copolvitz (1965). From a probability sample of 2000 persons in Illinois the authors conducted 393 interviews and administered 613 questionnaires regarding psychological well being, happiness and marital tension to couples (n = 1000). They found marital tension decrease over time and especially when children leave home. Given the nature of past research these contradictions come as little surprise. However the study is important for another reason as it promulgates subsequent research (Orden & Bradburn, 1968) and the development of a theoretical model of happiness. Specifically their efforts were directed at the development of a composite index composed of a dimension of satisfaction and a dimension of happiness which functions independently to produce happiness in marriage.

Focusing upon the 'empty nest' phase of marriage (the time following the exit of the last child from the family home) Axelson (1960) studied 199 fathers and 265 mothers (non couples). Subjects were classified into two groups: those having single children at home and those having no children at home. Data were collected through the use of mailed questionnaires from a total population of 696 individuals who had a child under twenty five years of age married between May 1, 1956 and April 30, 1958. ^{while this is} an unusual way to systematize the collection of target data, ^{it is} one that nevertheless provided a sample population). Respondents indicated present satisfaction with seven areas of marital relations. Results showed that most of the satisfaction came from interpersonal relations and that financial worries decreased after launching. Finally, women, and not their husbands, were found to show a significant increase in loneliness after launching.

Lastly, Gurin et al. (1961) found a curvilinear trend with decreasing marital satisfaction during the early stages, a leveling off period and increasing satisfaction during the later stages of marriage. The low point in marital adjustment was found within the preretirement period following the exit of the last child from the home. However, results must be viewed cautiously and Hicks and Platt (1970) warn against comparison of these findings with other curvilinear trends due to the gross and very general procedure employed in data collection and analysis. The study is included only to highlight the contradictory findings of early research and to stress the need for more systematic means of investigations.

The above studies represent early and global approaches in assessing adjustment over time. Considering their sampling procedures, test instruments, general methodology, and statistical tests the conclusions and contradictory findings appear to be an expected aspect of this stage of research. Hence these studies are seen to fill an important place in the research as they serve to lay a foundation, although admittedly a very basic one, and more importantly to stimulate further thought on the issue of marital adjustment over time. The final group of studies reviewed represent more recent attempts to assess this issue based upon the development aspects of the family life cycle.

Burr (1970) gathered his data as part of a larger study on marital interaction. Subjects included an initial sample of 147 intact couples which was controlled for SES, eliminating the lower strata. Of this sample 116 couples comprised the experimental group. Burr used a slight variation of Duvall's



(Burr, 1933)

eight stages of the family (now thought to be outdated) and found couples were most frequently placed in the launching and terminal stage (n = 24, 30, respectively), the remaining stages averaging 12 couples each. Data was gathered by means of a prearranged session at the subject's home in which a lengthy questionnaire and detailed interview was conducted. Husbands and wives were seen separately. Satisfaction was assessed in terms of three questions in regard to each of six marital interaction areas, including handling of finances, social activities, household tasks, companionship, sexual interest and relationship with children.

Burr's results indicated that the school age stage is the most difficult and that satisfaction in relationships with children appears low through the adolescent years. Burr found no systematic, general decline but found a tendency toward a gradual increase in general satisfaction after the school age stage. The remaining indices showed significant changes in general satisfaction.

Burr's study hinges upon the satisfaction scale which is only alluded to in the study. Analysis of his conclusions is made difficult with the information he provides. Hence his conclusions are considered to be tentative while his methods of data collection represent a significant improvement over those employed in past studies.

Rollins and Feldman (1970) also employed Duvall's stages in testing their hypothesis. Data was obtained through the use of a survey sample of middle class residents of Syracuse, N.Y. in 1970. The study controlled for SES as nine census tracts in the top two categories were sampled. Fieldworkers made

personal contact with subjects upon delivering and picking up questionnaire data that tapped an array of demographic, personality and marital variables. A response rate of 85 per cent or a total of 852 married couples was obtained. A majority of the sample, approximately 480 couples, fell into stages 4 and 5, (school and teenage, respectively). Other stages averaged 55 couples each.

Marital satisfaction was derived from four questions dealing with general marital harmony regarding companionship, positive and negative interaction and satisfaction with present and past life cycle stage. Cross tabulation of results indicated a general decline from the beginning of marriage to the pre-school age, with a subsequent leveling off period. Contrary to earlier findings showing a linear decline, the authors found a substantial increase in satisfaction through retirement and that the post parental period may be as satisfying as earlier periods. Individually, husbands were found to be less affected by the life cycle stage than wives who showed a decrease in general marital satisfaction during the childbearing and childrearing phase.

The appearance of this study has sparked further investigation of the families life cycle as well as the issue of curvilinearity in satisfaction.

Rollins and Cannon (1974) undertook to reevaluate the design employed in 1970 and to clear up the issue of curvilinearity with the Lock and Wallace (1959) conception of satisfaction. The authors employed three measures of adjustment (Blood & Wolfe, Rollins & Feldman, and Locke & Wallace) to resolve the discrepancy. An initial population of 1600 Mormon families yielded a total of 489 useable questionnaires. Only one partner of a family was asked

to respond and a final frequency distribution showed the eight stages were represented with an average of 26 males and 32 females, except stage 6, launching which consisted of 53 males and females. The data were analyzed by an ANOVA on satisfaction in terms of stage of life cycle, sex of respondent and stage by sex interaction.

Findings indicated a significant difference on marital satisfaction scores at different stages, however there was no difference between males and females across stages. The latter appears to contradict the findings of Rollins and Feldman (1970). Secondly, results from the Blood and Wolfe measure (employed in several early studies) showed no significant decline in the present study as was expected. Specifically, satisfaction was shown to begin high and decrease significantly after the arrival of the first child when it levels off. Another decrease occurs at the teenage phase followed by a leveling to stage 8. The curve appears more 'L' shaped in nature. Thirdly Rollins achieved a second 'U' shaped curve with his own measure on the data as well as on a reanalysis of his (1970) data. Finally the Locke-Wallace scale also showed a general 'U' shaped trend. The curve appeared less symmetrical than the Rollins curve and no significance between life cycle stages was found.

The authors point to a lack of face validity in the Blood measure in accounting for the 'L' shaped curve. In conclusion the authors adopt the theoretical construct of role strain and role discrepancy in accounting for stress and its influence upon marital satisfaction.

Still feeling the issue of curvilinearity was unresolved Spanier et al. (1975) reexamined this concept in its relation to marital adjustment over the

family life cycle. The critical difference in this study was Spanier's selection of curvilinear regression, as opposed to a correlation ratio in the analysis of his data. The study employed a probability sample of three communities from Iowa, Ohio and Georgia. The Locke-Wallace scale was used to test the issue and employed also with a variety of demographic questions on marriage. Spanier's subject pool totaled over ^{1548 respondents} which were divided into groups based upon Duvall's stages.

Results indicated only a limited support for the curvilinear relationship. Ohio data did demonstrate this trend, significant at ($p < .05$) for males and ($p < .01$) for females. While neither the Georgia or Iowa samples were significant for either sex, the Georgia data appears to be 'U' shaped with a greater percentage of its variance accounted for with rho, than with eta. The most consistent finding in past research, the decline of adjustment from stages 1-3, was once again demonstrated (for all but Iowa females). Finally Spanier points to the relationship between mid-life cycle depression in adjustment as it related to the mean number of children. Hence indicating a possible covariate effect. He concludes by stating the relationship differences found may be due to either: problems with measurement techniques, the use of cross sectional data or the lack of a pronounced relation between marital adjustment and stage of the life cycle.

These conclusions are aptly stated and all may appear to have some validity. Locke's scale has frequently been criticized to be outdated and plagued with confounding effects. Moreover results of the Rollins and Cannon (1974)

study would cast further doubts on its ability to tap a curvilinear trend, should one in fact exist. Its use in the present design is therefore questioned in terms of adequately testing the hypotheses.

Secondly, problems in cross sectional data are viewed from three perspectives: one, the decreasing likelihood at each stage that severely maladjusted marriages would be included. Hence an effect of artificiality, increasing the mean adjustment score, is likely to be in operation. Two, that generational difference (individuals socialized under differing norms and expectations) also represent a difficulty. And three changing divorce rates may be effecting those most recently married couples and serve to partial out maladjusted relations. This is seen to be of special interest when viewed in the context of stage wise comparisons.

Finally Spaniers conclusions ~~about~~ the relationship between adjustment and stage are seen to be best addressed through the context of future research. The issue of curvilinearity remains 'unresolved' and as an area in need of more study. At this point Spanier advocates the use of a sequential-longitudinal approach as developed by Baltes (1968) and tested by Nesselroade and Baltes (1974) as the best solution to this problem.

In conclusion, the results of time studies, both longitudinal and cross sectional, appear inconclusive and plagued with theoretical, sampling, methodological and statistical difficulties, as covered earlier. Initial trends have been to report a linear-declining relationship between adjustment and length of marriage. However subsequent investigation has thrown doubt upon this relationship.

Current Trends in Adjustment Research

A review of recent adjustment literature reveals a number of interesting theoretical developments. First there has been an increasing attempt on the part of researchers to ground their studies in a sound theoretical framework. While a range of formulations exists the reinforcement paradigm, with its emphasis on exchange principles, role performance, and spouse perception-expectation, has dominated the field. This has offered researchers (Burr, 1971, 1972; Calonico and Thomas, 1973; Chadwick et. al., 1976; Fineberg & Lowman, 1975; Marini, 1975; Miller, 1976; Murstein, et. al., 1977) not only an appealing manner in which to conceptualize marital satisfaction, but has provided a way to better operationalize and to test out assumptions about the family. The end result has added a much needed element of sophistication to designs and contributed to the overall unity and cohesiveness of the rationale, method, and interpretation of results.

The second area, which to some degree parallels the first, concerns a reassessment of the family life cycle as an empirical and conceptual tool. Recently a number of studies (Feldman, 1975; Nock, 1979; Schram, 1979; Spanier, 1975) have called the overall utility of this concept into question. These reviews point to the inconsistency and ambiguity of past research, as well as the inherent difficulties with cross sectional and longitudinal research designs. Both Nock (1979) and Spanier (1975)

argue that the family life cycle reflects the passage of time and that other variables including length of time married, the presence of children, and age cohort may be just as useful empirical tools to researchers. While noting the potential of this constructs theoretical contribution these studies suggest a critical assessment and evaluation of the family life cycle as an empirical tool. They indicate the need for future research to delimit how transitions are experienced, to define and to examine critical transition periods within the marital career via the use of roles and individual identity.

It is at this point that a possible merger of these two approaches exists. These authors suggest the marital career could be examined through the use of the reinforcement paradigm in an assessment of role acquisitions, expansions, constrictions, etc. as they come to bear upon the marriage and impact upon each spouse individually. While a number of earlier studies (Burr, 1971; Grush & Yehl, 1979; Harry, 1976; Miller, 1976) have broached this topic their efforts have been largely independent of each other. What is being suggested by Schram, Nock and Spanier is a much needed systematic thrust by investigators to establish a solid empirical-conceptual link between marital adjustment, the marital career, and the individual.

Despite the ~~advances~~^{advances} that have taken place theoretically there exists only a handful of studies that offer a significant contribution to the field. While over forty studies have been published in the past eight years the results have, by in large tended to confirm earlier studies and common sense notions about

the family and marital adjustment. However this has not occurred unequivocally, as a fair degree of inconsistency and ambiguity yet remains.

As noted, the study of role performance-perceptions has tended to dominate the field. Research has shown the importance of role transitions and companionate activities (Marini, 1976; Miller, 1976), role discrepancies (Gurr, 1971), role taking accuracy, affect and value patterns (Calonico & Thomas, 1973), and exchange versus nonexchange orientations between spouses (Murstein, et. al., 1977) as ^{SOLICIT} contributors to marital adjustment. Glenn (1975a, b; Glenn & Weaver, 1977) has undertaken an assessment of the psychological well-being of both married, remarried and post parental stage men and women. His findings, although supportive of the institution of marriage are seriously limited by the compromises made in data collection which employed the use of national survey samples. In addition several areas have yielded inconsistent results. Included are the areas of the employment status of wives (Booth, 1977; Burke & Weir, 1976; Ridley, 1973), and the presence of children (Thornton, 1975). At the present time these areas show no deleterious effects upon marital adjustment yet added research is needed.

Investigators have also continued their search regarding the general antecedents of adjustment. In this context research has been undertaken in the area of leisure and personality patterns (Orthner, 1975; Barton & Cattell, 1973), age at marriage (Lee, 1977), conventionality (Edmonds, et. al, 1972) and

extramarital sexual relations (Glass, et. al., 1977).

A critique of the above area points toward inadequate measures of adjustment and related variables as the most common and serious flaw. In many cases the use of single to several item self report adjustment measures not only limits interpretations of results but adds a potentially confounding effect to the data. While the collection of data has improved what appears needed is the use of intensive interviews employing standardized, multiple measures gathering husband and wife perceptions within a multivariate framework.

Yet a number of studies are seen to offer a significant contribution to the field. Included are studies by Guilford and Bengston (1979), Nock (1979) and Fineberg & Lowman (1975).

The Guilford study is perhaps the most sophisticated and far reaching in its implications. Obtaining data from over 1000 married members of three-generation families, marital satisfaction was broken down into a two-dimensional component reflecting positive interaction and negative sentiment. Results suggesting marked differences by generations should enable future research to begin to sort out the puzzling effects of marital adjustment over the family life cycle. Interestingly the research also has theoretical underpinnings within role theory and may be viewed within the reinforcement paradigm.

Also working with the life cycle of the family Nock (1979) after a critique of this concept tests its empirical utility.

His results suggest that the length of time married and/or the presence of children may be just as useful to researchers as defining developmental stages. The research is important in its implications for future work which will aid the researcher, offering him a more pragmatic and parsimonious tool that is easier to replicate and operationalize.

Finally, Fineberg and Lowman (1975) tested the interaction of 10 maritally adjusted and 10 maritally maladjusted couples. They found adjusted couples communicated more affection and submission than did maladjusted ones. Although limited by the small sample size and the use of the Chi square statistic, the study is significant as it has sought to tap an interesting variable related to adjustment, affect. Moreover it serves to bridge an area that has of late become a growing field related to adjustment literature, the area of marital therapy.

C. Marital Adjustment: Conclusions-Trends-Directions

Adjustment research has been viewed in terms of three general categories: those studies focusing upon institutional-traditional marriages; those focusing upon companionship marriages; and the assessment of adjustment over time (via longitudinal and cross sectional approaches). Results have, for the most part, confirmed common sense notions and lay hypotheses about marriage, yet not exclusively, as a fair amount of ambiguity is seen to exist in the data analysis.

Briefly, results have tended to confirm the importance of homogamy and the instrumental role of the male in determining satisfaction in traditional marriages. Results are less clear cut in companionship marriages as issues here appear more abstract. Nevertheless affective involvement and interpersonal communication do appear to be important variables. Perhaps of greatest interest was the finding in regards to marital happiness and stability, which bears further attention. Finally, studies over time have generally revealed several trends. Early studies found both linear and no decline with happiness over time. More recent trends indicate the presence of a curvilinear relationship over the family life cycle. However this remains as an area that is yet to be resolved.

One's attempt to reconcile these ambiguities and inconsistencies must address itself to the formulation of the research problem. Difficulties begin with the conceptualization of the constructs of happiness-success-adjustment as research has been hampered by the lack of a theoretical position and

subsequent operationalization of terms. The end result is a lack of consensus, comparability and generality between studies which adds to the tentative nature of most findings and obstructs progress in the field.

Methodological problems are also inherent within the area. Research, in the use of self ratings, questionnaires and other paper and pen techniques have only added to their own woes, through a lack of standardized instruments. Covariates have, for the most part, been systematically ignored within designs and statistical analysis has been handled through correlational coefficients or chi-square analysis which lack the power to precisely deal with the data. Finally representativeness of populations and sample size has failed to be adequately addressed by researchers.

In defense of this area one must point these efforts as beginning attempts to initiate an exploration of a complex and complicated phenomena. Difficulties with theory construction, sampling and methodologies and test construction are then viewed as an intimate part of the process of refining scientific investigation and study. Perhaps the most important contribution made is in terms of the thought stimulated and the research generated by these efforts.

Integration

The present review has concerned itself with the concept of marital adjustment, as viewed within the larger scope of the study of interpersonal attraction. Several major attraction theories and macrolevel models of dyadic attraction have been explicated.

The research has demonstrated that similarity of attitudes is an important correlate of interpersonal attraction. Following along the lines of Byrne and his associates, attraction is seen to be a response to one who is instrumental in the gratification of an individual's needs. Clore and Byrne (1974) conceptualize agreement as a reinforcer of a need for consensual validation, which when gratified by discovery of similar attitudes heightens one's relationship to another as demonstrated through concomitant variation in one's degree of attraction to that person. Byrne postulates, with respect to attitude similarity, that the greater the agreement between X and Y, the greater should be the attraction between X and Y, since each instance of agreement on attitude items constitutes a reinforcement. The other is now seen to possess an instrumental reward value for the individual in the gratification of his needs. Finally, attitude similarity is viewed by Byrne as but one form of consensual validation. He advocates the use of his paradigm in the study of other aspects of one's belief system, e.g., values.

In this context macrolevel theorists have demonstrated the importance of an individual's values and value similarity between couples in establishing interpersonal relations. Value similarity also appears to satisfy one's need for consensual validation as it works to promote and enhance a relationship. To date research, as well as theory, has focused upon the premarital dyad in addressing this issue. There has been no systematic attempt to investigate this phenomenon within established pairs. This has occurred for a number of reasons, including the lack of a standardized instrument in assessing values,

as well as a comprehensive theory of values to guide and direct research efforts. Recently Murstein (1976) has indicated the work of Rokeach (1973) may offer a solution to this dilemma.

A review of Rokeach's theory of human values (1973) revealed it to possess an essential utility in conceptualizing how values and one's belief system relate to the study of established pairs and marital adjustment. Theoretically, this theory has its focus on values, as fundamental constructs which influence cognitions, beliefs and attitudes. The theory aids our understanding of how one structures his world, both interpersonally and intrapersonally. Research has indicated the relevance of the tool Rokeach has provided (Value Survey) in addressing interpersonal compatibility (Shotland, 1968; Sikula, 1970) and attributed marital adjustment (Kindelan, 1978).

Marital theorists speak of adjustment, a part of which would be predicted on attraction of spouses, in the study of established pairs. However, the lack of a comprehensive theory, and difficulties in operationalizing variables, thought to covary with adjustment, has hampered research. Byrne's paradigm and Rokeach's theory of human values may offer a vantage point in which adjustment can be viewed.

Theoretically it is postulated that the instrumental reward value is high for each spouse in couples whose value hierarchies are similar. Each is seen to satisfy, through agreement, the other's need for consensual validation which functions to reinforce the relationship. Such resultant reinforcement should be demonstrated through concomitant variation on a number of marital issues. In this case it is expected that such variation would be demonstrated in degree of adjustment. As a result one would predict that the greater the value

similarity between spouses, the greater the degree of adjustment between them should be.

A second area of interest regarding marital adjustment has concerned the nature of this phenomenon over the families life cycle. While a number of attempts have been made to resolve this issue, a lack of consensus remains. In terms of the present model such an effect may be viewed in terms of an individual's reward value as a spouse and his/her ability to satisfy the need of consensual validation within the marital framework.

That is, marital, professional, personal and social roles are seen to change over time. The arrival of children, a change in employment, the decision to buy a home constitute but small number of salient facets of married life. They call for a shift in roles and priorities from the individual. In response to pressures external to the dyad associated with child rearing and becoming 'established' in the community and at work, the value priorities are hypothesized to shift. Consequently, with the changing relationship a couple could find concomitant changes in the reward value each offers in providing gratification for the other's needs. As an individual's reward value lessens, he fails to provide consensual validation for his partner and adjustment would be expected to drop.

In sum, the work of Byrne and Rokeach have been integrated in an attempt to explicate a model for the study of attraction in married couples. Attraction has been viewed as a component of adjustment and the concept of value similarity has been proposed in substitution of attitude similarity within a reinforcement-affect paradigm. Finally the very real phenomenon of changing

adjustment over time has been brought to light and addressed within the context of the paradigm.

Hypotheses

The present study seeks to employ the theoretical rationale of Byrne's attraction paradigm in addressing the issue of value similarity in a study of marital adjustment over segments of the family's life cycle. Specifically the study seeks to test the following hypotheses:

1. Couples with a high degree of value similarity are postulated to possess a greater reward value as spouses in the gratification of their partner's needs, when compared to couples with a low degree of value similarity. Such reward is seen to manifest itself in satisfying the other's need for consensual validation on a number of marital issues. One issue concerns the degree of adjustment in marriage. As a result one would expect concomitant variation between one's power of reward and the degree of adjustment between a couple. Therefore, the greater the value similarity between a couple, the greater the degree of adjustment between them should be. Stated in the null form:

 Holding length of marriage constant, there is no significant difference accompanying value similarity scores on a couple's degree of marital adjustment.

2. It is common knowledge that marital cohesiveness and adjustment fluctuate over time. Research has generally shown that

regardless of an individual's level of adjustment, variations do exist within the life cycle of the family. These variations may include changing marital, personal, or professional roles which impact upon the marriage. The impact of these changing roles may involve a change of interest, priorities and/or rewarding power (reward value) as a spouse. As an individual's reward power varies, so does his ability to satisfy his partner's need for consensual validation. It is expected that over time, pressures external to the dyad prompt development and change of interests and satisfactions associated with the other, with a concomitant shift in value similarity across spouses which has its manifestation in degree of marital adjustment.

Stated in the null form:

Holding value similarity constant, there is no significant difference accompanying length of marriage on a couple's degree of marital adjustment.

3. The study is also interested in attempting to assess that complex of values which serve as the best predictor (discriminator) of marital adjustment. The terminal and instrumental value systems, being functionally interconnected to one's self concept, are seen to play an intimate role in one's cognitions, feelings and actions (Rokeach, 1973). They aid in helping an individual define and mold his perceptions of the world and effect his personal relations with others. Interpersonal compatibility has

been shown by a number of researchers (Shotland, 1968; Sikula, 1970) to be associated with the value rankings of an individual. In a similar fashion one would also expect to find in marriage a complex of values which acts as a differential predictor of marital adjustment. Stated in the null form:

There is no best indicator across the complex of eighteen terminal and instrumental values that would best discriminate levels of marital adjustment.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

This section describes the research design, the subject pool, the instruments employed, the procedure which was followed and the statistical technique.

A. Research Design and Sampling Strategy

The present design seeks to address the issue of value similarity in a study of marital adjustment over segments of the family life cycle. Two independent variables are to be investigated. They include spouse value similarity, with two levels (High and low degree) and length of time married, with three levels (1 to 12 years, 13 to 24 years, 24. to 50 years). The dependent variable is marital adjustment as measured by a husband-wife combined score on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

In the present study the length of time married was broken into arbitrary component parts and is defined as the actual number of years that have elapsed since the couple entered into marriage. The actual categories employed were dictated by the trichotomies of the length of time married distribution in this particular sample. These lengths permitted roughly equivalent numbers of subjects to be placed within the cells of the experimental design. It is acknowledged that a potentially confounding variability exists when subjects married for varying lengths of time (1 to 3 years, 10 to 12 years) are grouped together in this fashion. Yet this loss of precision due to categorization was necessary to carry out the analysis.

As an in vivo study of married couples, subject selection of the present study was guided by a number of factors. These included: the influence of reported covariates (number of children, socioeconomic status) upon marital adjustment and the ethical, physical and financial constraints in obtaining a sample population that would respond to a self administered questionnaire regarding personal values and marital adjustment. Based upon these factors it was felt that a multistage sampling technique employing the use of mail questionnaires would provide the best chance of success in obtaining an experimental sample (DeVries, 1978).

A multistage sampling method is a design of choice employed when a study is too costly, or physically inconvenient or when the real situation is too complex (Moser, 1972). While it does not enable the researcher to generalize from his findings, it enables one to obtain an overall probability sample from a selected group. Multistage samples are composed of a number of first stage or primary sampling units (PSU's), each of them being made up of second stage units, and so forth. A sample, with or without stratification, is taken of the PSU's, then a sample, again with or without stratification, is taken of the second stage units in each selected PSU, and so the procedure continues down to the final sampling units, with a sample ideally being random at each stage.

Mail questionnaires must be viewed in terms of their relative merits and limitations (Moser, 1972). Moser also notes that mail questionnaires can prove to be good instruments when task directions-measures are simple and straightforward, and when responses can be delivered in a clear cut, non-probing fashion. Essentially, this frees the researcher from the time constraint of contacting each subject individually. It affords the subject anonymity, and the opportunity to complete the task in terms of his or her own schedule, which may be accompanied by more willing and accurate responses.

Perhaps the greatest disadvantage of mail surveys stems from the possibility of collusion among subjects, and the fact that one is never absolutely certain the right person completed the task. Other problems revolve around the lack of observational data that this type of design brings and the problems

associated with non response rates. In this respect Moser notes the importance of obtaining at least a twenty per cent response rate in order to deal effectively with the data.

On another topic, single unit dwellings; defined as a single detached or single house containing only one dwelling unit which is completely separated on all sides from any other dwelling or structure (Census tract Bulletin, 1971), will serve as the targeted sampling unit in the present study to receive the mail packets. This choice was made in attempts to increase the likelihood of contacting a married couple, termed household, within the multistaged strategy (deVries, 1978).

B. Subjects

The subjects who participated in this study were married couple volunteers residing in Nepean Township, Ontario, Canada. A total of 700 households were contacted via the multistage sampling method described in Section D (Procedure) of this chapter. From this sampling strategy 172 completed questionnaires (26.4 per cent) were obtained. The mean age for both male and female subjects was approximately 44.5 years. The mean number of years married was 20.2 years. The couples had an average of two children per family and a yearly family income of \$22,000.00. See Table one for a further breakdown of the selected social characteristics of the sample.

C. Instruments

1. The Sample Packet

Each household was presented with a mail questionnaire sample packet (see Appendix I) containing these elements:
A stamped envelope addressed to...

Table 1

Selected Social-Characteristics of
The Sample Population

Characteristic	Married Sample	Husbands	Wives
Number of Subjects	172		
Mean Age (years)	44.7	45.1	44.3
Median Months Engaged	8.6	-	-
Mean Number of Years Married	20.2	-	-
Percent Catholic	19.2	17.4	20.9
Percent Methodist	11.6	12.7	10.8
Percent Lutheran	14.8	14.5	15.1
Percent Presbertain	32.0	33.7	30.2
Percent Other Protestant	18.3	19.1	17.6
Percent Jewish	3.2	3.5	2.9
Percent Aetheist, Agnostic	1.0	1.2	.6
Median Yearly Family Income	22,000.00		
Median Years Education (College)	5	6	4
Mean Number of Children	2.3	-	-
Mean Dyadic Adjustment Scale Score	112.6	112.8	112.4
Mean Blischen Scale Index	68.4	72.6	64.2

the author, an introduction to the task, demographic questions and two questionnaire packets. ^{EACH OF} These packets each included instructions to the task, the Value Survey and the Spanier Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). (The Value Survey and DAS were counterbalanced and randomly distributed to control for order of presentation effects.)

The introduction to the task was stapled to the envelope and contained the authors name, address and phone number, and a rationale for completing the task. Only legally married couples were asked to participate and they were informed as to the general nature of the research, how their household had been chosen, what was involved on their part and the type of feedback they could expect to receive. The subjects were assured of the confidential nature of the project and their own anonymity.

The demographic data questions and stapled questionnaire packets were enclosed in the envelope. The demographic data asked of the subjects included his and her: 1) age, 2) mother tongue, 3) highest grade completed, 4) religious preference, 5) number of years married, 6) number of months engaged, 7) number and, 8) ages of children, 9) current employment position, 10) average annual income and, 11) whether this was his or her first marriage. A final statement instructed the couple to include a stamped self addressed envelope, with their reply, should they desire written feedback.

Instructions to the task reassured the subjects of their anonymity, the confidential nature of the project and informed them of the approximate time expected to complete the packet (thirty minutes). Task specific instructions followed. Depending upon the order of presentation the subject was then

presented with either the Value Survey and then the DAS or the DAS and then the Value Survey. Each test was two pages long and was reproduced on 8½" x 14" legal size paper.

2. Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale

The DAS is a new measure for assessing the quality of marriage and other similar dyads (Spanier, 1976). The thirty-two likert item questionnaire was developed as the result of a comprehensive process. The process began with an initial pool of all items ever used in any scale measuring marital adjustment or a related concept. Three knowledgeable judges examined all items (approximately 300) for content validity, i.e., marital adjustment as defined by Spanier and Cole (1974). As a result the remaining pool of two hundred items were included in a questionnaire along with twenty five items of alternate wording and fixed choice responses. These items were administered to a population of married, divorced and cohabitating couples. Frequency distributions eliminated items with low variance and high skewness. A t-test for significance of difference between means of married and divorced samples eliminated all items which were not statistically significant at the ($p < .001$) level. The forty remaining items were factor analyzed and thirty two remained after eight were eliminated due to low factor loadings, (below .30).

The scale itself can be completed in several minutes and can easily be adapted into a self administered questionnaire or interview. The scale has a theoretical range of 0 to 150 as a majority of the items attempt to assess the respondents perception of the adjustment of the relationship as a functioning

group. Spanier (1976) has demonstrated the scales' content validity (ratings by three judges), criterion-related validity (all items differing significantly ($p < .001$) between a married and divorced sample) and construct validity ($r = .86$ with the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale - 1959, among married respondents and $r = .88$ among divorced respondents ($p < .001$)). Reliability studies using the Spearman-Brown average inter-item formula for internal consistency and Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was .96 indicating the scale has a sufficiently high reliability to justify its use. Finally Spanier (1976) found means to differ significantly between married and divorced groups ($p < .001$) at scores of 114.8 and 70.7, respectively. In a recent publication Hunt (1978) has found support for Spanier's statement that his scale represents an improvement over previous measures of marital adjustment.

D. Procedure

The present design targeted the township of Nepean, Ontario, Canada as a sample population (DeVries, 1978). Demographically, Nepean has a population of over 64,000 people and includes 30,000 married couples with an average of two children per family. Within Nepean there exists nine census tract areas of roughly equivalent demographic characteristics, see Appendix 2, (Census Tract Bulletin, 1973).

The multistage sampling proceeded as follows: four census tract areas were selected at random and designated as PSU's to receive a total of 175 mail questionnaires each. As Air Survey Development Map (1977), indicating the presence of single unit dwellings by street blocks was obtained. Each PSU was

then divided into twelve to fifteen stage two units with approximately 120 single unit dwellings in each. Five stage two areas were randomly chosen and thirty five questionnaires were ^{randomly hand} delivered to single unit dwellings within these areas. A total of 700 questionnaires were delivered over a four week period.

As stated, the use of mail questionnaires precluded the necessity for personal contact with individual respondents. However, contact with one or both partners residing in the chosen dwelling, was made at approximately 400 households (55-60%), in an attempt to increase the overall number of respondents (DeVries, 1978; Moser, 1972). At this time the rationale was briefly explained and any questions were answered. Unfortunately, no figures are available regarding the effect this procedure had upon return rates or sample representativeness. Speculatively, other factors including the reaction of the respondents to the items themselves, and the state of the marriage are felt to be more salient determinants of the couple's decision of whether or not to participate in the study. Finally, when a dwelling member was unable to be reached the mail questionnaire was left in the occupant's mailbox.

E. Statistical Procedure

The design is an in vivo one, with married couples residing in Nepean Township, Ontario, Canada as participants. The design is also a random (non-repeated measures) model wherein all factors are fixed (Winer, 1971). Prior to the primary statistical procedures the ordinally ranked data from the Value Survey was transformed into normalized interval level t-scores (Guilford, 1966).

The primary statistics used will be eighteen 2x3 analyses of variance, a discriminant function analysis for composite value similarity scores and a Pearson correlation for the demographic variables. Post hoc comparisons will be performed using the Scheffé method. Finally two, one-way analyses of variance will be performed to test the order effects of test presentation. In all cases, the alpha level is set at .05.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Main Statistical Analyses and Results

A. The Transformed Ordinal Data and Number of Subjects for the Analyses

The range and mean of the transformed ordinal level data is described in Appendix 3. The ranked data were transformed into interval level t-scores with a mean of 50 and a range of 33.6 to 66.4. See Table 2 for the average sample size for the main statistical analyses.

B. Analyses of Variance

The analyses of variance were performed in a stepwise, hierarchical fashion. The first analysis was performed using those terminal and instrumental values on the Rokeach Value Survey ranked by each partner as number one. The second analysis included those terminal and instrumental values ranked as number one and two, by each partner. The third analysis, numbers one, two and three were used, and so forth until the eighteenth analysis included all eighteen terminal and instrumental values. In each case an overall composite score was obtained by summing the absolute value differences of both husband and wife rankings on both terminal and instrumental value profiles.

1. Computational Procedure and Illustrative Example

A numerical example will be used to illustrate the computational procedures. The value rankings of a bogus couple, for the values X_1 to X_{10} , have

Table 2

Average Sample Size for the Eighteen
Main Statistical Analyses of Variance

		Years of Marriage			
		1-12	13-24	25-50	Total
Value Similarity	Low	22	37	28	86
	High	27	36	22	86
	Total	49	73	50	172

been listed for terminal and instrumental values in Table 3, section A. Section D of this table defines the computational symbols and formulas used in the analysis. 'HVR' represents the husbands value ranking profile. 'WVR' represents the wives value ranking profile. 'Terminal' and 'Instrumental' refers specifically to the list of terminal and instrumental values, respectively, on the Value Survey. ' (X_i) ' refers to one of the ten values listed on the bogus profile. ' (N_i) ' corresponds to the ranking of the value (X_i) , which the analysis concerns. ' (A_i) ' refers to the partners' corresponding ranking of value (X_i) .

The actual computational process begins with that terminal value ranked as number one by the husband. His Value Survey profile (VS) is searched until this ranking is found. The value (X_i) is noted and the associated ranking (N_i) is placed within formula (I). The VS of the wife is then consulted and the ranking (A_i) associated with this same value (X_i) is also placed in formula (I). The two scores are subtracted and the absolute difference obtained.

This same procedure is then repeated in formula (II) (section B). However, in formula (II), the analysis begins with the terminal value profile of the wife and proceeds to the husband's profile. A second absolute difference is taken between that terminal value ranked by her as number one and her husband's corresponding ranking (A_i) , for that same value (X_i) . The terminal value score is now obtained by summing formulas one and two for value ranking one. See section C - terminal value score.

Once this has been accomplished the entire analysis is repeated but instead employs the Instrumental Value profile of the couple. Similarly,

formulas (III) and (IV) are computed and the instrumental value score is obtained by summing these scores. See section B - formula (III) and (IV), section C - instrumental value score.

The T-I index is now obtained by adding the terminal and instrumental value scores. In the case of value ranking 1, when ($N_i = 1$) this index also represents the composite score, which is employed in the analysis of variance, as the 'first analysis'. See section C.

At this time the 'second analysis', is begun. The 'second analysis' follows exactly as did the 'first analysis'. However, instead of using value ranking 1 for (N_i), employs that value ranked as number two by the husband and then the wife in computing both terminal and instrumental value scores. A T-I index is obtained in the same fashion. In addition a composite score is also obtained by adding the T-I index of the second analysis to the composite index of the first analysis. The composite score is then placed into the analysis of variance for the 'second analysis'.

This procedure continues until all terminal and instrumental values have been accounted for in a stepwise manner. The only difference being the computation of the composite score of the present analysis. This composite score is obtained by adding the T-I index of the analysis to the composite score of the previous analysis, whereupon the newly obtained composite score is placed into the analysis of variance.

Table 4 is a summary table of the numerical example shown in Table 3, section A. For simplicity, ordinal rankings were substituted for interval level t-scores which were used in the actual analysis. The table shows the source

Table 4

Summary Table: Numerical Example

Source	Formula (from table 3, sect. C)	1	2	3	Analyses
Terminal Instrumental T-I Index	(I) + (II) (III) + (IV)	$ 1-1 + 1-1 = 0$ $ 1-2 + 1-3 = 3$	$ 2-3 + 2-4 = 3$ $ 2-1 + 2-3 = 2$	$ 3-5 + 3-2 = 3$ $ 3-2 + 3-1 = 3$	$3 + 3 = 6$
Composite Score (for Analysis): 14	(I) + (II) + (III) + (IV) + $CS_N(i) - 1$	$0 + 3 = 3$	$3 + 2 = 5$	$3 + 3 = 6$	$3 + 3 = 6$
2		3			$5 + 3 = 8$
3					$6 + 8 = 14$
Analyses					
		4			5
4		$ 4-2 + 4-5 = 3$ $ 4-4 + 4-4 = 0$			$ 5-4 + 5-3 = 3$ $ 5-5 + 5-5 = 0$
5		$3 + 0 = 3$	$3 + 14 = 17$		$3 + 0 = 3$ $3 + 17 = 20$

computations, the formulas and mathematical operations in obtaining composite scores for analysis 1 to 5. As noted, the composite scores are used to indicate the couples' value similarity score and placed in the ANOVA.

2. The Findings

The analysis of variance containing value ranking 1 (those terminal and instrumental values ranked as number one by each partner) yielded a significant main effect on marital adjustment for the number of years married ($p < .05$). This significant effect on marital adjustment ($p < .05$) for years married was found also for value rankings 2 (those terminal and instrumental values ranked as one and two by each partner) through value ranking 18 (including all terminal and instrumental values ranked by each partner), (see Table 5). The Scheffe's post hoc comparison for marital adjustment indicated a significant difference ($p < .05$) between the means of level 1 (1 to 12 years married) and level 3 (25 to 50 years married). The mean for level 2 (13 to 24 years married) yielded no significance in comparison to either level 1 or level 3, (see Figure 2). Marital adjustment scores appear influenced by the number of years married in all 18 analyses of variance.

The effects of degree of value similarity were much less consistent. Analyses of value ranking 1 through value ranking 8 (the highest ranked terminal and instrumental values progressively through the first eight ranked terminal and instrumental values for each partner) yielded no significance on marital adjustment. Value ranking 9 (those terminal and instrumental values ranked as one through nine by each partner) did show a significant effect for value similarity on marital adjustment ($p < .05$). While no significance was

Table 5

Summary Table of the Eighteen Analyses
of Variance: Results of the Main Effect
of Number of Years Married on Marital Adjustment

Analysis	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
1	4966.46	2	2487.23	3.29*
2	5607.74	2	2803.87	3.86*
3	4955.70	2	2477.84	3.29*
4	5109.25	2	2554.62	3.40*
5	5196.87	2	2598.43	3.46*
6	5163.97	2	2586.48	3.41*
7	5372.92	2	2686.46	3.58*
8	5238.21	2	2618.60	3.52*
9	5896.42	2	2948.21	4.06*
10	5491.74	2	2745.87	3.75*
11	5585.82	2	2767.91	3.79*
12	5723.82	2	2861.92	3.92*
13	5534.15	2	2767.07	3.89*
14	5552.42	2	2776.21	3.74*
15	5451.95	2	2725.98	3.65*
16	6209.15	2	3104.57	4.26*
17	5871.05	2	2935.52	4.09*
18	5944.85	2	2972.43	4.07*

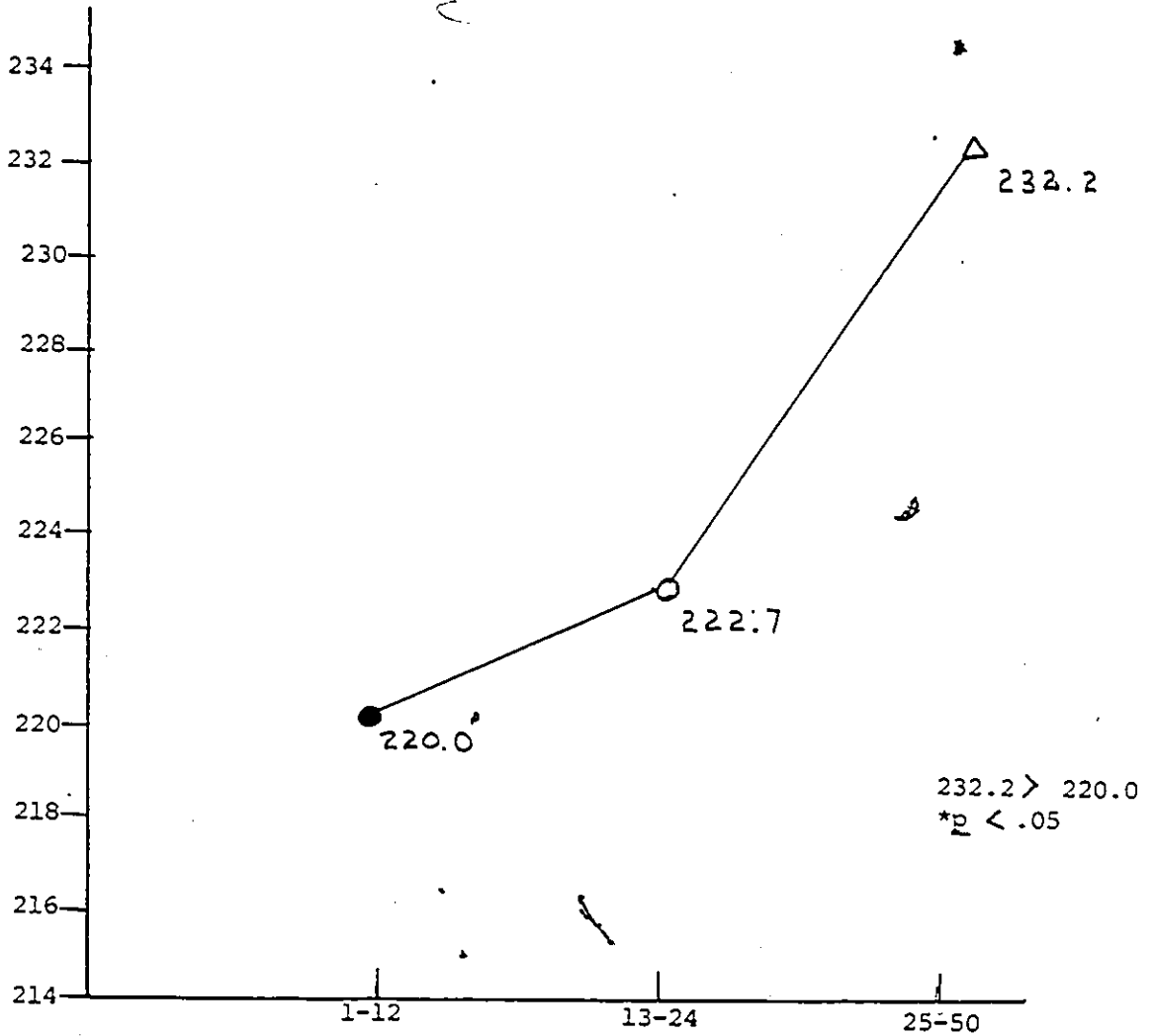
F.95 (2,165) = 3.04

*p < .05

Figure 2

Means and ~~significant~~ difference between number of years married in Spaniers Dyadic Adjustment Scale for value rankings 1 through 18.

COMBINE (HUSBAND-WIFE SCORE) ON THE DAS



NUMBER OF YEARS MARRIED

demonstrated as the next two value rankings (10 and 11) were added in a step-wise fashion, significance was found for both value rankings 12 and 13 on marital adjustment ($p < .05$). No significance was found for value rankings 14, 15, 17 or 18 on marital adjustment. However value rankings 16 did yield a significant main effect for value similarity on marital adjustment ($p < .05$), (see Table 6). The Scheffe post hoc comparison for value similarity indicated the means of the high value similarity group differed significantly ($p < .05$) from the means of the low value similarity group for value rankings 9, 12, 13 and 16 (see Figure 3 to 6).

Finally no interaction effect were found between degree of value similarity and number of years married on marital adjustment for any of the 18 analyses.

Beta coefficients, eta indexes of the relationship between degree of value similarity and the dependent variable, adjusted for the independent variables (value similarity and years of marriage), are shown in Table 7 (Nie et al. 1975). These coefficients range from .01 to .18 indicating that between .01% and 3% of the total variance on marital adjustment scores were accounted for by the main effect of value similarity. Beta coefficients between the number of years married and the dependent variable are shown in Table 8. These coefficients range from .20 to .22 indicating that between 4% and 5% of the total variance on marital adjustment scores were accounted for by the main effect of years married.

In summary, the only consistent result which emerged was a significant main effect on marital adjustment for years married when value rankings 1 to

Table 6

Summary Table of the Eighteen Analyses
of Variance: Results of the Main Effect
of Value Similarity on Marital Adjustment

Analyses.	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
1	35.45	1	33.45	.045
2	915.13	1	915.13	1.261
3	22.74	1	22.74	.030
4	215.08	1	215.08	.287
5	575.44	1	575.44	.767
6	334.76	1	334.76	.445
7	1024.22	1	1024.22	1.36
8	738.18	1	738.18	.991
9	4200.00	1	4200.00	5.797*
10	1731.20	1	1731.20	2.36
11	2440.60	1	2440.60	2.34
12	2924.68	1	2924.68	4.06 *
13	4128.34	1	4128.34	5.99 *
14	1784.35	1	1784.35	2.41
15	1191.60	1	1191.60	1.60
16	2829.62	1	2829.62	3.88 *
17	2177.40	1	2177.40	3.01
18	2670.38	1	2670.38	3.66

F.95 (1,165) = 3.88

*p < .05

Figure 3

Means and significant difference between value similarity scores on Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale for value ranking 9.

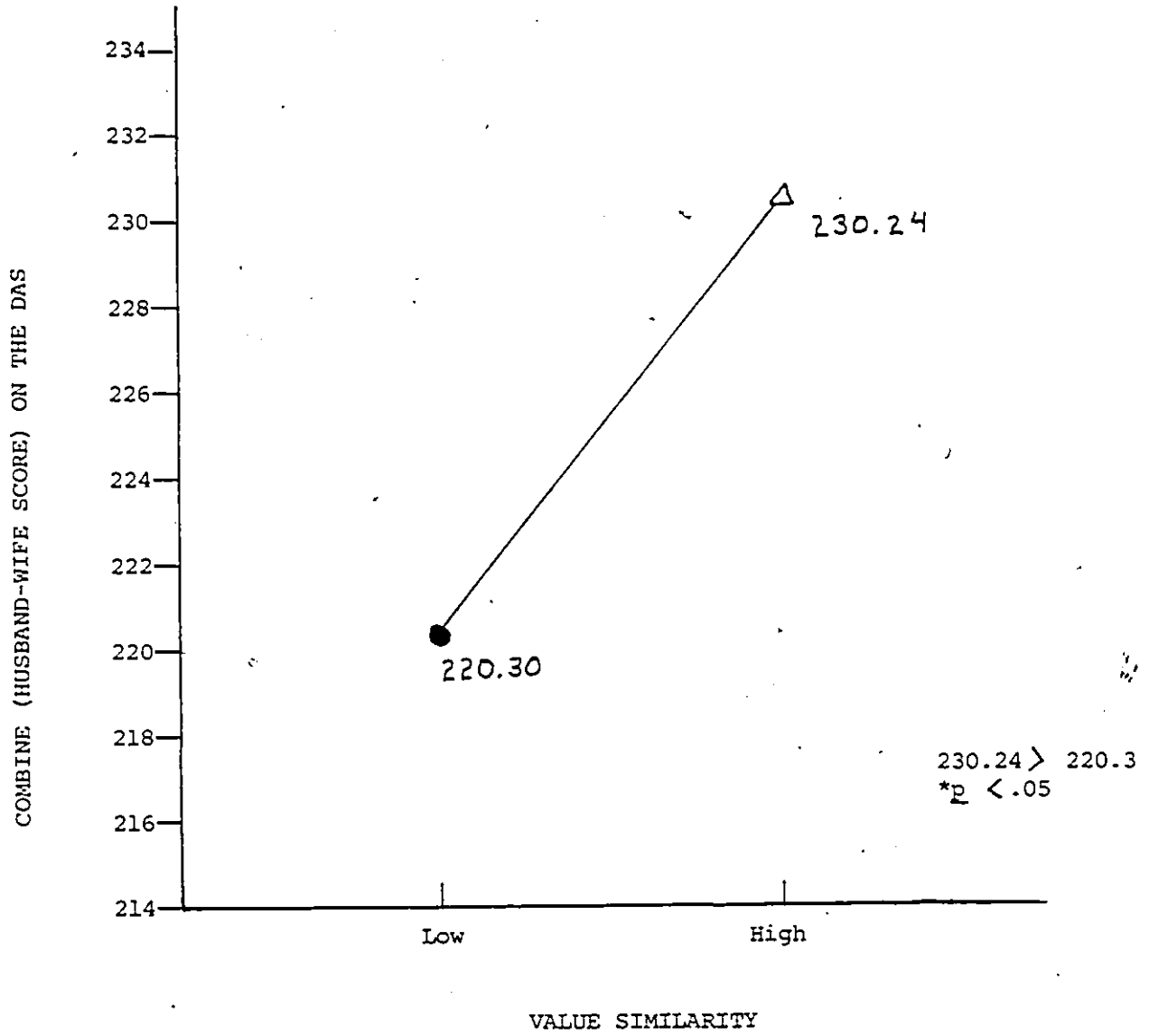


Figure 4

Means and significant difference between value similarity scores on Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale for value ranking 12.

COMBINE (HUSBAND-WIFE SCORE) ON THE DAS

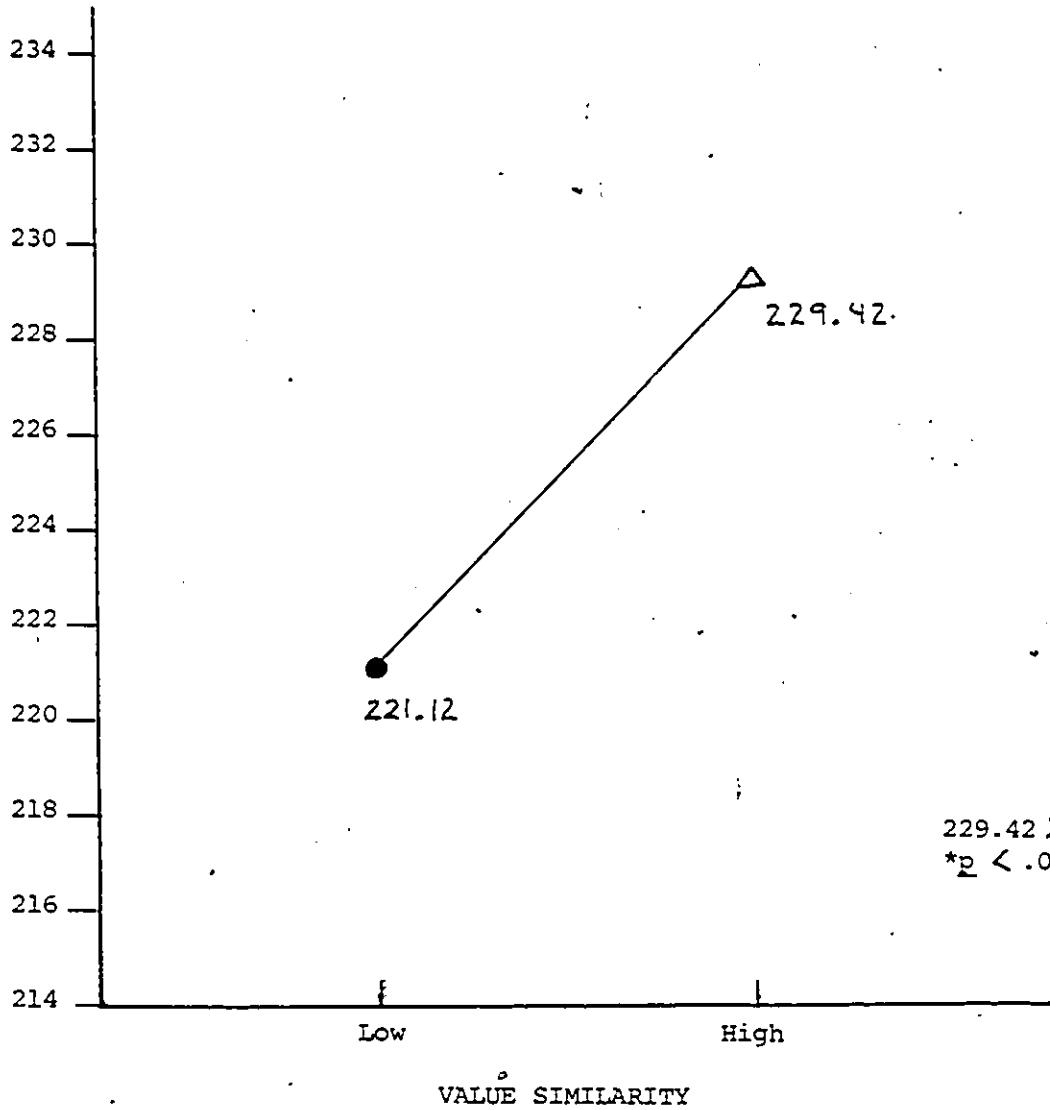
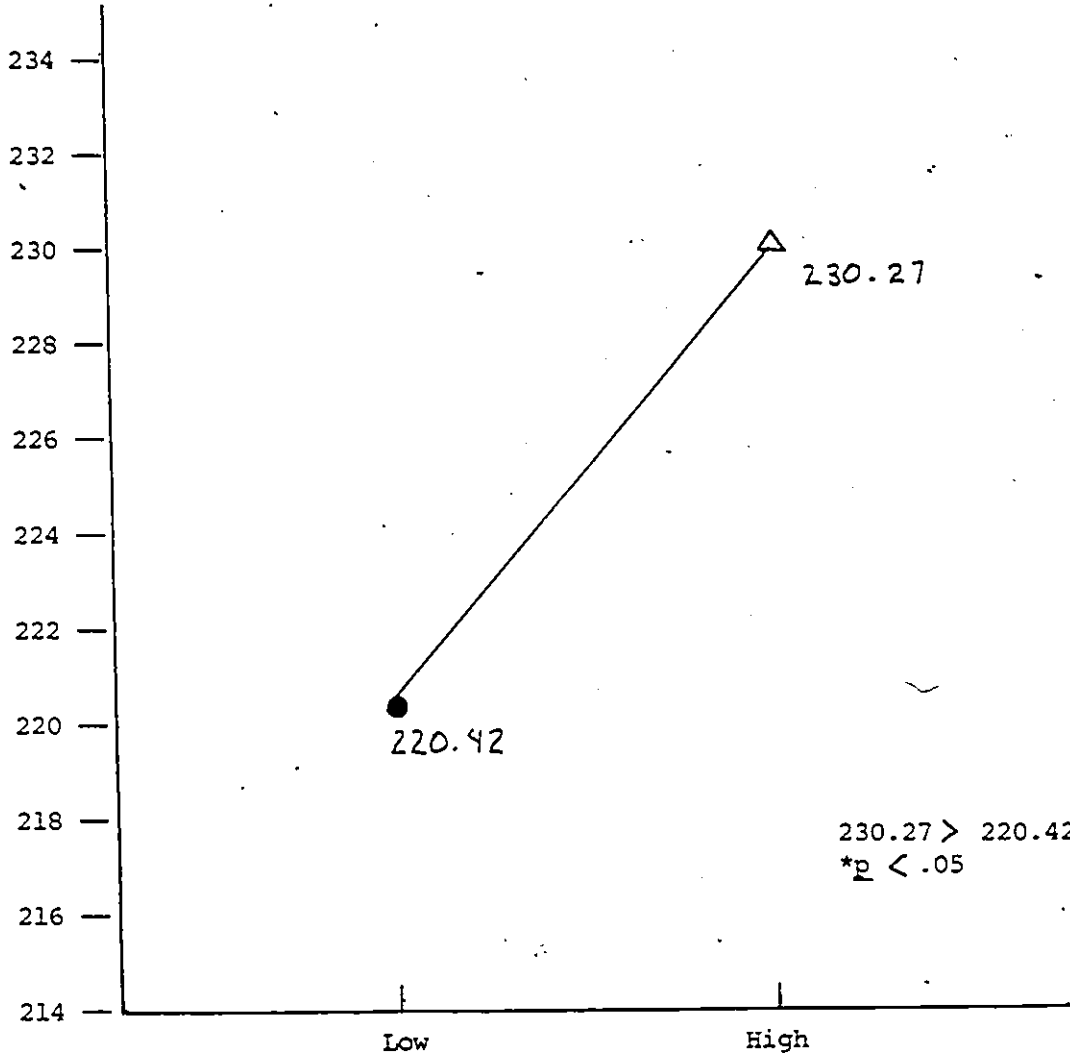


Figure 5

Means and significant difference between value similarity scores on Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale for value ranking 13.

COMBINE (HUSBAND-WIFE SCORE) ON THE DAS



230.27 > 220.42
*p < .05

VALUE SIMILARITY

Figure 6

Means and significant difference between value similarity scores on Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale for value ranking 16.

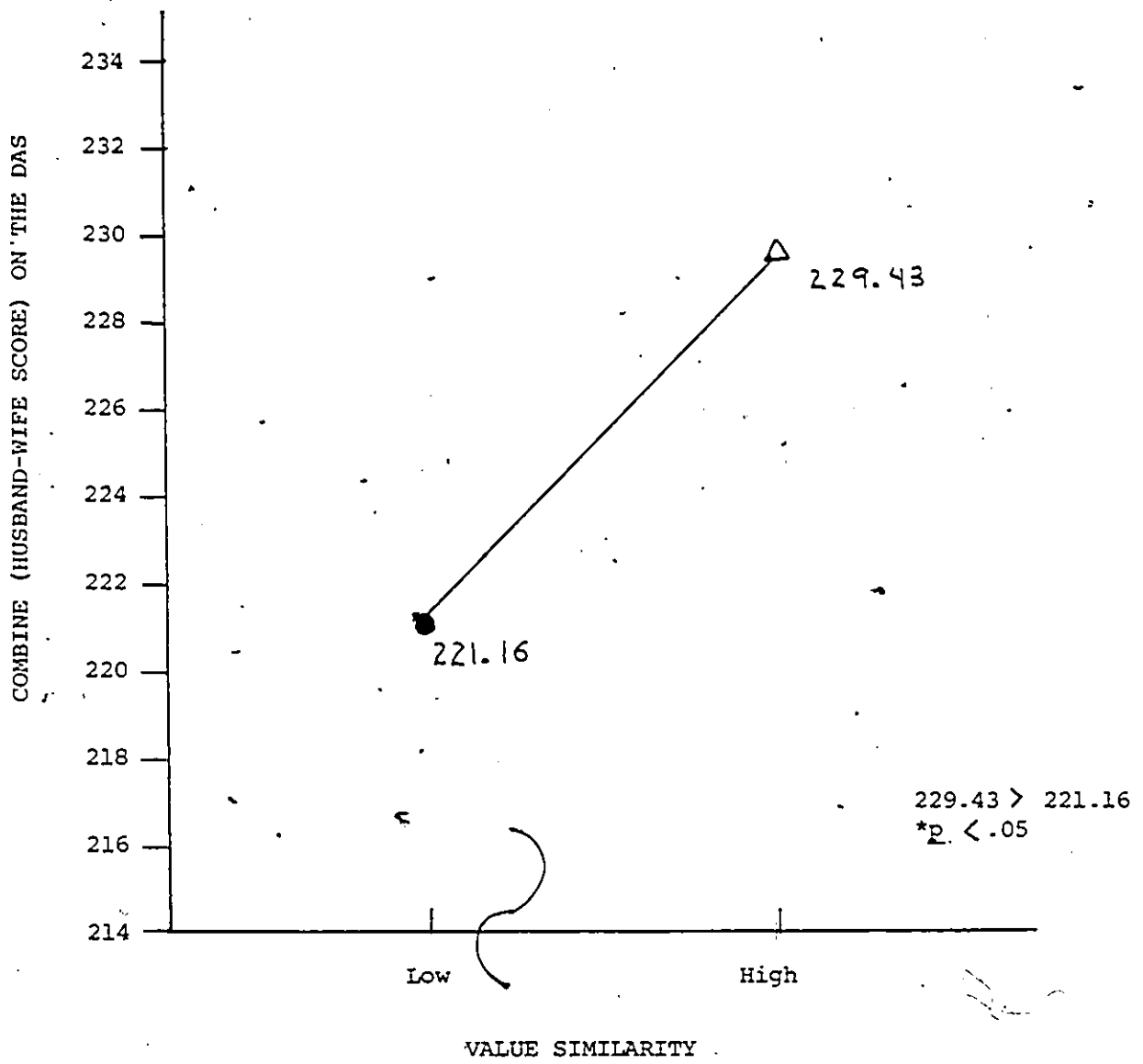


Table 7

Beta Coefficients between Degree of Value
Similarity and the Couples DAS Score for
the Eighteen Analyses

Value Ranking	Beta	Beta ²	% of Accounted Variance
1	.02	.0004	0.04
2	.09	.0084	0.84
3	.01	.0001	0.01
4	.04	.0016	0.16
5	.07	.0049	0.49
6	.05	.0025	0.25
7	.09	.0081	0.81
8	.08	.0064	0.64
9	.18*	.0324	3.24
10	.12	.0144	1.44
11	.14	.0196	1.96
12	.15*	.0225	2.25
13	.18*	.324	3.24
14	.12	.0144	1.44
15	.10	.0100	1.00
16	.15*	.0225	2.25
17	.14	.0196	1.96
18	.14*	.0195	1.96

* $P < .05$

Table 8

Beta Coefficients between Number of Years
Married and the Couples DAS Score
for the Eighteen Analyses

Value Ranking	Beta	Beta ²	% of Accounted Variance
1	.20*	.0400	4.00
2	.21*	.0441	4.41
3	.20*	.0400	4.00
4	.20*	.0400	4.00
5	.20*	.0400	4.00
6	.20*	.0400	4.00
7	.20*	.0400	4.00
8	.20*	.0400	4.00
9	.21*	.0441	4.41
10	.21*	.0441	4.41
11	.21*	.0441	4.41
12	.21*	.0441	4.41
13	.21*	.0441	4.41
14	.21*	.0441	4.41
15	.22*	.0484	4.84
16	.21*	.0441	4.41
17	.21*	.0441	4.41
18	.22*	.0484	4.84

*p < .05

18 were considered. A significant, but much less consistent result was found for degree of value similarity which emerged on value rankings 9, 12, 13, and 16. No interaction effects between value similarity and years married were found.

The Beta coefficients ranged from .01 to .18 for degree of value similarity and indicate a low amount of the total variance on marital adjustment scores was accounted for. Coefficients for number of years married ranged between .20 and .22 and also indicate a low amount of the total variance on marital adjustment scores was accounted for by years married.

C. Discriminant Analysis

In addition, there was interest in determining which of the Rokeach values would provide the best differentiation between two groups of subjects differing (via a median split) on Spanier's DAS. A stepwise discriminant analysis was performed using the subjects score on the DAS as the criterion variable. The eighteen hierarchically ranked Rokeach values served as the potentially discriminating variables.

The significant discriminant function ($p < .05$) had an eigen value of .069. The canonical correlation was .253, indicating approximately six per cent of the separation variance could be accounted for by the discriminant function. The best separation (discriminating) variables were found among the terminal values to be: A World at Peace, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $-.40$, A World of Beauty, with a standardized discriminant function

coefficient of $-.31$, Happiness, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $.25$, Pleasure, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $-.33$, Social Recognition, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $-.39$, and Wisdom with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $-.38$. Those instrumental values included: Clean, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $.28$, Helpful, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $-.24$, Honest, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $.38$, Imaginative, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $-.32$, and Polite, with a standardized discriminant function coefficient of $-.34$. See Appendix 4.

D. Demographic Investigation

A Pearson Product moment Correlation was performed on a number of the demographic indicies. These included: 1) the highest grade completed, 2) religious preference, 3) number of children, 4) socioeconomic status, as measured by means of the Blischen scale (Crysdaly & Beattie, 1977), 5) the number of years married and 6) the Spanier adjustment score of the couple. A separate correlation was performed between the husband-wife adjustment scores of the sample.

The most consistent findings emerged between the number of years married and the couples socioeconomic status, the Spanier adjustment score, the number of children and the highest grade completed all being significant at the ($p < .01$) level. The highest grade completed was highly correlated for socioeconomic status ($p < .01$) and the socioeconomic status was found to be

correlated with the number of children ($p < .01$) Finally, adjustment scores between partners were significantly correlated at the ($p < .001$) level. A correlation matrix for these variables may be found in Appendix 5 and Table 9.

E. Investigation of the Effects of Order

In order to investigate the potentially confounding variable of test presentation (or order effect), couples received either a packet presentation containing the DAS and then the VS or the VS and then the DAS. The independent variable was thus 'order' which had two levels. The dependent variables were the combined DAS score and the composite VS score. Sample sizes for the effects of order are presented in Table 10.

The null hypothesis can be stated: there are no significant differences on either the DAS or VS scores between order 1 and 2. The means, standard deviations, variance and the number of subjects in each condition are presented in Appendix 6 and 7.

The resulting analyses of variance indicated that there were no significant F ratios present (see Appendix 8). Thus the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. The probability that the order of the tests influenced responses on these measures appears to be reduced.

Table 9

Intercorrelation's for Selected Demographic Variables

	<u>Married</u>	<u>Years</u>	<u>SES</u>
Number of Children	.20		.13
SES	.13		1.0
Level of Education	.12		.14
DAS Score	.15		.04
Husband DAS Score	.79		
Wife DAS Score			

Table 10

Sample Size of Couples for
Order Effects Investigation

Order	Years Married			
	1-12	13-24	25-50	
1. (DAS-VS)	28	33	30	91
2. (VS-DAS)	21	40	20	81
TOTAL	49	73	50	172

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This section will present a discussion and analyses of the results, concluding remarks and directions for future research. The discussion begins with the results of the issue of spouse value similarity and number of years married on marital adjustment. The discussion proceeds with an examination of the design, the theoretical foundation, the sampling method and research tools in accounting for the results.

A. Spouse Value Similarity

Examination of the statistical results indicates the present study failed to confirm the hypotheses in the expected direction. Spouse value similarity was statistically analyzed in a stepwise, hierarchical fashion. Beginning with the highest ranked terminal and instrumental value of each partner, composite value similarity scores were obtained and an analysis of variance performed. In subsequent analyses the next highest ranked terminal and instrumental value of each partner was added into the composite score (according to the composite formula). As a result eighteen analyses of covariance were performed, each examining a complex of hierarchical ranked values proceeding progressively from the highest ranked value, to those values ranked 1 and 2, and so forth until all 18 terminal and instrumental values were accounted for in the analysis. A median split was used to differentiate subjects into two groups (high and low) on degree of value similarity before placing the couples' adjustment scores into the 2x3 design as the dependent measure.

The eighteen analyses in which value similarity was examined as a main effect showed inconsistent results for this phenomenon. No significance was found for this effect as value rankings included the highest ranked terminal and instrumental value for each partner. A stepwise addition of the first eight rankings also showed no significance. Addition of the ninth ranked value to this composite did show significance as did an examination of the first twelve and thirteen values. However the first fourteen and fifteen ranked values once again showed no significance. Ranking sixteen did yield a pattern of significance, yet value rankings seventeen and eighteen did not. Examination of Figures 3 to 6 shows an increase in the composite marital adjustment score from low to high groups on value similarity.

These results lead to the apparent conclusion that the impact of spouse value similarity on marital adjustment scores, as measured in the present study, is a very borderline or peripheral phenomenon. Values do play a part, however, in accounting for a low percentage of the variance within marital adjustment. It appears that while an aggregate complex of value rankings is needed before significance is found even this structure is highly unstable and unable to produce consistent results in its impact on marital adjustment. Hence it must be concluded that the impact of value similarity on adjustment is minimal and clouded by inconsistency.

C. Cross Sectional Design

The difference found in value similarity in the study also may be addressed in terms of the limitations of the cross sectional design strategy. These limitations have been thoroughly discussed by a number of authors (Schram, 1979; Spanier, et. al., 1975) who point to a variety of age, generational and cohort variables which may act to selectively bias the data. In this case cohort effects could gradually eliminate from the potential sample those marriages which terminate in divorce. Thus any increase in adjustment between stages would need to be corrected for the decreasing likelihood at each stage that severely maladjusted marriages would be included. Hence the absence of those marriages would act to artificially increase the mean adjustment score for each subsequent stage.

Generational differences represent another confounding bias inherent in this type of design. Specifically this means that norms and tradition vary with generations. This may be viewed in terms of differential divorce rates and commitment to marriage across the generations with older couples being more stable. Yet this in itself represents the influence of values in the culture and as such may become a selected area of study. In this context research may examine in greater qualitative detail those values thought to be significantly effected by this phenomenon.

Baltes (1968) has also suggested apart from age-cohort differences that high levels of marital adjustment reported in later years are more a function of chronological age or age related perceptions than of actual changes in the relationship. Here selective survival, sampling and drop out rates are all thought to influence the level of marital adjustment.

Social desirability, conventionality and acquiescent response sets are also viewed as possible variables which may add bias to the system as the couple copes with unhappiness through dissonance reduction. Here the couple, regardless of the quality of the relation, defines their marriage as acceptable as

divorce becomes less of an alternative in the later years.

Recently theorists (Miller, 1975; Nock, 1979; Schram, 1979; Spanier & Sauer, 1979) have addressed the difficulties associated with the conceptualization and operationalization of the family life cycle and the cross sectional design. Their conclusions, which point toward the use of generational/sequential-longitudinal analysis, a limited developmental perspective, role taking behavior and transitions, and intensive interviews with matched pairs are fully warranted and critical to the efforts of future research. These suggestions by their very nature also serve to highlight the relative level of sophistication now employed within the field. While a number of notable exceptions exists, including the ground breaking three generational study of Guilford & Bengston (1970), the research has struggled in attempts to assess a multifaceted and highly complex phenomenon with very limited resources,

There are no simple solutions to the problems enumerated above. They are an inherent component of the cross sectional design strategy and have contributed to much of the ambiguity which currently plagues the field. The present study chose a cross sectional design due to practical, physical and financial constraints in obtaining a sample that would respond to self administered questionnaires on marital adjustment and personal values. The above variables undoubtedly contributed to the study's findings. However it is felt that in concert with past research the results of the present study warrant a second and serious consideration by researchers.

1. Spanier's DAS

An examination of the means of the sample population of the DAS (Figure 7 & 8) reveal several interesting trends. First,

the figures yield norms similar to those reported by Spanier & Cole (1976) for their sample of married couples (Appendix 9 & 10). Second, a significant difference was found between the means of high and low degree of value similarity couples in level 3 on the DAS. It is important to note that this difference within level 3 exists "above and...."

Figure 7

Mean scores for husbands and wives on the DAS across length of time married.

COMBINED DAS SCORE FOR HUSBANDS AND WIVES

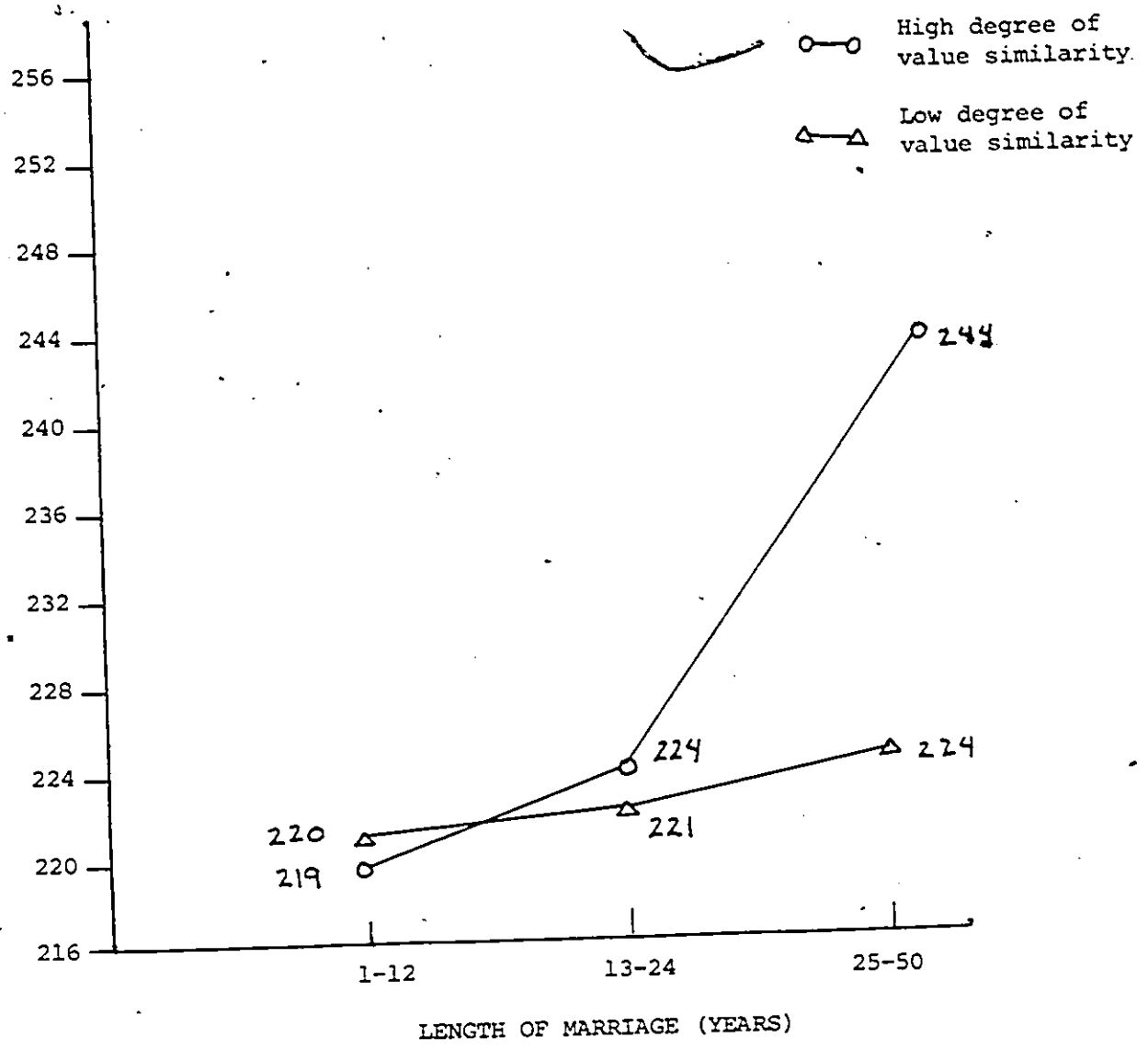
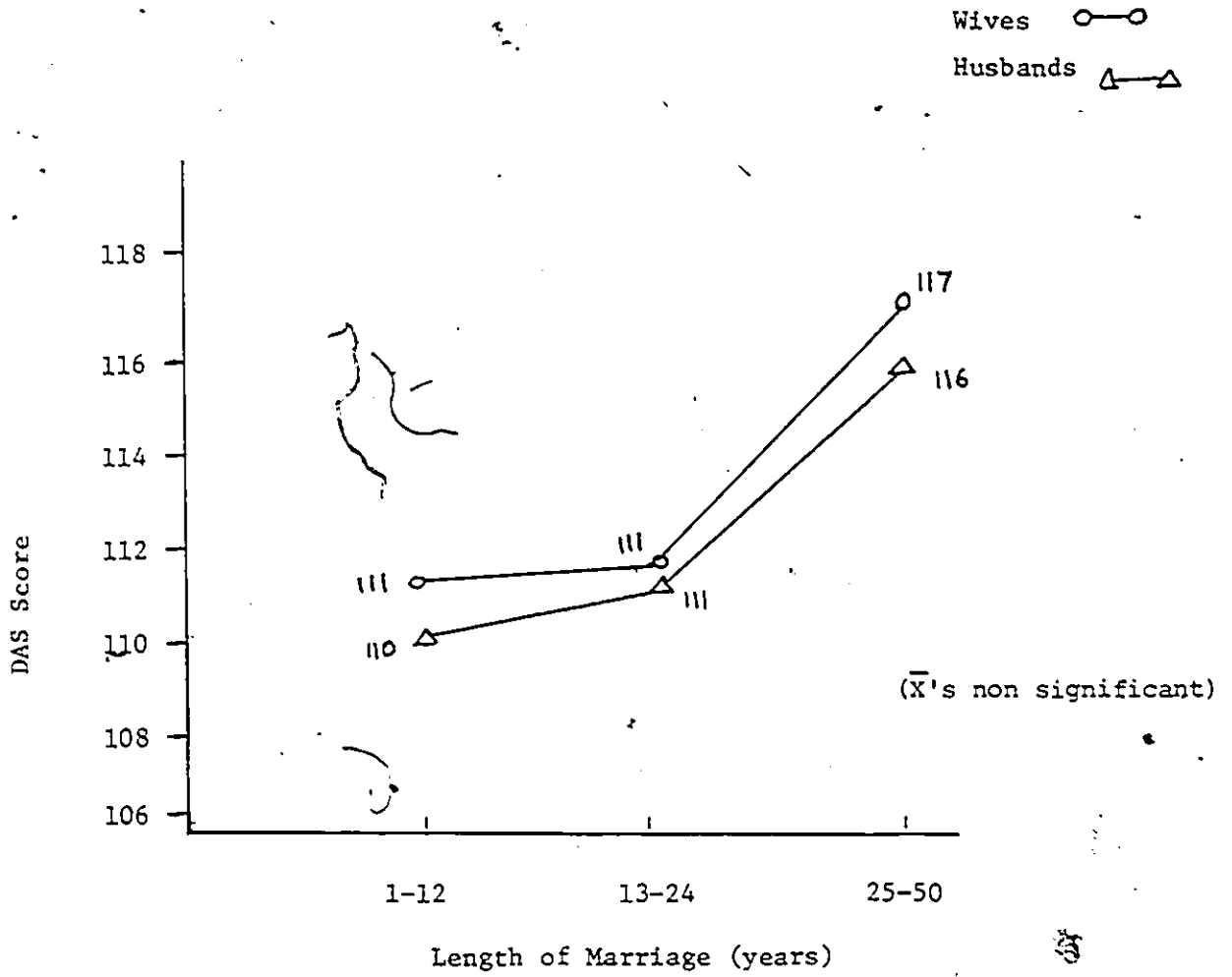


Figure 8

Combined mean marital DAS score for high and low degree of value similarity groups across length of time married.



beyond" the hazards of the cross sectional method and after groups (high and low value similarity) were created, via a median split. Hence the effect is deemed a significant one which highlights the impact of value similarity on marital adjustment in this latter segment of marriage. Although no effect was found to exist in either the early or middle segments of marriage it appears that value similarity does begin to mediate marital adjustment and takes on increased salience in the sample population after 25 years of marriage.

In an explanation of this phenomenon past research has indicated that during this period, tensions in the home decrease, especially following the exit of children (Bradburn & Copolovitz, 1965). Secondly, financial-economic worries lessen and the greatest amount of satisfaction appears to be derived from the relationship between the couple (Axelson, 1960). Campbell (1975) has also found that couples in this period tend to report feelings of increased companionship and mutual understanding, which may be due to the fact that at this time it is the couple themselves that once again forms the nuclear unit of the family.

Following along this basic premise, one would expect that professional-social-personal roles, i.e., changes in employment, the anticipation of readiness for retirement, the continued maturation of the person (involving life style orientation-goals-philosophy of life) are occurring concomitantly. As a result of these changes one would expect a focal shift in the individual's perceptions of himself and of his world. Such a shift would involve a subsequent impact upon the individual's self concept, as well as his/her beliefs, attitudes, values- in short, ones Total Belief System (Rokeach, 1973). Hence values would be viewed as taking on an increased salience during this phase of life.

In an extension of this premise to Byrne's model, Wagner (1975) has found interpersonal attraction to be dependent upon the extent to which an individual both gratified another's social need and fulfilled the obligations of the role context in which the relationship existed. Due to the reorientation of an individual's personal-social world, as one's field of interests are narrowed and refocused on to the marital relation, values are viewed to move into a position of increased prominence in one's life. In providing a source of understanding and companionship through belief similarity a spouse may then become increasingly instrumental in the consensual validation of one's social reality. Hence, the sample of high value similarity couples are viewed to fulfill both the social needs and role needs of their partners' to a greater degree than do low value similarity couples. Their ability to instrumentally reward their partners' need for consensual validation thus functions to reinforce the relationship (Clore & Byrne, 1974). A rise in marital adjustment, a part of which is predicated upon the attraction of spouses, would be an expected result of such gratification as one finds that values, belief similarity, begins to mediate attraction during the latter years of marriage.

Value similarity would thus warrant a second look by researchers. First, as a variable that has a sound theoretical rationale, in the context of the work of Byrne and Rokeach. And second, as a variable that has demonstrated some utility in mediating marital adjustment in the latter years of marriage. Along these lines future research may seek to zero in on this latter segment of marriage in isolation, or in a more detailed examination of it, in its relation to other segments. However more will be said about possible extensions of this study later in the section.

C. Discriminant Analysis

From a purely exploratory point of view this study was interested in examining that potential complex of values which serve as the best predictors (discriminators) of marital adjustment. While previous studies have broached this area (Coombs, 1966; Shotland, 1973; Sikula, 1973) findings in the field of marital adjustment have been limited by the lack of an overall theoretical framework and inadequate test instruments. The work of Byrne and Rokeach are seen to provide a much needed element of sophistication to make such an exploration a worthwhile effort at this time.

It is important to note that this phase of the study represents an excursion into the "land of the dragons". That is, an attempt to go beyond the efforts of previous research, theoretically and statistically, and begin to examine and delimit those values which best discriminate marital adjustment. As such our conclusions are considered to be at best tentative. The major thrust of this phase of the design is to provide a foothold and direction from which future research may operate and direct its attention.

Table one shows that complex of terminal and instrumental value variables which marginally distinguishes between high and low levels of adjustment in this sample. From a general exchange theory perspective several observations come to light. On a strictly descriptive level, one finds that these values may be characterized as reciprocal or communal values. Communal values represent shared values which are brought to fruition within the context of the interpersonal-dyadic relation. They help to form the basis for dyadic interaction by providing a foundation for the sharing of meaning and experiences in life. For example, it might be suggested that a couple sharing the value 'helpful' may actualize such a value in their relationship through giving, compromising, and concern, thus establishing

a basis for a caring, well-adjusted relationship. Additionally, shared values of 'a world at peace' or 'a world of beauty' may actualize themselves in a couple's basic philosophical world view, thus encouraging a process of mutually working together, to create a harmony within the living space. As such these values become salient as they do in fact represent a reciprocity between the couple. In contrast to other values (national security, ambition, logical, intellectual of the Value Survey that serve a more self oriented position in life) reciprocal values are seen to enhance and nourish both partners in a relationship. With its emphasis on rewards, costs and reciprocity, exchange theory would suggest that a mutually satisfying and successful relation would logically follow from the establishment and active maintenance of such reciprocal values within the life space of the couple. The more the couple could actualize these values as common referents through attitudes, roles or behavior, the greater the likelihood that both partners and the relationship would profit from them as the mutual benefits would outweigh the shared costs.

One significant aspect of this model is in the manner that these values are conceived, established and lived out in a relationship. While these values characterize the entire sample they are experienced and carry different meaning for couples who are at different points in their marital career. Simply stated, happiness means very different things to a newlywed, a new parent, or a spouse who has just retired. With this in mind, future research may seek to assess the manner in which these values are experienced and enacted by the couple. That is how are they related to the various roles and transition phases of the marital career? Or, how do they influence decision-making, or self and other attributions? In addressing these issues, researchers may employ one or more values within a

generational or sequential-longitudinal analysis (Baltes, 1968) to establish or to zero in on and begin to define the course of these value variables throughout the marital career. The answers will both enlarge and refine our knowledge regarding the marital career.

D. Byrne's Attraction Paradigm

While a complex of value rankings did show significance on some occasions, its effects fell short of any possibility that values might serve as a...

practicable indice of marital adjustment. And as a result the present study failed to confirm Byrne's tenets.

Byrne's paradigm was constructed in the laboratory with the use of the similar stranger design. This method afforded Byrne and his colleagues a great deal of control in manipulating attitude similarity, upon which attraction is predicted. As a result Byrne drew his major conclusion that attraction was a linear function of the proportion of similar attitudes expressed.

In addition, a number of attempts have also been made to extend the model to situations outside of the laboratory (Byrne, Ervin & Lamberth, 1970; Cattell & Nesselroade, 1967; Pickford, Signori & Remple, 1967). While successful, it is important to note these studies are generally correlational in nature calling to attention the importance of marital happiness and similarity between partners.

Yet the most commonly made criticism of the Byrne model remains its laboratory nature and the strength of its generalizability of the complexities encountered in real life situations (Anderson, 1971; Centers, 1975; Murstein, 1970; Taylor, 1970). In addition (Anderson, 1971; Kaplan & Anderson, 1973) have noted that informational qualities of observations may be more significant than their reinforcing qualities in attraction. Santee (1976) has extended this concept by postulating that attitude similarity is not in itself reinforcing, but motivating, as one anticipates the rewards and costs in interactions with others.

These statements begin to take on meaning as a number of the factors involved in marital adjustment research are recalled. These include: the congruence

of role perceptions (Katz, 1963; Kotlar, 1965), compatibility between roles, expectations and evaluation and performance (Aller, 1962; Axelson, 1963; Murstein & Beck, 1972), affective involvement (Gurin et al., 1960; Luckey, 1964; Levinger, 1964), and open communication (Navran, 1967; Levinger et al, 1970).

In this context Byrne's model is acknowledged to be a sophisticated predictor of attraction in certain situations. These predictors appear to be most useful in situations in which the experimenter is able to maintain a fair amount of control over his subjects. However, in situations outside of the lab, one must recognize the model's limitations as the phenomenon itself grows more complex. These limitations which Byrne (1973) has acknowledged revolve centrally around the criticisms raised by Anderson, Kaplan and Santee. More importantly Byrne has urged for a systematic integration of varying approaches to deal with such issues.

Results of the present study are seen in terms of its attempts to extend Byrne's model to an exceedingly complex area. From this vantage it is apparent that value similarity accounted for some, albeit a low percentage, of the total variance on marital adjustment scores. Based upon this knowledge future research may seek to address itself to this area but to broaden its theoretical scope. This may be done through a dovetailing of Information theory or Exchange theory along with Byrne's paradigm in attempting to provide a more comprehensive theoretical structure in the study of marital stability, compatibility or styles of interaction. In this way Byrne's model, as well as other alternative approaches, are extended, enlarged and reformulated in lines of research efforts.

However before a final judgement is passed upon Byrne's model the present study must be assessed in terms of several other facets. These include the sampling method and the assessment tools employed. For it is felt that such a test of Byrne's theory is of necessity only as good as the research strategy.

E. Methodological Procedure and Research Tools

Difficulties in cross-sectional sampling have already been examined in light of the inconsistent findings of the present study. An additional factor that bears heavily upon this issue also includes the use of mail questionnaires as a medium for gathering responses. The use of mail questionnaires was justified earlier as a realistic and appropriate manner of gathering data in an in vivo study. Mail questionnaires possess the advantage of offering the subject anonymity and the freedom of completing the task under limited constraints. As with all mail surveys the result is that a hoped for sample will emerge that has voluntarily and openly responded to the items. Finally, in the context of the present study, it afforded the opportunity to contact a large number of potential subjects within a specific target population with relative ease.

Response rate to the questionnaire was approximately twenty five percent after insufficiently completed packets were discarded ($n = 15$). This figure gave the author the experimental 'go ahead' in terms of sample size to begin statistical analysis. Yet the question arises as to the effect the remaining number of packets ($n = 513$) may have had upon the analyses. While this issue is to some extent circular in nature, (as non response rates are included in the (1) estimate of the number of responses needed, (2) the number of questionnaires distributed) it is one that still needs to be explored.

Methodologically, Moser (1972) notes the importance of obtaining at least a twenty per cent response rate in order to deal effectively with the data. Prior studies of marital adjustment have employed response rates of 26.4% (Mathews & Milhanovich, 1969), a 45% response rate (Rollins & Cannon, 1974) and a 23% response rate (Spanier, 1974).

Regarding the present study, perhaps the simplest explanation of non responses related to the number of marginally or poorly adjusted couples who were lost through the voluntary nature of the design. In this case such self reports may have been perceived as adding undesired stress to the relationship. Indeed, this was the stated case in a number of the author's own contacts with potential respondents.

A second reason may include caution and hesitancy upon the part of the respondent to disclose on the questionnaire in spite of the insured anonymity. Another reason may lie in a conscious personal choice not to respond due to the personal nature of some of the items. Specifically, those of the DAS may have discouraged some of the more traditionally oriented couples with its reference to affectional expression and sexual compatibility. Other reasons may include disinterest, refusal of one partner to participate or the fact that a number of questionnaires reached homes in which a married couple did not reside (in the case of divorced, separated or widowed individuals, when contact was unable to be established). These difficulties are viewed within the present design as existing as an inherent problem of this type of research.

1. Research Tool

The use of the Rokeach Value Survey has only been broached. At this time comments will be addressed specifically to it. The rationale for the choice

of the VS was in the degree of sophistication it offered over alternative measures. The suggested use of the work of Rokeach by Murstein (1976) lended additional support for its utilization. Finally the Value Survey has shown itself to be a sensitive instrument in assessing values in a variety of settings, (Rokeach, 1973; Shotland, 1968; Sikula, 1970).

Knowledge regarding the use of the cross sectional design and Spanier's DAS make crystalized conclusions of the Value Survey difficult. Nonetheless support is still found for its continued use. Specifically, it is felt that the Value Survey is indeed a sensitive instrument in assessing value patterns in married couples. As a sensitive instrument it is postulated to pick up much of the variance that exists in an individual's profile. However when distinctions between means of differing groups are small effects, (that is; between one half or one quarter of one standard deviation, as in the present study) the resulting between cell variance is simply lost sight of in terms of the larger within cell variability. As a result the variance between groups is thus insignificant. The Value Survey stands as a tool of import which must await inclusion into future designs in order to concretely demonstrate its usefulness in marital dyads.

F. Demographic Investigation .

Results of the demographic correlations (Table 9 and Appendix 5) deal with the selected social characteristics of the sample. Highly correlated variables included: The number of years married with 1) the number of children ($r = .20$), 2) socioeconomic status ($r = .13$), 3) the couples DAS score ($r = .15$). Socio-

economic status was correlated with 1) the number of children ($r = .12$), 2) level of education ($r = .14$). Husband and wife scores on the DAS were found to have a correlation of ($r = .79$).

The results are of interest as they serve to delimit the demographic indicies of the sample population with regard to past research. In this respect socioeconomic status has been shown to be correlated with level of education, number of children and length of marriage in a number of studies (Hicks & Platt, 1970). The significant correlation between length of marriage and number of children stands as a common sense deduction while the husband-wife score correlation would highlight the similarity of perceptions with which the marriage is viewed by the couples.

G. Conclusions and Directions for Future Research

The eighteen analyses of variance performed in a stepwise hierarchical manner yielded the following results:

Main effects of value similarity on marital adjustment were often not found and when they were the pattern was inconsistent and inconclusive. While an aggregate complex of values appears to be needed for significance to be found, even this structure produced highly variable and inconsistent results.

Main effects of the number of years married on marital adjustment scores functioned consistently yielding a significant difference between groups. In every case, adjustment was seen to increase gradually between level 1 to level 3.

While there was some evidence that value similarity does seem to mediate adjustment in the latter years of marriage its overall impact was viewed as a borderline or peripheral phenomenon. In an exploration of the possible

reasons for this effect, a number of avenues were examined. These included: 1) differential attrition across levels of adjustment, 2) the difficulties in extending and adapting Byrne's theory to in vivo situations. 3) Methodological difficulties involving sampling procedure, 4) the use of mail questionnaires in securing an adequate response rate. 5) The discussion also examined the use of the Value Survey and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale as research tools in the present design.

The complex of terminal values (A World at Peace, A World of Beauty, Happiness, Pleasure, Social Recognition, Wisdom) and instrumental values (Clean, Helpful, Honest, Imaginative, Polite) which emerged from the discriminant function analysis were viewed with interest as they lent some support to previous research efforts (Murstein, 1976; Shotland, 1968; Sikula, 1970) indicating the importance of values in dyadic formation and interpersonal compatibility. Viewed as reciprocal values that enhance the self and the other they are seen to promote and nourish a relationship and also to provide a foundation for future research. Demographic results tended to confirm the efforts of past research. Finally no interaction effects on any of the eighteen analyses of variance were found.

In spite of the difficulties of the present design discussed in terms of the above topics, it is felt that this area remains a fascinating and researchable one. Theoretically, the work of Byrne viewed in the context of dovetailing alternative approaches (Information, Exchange Theory) still exists as a viable and solidly based paradigm for future research. Speculatively such a linkage may be conceived in terms of a marital flow process under the auspices of Murstein's SVR Theory (1976) and Attribution Theory (Kelley, 1976).

While Murstein's theory seeks to deal only with dyadic formation, an extension of the model into marital dyads is possible. It is postulated that once a dyad has been formed the value-role phases are seen to continue and to undergo further refinement, alteration and change as the couple interacts. Behavior, both verbal and nonverbal, occur and are experienced in terms of the rewards and costs of interactions. Values, attitudes and roles are impacted upon in the process as the other is viewed in terms of his/her power to reward and provide consensual validation of needs.

The Anderson-Byrne quandary of whether stimuli are informational or reinforcing may be addressed in this model in the context of Attribution theory (Kelley, 1976). Kelley assumes that people interpret events in the context of information about the circumstances and frequency of the events occurrence. He adds that close relationships too, are marked by such information assembly (seen in the form of scorekeeping and comparing instances, which most frequently occur in times of conflict).

His statement "in times of conflict" adds an important dimension to his proposition. It implies that such assembly occurs not in an emotional vacuum but that it is intimately linked to affective, emotionally charged and reinforcing stimuli. Such stimuli can be seen to reinforce and link behaviors, cognitions and feelings upon which attraction is based. Hence informational stimuli do possess an implicit reinforcing quality. Seen within the proposed design they come to fruition in light of Byrne's Reinforcement-Affect Paradigm.

The work of Rokeach should also be considered for future use with married couples. It stands as a sensitive tool for the measurement of values despite

the results of the present study. Future research may wish to modify the list of terminal and instrumental values presented to the subjects. That is, a select number of the four or five highest ranked values may be employed based upon this study or the work of Rokeach (1973). Such a short form version of the Value Survey may be utilized on its own or within a test battery or interview situation. In so doing the limits of the Value Survey and Rokeach's theory of values may be tested out as its true sensitivity is appraised.

Perhaps the biggest obstacle facing the researcher is securing a sample that (1) will respond to a test battery and (2) more closely approximate the dichotomy between high and low adjustment couples as indicated by Spanier (1976) on the DAS. In this context, a sample population of in-counselling couples or those participating in a marriage enrichment program may possess a better chance of fulfilling this dichotomy than a probability or multistage sample.

The use of sequential-longitudinal analysis (Nesselroade & Baltes, 1974; Rollins, 1975) may also serve as an alternative. Such a technique would tap a specified population (for example, couples married between 1 to 5 years) on one of more dependent measures over a period of two to three years at regular intervals. In so doing research would 'zero in' on one phase of the marital life cycle and study its development in depth. It may also be necessary, within this or other designs, to consider the possible advantages of employing the use of paid volunteers to secure such a sample population.

Finally, as already alluded to, the test battery may be expanded to include a number of additional indicies. These may include personality measures and/or face to face interviews which serve to increase the amount of information concerning the couple and their style of communication. Lastly the possibility exists of having each partner respond to the questionnaire items in a variety of ways. For example, the subject may respond with his or her own genuine responses (employed in the present study), or the subject may respond in terms of how he or she perceives the spouse or how they believe the spouse is responding. Resultant contrasts may shed more light upon this phenomenon as it is related to adjustment.

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APPENDIX I

School of Psychology
University of Ottawa
1245 Kilborn Ave
Ottawa, Canada
231-2465

Dear Sir or Madam:

I am writing to ask your assistance on a research project I am conducting at the University of Ottawa. I am a graduate student working toward a doctoral degree in the area of Clinical Psychology. The research I am involved in concerns married couples, and is part of the degree program.

YOU MAY BE WONDERING;

WHY ME?

To gather a group of participants, I have selected, at random, one out of every one hundred and fifty single unit dwellings in the Nepean area. In this way I hope, with your help to get a representative sample of couples in the area.

WHY SHOULD I TAKE PART?

We at the University are doing research on marriage relations and the priorities people set as individuals. The study is intended to provide information that may facilitate (help), our understanding of points of happiness and friction in marriage. (It has been said that the institution of marriage needs all the understanding it can get these days.)

WHAT IS INVOLVED?

The attached envelope contains two identical packets. I would ask you and your spouse to each complete a packet by working separately and independently. The packets should only take thirty minutes to complete. When you have finished the packets please return them to me in the stamped envelope provided.

WHAT'S IN IT FOR ME?

Once I have received replies from all of you I shall be happy to provide you with a written overview of the project. In addition I shall schedule a group feedback session in the summer or fall for those of you who are interested.

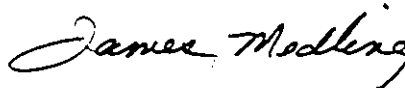
IS IT CONFIDENTIAL?

.YES! Please remember you home was choosen at random and that no names will be used. Your packet will be seen only by myself and will be placed into a general data bank containing packets of all the participants.

I realize this represents a slight imposition on your time, yet I ask you to please participate and I assure you of my appreciation for your contribution. Please return all forms to me as soon as possible within the next week. Should you have any immediate comments or questions I can be contacted at the above address.

Thank you for your time and help.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "James Medling".

James Medling

GENERAL INFORMATION

	<u>HUSBAND</u>	<u>WIFE</u>
1. AGE	_____	_____
2. MOTHER TONGUE	_____	_____
3. OCCUPATION	_____	_____
4. HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED	_____	_____
5. RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE	_____	_____
6. IS THIS YOUR FIRST MARRIAGE (circle one)	YES NO	YES NO

Regarding your present marriage, please indicate:

7. Number of years married.	_____
8. Length of engagement (months)	_____
9. Number of children.	_____
10. Ages of children	_____

11. Average annual income, not including your spouse. Place H (Husband), and W (Wife), to the left of the appropriate income range:


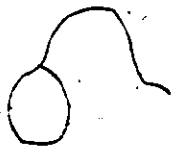
_____ under 8,000	_____ 20,000 - 25,000
_____ 8,000 - 12,000	_____ 25,000 - 30,000
_____ 12,000 - 15,000	_____ 30,000 - 35,000
_____ 15,000 - 20,000	_____ over 35,000

12. _____ Check here if you wish to receive either written or group feedback. If so, please provide a stamped self addressed envelope so that you may be contacted.

When you have finished, please turn the page and follow these same instructions in completing the next list of 18 values.

Work slowly and think carefully. If you change your mind, feel free to change your answers. The end product should truly show how you really feel.

As a reminder, please be sure to complete the General Information sheet that has been included. Finally if your marriage was by common law please do not complete the questionnaires.



FORM ARANKED IMPORTANCELIST 1

A COMFORTABLE LIFE
(a prosperous life)

AN EXCITING LIFE
(a stimulating, active life)

A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT
(lasting contribution)

A WORLD AT PEACE
(free of war and conflict)

A WORLD OF BEAUTY
(beauty of nature and the arts)

EQUALITY (brotherhood,
equal opportunity for all)

FAMILY SECURITY
(taking care of loved ones)

FREEDOM
(independence, free choice)

HAPPINESS
(contentedness)

INNER HARMONY
(freedom from inner conflict)

MATURE LOVE
(sexual and spiritual intimacy)

NATIONAL SECURITY
(protection from attack)

PLEASURE
(an enjoyable, leisurely life)

SALVATION
(saved, eternal life)

SELF-RESPECT
(self-esteem)

FORM A (cont'd)

SOCIAL RECOGNITION
(respect, admiration)

TRUE FRIENDSHIP
(close companionship)

WISDOM
(a mature understanding of life)

Please turn the page and complete the next list of 18 values.

FORM ARANKED IMPORTANCELIST 2

AMBITIOUS
(hard working, aspiring)

BROADMINDED
(open-minded)

CAPABLE
(competent, effective)

CHEERFUL
(lighthearted, joyful)

CLEAN
(neat, tidy)

COURAGEOUS (standing up for
your beliefs)

FORGIVING
(willing to pardon others)

HELPFUL (working for the
welfare of others)

HONEST
(sincere, truthful)

IMAGINATIVE
(daring, creative)

7 _____

INDEPENDENT (self-reliant,
self-sufficient)

INTELLECTUAL
(intellectual, reflective)

LOGICAL
(consistent, rational)

LOVING
(affectionate, tender)

OBEDIENT
(dutiful, respectful)

FORM A (cont'd)

POLITE
(courteous, well mannered)

RESPONSIBLE
(dependable, reliable)

SELF-CONTROLLED (restrained,
self-disciplined)

Please turn the page and complete Form B.

	<u>All the time</u>	<u>Most of the time</u>	<u>More often than not</u>	<u>Occas- ionally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, seperation, or terminating your relationship?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. Do you confide in your mate?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
20. Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
21. How often do you and your partner quarrel?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
22. How often do you and your mate "get on each others nerves"?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Every Day</u>	<u>Almost Every Day</u>	<u>Occas- ionally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
23. Do you kiss your mate?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	<u>All of Them</u>	<u>Most of Them</u>	<u>Some of Them</u>	<u>Very few of Them</u>	<u>None of Them</u>
24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

	<u>Never</u>	<u>Less than once a month</u>	<u>Once or twice a month</u>	<u>Once or twice a week</u>	<u>Once a day</u>	<u>More often</u>
25. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
26. Laugh together	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
27. Calmly discuss something	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
28. Work together on a project	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks. (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.

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 almost 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 now to help it succeed.
- It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now 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 II

CENSUS TRACT SUMMARY INFORMATION: NEPEAN TOWNSHIP

	TOTAL	130	131	132	133
Population (1971)	64,605	3,310	9,390	5,685	4,980
Married	30,925	1,545	4,605	2,790	2,390
Widowed	1,280	65	185	145	155
Single detached	10,540	700	935	1,070	1,150
Single attached	3,705	85	930	145	10
Persons per house- hold	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.7	3.8
Persons per family	3.8	4.0	3.7	3.7	3.8
Children per family	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.8

	134	135	136	137	139
Population (1971)	5,335	6,505	5,945	8,110	5,340
Married	2,420	3,025	2,900	3,680	2,500
Widowed	85	80	90	105	90
Single detached	1,015	1,280	1,370	1,395	1,015
Single attached	255	270	165	525	320
Persons per house- hold	4.2	4.2	3.8	4.2	4.0
Persons per family	4.1	4.1	3.9	4.2	4.0
Children per family	2.1	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.0

APPENDIX III

The Range, Mean and Transformed Scores of
the Ordinal Value Survey Rankings

Rokeach Ranking
(Terminal and Instrumental
Values)

Normalized Interval-
Level t-score

1		66.4
2		64.4
3		62.5
4		60.6
5		58.7
6		56.7
7		54.8
8		52.9
9		51.0
10		49.0
11		47.1
12		45.2
13		43.3
14		41.3
15		39.4
16		37.5
17		35.6
18		33.6
<hr/>		
1 to 18	Range	33.6 to 66.4
9.5	Mean	50.0
	Variance	26.83

APPENDIX IV

Standardized Discriminant Function
Coefficients for the Couples Combined
Score on the DAS

Values	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients
Terminal	
A World at Peace	-.404
A World of Beauty	-.307
Happiness	.246
Pleasure	-.327
Social Recognition	-.394
Wisdom	-.384
Instrumental	
Clean	.279
Helpful	-.247
Honest	.379
Imaginative	-.315
Polite	-.341

APPENDIX V

Intercorrelation Matrix for the Demographic Variables^a

	Educa- tion	Religion	Years Married	Children	SES	DAS Score
Education	-	-.006	<u>.121</u> (p .05)	.047	<u>.141</u> (p .01)	.001
Religion		-	.023	<u>-.181</u> (p .001)	.030	.018
Years Married			-	<u>.194</u> (p .001)	<u>.13</u> (p .01)	<u>.157</u> (p .01)
Children				-	<u>.125</u> (p .01)	-.033
SES					-	-.044
DAS Score						-

	Wifes DAS
Husbands DAS	<u>.791</u> (p .001)

^a All underlined coefficients are significant at the level indicated.

APPENDIX VI



Means, Standard Deviation, Variance and Number
of Subjects for Order 1 and 2 on the DAS

Order	N	\bar{X}	SD _s	Variance
1	91	223.8	27.7	739.84
2	81	226.6	27.5	756.25
Total	172	225.2	27.6	761.76

APPENDIX VII

Means, Standard Deviation, Variance, and Number
of Subjects for Order 1 and 2 on the
Value Survey (Ranking 18)

Order	N	\bar{X}	SD	Variance
1	91	334.2	24.8	615.04
2	81	328.8	26.1	681.21
Total	172	330.0	25.5	648.25

APPENDIX VIII

One way ANOVA to Investigate Order Effects on the DAS

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	1642.81	1	1642.81	2.1642
Within Groups	129041.81	170	759.069	

$$F_{199} (1,00) = 6.63$$

One Way ANOVA to Investigate Order Effects on the VS

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	2560.63	1	2560.63	3.00
Within Groups	144789.33	170	851.70	

$$F_{199} (1,00) = 6.63$$

APPENDIX IX

Number of Subjects, Means, Standard Deviations and
Variance of the Sample Population on the
DAS by Number of Years Married

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Variance
1-12 years married	98	110.0	15.4	237.16
Females	49	110.0	15.0	226.4
Males	49	109.9	15.8	251.3
13-24 years married	146	111.0	12.6	158.76
Females	73	112.0	12.8	166.1
Males	73	110.0	12.4	153.8
25-50 years married	100	116.7	15.6	248.6
Females	50	118.8	15.2	230.0
Males	50	114.5	16.3	267.2
TOTAL	344	112.37	12.92	166.92

APPENDIX X

Dyadic Marital Adjustment Scores by
Value Similarity and by Years Married

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Variance
High Value Similarity	85	228.3	27.7	769.9
1-12 years married	27	218.9	33.5	1124.5
13-24 years married	33	223.9	23.6	557.5
25-50 years married	25	243.5	19.6	385.1
Low Value Similarity	87	221.1	27.3	748.6
1-12 years married	22	220.1	25.2	634.4
13-24 years married	20	221.3	22.9	525.3
25-50 years married	25	224.2	32.3	1046.1
Total	172	225.2	27.6	764.5

APPENDIX XI

Median Scores on the 18 Rokeach Terminal Values
for High and Low Degree of Marital Adjustment Groups

Values	Degree of Marital Adjustment	
	Low	High
A Comfortable Life	51.06 (7)	51.43 (7)
An Exciting Life	50.72 (8)	50.73 (9)
A Sense of Accomplishment	49.95 (11)	49.95 (12)
A World at Peace	48.81 (15)	50.52 (10)
A World of Beauty	49.16 (13)	49.21 (14)
Equality	48.17 (16)	47.95 (16)
Family Security	49.00 (14)	48.24 (15)
Freedom	52.29 (5)	51.48 (6)
Happiness	51.19 (6)	47.10 (1)
Inner Harmony	53.51 (3)	50.78 (8)
Mature Love	53.85 (2)	52.75 (3)
National Security	49.48 (12)	49.71 (13)
Pleasure	51.95 (4)	52.81 (2)
Salvation	53.85 (1)	53.31 (1)
Self-Respect	50.52 (10)	52.16 (5)
Social Recognition	50.68 (9)	52.58 (4)
True Friendship	46.03 (17)	49.98 (11)
Wisdom	41.95 (18)	42.54 (18)

() = Value Rank

Median Scores on the 18 Rokeach Instrumental
Values for High and Low Degree of Marital Adjustment Groups

Value	Degree of Marital Adjustment	
	Low	High
Ambitious	50.56 (10)	50.77 (8)
Broadminded	47.21 (17)	47.47 (17)
Capable	50.96 (8)	49.95 (0)
Cheerful	51.32 (1)	49.05 (16)
Clean	52.26 (2)	49.95 (11)
Courageous	53.04 (1)	52.71 (2)
Forgiving	51.24 (7)	51.95 (7)
Helpful	50.89 (9)	51.95 (6)
Honest	51.95 (5)	50.28 (9)
Imaginative	50.37 (11)	52.58 (3)
Independent	49.27 (13)	51.95 (5)
Intellectual	50.10 (12)	53.12 (1)
Logical	52.09 (3)	51.95 (4)
Loving	51.95 (4)	48.43 (14)
Obedient	49.00 (14)	49.63 (12)
Polite	47.24 (16)	49.09 (13)
Responsible	48.58 (15)	48.37 (15)
Self-Controlled	47.14 (18)	45.35 (18)

() = Value rank

Appendix 12

Summary Table of the Eighteen Analyses of Variance:
Results of the Interaction of Value Similarity
and Length of Time Married on Marital Adjustment

<u>Analysis</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
1	1937.42	2	968.71	1.30
2	4376.50	2	2188.25	3.02
3	698.25	2	349.12	0.46
4	1064.94	2	532.47	0.71
5	684.93	2	342.47	0.45
6	464.78	2	232.39	0.39
7	350.56	2	175.28	0.23
8	1392.15	2	696.08	0.93
9	1285.38	2	642.69	0.88
10	1998.33	2	999.17	1.35
11	2192.38	2	1096.19	1.50
12	3301.52	2	1650.76	2.29
13	3467.11	2	1733.55	2.44
14	836.05	2	418.03	0.56
15	877.16	2	438.56	0.58
16	2753.52	2	1376.76	1.89
17	4365.28	2	2182.64	3.039
18	1910.37	2	955.19	1.31

F.95 (2,166) = 3.04