

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by R. Bruce McCoy entitled "Gender and Marital Satisfaction." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Human Ecology.

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GENDER AND MARITAL SATISFACTION

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Degree

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ABSTRACT

This study examined whether husbands report higher marital satisfaction than their wives and a social exchange definition of marital satisfaction (marital satisfaction is equal to marital outcomes minus marital expectations). Spouses from 54 couples completed Sabatelli's Marital Comparison Level Index which requested they rate 32 items according to how their actual marital experience compares with their expectations. These same 32 items also were administered on three other occasions as independent measures of outcomes, expectations, and importance. Results revealed no differences between husbands and wives on any of four measures of marital satisfaction. Neither were there significant differences between husbands and wives on measures of outcomes and expectations. However, wives scored higher than husbands on the measure of importance and, when outcomes and expectations were weighted with importance, wives scored higher than husbands on weighted outcomes and weighted expectations. Also, when a researcher-calculated measure of the discrepancy between outcomes and expectations was used as a measure of marital satisfaction and regressed on outcomes and gender, gender moderated the influence of outcomes. The positive relationship between marital outcomes and satisfaction (researcher-calculated measure) was stronger for wives than

husbands. It was concluded that gender influences assessments of marital outcomes and expectations through importance as a part of the contextual, perceptual frameworks which individuals use when considering these variables. However, marital satisfaction may not be defined adequately as the discrepancy between outcomes and expectations, and Sabatelli's MCLI may not be an accurate measure of discrepancy. In agreement with previous research, outcomes was found to be the best predictor of marital satisfaction.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Much of the published evidence over the last four decades suggests that generally men are more satisfied with their marriages than women (Bernard, 1972; Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976; Lange, 1988; Locke, 1951; Rhyne, 1981; Thompson & Walker, 1989; White, 1990). This conclusion gains support from many different areas of research on marriage and family life. However, Williams (1988) pointed out that "few direct comparisons of men and women on the effects of marital quality have been undertaken."

Marital Satisfaction

Gender and Global Marital Satisfaction

To date, there are still only a few studies that have compared husbands and wives with respect to reported marital satisfaction (Argyle & Furnham, 1983; Dasch, 1989; Fowers, 1991; Lange, 1988; Huyck, 1991; Rhyne, 1981; Sporakowski & Hughston, 1978; Stuart, 1989). Argyle and Furnham (1983) studied sources of satisfaction across nine different kinds of relationships, one of these being the marital relationship. Men and elderly people reported higher satisfaction with their marriages than did younger people and women. Stuart (1989) studied couples entering marital therapy and found that men reported higher overall marital

satisfaction, as well as higher satisfaction with communication and distribution of household work.

Dasch (1989) found that husbands reported higher marital satisfaction than their employed and unemployed wives. Fowers (1991) also found husbands reported higher marital satisfaction than their wives in general and across each specific area of marital functioning. He concluded that neither background differences (e.g., education) nor level of psychological distress could account for the significant differences he obtained. His data also indicated that sexual relationship, communication, parenting and children, and egalitarian roles affected marital distress differently for husbands and wives. In attempting to explain the discrepancy between his data and other studies which did not find gender differences, Fowers (1991) suggested his results were due to his use of a large sample. However, as a caveat, he further observed that gender differences do not account for a large portion of the overall variance in marital happiness.

Rhyme (1981) studied specific areas of satisfaction and their relationship to overall assessments of marital quality. She found that men reported higher marital satisfaction than women, but both sexes assessed their marriages according to the same factors with only a few differences in detail. The saliency of the assessment factors was generally higher and more varied for women as well as more varied for women across stages of the family

life cycle. This saliency factor was the importance an individual ascribed to particular aspects of the marriage relationship.

Gender and Specific Aspects of Marriage

Other evidence that husbands are generally more satisfied in marriage than their wives comes from studies examining a wide variety of factors that differentiate persons reporting high marital satisfaction from those reporting low marital satisfaction or high marital dissatisfaction (Bernard, 1972). Areas of research such as marital power, relationship satisfaction, psychological well-being, and household work have yielded results which suggest important differences between men and women relative to the evaluation of their marriage experience.

According to McMillan (1972), wives reported a greater build-up of problems in marriage and were more discontented generally than their husbands. Women also reported greater marital burnout than men (Pines, 1987), and more men than women considered their spouses their best friend (Rubin, 1984). Husbands scored higher than their wives on a measure of need satisfaction (Stinnett, Collins, & Montgomery, 1970), and a proportionately greater number of happily married men reported no difficulties at all when compared to happily married women (Bernard, 1972). In research by equity theorists, men appeared to be over-benefitted more often in marriage whereas women are more often under-benefitted (Davidson, 1984; Martin, 1985; Rachlin, 1987).

Ihinger-Tallman and Pasley (1987) found six out of seven studies of marital happiness in remarriage indicated that men reported greater marital happiness than women, with remarried couples being only slightly less happy than first-married couples. Thus, direct comparisons of husbands and wives on marital satisfaction, as well as a good deal of auxiliary evidence supports the conclusion that men are more satisfied in marriage than women.

Historical Perspective

Because the bulk of research on families in the early years used wives as respondents (Safilios-Rothschild, 1969), gender comparisons have only been studied for about 20 years. Researchers in the 1970's tended to find no difference on marital satisfaction between husbands and wives (Glenn, 1975; Laws, 1971; Lewis & Spanier 1979). However, during the 1980's research designs continued to improve with more care given to important aspects of measurement and clearer operationalization of variables (White, 1990). As an apparent result, more evidence begun to favor the conclusion that husbands experience higher marital satisfaction than their wives (Argyle & Furnham, 1983; Rhyne, 1981; Sporkowski & Hughston, 1978). In general, when a gender comparison has been made, the results indicated either no difference between sexes (Glenn, 1975) or a difference with husbands being more satisfied (Rhyne, 1981).

The present study directly compares the marital satisfaction of husbands and wives and attempts to explicate some of the mechanisms through which gender influences marital satisfaction. Specifically, the study tests whether there is a gender difference and whether it moderates marital outcomes and expectations. The study is conceived in the theoretical framework of social exchange theory because of that theory's facility for providing precise and testable concepts and concept clusters. The premise of the study is that measuring marital outcomes and expectations and assessing their effect on marital satisfaction will help determine: (a) if men actually do experience higher marital satisfaction than women; (b) if men receive higher outcomes in marriage than women or typically expect less, and (c) if the social exchange, discrepancy based definition of marital satisfaction is a valid definition.

Social Exchange Theory

Basic social exchange theory focuses on the processes by which people decide to pursue certain courses of action (Sabatelli, 1984). In recent years social exchange proponents increasingly have successfully begun to apply social exchange concepts to studies of intimate relationships and relationship satisfaction (White, 1990). According to social exchange theory individuals become involved in a particular relationship because of the quality of the exchanges that typify the relationship. They stay in or leave a relationship as a result of their motivation to

maximize rewards and minimize costs (Chadwick-Jones, 1976; Huston & Cate, 1979). The exchange quality of a marriage is reflected in the relationship's ability to provide a satisfactory level of outcomes.

Rewards and costs in a relationship are determined finally by an individual's perceptions of the relationship's exchanges (Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986). As a result of perceptions, a person evaluates his or her partner's attributes (e.g., intelligence, commitment, sincerity, etc.) and the quality of the interpersonal exchanges which characterize the relationship. Theoretically, these partner attributes and relationship qualities are evaluated by comparing them with alternatives which are available in other relationships, and an individual's expectations or internal comparison level (CL) (Nye, 1979; Sabatelli, 1984; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). A major tenet of social exchange theory is that a history of evaluating relationship exchanges produces an accumulation of internal standards or expectations. Depending on whether the history of evaluations is predominantly positive or negative these expectations are associated with perceptions of the marriage growing and developing or deteriorating and dissolving (Huston & Burgess, 1979).

There have been several major theoretical systems which have emerged as expressions of and contributions to social exchange theory. These have been identified by Roloff (1981) as Homans' operant psychology approach, Blau's

economic approach, the resource theory of Foa and Foa, the equity theory of Walster, Berscheid, and Walster, and Thibaut and Kelley's interdependence theory. In general, these theoretical frameworks can be arranged into four distinct categories based on how they view what is important about relationship exchange. Each of these categories emphasizes different aspects of the relational exchange as most important for most people.

The first general category is referred to as equity theory. The primary focus of equity theory is on the concept of distributive justice (Adams, 1965). According to this concept people generally agree that an individual should gain what he/she deserves to gain from a relationship. Determination of what is deserved is based on the ratio of what one gets to what one invests in the relationship. The relationship is experienced as equitable when two partners in a marriage experience relatively equal ratios of what they get to what they invest. When the ratios are unequal, they experience inequity. Equity theorists hold that an individual's perception of equity is the most important determinant of marital satisfaction (Hatfield & Traupmann, 1981; Walster, Berscheid, & Walster, 1973). Research testing this hypothesis confirms a positive relationship between perceived equity and satisfaction but the correlations tend to be low (Davidson, 1984; Hatfield & Traupmann, 1981; Michaels, Edwards, & Acock, 1984;

Traupmann, 1978; Utne, 1978; Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978).

The second major category of exchange theories emphasizes the simple equality of outcomes. In this view, what one invests in the relationship is unimportant. What matters is that partners have equal outcomes (rewards minus costs). This view was forwarded by Deutsch (1975) who proposed that equality rather than equity is the main factor in distributive justice. He devalued equity as definitive in distributive justice because it only requires equal ratios of outcomes to investments. Theoretically, the absolute values of outcomes and investments can be very unequal. Thus, the real possibility exists for one partner to reap significantly greater benefits and make significantly greater investments than the other. This, Deutsch argued, is not distributive justice. His perspective, however, has not gained appreciable support from social exchange theorists because research exploring the difference between equity and equality has been unable to establish a reliable distinction between the two variables (Cate, Lloyd, Henton, & Larson, 1982; Martin, 1985; Michaels et al., 1984). Thus, relative to marital satisfaction, equity and equality appear essentially the same.

The third major category of social exchange theories emphasizes relationship rewards. Issues of equity or equality are not important. These theorists devalue the

principle of distributive justice. Accordingly, they believe most people are primarily concerned with whether their own rewards are great enough rather than how their rewards compare with their spouse's. Therefore, simple reward level is the most important variable determining marital satisfaction (Huston & Burgess, 1979; Levinger, & Huesman, 1980). A large body of evidence supports this conclusion (Argyle & Furnham, 1983; Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Cate et al., 1982; Martin, 1985; Michaels et al., 1984; Shaver & Hazan, 1985). White (1990) found that reward level accounted for 34% of the variance in marital satisfaction with a significantly stronger relationship between reward level and satisfaction for women than for men. This is compared to an insignificant 8% of the variance in marital satisfaction being accounted for by equity. This evidence strongly suggests that reinforcement-oriented social exchange theories, which devalue issues of distributive justice and leave out assessments of internal normative variables, should not be overlooked when marital satisfaction is the dependent variable.

The fourth major category of social exchange perspectives is the one used to guide the present research. From this perspective, what is most important to marital satisfaction is how outcomes compare to expectations (Martin, 1985). According to these theorists an individual accumulates an internal standard or set of norms against which relationship outcomes are evaluated (Blau, 1964;

Brehm, 1985; Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). This standard is called a comparison level (CL). CL is a cognitively held internal context of expectations which guide an individual's judgements about the outcomes he or she should receive from a relationship (Chadwick-Jones, 1976). According to this theoretical approach, the most important aspect of relationship exchanges is the degree of congruence or discrepancy between expectations and outcomes. If outcomes are judged to be equal to or greater than expectations, marital satisfaction should be positive. However, if outcomes are perceived as less than what is expected, an individual is at risk for being dissatisfied with his or her marriage (Sabatelli, 1984).

This conceptual framework was chosen as the context for the present research because the outcomes/expectations discrepancy has been found to account for a significant percentage (30%) of the variance in marital satisfaction (White, 1990). In addition, it facilitates a more precise and yet elaborate theoretical exploration of gender differences associated with marital satisfaction. Both outcomes and expectations are taken into consideration and the relationship between them is elaborately and precisely described. From this perspective, marital satisfaction is seen as a function of actual cost and reward events (outcomes) which come to an individual from the marriage as well as personal, internal factors (expectations) that are value-oriented and are constructed from the individual's

history of relationships. Thus, the formulation is satisfying theoretically because it takes into consideration both external and internal dynamic factors which determine marital satisfaction, and leads to a precise exploration of gender differences relative to marital outcomes and marital expectations as well as marital satisfaction. This brings a major question into focus. Are gender differences in marital satisfaction primarily a result of different outcomes which are experienced by each gender or are they more associated with differences in patterns of internal perceptions as reflected in expectations?

This conceptual framework also allows for an explicit and precise connection between theory and measurement. The present study uses Sabatelli's Marital Comparison Level Index (MCLI). This is a valid and reliable self-report instrument which measures spouses' assessments of marital outcomes and expectations (Sabatelli, 1984). The MCLI provides an excellent opportunity to bridge the gap between theory and measurement because it asks respondents to use the concepts of expectations and outcomes and report the discrepancy between them. As a result the administration of the test provides a concrete operationalization of the discrepancy/congruence definition of marital satisfaction.

Conceptualization

This study addressed five major concepts: outcomes, expectations, importance, marital satisfaction, and gender. Outcomes are the difference a person experiences between

benefits (rewards) and costs in his/her marriage (Chadwick-Jones, 1976; Huston & Cate, 1979; Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986). Conceptually, outcomes are the same as profits. If benefits exceed costs, the outcome is positive. The outcome is negative if benefits are less than costs.

Expectations are defined as an individual's subjective assessment of what he or she wants from his or her marriage (Sabatelli & Cecil-Pigo, 1985). Theoretically, expectations are the internal norms about what marriage should be like that form an individual's CL and are used as a marker against which to evaluate actual marital outcomes.

Importance refers to the importance an individual attributes to various areas of marital outcome. This variable is essentially synonymous with Rhyne's (1981) saliency factor. Sabatelli and Pearce (1986) suggested that different marital dimensions have different degrees of importance and that men and women differ in the importance they attribute to specific dimensions.

Marital satisfaction, the dependent variable in this study, is defined as the degree of congruence (or discrepancy) between an individual's expectations of what marriage should be and his/her actual outcome experiences (Sabatelli, 1984). As a result of this process of comparing expectations and outcomes the individual derives a feeling of relative satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Theoretical Comparisons of the Definition of Marital Satisfaction

In this study, marital satisfaction will be measured with two established instruments. The first (MCLI) reflects the social exchange congruence/discrepancy definition and the second (KMS) reflects the symbolic interactionist definition of marital satisfaction. A comparison of these two measures will serve as a measure of construct validity, and a comparison of the two theoretical perspectives as well.

Burr, Leigh, Day, and Constantine (1979) referred to both the social exchange definition of marital satisfaction and the symbolic interactionist definition as two popular but notably distinct definitions. The symbolic interactionist definition describes marital satisfaction as a "subjectively experienced phenomenon of pleasure versus displeasure" (p. 67). This symbolic interactionist definition is preferred by Burr et al. (1979) because it allows for the influence of factors such as habitual predispositions and reference relationships, as well as congruence between expectations and outcomes in the determining of overall satisfaction. Though these writers see the social exchange congruence/discrepancy definition as more limited, they affirm the value of the congruence/discrepancy definition as a "defensible research strategy" (p. 68). Their comments highlight the tension between theories which are simpler but more precise in

defining marital satisfaction compared to those which may be more elaborate but more inclusive in the number of factors considered. The present study uses a simple but more precise theory but explores its more complicated aspects.

Hypotheses

This study's first hypothesis holds that husbands experience greater marital satisfaction than wives. This hypothesis is foundational to the second and third hypotheses which are: (2) husbands score higher than their wives on measures of marital outcomes, and (3) husbands score lower than their wives on measures of marital expectations.

The fourth hypothesis asserts that gender moderates the relationship between marital outcomes and marital satisfaction and the fifth hypothesis asserts that gender moderates the relationship between marital expectations and marital satisfaction. These hypotheses explore whether the two independent variables, outcomes and expectations, influence marital satisfaction differently for husbands and wives.

The sixth hypothesis is a more general research question. It asserts that social exchange discrepancy definition of marital satisfaction is a valid and useful one. According to this proposition, outcomes minus expectations equals marital satisfaction. The test of this hypothesis is an examination of the correlation between the measure of marital satisfaction which applies social

exchange principles and a measure which is based on the symbolic interactionist view.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Data for this study were gathered through the use of mail questionnaires. About 2,500 phone numbers were generated randomly from the residential telephone prefixes in a southeastern city of moderate size. Of these, 1,067 valid telephone numbers were called. Contact was made in 383 homes, and in 81 homes one or both spouses agreed to participate. In 34 of the contacts callers were asked to call back and these families were called back up to three times during the following two weeks. Three individuals and two couples agreed to participate from this group of call backs. Calls which yielded no answer were not recalled. This process resulted in a response rate of 22%. Those who agreed to participate were immediately asked to supply basic demographic information including age, racial/ethnic background, sex, level of education, level of personal income, level of family income, and number of children. It was explained that the study required them to respond to four short questionnaires to be received in the mail about a month apart.

At the end of the recruitment phase, 151 individuals agreed to participate. After the recruitment phase, one of the four questionnaires was selected randomly and mailed to each respondent. After a two-week period each individual was called and encouraged to complete and return the

instrument. One month after their first questionnaire was received, a second randomly selected questionnaire was sent and the same follow-up procedure was used. Each of the remaining two questionnaires were administered by the same procedures after a delay of about a month. If respondents refused to participate in the study or dropped out before finishing all of the questionnaires, an attempt was made to find out as much as possible about the reasons for discontinuation. In all cases the reason was either due to the study requiring too much time or events occurring in participants' lives which required that they withdraw. Over the course of data collection 8 couples and 13 individuals dropped out. Later another 22 individuals were eliminated because their spouse was not involved in the study. The final sample included 108 respondents from 54 intact marriages or 71% of those who agreed originally to participate. According to Dillman (1978), this is a low response rate in view of the kind of mail questionnaire procedure that was used. This unusually high attrition rate is believed to be partially caused by the high number of questionnaires (total of 4) which each respondent had to return and by the decision to exclude individuals whose spouses were not participating.

Sample Characteristics

The great majority of respondents in the sample were Caucasian (92%). There were four African-Americans (3.7%), two Hispanics (1.9%), two Orientals (3.7%), and one from an

unidentified racial/ethnic background. Because only marriages with both spouses participating were included, each gender represented 50% of the sample. The average age of wives was 38 years and the average age of husbands was 41 years. The majority of the respondents in the sample (55%) reported some college education with slightly more than half of them having finished their degrees. Twenty-four percent reported finishing high school, 4.6% had less than a high school education, 8.3% had some graduate training, and 8.3% had finished a formal course of education beyond college. Forty percent of the sample claimed personal incomes in 1992 of less than \$20,000 and 28% of those reporting claimed family incomes between \$20,000 and \$34,000. Fourteen percent of family incomes were between \$35,000 and \$50,000, 17% were between \$50,000 and \$75,000, and 10% were above \$75,000 in 1992. The greatest percentage of couples (33%) reported two children.

Measurement

Each questionnaire used in the study had two parts, a primary measure and a secondary measure. Each primary measure contained 32 items with seven-point Lickert-type response scales. A separate version of these primary measures measured one of four variables: marital satisfaction, marital outcomes, marital expectations, and importance. Each secondary measure consisted of two or three global questions that provided a global assessment of each of the four variables: marital satisfaction, marital

outcomes, marital expectations, and importance. Individuals in the sample received the four primary measures and four secondary measures in a random order to control for possible response biases which could have been created by questionnaire sequencing. Each primary measure also was accompanied by a randomly selected secondary measure.

The Primary Measures

The Marital Comparison Level Index. Marital Satisfaction from the social exchange perspective was assessed using the Marital Comparison Level Index by Ronald Sabatelli (1984). This instrument, by design, measures the respondent's assessment of the discrepancy between his or her perceived and real marital experience. The scale is a concrete operationalization of the social exchange perspective which defines marital satisfaction as the degree of discrepancy or congruence between outcomes and expectations. Respondents are requested to indicate on a seven-point scale how their marital experiences compare to their expectations. Instructions ask them to ". . . assume that the midpoint (0) on the scale represents your expectations for the relationship dimension listed. With zero (0) representing your expectation level, please indicate to what degree your relationship currently compares favorably or unfavorably to your expectation level by circling the appropriate number" (p. 656). Respondents, then, have the opportunity to score their current experience in either plus or minus terms. There are 32 items in the

scale. Sabatelli (1984) reported a Cronbach alpha of .93 and construct validity estimates correlating the MCLI with two other valid measures that assess marital relationships from the social exchange view of marital satisfaction (r 's = .58 to .65). The items of this instrument are presented in Appendix A.

In the present study this same set of instructions was used for the MCLI except for one change. Instead of using 0 as the midpoint of the scale, respondents were requested to set their expectations at the number 4. This change was made because of the possibility that respondents may have some difficulty setting their expectations equal to zero. In this study the response scale was converted to a seven-point scale with 1 defined as "Much less than I expect", 4 defined as "About what I expect", and 7 defined as "Much more than I expect." Cronbach's alpha was .92 for this sample (see Table 1).

Marital outcomes. The measure of marital outcomes also used 32 the items of the MCLI but assigned different labels to the anchor points of the seven-point Lickert-type scale and gave the respondent different instructions. Respondents rated each item on a positive seven-point scale according to how they actually experience their relationship. Number 1 on the scale was defined as "Very Low Quality", number 4 was defined as "Medium Quality", and number 7 was defined as "Very High Quality." The instructions for this version of the primary questionnaire were: "Please rate each of the

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of marital satisfaction, outcomes, and expectations.

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1) MCLI	1.00	.63	.45	.56	.59	.50
(2) Primary outcomes		1.00	.58	.64	.61	.63
(3) Primary expectations			1.00	.53	.59	.56
(4) Secondary marital satisfaction				1.00	.69	.56
(5) Secondary outcomes					1.00	.60
(6) Secondary expectations						1.00
Mean	4.29	4.84	4.71	5.96	5.59	5.59
S.D.	.67	.75	.65	1.26	1.26	.97
Alpha	.92	.86	.89	.96	.94	.80

Note. $N = 108$. All correlations were significant at $p < .01$.

following items according to how you actually experience the quality of that item in your marriage. Use the seven-point scale provided which ranges from very low quality to very high quality. A score of 1 would indicate that the quality of your experience relative to that item is very low; a score of 4 would indicate that the quality of your experience relative to that item is medium; a score of 7 would indicate that the quality of your experience relative to that item is very high." Cronbach's alpha was .86 for this sample (see Table 1).

Marital expectations. The measure of marital expectations also used 32 the items of the MCLI but, again, assigned different labels to the anchor points of the seven-point Lickert-type scale and gave the respondent different instructions. Respondents were requested to rate the items on a positive seven-point scale according to how they expect their marriage to be. This was a measure of real, present expectations. The instructions for this version of the primary questionnaire were: "Please rate each of the following items according to what you currently expect from your marriage. Use the seven-point scale provided which ranges from very low expectation to very high expectation. A score of 1 would indicate that you expect very little from your marriage relative to that item; a score of 4 would indicate that you expect a medium amount from your marriage relative to that item; a score of 7 would indicate that you have very high expectations from your marriage relative to

that item." Cronbach's alpha was .89 for this sample (see Table 1).

Importance. Importance data also were collected using the 32 items of the MCLI with different labels on the anchor points and different instructions. Participants' responses on these items were used to weight the primary marital satisfaction scale, the primary marital outcomes scale, and the primary marital expectations scale as an adjustment for possible differences in saliency (Rhyne, 1981). Respondents were requested to rate each item according to how important it is in their marriage. The instructions for this version of the primary questionnaire were: **"Please rate each of the following items according to their importance in your marriage. Use the seven-point scale provided which ranges from very unimportant to very high importance. Let your response reflect how important this item is to your marriage. A score of 1 would indicate that this item represents values which are very unimportant when you evaluate your marriage; a score of 4 would indicate that this item represents values which are of medium importance when you evaluate your marriage; a score of 7 would indicate that this item represents values which are of very high importance when you evaluate your marriage."** It was not appropriate to calculate an alpha for this scale because the items were used as weights and not aggregated into a scale.

Tests for Unidimensionality

Items for each measure were submitted to a maximum likelihood factor analysis using an oblimin rotation (separate analysis for each measure). This procedure revealed the scales to be unidimensional. The measures were evaluated using two basic criteria: (a) loadings of .40 or above on the primary factor, and (b) a difference of at least .20 between the primary and secondary factor loadings. This procedure yielded six items which met the criteria consistently for each of the scales. The results of these factor analyses are presented in Appendix B. These reduced scales, each composed of six items, measured the three major variables. They became the primary measures of marital satisfaction, marital outcomes, and marital expectations for all further data analyses.

The Secondary Measures

The global measures of marital satisfaction, marital outcomes, and marital expectations, provided a second estimate of the major variables of the study. These additional measures of the three major variables allowed for triangulation of measurement (Olson & Cromwell, 1975) and served as a check on concurrent and construct validity.

The Kansas Marital Satisfaction scale. The global measure of marital satisfaction was the Kansas Marital Satisfaction scale (KMS) developed by Schumm, Paff-Bergen, Hatch, Obiorah, Copeland, Meens, and Bugaighis (1986). The KMS is a three-item global assessment of marital

satisfaction and measures this concept in a way that is compatible with a symbolic interactionist conceptualization of marital satisfaction. Schumm, Nichols, Schectman, and Grigsby (1983) reported Cronbach alpha reliability estimates of .98. Schumm et al. (1986) compared the KMS with the Dyadic Adjustment Scale and the Quality Marriage Index for estimates of concurrent validity and reported coefficients of .83 and .91 respectively. An alpha of .96 was found in the present study. The items for this scale are presented in Appendix C.

Global outcomes. Three items were written specifically for this study. Respondents were asked to rate the overall quality of their actual experience in their marriages. They also were asked to evaluate the overall quality of their spouse's marital experience, and to make a comparison between their spouse's experience and their own. These three ratings were rendered on a seven-point Lickert-style scale ranging from low to high. Cronbach's alpha was .94. The items for this scale are presented in Appendix D.

Global expectations. Four items were written to provide a global estimate of marital expectations. Again the respondent was asked to make a global estimate of his or her personal expectations, those of his or her spouse and a comparison of the two. Cronbach's alpha was .79 for this sample. The items for this scale are presented in Appendix D.

Global importance. The global items written to measure importance actually contained only one item that tapped the concept of importance. The other item more accurately tapped expectations. For the analysis, this expectation item was added to the global expectations scale, and because the importance variable was only used to weight the primary measures of marital satisfaction, outcomes, and expectations, the global importance item was dropped.

Weighted Measures

Three additional scales were generated by weighting the primary marital satisfaction measure, the primary marital outcomes measure, and the primary marital expectations measure by importance scores. Each respondent's score on each of the items of the reduced scales was multiplied by the corresponding importance score. These weighted items were averaged. These measures of marital satisfaction, marital outcomes, and marital expectations provided a check on the possibility that a gender difference in saliency might affect the findings.

Calculated Discrepancy

A final measure of marital satisfaction was generated mathematically by combining the primary expectations and outcomes measures. Following the social exchange discrepancy definition of marital satisfaction, this scale was created by subtracting each respondent's score on the primary measure of marital expectations from his or her score on the primary measure of marital outcomes. This

yielded a researcher-calculated discrepancy for each respondent. The MCLI, on the other hand, provided a measure of respondent-assessed discrepancy for each respondent.

Descriptive Statistics of Measures

A preliminary question about the data collected was whether four different administrations of the same items, a month apart, with different instructions and different labels on the anchor points, actually measured different variables. There is a possibility that the validity of the scales was threatened because of familiarity with the items developed by the respondents across the monthly administrations of the questionnaires and a tendency they might have had to respond to the items similarly rather than differently as the instructions requested.

Table 1 provides intercorrelations between the three primary MCLI-based measures, as well as means, standard deviations, and Cronbach alphas on each scale. These correlations range from .45 to .63, moderate to high correlations. Moderate correlations are to be expected among the measures because they were taken from the same respondents and the variables are known to be related both theoretically and empirically from the literature. However, these moderate to strong correlations also may suggest that there is some commonality between the variables with respect to what they actually measure, i.e., a confounding of the scales.

To investigate this possibility, a series of principal component factor analyses were conducted. First, a principle component analysis was conducted on the complete set of data (all 32 items) for each of the three primary variables, i.e., marital satisfaction, outcomes, and expectations to see if the same content items loaded separately on the appropriate primary measure. They did. The variable with the smallest number of items in its primary factor was outcomes with 10 items in this factor. These same 10 items also appeared in the primary factors of marital satisfaction and expectations. Secondly, a principal component analysis was conducted using these 10 items from each of the scales to see if they loaded on different factors. The primary factor in this analysis contained the 10 items from the marital satisfaction scale. The second factor contained 9 items from the expectations scale, and the 10 items from the outcomes scale made up the next three factors. Several other factor analyses were conducted using subsets of these 30 items in order to increase the power of the analyses. Invariably items from each individual scale stayed together and were differentiated from one another. Table 2 presents an example of these factor analyses. In this example, seven items from each major variable were entered into the analysis. The items from the marital satisfaction scale formed the first factor. The items from the expectations

Table 2. Factor loadings of items in primary factors of primary questionnaire variables.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
MS18	.83	.20	.27	.03	.15
MS32	.81	.02	.12	.07	.24
MS10	.80	.15	.24	.25	-.03
MS12	.79	.24	.39	-.05	.05
MS4	.71	.09	-.08	.38	.23
MS9	.71	.27	.13	.40	.26
MS19	.69	.11	.20	.08	.10
E9	.13	.88	.05	.27	-.06
E18	.13	.71	.44	-.07	.09
E10	.06	.69	.34	.22	.04
E4	.18	.69	.07	.18	.42
E12	.25	.64	.49	-.05	.02
E19	.16	.60	.11	.16	.47
E32	.27	.60	.13	-.12	.50
O12	.20	.24	.84	.09	.11
O10	.35	.15	.66	.36	.15
O19	.23	.24	.63	.27	.09
O18	.26	.26	.60	.27	.29
O4	.19	.07	.25	.72	.29
O9	.25	.27	.31	.72	-.03
O32	.17	.19	.38	.23	.69

scale formed the second factor, and the items from the outcomes scale formed the last three factors. It is important to note that the sample size in this study is too low for so many variables to be entered into factor analyses at once with enough power for the results to be highly trustable. This problem was addressed by the use of a series of analyses with lower numbers of variables with all producing similar results. A larger sample size was needed to be more certain of the separate factor structures.

With this caveat, the evidence supports the assumption that the various administrations of the primary questionnaires did indeed measure different underlying factors and the moderate to high correlations presented in Table 1 are not the result of confounded measures. Other evidence supporting adequate separation of variables came from t-tests which indicated different mean scores between each pair of the three primary variables at least at the .05 level of confidence.

The Reduced Scales

The six-items of the reduced scales were demonstrated to be unidimensional through factor analysis, and because they contained the same six items, it was assured that found differences were not the result of scales with varying items or numbers of items. These characteristics added to the psychometric credibility of the measures. The items used to form these scales along with their factor loadings are presented in Table 3. Tables 4 and 5 present

Table 3. Factor loadings of the reduced primary scales.

Item	Primary factor loadings		
	Marital satisfaction	Outcomes	Expectations
4. The amount of confiding that occurs between you and your spouse.	.48	.51	.72
9. The amount your partner is willing to listen to you.	.53	.59	.56
10. The amount of relationship equality you experience.	.57	.72	.41
18. The amount of mutual respect you experience.	.78	.70	.75
20. The amount of love you experience.	.68	.60	.78
32. The amount of commitment you experience from your spouse.	.73	.45	.73

Note. Each column represents a separate factor. The eigenvalue for the first factor of marital satisfaction was 11.85, the eigenvalue for the first factor of marital outcomes was 9.82, and the eigenvalue for the first factor of marital expectations was 10.58.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for husbands on primary and secondary variables.

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1) MCLI	1.00	.60	.49	.69	.56	.44
(2) Primary outcomes		1.00	.67	.69	.68	.65
(3) Primary expectations			1.00	.63	.68	.64
(4) Secondary marital satisfaction				1.00	.75	.54
(5) Secondary outcomes					1.00	.62
(6) Secondary expectations						1.00
Mean	4.86	5.55	5.56	5.98	5.50	5.63
S.D.	1.01	.96	1.13	1.20	1.30	1.00
Alpha	.88	.87	.92	.95	.93	.83

Note. N = 54. All correlations were significant at $p < .01$.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for wives on primary and secondary variables.

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1) MCLI	1.00	.67	.46	.48	.64	.56
(2) Primary outcomes		1.00	.51	.60	.55	.63
(3) Primary expectations			1.00	.42	.55	.54
(4) Secondary marital satisfaction				1.00	.64	.58
(5) Secondary outcomes					1.00	.58
(6) Secondary expectations						1.00
Mean	4.70	5.59	5.71	6.07	5.24	5.61
S.D.	1.41	1.06	.94	1.23	1.34	.97
Alpha	.94	.86	.85	.97	.95	.76

Note. N = 54. All correlations were significant at $p < .01$.

intercorrelations and basic descriptive statistics for husbands and wives. The means of the scales were similar to the means for husbands and wives reported by Sabatelli (1984) for the original MCLI though slightly higher. They ranged from .70 to 2.07 points higher than the midpoint of the scale which was 4. Means reported by Schumm et al. (1983) for the KMS were also similar and even higher above the midpoint of the scale than the means found in the present study.

Only couples with both spouses responding were included in the analysis so that paired statistics were used to control for nonindependent error terms.

Summary of Measures

Thus, a total of four measures of marital satisfaction were used in this study: (a) a primary measure (the MCLI), (b) a secondary measure (the KMS), (c) the primary measure weighted by importance, and (4) a researcher-calculated measure of discrepancy. Three measures of outcomes were used: (a) a primary measure, (b) a secondary measure, and (c) a weighted primary measure. Three measures of expectations were used: (a) a primary measure, (b) a secondary measure, and (c) a weighted primary measure.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Four variables were the major focus of data analysis: (a) gender, (b) marital satisfaction-dependent variable, (c) marital outcomes-independent variable, and (d) marital expectations-independent variable. The major issues of the study were how husbands and wives compare on marital satisfaction when actual outcomes, internal expectations, and the relationship between them are considered. In this study the relationship between outcomes and expectations is expressed as a quantifiable formula, marital satisfaction = outcomes - expectations.

Preliminary Considerations

Importance

Importance was seen as an internal contextual variable reflecting the saliency of each item for each respondent. Respondents were asked to rate each MCLI item according to how important it is in their marriage in order to accommodate the possibility that husbands and wives may place different importance on various aspects of married life. Several previous studies have suggested this possibility (Rhyne, 1981; Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Preliminary analysis of the 32 MCLI items revealed that there was a significant difference between husbands and wives on total importance with wives rating their marriages as more important than husbands. As a

result, importance scores were used to weight participants' responses to each item on three measures: (a) primary marital satisfaction, (b) primary marital outcomes, and (c) primary expectations. This resulted in two operational definitions of each primary measure--an unweighted one and a weighted one. Table 6 presents mean importance scores for husbands, wives and the full sample on each of the six items of the reduced scales. Apparently each of the six items was about equal in ability to discriminate between the genders.

Tests of Hypotheses

Gender Differences

Hypothesis 1 predicted that husbands would report higher marital satisfaction than wives. Marital satisfaction was operationalized by the use of four different measures: (a) the MCLI (Sabatelli, 1984), (b) the MCLI weighted by importance, (c) the KMS (Schumm et al., 1986), and (d) a researcher-calculated measure of discrepancy. Initial comparisons of husbands and wives on all four of these measures of marital satisfaction were conducted using paired t-tests. No significant differences were found (see Table 7).

Hypothesis 2 predicted that husbands would score higher on marital outcomes than wives and hypothesis 3 predicted that wives would score higher on marital expectations than husbands. Both outcomes and expectations were operationalized by three measures: (a) a primary measure using the items of the MCLI, (b) the primary measure

Table 6. Mean importance scores for items of the reduced scales.

Item	Wives	Husbands	Total Sample
4. The amount of confiding that occurs between you and your spouse.	6.00	5.44	5.72
9. The amount your partner is willing to listen to you.	5.67	5.26	5.46
10. The amount of relationship equality you experience.	5.50	4.87	6.19
18. The amount of mutual respect you experience.	6.02	5.76	5.89
20. The amount of love you experience.	6.19	5.87	6.02
32. The amount of commitment you experience from your spouse.	6.35	5.83	6.09

Note. N = 108. Items were rated on a seven point scale with number 7 labeled "very high importance".

Table 7. T-tests for gender differences on the major variables.

Scale	Mean for husbands	Mean for wives	t value
(1) MCLI	4.86	4.70	-1.02
(2) Primary outcomes	5.55	5.59	.36
(3) Primary expectations	5.56	5.71	1.21
(4) Secondary marital satisfaction (KMS)	5.98	6.07	.55
(5) Secondary outcomes	5.50	5.74	1.36
(6) Secondary expectations	5.63	5.61	-.15
(7) Weighted MCLI	27.30	28.54	1.04
(8) Weighted primary outcomes	31.18	33.90	2.28*
(9) Weighted primary expectations	31.40	34.52	2.80**
(10) Primary outcomes minus exp.	-.02	-.12	-.63

Note. $N = 54$. The standard deviations for weighted primary outcomes was 8.83 for women and 8.73 for men. The standard deviations for weighted primary expectations was 8.30 for women and 9.37 for men.

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

weighted by importance, and (c) a secondary measure comprised of three or four global items; three global items in the secondary outcomes measure and four global items in the secondary expectations measure. Comparisons of husbands and wives were conducted on measures of both primary and secondary outcomes and expectations using paired t-tests. These comparisons yielded insignificant results. Husbands and wives did not differ on outcomes, nor expectations using either the primary or the secondary measures (see Table 7). Significant gender differences were found on outcomes and expectations when scores which had been weighted with importance were used (see Table 7). Wives scored significantly higher on both of these measures. In summary, these data do not support research hypotheses one through three.

Moderating Gender Effects

The fourth hypothesis predicted that gender moderates the relationship between marital outcomes and marital satisfaction. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test for the effect of a possible interaction between gender and outcomes on marital satisfaction. A model was employed which used the primary (MCLI) measure of marital satisfaction as the dependent variable. Gender and the primary marital outcomes measure were first entered together as independent variables, followed by a gender by outcomes interaction term. No significant interaction was found (see Table 8). This indicated that the influence of outcomes on

Table 8. Regression analysis of the interaction effect of gender and marital outcomes on marital satisfaction.

	MCLI		Weighted MCLI		Calculated discrepancy		KMS	
	b	B	b	B	b	B	b	B
Outcomes	.51	.42*	.63	.60**	.38	.41**	.99	.78**
Gender	.24	.10	1.40	.08	.18	.09	-.08	-.03
Outcomes X gender	.25	.24	.21	.22	-.34	-.19*	-.16	-.15
<u>Interaction block</u>								
F change	1.90		2.61		4.37**		.77	
R ² change	.01		.01		.03		.00	

Note. N = 108.

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

marital satisfaction is not significantly different for husbands and wives.

The same result was obtained when this relationship was tested using the secondary measure of marital satisfaction and the weighted measure of marital satisfaction as dependent variables (see Table 8).

However, when the researcher-calculated discrepancy measure was used to measure marital satisfaction, gender moderated the relationship between primary outcomes and marital satisfaction. Also, a similar interaction effect was found between gender and the weighted outcomes measure when these variables were regressed on the calculated discrepancy measure. This indicates that the degree of influence which outcomes has on the researcher-calculated measure of marital satisfaction varies by gender. Figure 1 graphs this interaction and shows that the positive relationship between marital outcomes and the calculated discrepancy measure of marital satisfaction is stronger for wives than husbands.

The fifth hypothesis predicted that gender moderates the relationship between marital expectations and marital satisfaction. Again, hierarchical regression analysis was used to test for interaction effects between gender and primary marital expectations with primary marital satisfaction, secondary marital satisfaction, weighted primary marital satisfaction, and the calculated discrepancy

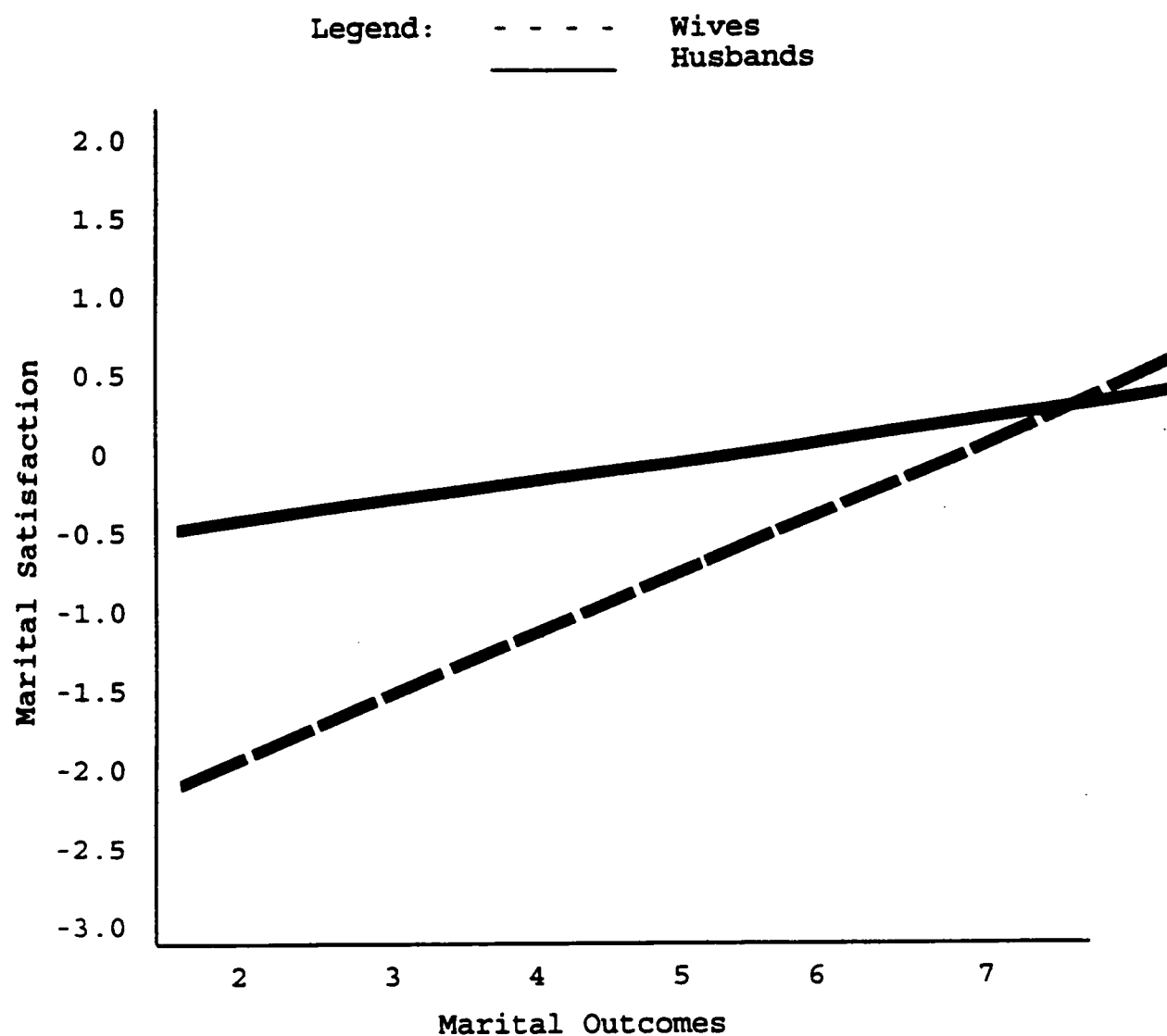


Figure 1. Interaction of marital outcomes and gender in hierarchical regression analysis with marital satisfaction as the dependent variable.

measure as dependent variables. No significant interactions were found between gender and marital expectations on any of these analyses (see Table 9). Thus, the relationship between marital expectations and marital satisfaction is similar for husbands and wives.

Calculated Discrepancy as a Measure of Marital Satisfaction

The sixth hypothesis examined the social exchange, discrepancy definition of marital satisfaction; that marital satisfaction equals the discrepancy (or congruence) between marital outcomes and marital expectations. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the calculated discrepancy measure of marital satisfaction to the MCLI, which is a measure of discrepancy assessed by the individual respondent.

Logically, these two measures should be significantly correlated. However, they were not. The correlation with the primary marital satisfaction measure (MCLI) was .17, the correlation with the secondary marital satisfaction measure (KMS) was .10, and the correlation with the weighted primary marital satisfaction measure .13 (see Table 9). None of these were significant.

Clearly these two different techniques of measuring discrepancy did not measure the same thing. Which one, then, is measuring marital satisfaction? The evidence points to the MCLI because its concurrent validity has been solidly established by Sabatelli (1984) and its correlation with the secondary measure of marital satisfaction was moderately strong and significant ($r = .56, p < .01$).

Table 9. Regression analysis of the interaction effect of gender and marital expectations on marital satisfaction.

	<u>MCLI</u>		<u>Weighted MCLI</u>		<u>Calculated discrepancy</u>		<u>KMS</u>	
	b	B	b	B	b	B	b	B
Expectations	.31	.27	.54	.54*	.43	.49*	.72	.62*
Gender	.31	-.13	1.53	.08	.04	.02	-.03	-.01
Expectations X gender	.25	.22	-.19	.20	-.01	-.00	-.11	-.10
<u>Interaction block</u>								
F change	1.48		1.59		.00		.34	
R ² change	.01		.01		.00		.00	

Note. N = 108.

*p < .01.

However, if the question is changed to ask which measure is a measure of discrepancy, the evidence may not point to the MCLI. If the independent measures of outcomes and expectations are valid measures, then certainly it would have to be argued that the better measure of discrepancy is the researcher-calculated one. This, in turn, leads to the conclusion that the MCLI subject-assessed measure of discrepancy may be a good measure of marital satisfaction but, in fact, it is not a measure of the discrepancy between marital outcomes and marital expectations.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examined whether husbands reported higher marital satisfaction than wives, whether they reported higher marital outcomes than their wives, and whether they reported lower marital expectations than their wives. All of the hypothetical propositions involved have received support from previous research: (a) men report higher marital satisfaction (Rhyne, 1981; Fowers, 1991), (b) women report higher expectations (White, 1990), and (c) men experience greater marital benefits or outcomes (Davidson, 1984; Thompson & Walker, 1989). However, none of these propositions were supported unequivocally in the literature and none of them find much support here.

Marital Satisfaction and Gender

In this study, husbands were not more satisfied with their marriages than wives. Two established and well researched measures of marital satisfaction were used (Sabatelli, 1984; Schumm et al., 1986) and husbands and wives reported equal marital satisfaction on each. Also, there were no gender differences on the two measures of marital satisfaction which were created by mathematically combining primary variables. Results obtained on these four measures appear to contain more implications about the definition of marital satisfaction than they do about gender. It could be that Fowers (1991) is correct in his

suggestion that large samples are needed to detect gender differences in marital satisfaction or it may be that assessments of several different dimensions of marital satisfaction are needed to detect reliably gender differences. Several previous researchers have pointed out that gender differences related to marital satisfaction appear more on specific dimensions such as frequency of sexual activity, freedom for friends, intimacy, meaningful conversation, mutual respect, and listening, whereas important dimensions such as love, commitment, and need for communication show no differences (Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986; Snyder, 1979; White, 1990). Maybe both Fowers' (1991) suggestion that large samples are necessary and a belief in the importance of identifying specific dimensions apply.

Gender and Context

Gender effects influenced the data in this study in ways that were unexpected and indirect. Consequently, they also were difficult to assess precisely. No gender differences were found between husbands and wives on independent reports of outcomes and expectations, but preliminary analysis of the 32 item MCLI revealed that wives scored significantly higher than husbands on importance. When this difference in importance was injected into the primary variables through a process of adjusting for importance by weighting, wives scored significantly higher on both weighted outcomes and weighted expectations but there was still no gender difference on the weighted MCLI

measure of marital satisfaction. It is noticeable that the weighting process caused gender differences to appear on both of the independent measures of outcomes and expectations but not the MCLI measure of marital satisfaction which involves respondents assessing outcomes and expectations relative to each other rather than independently. The MCLI may be a measure of respondents' assessments of outcomes and expectations using a different cognitive framework. This suggests that the influence of the gender difference is in the respondents' cognitive context.

Some of the fundamental tenets of social exchange theory hold that an individual's history of exchanges creates a set of internal norms and expectations which influence his/her perceptions of events. These internal norms and expectations include values, fears, and prejudices which form the context of a person's perceptions and make up his/her cognitive framework (Huston & Burgess, 1979).

Theoretically, the measures of outcomes, expectations, and importance used in this study are measures of contextual variables which are active in the cognitive context of individuals who are making judgements about marital satisfaction. It can be implied from this conceptualization that some variables are more contextual than others. That is, there are levels or degrees of context which range from the foreground of cognition to the background of cognition and this is illustrated by the way in which gender

influences the data in this study. Theoretically, the relationship between a respondent's assessment and the context in which it is made is analogous to the figure/ground relationship described in gestalt theory, or the conscious/unconscious relationship posited by Freudian theory. Factors being considered in the making of an assessment are in the background of cognition at the time of the assessment and the assessment itself is in the foreground.

Although social exchange theorists have generally been unclear about the degree of awareness that is associated with the operation of cognitive contextual variables (Roloff, 1981), presumably an individual's awareness is more focused upon the foreground than the background of an assessment. Therefore, when respondents in the present study made an assessment of the discrepancy between outcomes and expectations in the forefront of their cognition as they were asked to do in the MCLI measure of marital satisfaction, gender differences were less influential than they were when independent assessments of outcomes, and expectations, were the focus of their cognition. In all cases, outcomes and expectations were being assessed. The difference might have been in the context.

An assumption of this study (and there is evidence to support the assumption) was that, when respondents used different sets of instructions to respond to the items of the MCLI four different times, they changed cognitive

contexts each time. When they rated each item according to how important it is in their marriage, a gender difference appeared. However, there was no gender influence when they rated the items as outcomes, expectations, or a discrepancy measure of marital satisfaction. The gender difference reappeared selectively on outcomes and expectations but not on subjectively assessed discrepancy when importance (where a gender difference was clearly operating) was used to adjust the other variables. These results suggest a conceptualization that views gender and importance as highly contextual factors which are most influential in the background of cognition whereas outcomes and expectations typically function more in the forefront of cognition. They may be sensitive to gender differences when they are themselves the focus of the assessment but do not reflect gender differences when they function as context for assessments of marital satisfaction.

It is possible that the unweighted outcomes and expectations measures contained hidden gender biases similar to the difference found on importance but they were too weak to be significant statistically until weighted adjustment brought them out. The process of weighting revealed that when respondents assessed their outcomes and expectations relative to each other as they did on the original unweighted MCLI, the two variables were assessed differently than they were when each variable was assessed independently. Perhaps one or both of the variables was

attenuated when they were assessed together, or perhaps no clear distinction was made between the two variables and the MCLI was not really a measure of the discrepancy between outcomes and expectations. The full nature of the difference between the cognitive context of respondents when they were assessing outcomes and expectations independently and the cognitive context of the same respondents when they were assessing the discrepancy between outcomes and expectations as a measure of marital satisfaction is unclear. However, it does seem clear that gender influences play different roles in different cognitive contexts and that, where the social exchange variables relevant to marital satisfaction are concerned, gender may exert its influence in the background of context.

Discrepancy and Marital Satisfaction

A major theoretical question addressed in this study is the appropriateness of defining marital satisfaction as the discrepancy (or congruence) between marital outcomes and marital satisfaction. Further evidence that respondents assessed outcomes and expectations differently when considering them independently than they did when considering them relative to each other can be seen in a comparison of the MCLI respondent-assessed measure of discrepancy and the researcher-calculated measure of discrepancy. Table 10 presents correlations between all of the measures in this study. It depicts the MCLI as more strongly correlated with the secondary (KMS) measure of

Table 10. Correlations and descriptive statistics on primary, secondary, and calculated variables ($N = 108$).

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
(1) MCLI	1.00	.63*	.45*	.56*	.59*	.50*	.94*	.60*	.49*	.17
(2) Primary outcomes		1.00	.58*	.64*	.61*	.63*	.71*	.92*	.65*	.42*
(3) Primary expectations			1.00	.53*	.59*	.56*	.57*	.64*	.91*	-.49*
(4) Secondary marital satisfaction (KMI)				1.00	.69*	.56*	.55*	.58*	.50*	.10
(5) Secondary outcomes					1.00	.60*	.61*	.58*	.56*	.002
(6) Secondary expectations						1.00	.57*	.63*	.58*	.06
(7) Weighted MCLI							1.00	.79*	.70*	.13
(8) Weighted primary outcomes								1.00	.82*	.28*
(9) Weighted primary expectations									1.00	-.32*
(10) Primary outcomes minus expectations										1.00
Mean	4.78	5.57	5.64	6.02	5.62	5.62	27.9	32.5	32.9	-.07
S.D.	.67	.75	.65	1.26	1.26	.97	9.35	8.85	8.84	.93
Alpha	.92	.87	.89	.96	.94	.80	.91	.87	.88	.78

* $p < .01$.

marital satisfaction ($r = .56, p < .01$) than it is with the calculated discrepancy measure ($r = .17, p > .05$). It is interesting that both the MCLI and the KMS, which have been associated in this dissertation with two different theoretical contexts (social exchange and symbolic interactionism), are much more highly correlated than are the MCLI and the calculated discrepancy measure which are both rooted in the same theoretical context.

A thorough consideration of Table 10 reveals that all of the measures used in this study are moderately but significantly correlated with each other except the calculated discrepancy measure. Its only significant correlations are with the outcomes and expectations measures that make it up and their weighted transformations. The lowest correlations on the table are between calculated discrepancy and the secondary outcomes and expectations measures ($r = .002, p > .05$, and $r = .06, p > .05$ respectively). The correlations between calculated discrepancy and all three of the other marital satisfaction measures are also so low as to be insignificant.

Furthermore, note the means of the two scales: MCLI = 4.78, Calculated Discrepancy = -.07. With 4 (the theoretical mean) subtracted from the MCLI measure to express them both on equivalent scales, reveals: (a) that the difference between the means is statistically significant ($p < .001$), and (b) that the MCLI represents a discrepancy with outcomes higher than expectations whereas

calculated discrepancy measure has outcomes lower than expectations.

Thus, the MCLI and the researcher-calculated measure of discrepancy present two very different impressions of the discrepancy between outcomes and expectations. The researcher-calculated measure is a simple mathematical expression of the primary measures of outcomes and expectations. Both of these measures appear to be valid based upon their content validity. In the instructions, respondents were asked to rate outcomes and expectations. Also, in the preliminary analysis described in chapter two, the primary measures (which differed only in their instructions and the labels on their anchor points) were subjected to t-tests for significance of difference and a series of factor analyses to see if items from different measures loaded on different factors. Both of these approaches to the question of whether unique constructs were being measured gave strong positive indications. Therefore, the researcher-calculated measure of discrepancy appears to be a valid measure of discrepancy and this leads to a conclusion that discrepancy may not be an appropriate definition of marital satisfaction because the researcher-calculated measure correlates so poorly with the other measures of marital satisfaction.

Furthermore, the idea that discrepancy is not a good definition of marital satisfaction does not come into conflict with the work of Sabatelli (1984) and evidence from

this study that the MCLI is a valid measure of marital satisfaction. The conflict lies with the idea that the MCLI is a valid measure of discrepancy. Data in this study indicated that the MCLI is, indeed, a valid measure of marital satisfaction but it is not a valid measure of discrepancy. Perhaps the assessment of discrepancy is too complicated or precise an assessment to request of respondents. Or, perhaps it stimulates respondents to evaluate their outcomes and expectations inaccurately. It may be that respondents do not actually compare outcomes to expectations when they assess marital satisfaction.

Further evidence of an important difference between what was being measured by the MCLI and the calculated discrepancy measure was noticeable in the regression analysis. When the fourth hypothesis was tested by regressing both the MCLI and the calculated measure of discrepancy against gender and marital outcomes, an inconsistency emerged. Regression analysis with the MCLI as the dependent variable showed the interaction of gender and outcomes to be insignificant, but there was a significant interaction of gender and outcomes ($p < .04$) when the calculated measure of discrepancy was the dependent variable. This inconsistency further supports the impression that when respondents reported independent assessments of outcomes and expectations there was a gender-based difference influencing their reports more than when they made their MCLI assessments of these variables.

All of these observations, taken together, indicate that the calculated measure of discrepancy, which could arguably be considered the simplest, most objective, and empirically-based measure of discrepancy, is measuring something very different from the other three measures of marital satisfaction. Furthermore, the difference may be related to how people perceive outcomes and/or expectations when they assess them independently compared to how they assess them in relationship to each other. Independent assessments may be more sensitive to gender differences than relative assessments. Perhaps this suggests solutions to questions about why husbands may appear to get a better deal in marriage than wives in studies addressing specific aspects of marital relations (Thompson & Walker, 1989), but gender differences may not appear in studies measuring marital satisfaction directly (Hood, 1989). Gender differences in this study appear to stem from wives reporting more aspects of marital satisfaction to be more important and this difference apparently influences wives to assess both outcomes and expectations higher. Therefore, if discrepancy is an appropriate definition for marital satisfaction, it is expectable that a respondent's assessments of outcomes and expectations in relationship to each other would not reflect gender differences because the differences drop out.

Another conclusion which seems to emerge from this study is that it is not only questionable whether

discrepancy should be viewed as the determiner of marital satisfaction but also whether the relationship between outcomes and expectations should be viewed in terms of a mathematical formula in which marital satisfaction = outcomes - expectations. Sabatelli and Pearce (1986) suggest that, over the life cycle, all three of these variables tend to vary together except that in later life expectations tend to decrease for women. In general, the mathematical formulation marital satisfaction = outcomes - expectations seems to be too simple. It does not show gender differences but gender influences seem to be there. The formulation appears to be involved in marital satisfaction but exactly how is unclear. When a simple, objective calculation of discrepancy is made from independent measures of outcomes and expectations it has no construct validity as a measure of marital satisfaction but a subject assessment such as the MCLI correlates well with other measures. Whatever role discrepancy plays in the determination of marital satisfaction seems to rely heavily upon the cognitive context in which the assessment of discrepancy is made. More research is need to explicate the difference between outcomes and expectations when they are independently assessed and outcomes and expectations when they are assessed in relationship to each other.

Outcomes and Expectations as Predictors of Marital Satisfaction

Previous research has been unequivocal in pointing to outcomes as the strongest of the social exchange variables in predicting marital satisfaction (Argyle & Furnham, 1983; Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Cate et al., 1982; Huston & Burgess, 1979; Levinger, 1979; Martin, 1985; Michaels et al., 1984; Shaver & Hazan, 1985; White, 1990). The present study confirms this conclusion. Tables 7 and 8 give the results of regression analyses which primarily tested for interactions between gender and the primary marital outcomes and expectations variables. However, these tables show significant beta values for both outcomes and expectations when each of the four marital satisfaction measures were regressed on them. Using the MCLI as the dependent marital satisfaction variable, further hierarchical regression analysis was used to determine the ability of outcomes and expectations to predict marital satisfaction. The two variables were entered together and sequentially into two different analyses the second in reverse order from the first. For outcomes, this procedure produced a beta of .56 ($p < .0000$) and an R Square change of .20 and an F change of 36.31 ($p < .0000$). For expectations a beta of .13 ($p = .17$) was obtained with an R Square of .01 and an F change of 1.89 ($p = .17$). Accordingly, outcomes accounts for about 20% of the variance in marital satisfaction and expectations contributes almost nothing.

Limitations

These results are generalizable to middle class married couples living in the moderate sized city where the study was conducted. Inferences to other areas would have to take into consideration regional differences, and economic and socio-cultural factors which are influential in determining the make-up of a particular location. Because telephone numbers which were not answered when they were originally called were not recalled, perhaps the results are also highly influenced by those who were available to be contacted during times when recruitment was conducted. This was mostly Sunday afternoon and week day evenings. However, taking these cautions into consideration, the random procedures used in sampling and administration of the questionnaires make the results at least suggestive of some of the aspects which characterize the relationship between gender and the marital satisfaction of southeastern, middle class, urban american married couples.

One unclear aspect of the data gathering procedure was the degree of independence spouses used when responding to the measures. Respondents were instructed to work independently when completing the questionnaires but this important procedure was not monitored. It is possible that greater gender differences would have been obtained if more had been done to insure independence of spousal responses. Also, it is unclear to what extent volunteer bias may have affected the results. This is a question about how

different the results would have been if those who dropped out and those who refused to participate had been able to be included. It may be that the effect of gender differences would have been stronger under these circumstances and a gender differences would have been obtained on marital satisfaction.

Marital satisfaction was operationally defined in this study as a unidimensional concept. Therefore, the question of multidimensionality could not be explored. A definition of marital satisfaction as a multidimensional construct is one which has received a good deal of attention in the literature (Glenn, 1991) and the definitional controversy about whether marital satisfaction should be defined unidimensionally or multidimensionally is an important one. However, it is beyond the scope of this work. Other researchers (Gottman, 1994; Johnson, White, Edwards, and Booth, 1986), have found that marital quality is comprised of two important and distinct factors; 1) marital happiness and interaction, and 2) problems, disagreements, and instability. Because the present study focuses on a unidimensional, precise, and fairly narrow definition of marital satisfaction, the results may not be applicable to couples who are more distressed and for whom problems and disagreements are more salient.

Theoretical Implications

The results of this study have important repercussions for social exchange theory which has been criticized for

focusing too much on cognitive functioning and viewing people as too involved with conscious ledgerkeeping in their relationships. For this reason social exchange theory has not been seen as easily applied to intimate relationships until recently. The implications of the present research, that internal contextual factors may operate at various levels, some of which are less clearly present in awareness than others, points toward the theoretical necessity for considering the idea that many of the norms which go to make up an individual's CL may not exist in the forefront of awareness but may have their influence in more unconscious and automatic ways. This, in turn, may have repercussions for the interface of social exchange theory with other more intrapsychic theories such as Freudian theory, object relations theory, and symbolic interactionism.

The conceptual formulation that defines marital satisfaction as the discrepancy between marital outcomes and marital expectations is generally called into question by this study. However, it is not entirely disproven. The study implies that the relationship between outcomes and expectations is not a simple one. Respondents evaluate their outcomes and expectations differently with different cognitive frameworks. Therefore, if the study had included respondents who were more dissatisfied with their marriages, or if respondents had evaluated their outcomes and expectations while taking their dissatisfactions into consideration more, discrepancy may have appeared more

appropriate as a definition. In general, it may be that discrepancy is a better definition for marital satisfaction when couples are more dissatisfied or distressed.

Implications for Future Research

Evidence gained from the present study focuses primarily on the relationship between expectations and importance as contextual, perceptual variables representing factors which influence an individual's judgements about his or her marriage. Sabatelli and Pearce (1986) have shown that expectations and importance tend to be related positively but it also has been demonstrated that expectations can be high about marital aspects that are not very important (White, 1990). Future research is needed to clarify this relationship more precisely. If expectations are high about relatively unimportant aspects, how do those expectations relate to marital satisfaction? Do unimportant expectations influence marital satisfaction differently from more important ones?

The present study represents confirmation of Rhyne's (1981) finding that husbands and wives differ in the saliency or importance that they place upon various aspects of marriage. This means that, in fundamental ways, their perceptions of what happens within the exchanges of their marital relationship may differ. It is important that future research continue to seek a clearer understanding of these fundamental differences in perception. There already is evidence that men tend to be more operationally oriented

in their relationships and women tend to be more affective. What does this mean in terms of perceptual differences?

It is important that future research be careful how it measures and (who) calculates discrepancy. Discrepancy derived by different techniques can be expected to yield different results. Perhaps actual discrepancy, objectively measured, is not as important as perceived discrepancy. Further research exploring this difference between variously derived discrepancy scores would perhaps improve if observational techniques were used and an insider view could be compared with an outsider view. Also, greater understanding might result from longitudinal research which could examine perceived discrepancies over time.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ITEMS OF THE MCLI

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1. The amount of companionship you experience.
2. The amount your partner is trusting of you.
3. The amount of sexual activity you experience.
4. The amount of confiding that occurs between you and your spouse.
5. The amount of conflict over daily decisions that exists.
6. The amount of time you spend together.
7. The amount of affection your partner displays.
8. The amount that responsibility for household tasks is shared.
9. The amount your partner is willing to listen to you.
10. The amount of relationship equality you experience.
11. The amount of conflict over money you experience.
12. The amount of compatibility that you experience.
13. The amount of conflict over the use of leisure time that you experience.
14. The amount of disagreement over friends you experience.
15. The amount of interest in sex your partner expresses.
16. The fairness with which money is spent.
17. The amount of criticism your partner expresses.
18. The amount of mutual respect you experience.
19. The degree to which your interpersonal communications are effective.
20. The amount of love you experience.
21. The degree to which your needs are met.
22. The amount of freedom you experience in pursuing other friendships.
23. The amount of responsibility your partner accepts for household tasks.
24. The amount that you and your partner discuss sex.
25. The amount of privacy you experience.
26. The amount to which your spouse supports your choice of an occupation.
27. The amount to which you and your spouse agree on your lifestyle.
28. The amount to which you and your spouse agree on the number of children to have.
29. The degree of physical attractiveness of your partner.
30. The amount of arguing over petty issues that you experience.
31. The amount of jealousy your partner expresses.
32. The amount of commitment you experience from your spouse.

33. The amount of money that you have.
34. The degree of parental approval for your marriage that you experience.
35. The amount of emotional support you experience from your friends.
36. The amount of contact that you have with in-laws.

Instructions for Version I--The MCLI:

Please assume that the midpoint (4) on the scale represents your expectation for the relationship dimension listed. With zero (4) representing your expectation level, please indicate to what degree your relationship currently compares favorably or unfavorably to your expectation level by circling the appropriate number. A score of 1 would indicate that your current experience falls BELOW your expectations and is thus perceived by you as much worse than you expect; a score of 4 would indicate that your current experience EQUALS your expectation level; a score of 7 would indicate that your current experience falls ABOVE your expectations and is thus perceived by you as much better than you expect.

Instructions for Version II--Marital Outcomes:

Please rate each of the following items according to how you actually experience that item in your marriage. Use the seven point scale provided which ranges from low benefit to high benefit. A score of 1 would indicate that the quality of your experience relative to that item is low; a score of 4 would indicate that the quality of your experience relative to that item is medium; a score of 7 would indicate that the quality of your experience relative to that item is high.

Instructions for Version III--Marital Expectations:

Please rate each of the following items according to what you currently expect from your marriage. Use the seven point scale provided which ranges from low expectation to high expectation. Let your response reflect how you think your marriage should be with respect to that item. A score of 1 would indicate that you expect little from your marriage relative to that item; a score of 4 would indicate that you expect a medium amount from your marriage relative to that item; a score of 7 would indicate that you expect a lot from your marriage relative to that item.

Instructions for Version IV--Importance:

Please rate the following items according to their importance in your marriage. Use the seven point scale provided which ranges from unimportant to extremely important. Let your response reflect how important this item is to your marriage in general. A score of 1 would indicate that this item represents values which are unimportant considerations when you evaluate your marriage; a score of 4 would indicate that this item represents values that are of average importance when you evaluate your marriage; a score of 7 would indicate that this item represents values that are extremely important when you evaluate your marriage.

APPENDIX B

FACTOR ANALYSES

Table 11. Maximum likelihood factor analysis of the primary marital satisfaction measure in order to identify a reduced unidimensional measure.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
18	.78*	.03	.11	-.07	-.04	.00	.17
32	.73*	.00	.02	.07	-.17	-.07	.19
12	.70	.05	.08	-.08	-.03	-.12	.23
20	.68*	.25	.09	-.07	-.00	-.05	-.23
10	.57*	.13	.11	-.09	-.18	-.18	-.08
21	.57	.18	.10	-.17	-.07	-.15	-.17
19	.55	-.12	.08	-.38	-.09	.07	-.01
7	.55	.30	.05	-.21	-.05	.00	-.20
9	.53*	.05	-.17	-.10	-.07	0.26	-.16
4	.48*	.03	.01	-.03	-.34	-.07	.01
1	.45	.12	.04	-.41	-.02	-.17	-.04
3	-.10	.88	-.07	-.04	-.06	.02	-.09
15	.16	.83	-.04	.04	-.02	.23	-.05
24	.07	.55	.03	.03	-.05	-.13	.28

Table 11 (continued)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
13	.19	-.15	.75	.13	-.01	.04	.08
31	.05	.21	.62	.02	.15	-.01	-.18
11	-.03	-.21	.60	.06	-.06	.14	.11
30	-.21	-.05	.60	-.04	-.04	.15	-.23
5	-.08	-.06	.59	.02	-.04	-.09	.18
14	-.13	.12	.51	.00	.06	-.16	-.19
17	-.38	.17	.45	-.09	.17	.00	.15
27	.21	-.09	-.16	-.78	.09	-.05	.23
26	-.08	-.04	-.19	-.50	-.29	-.09	-.17
29	.15	.18	-.03	-.47	-.10	-.03	-.19
22	.13	-.03	.03	.10	-.91	-.05	-.15
2	.11	.10	-.20	-.05	-.51	.10	.05
16	-.01	.11	.03	-.12	-.45	-.17	.19
25	-.14	.09	.07	-.30	-.41	-.07	.18

Table 11 (continued)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
8	.00	-.00	-.07	-.03	.08	-.87	.11
23	.04	-.16	.06	.05	-.12	-.84	-.10
6	.25	.20	.06	-.23	.00	-.28	-.04
28	.17	.04	-.04	-.14	-.30	-.10	.40

Table 12. Maximum likelihood factor analysis of the primary marital outcomes measure in order to identify a reduced unidimensional measure.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
10	.72*	-.08	.00	-.09	-.05	-.12	.15
18	.70*	-.00	.04	-.08	.10	.12	.08
20	.60*	-.06	.38	-.17	.05	.15	-.08
9	.59*	-.10	-.01	-.20	-.05	-.15	.02
4	.51*	-.12	.01	-.03	.21	.04	-.01
7	.51	-.02	.36	-.12	.14	.13	-.14
32	.45*	.10	-.05	-.07	.12	.25	.15
1	.45	-.01	.41	-.17	-.20	.14	.26
21	.44	-.06	.38	-.12	.00	.24	.11
19	.38	.08	.03	-.08	.30	-.36	.30
16	.31	.20	.05	.13	.06	.04	.16
5	.00	.86	-.01	-.04	-.06	.07	.02
13	.16	.77	-.01	.01	-.07	-.01	-.07
11	.08	.71	-.11	.16	.12	.09	.00
14	.04	.70	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.23	.02
30	-.21	.65	-.00	-.10	-.01	.04	.01

Table 12 (continued)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
31	-.02	.64	.03	-.10	.01	-.29	-.06
17	-.20	.59	.14	-.08	.11	.13	.00
3	-.05	-.04	.91	-.06	-.07	-.07	.08
15	.02	.02	.78	.22	.12	.08	.00
24	-.04	.15	.55	-.15	.52	-.13	-.04
6	.19	-.09	.40	-.20	-.17	-.02	.28
23	-.03	.18	-.13	.92	-.03	.11	.06
8	.09	-.01	.04	.72	.09	-.12	-.06
29	.16	-.09	.17	-.25	.20	.12	.18
28	-.01	-.04	-.02	-.01	.72	.04	.08
2	.09	-.08	.04	-.00	.10	.48	.24
25	-.16	.00	.09	.04	.00	.05	.64
27	.17	-.03	-.08	.01	.09	-.08	.64
26	.05	-.01	-.02	-.11	.02	.11	.58

Table 12 (continued)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
12	.36	-.08	.11	-.06	.17	-.10	.40
22	.13	-.08	-.01	-.18	.23	.18	.25

Table 13. Maximum likelihood factor analysis of the primary marital expectations measure in order to identify a reduced unidimensional measure.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
20	.78*	-.00	-.01	-.06	.30	-.25	-.13
18	.75*	-.05	.24	-.06	-.01	-.01	.08
32	.73*	-.06	-.08	.03	-.09	-.17	-.12
4	.72*	-.02	-.07	.07	.02	.21	.07
12	.67	-.13	.17	.06	.02	.01	.01
1	.64	-.04	.12	.04	.25	.07	-.13
19	.57	.03	-.07	.25	.04	.10	-.12
9	.56*	-.18	.08	.01	.19	.16	.10
21	.54	-.06	.05	.06	.17	-.33	-.03
2	.53	-.03	-.09	-.03	.02	-.08	.15
10	.41*	-.06	.18	.02	.13	.08	.22
6	.30	-.04	.14	.28	.30	.13	-.08
5	.09	.82	-.11	-.02	.00	.08	.13
13	.03	.76	-.14	-.10	.12	-.02	-.13
11	.01	.76	-.10	.08	.02	.07	.06
14	-.07	.74	.22	-.10	-.15	-.17	-.03

Table 13 (continued)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
17	-.13	.71	.01	.18	.04	.14	-.20
31	-.12	.63	.17	.05	-.05	-.16	.01
30	-.12	.60	-.00	-.10	-.06	.04	.52
8	.13	-.04	.79	-.04	.16	.22	.03
23	-.08	-.02	.78	.08	-.04	-.11	-.02
26	.06	.02	.03	.73	-.06	-.25	-.03
25	-.03	.01	.05	.64	.02	.17	-.03
16	.20	.10	.08	.40	-.08	-.14	.24
27	.23	-.02	.06	.33	.13	.06	.06
15	.05	-.02	-.04	.01	.86	.04	.02
3	.02	-.04	.07	-.18	.75	-.03	-.07
24	-.04	.08	.12	.23	.59	-.07	-.02
7	.43	.00	.11	-.04	.52	.09	.07
29	.01	.00	-.06	.05	.45	-.41	.16

Table 13 (continued)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
28	.20	-.01	.02	.09	.13	-.29	.04
22	-.04	-.20	.01	.40	.04	-.10	.41

APPENDIX C

ITEMS OF THE KANSAS MARITAL SATISFACTION SCALE

Female Version

How satisfied are you with your husband as a spouse?

<u>Extremely</u> <u>dissatisfied</u>			<u>Average</u> <u>satisfaction</u>		<u>Extremely</u> <u>satisfied</u>	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How satisfied are you with your marriage?

<u>Extremely</u> <u>dissatisfied</u>			<u>Average</u> <u>satisfaction</u>		<u>Extremely</u> <u>satisfied</u>	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How satisfied are you with your relationship with your husband?

<u>Extremely</u> <u>dissatisfied</u>			<u>Average</u> <u>satisfaction</u>		<u>Extremely</u> <u>satisfied</u>	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Male Version

How satisfied are you with your wife as a spouse?

<u>Extremely</u> <u>dissatisfied</u>			<u>Average</u> <u>satisfaction</u>		<u>Extremely</u> <u>satisfied</u>	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How satisfied are you with your marriage?

<u>Extremely</u> <u>dissatisfied</u>			<u>Average</u> <u>satisfaction</u>		<u>Extremely</u> <u>satisfied</u>	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How satisfied are you with your relationship with your wife?

<u>Extremely</u> <u>dissatisfied</u>			<u>Average</u> <u>satisfaction</u>		<u>Extremely</u> <u>satisfied</u>	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

GLOBAL ITEMS MEASURING OUTCOMES AND EXPECTATIONS

Outcomes

1. The overall quality of your actual experience in your marriage is:

low	medium	high
-----	--------	------
2. From your perception, the overall quality of your spouse's actual experience in marriage is:

low	medium	high
-----	--------	------
3. From your perception, the overall quality of your actual experience in marriage compared to the overall quality of your spouse's actual experience in marriage is:

low	medium	high
-----	--------	------
4. From your perspective, who benefits most from your marriage?
 - a. spouse a lot more
 - b. spouse a little more
 - c. equal
 - d. I get a lot more
 - e. I get a little more

Expectations

5. The general level of what you expect from your marriage is:

low	medium	high
-----	--------	------
6. From your perception, the general level of what your spouse expects from marriage is:

low	medium	high
-----	--------	------
7. From your point of view, your marital expectations compared to your spouse's are:

lower	equal	higher
-------	-------	--------

8. From your point of view, your spouse's marital expectations compared to yours are:

lower

equal

higher

APPENDIX E

EXTENDED LITERATURE REVIEW

Marital Quality

A mushrooming interest in research on marital quality has become apparent over the last thirty years (Glenn, 1991; Hicks & Platt, 1970; Spanier, 1979; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). In the 60's and 70's marital quality was a variable which was used interchangeably and often synonymously with several other popular dependent variables such as marital happiness, marital satisfaction, marital adjustment, marital integration, and marital success (Anderson, 1983; Glenn, 1991; Spanier, 1979). Definitions were imprecise and inconsistent. Distinctions between the variables were unclear, and by the time Spanier and Lewis (1980) wrote the 70's decade review, considerable discussion had begun about the confusion associated with various terms.

According to Spanier and Lewis (1980, p. 826), marital quality is a multi-dimensional concept which during the 70's began "gaining greater usage among marriage and family researchers, since it includes the entire range of variables which have been the traditional dependent variables in marital research". Thus, the reviewers mark a movement toward the use of marital quality as a general heading and differentiation of that particular variable from other more specific variables that have been widely employed in the measurement of the quality of marriage (Spanier, 1979).

Conceptually, marital quality is the subjective evaluation spouses make about their marriage (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). These evaluations can be made along a wide variety of dimensions. Spanier (1979, p. 290) identifies such important marital aspects as "good adjustment, adequate communication, a high level of marital happiness, integration, and a high degree of satisfaction with the relationship" as factors determining marital quality. Often researchers have assessed marital quality through the use of specific measures which respond differently to the same independent variables. This was demonstrated by Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers (1976) who presented evidence that people assign different meanings for the words "happiness" and "satisfaction" with happiness varying directly with education and satisfaction varying inversely. According to Campbell et al. (1976), satisfaction is a cognitive variable and happiness is an affective variable.

In defining marital quality, Lewis and Spanier (1979, p. 269) go on to say; "The definition does not convey a fixed picture of discrete categories, i.e., a high-versus low-quality marriage, but rather suggests the existence of a

continuum ranging from high to low." If marital quality is a multi-dimensional concept, then it follows that the continuum they envision would be conceptualized accurately as a multi-variate continuum employing a variety of measures in order to produce a profile of a particular marriage.

Johnson, White, Edwards, and Booth (1986) conducted a factor analysis of five aspects of marital quality and obtained two distinct factors. One factor included marital happiness and interaction. The other included problems, disagreements, and instability. Arguments have been made by several writers that care should be taken to measure marital quality in ways that do not allow different dimensions to become confounded (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; Huston, McHale, & Crouter, 1986; Norton, 1983). Some argue for a more limited conceptualization of marital quality that focuses on the happiness factor (Johnson et al., 1986) and emphasize global evaluations of an individual's perceived marital quality (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; Schumm, Nichols, Shectman, & Grigsby, 1983). Glenn (1991) calls this approach the "individual feelings" school.

Marital Satisfaction and Marital Quality

Frequently scholars have expressed concern about the confusion which exists around definitions of marital quality (Anderson, 1983; Glenn, 1991). Some have insisted that because the concept is multi-dimensional it should be measured as such (Bernard, 1976). Broderick and O'Leary (1986) pointed out that affective measures are more powerful in measuring marital satisfaction and Sabatelli (1984) highlighted the importance of relational factors such as trust, love, and commitment. These writers seem to recommend that marital quality should be approached as a multi-dimensional variable but limited more strictly to subjective assessments on a primarily affective level.

Much of the research on marital satisfaction, however, has used small convenience samples and explored a small number of independent variables (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Markovich, 1985). Thus, the evidence taken as a whole can be confusing and inconsistent.

Attempting to provide clarity, Anderson (1983) found family life cycle and job satisfaction to be major predictors of marital satisfaction. Family life cycle, in agreement with considerable earlier evidence (Burr, 1970; Glenn, 1975; Rollins & Feldman, 1970), was related non-monotonically to marital satisfaction with high marital satisfaction being associated with the period before the birth of children, childless couples, and the empty nest period. Satisfaction was lower for couples with children. Job satisfaction was associated positively with marital

satisfaction. This correlation, however, was not as high at lower levels of employment status particularly for wives with less than a high school diploma. For this category, job satisfaction was predictive of marital satisfaction for homemakers but it was not related to marital satisfaction for employed wives (Blood & Wolfe, 1960). This suggestion is supported by Birnbaum (1991) who found employed wives reported high marital satisfaction if their employment status was high.

Correlates of Marital Satisfaction

Though the direct evidence can be seen as inconsistent (Peplau, 1983), researchers have often presented strong cases for the conclusion that men generally benefit more from marriage (Bernard, 1976; Davidson, 1984; Martin, 1985; Rachlin, 1987; Thompson & Walker, 1989) and, therefore, theoretically, are more satisfied. Because of evidence for gender differences in studies of related areas such as marital power, gender-role orientation, job satisfaction, perceived role discrepancy, judged role competence, marital intimacy, and psychological well-being, it is reasoned that men are happier because marriage seems to bring them an over-all better deal (White, 1990).

However, the goal of research is, of course, not to speculate but to map the precise (perhaps delicate or subtle) manner in which gender moderates marital satisfaction, and at this point, the evidence seems to point to the conclusion that husbands and wives differ on some specific dimensions of marital satisfaction (Snyder, 1979; Terry & Scott, 1987; Thompson, 1988) even though the basic source areas of marital satisfaction are the same for both genders (Rhyne, 1981). Thus, the differences may not appear if a particular research design does not measure those dimensions (Snyder, 1979).

Psychological Well-Being

For some time it has been accepted generally that married people are less susceptible to emotional problems than unmarried people (Blumenthal, 1967; Bradburn, 1969; Briscoe & Smith, 1974; Durkheim, 1966; Radloff, 1975). Menaghan (1989) found that both marriage and employment have positive effects on psychological well-being. Glenn (1975) found that married people scored higher on global happiness than all categories of the unmarried. Considerable research has attempted to discover more detail about this apparent fact and why it is true.

Gove, Hughes and Style (1983) demonstrated that marital status is the most powerful predictor of a number of mental health variables. Their work also indicated that it is the

quality of the marriage and not marriage per se that links it to positive mental health. However, Ferree (1991) suggested that marital status is a more accurate predictor of the mental health for husbands and marital quality is more related to marital satisfaction for wives. This seems supported by considerable evidence that self-esteem is related positively to women's marital satisfaction more than men's (Barnett & Nietzel, 1979; Murstein & Beck, 1972).

Sharpe and Heppner (1991) found that gender-role conflict is related to negatively psychological well-being. This suggests that concern over gender-role issues can have an effect on psychological well-being. According to Menaghan (1989), when social role repertoires deviate from what is expectably normal for an individual's age or gender, the effect on psychological well-being ranges from neutral to negative. Also, from a study of school teachers, Frusher, Pearl, and Perry (1984) suggested that patterns of adult development are different for men and women making women more likely to report lower psychological well-being.

Within the general conclusion that married people enjoy more positive mental health than unmarried people, there are interesting specific differences that complicate the picture. For instance, Renne (1971) found that unhappily married persons are generally in poorer mental health than their counterparts in the single, widowed, and divorced categories. Also, several studies clearly indicate that among married people there are significant gender differences in mental health with husbands enjoying far greater mental health than wives (Bernard, 1972; Gove, 1973; Gove & Tudor, 1972). Among distressed couples being seen in marital therapy, Stuart (1989) found lower levels of marital satisfaction among women as well as lower levels of satisfaction with communication and with distribution of household and child-care responsibilities.

Jesse Bernard (1972) asserted that marriage is very different for women than it is for men and that the man's marriage is better. Gove (1973) presented evidence that married women have a much higher rate of mental illness than married men and single men tend to have higher rates of mental illness than single women. The ratio of single to married men suffering from mental illness is higher than the ratio of single to married women (Gove, 1973).

Thus, the generally superior mental health of married people may be particularly determined by the happily married, and the happily married category may be more populated by husbands than wives. Also, whereas the happiness of the married category may be skewed upward by the happily married men, the unhappiness of the singles category may be skewed downward by the single men. However,

more recent evidence has indicated that the "happiness gap" between marrieds and unmarrieds began to be less pronounced during the 1980s, with a particularly noticeable improvement in the unhappiness of young, never married men (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Lee, Seccombe, & Shehan, 1991). At any rate, it may be that marital quality variables are a key to this scenario because marital quality is a stronger predictor of women's well-being than of men's (Gove et al., 1983).

Women's depression levels also are apparently affected by different dimensions of the marriage relationship, particularly marital intimacy (Brown & Harris, 1978). It has been well established (Bernard, 1976) that women outnumber men in the incidence of depression. Men dominate pathological categories such as alcoholism and drug related problems as well as general personality disorders, but the overall incidence of mental illness is not as high for married men as it is for married women and depression seems to be the category that contains the lion's share of married women with mental illness. Marital satisfaction also appears negatively related to depression (Thoresen & Goldsmith, 1987) and attempts to determine whether low marital satisfaction causes depression or vice versa have seemed to indicate that marital dissatisfaction causes depression (Whisman & Jacobson, 1989), not vice versa. Also Fincham, Beach, and Bradbury (1989), studying the association between marital distress and negative marital attributions, concluded that depression is not caused by the attributions.

In summary, the psychological well-being of men appears to be more enhanced in marriage than it is for women. Men derive instrumental, role-related benefits from the marital experience that are not available outside of marriage (Williams, 1988) and men seem to be satisfied in marriage more as a result of stability than marital quality (Ferree, 1991). On the other hand, women more than men appear to use marital roles to form their self-esteem (Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Reble, & Zellman, 1978; Gove et al., 1983; Vanfossen, 1981) as well as to accept greater responsibility for problems and dissatisfaction in marriage (Williams, 1988). These data suggest that marriage is more intimately tied to a woman's identity than it is to a man's. Social Roles

Some of the most clear-cut and outstanding differences between married women and married men have to do with the social roles they occupy. Gove (1972) makes a compelling case for the idea that the overwhelming gender difference in the mental health of married people is due to the differences in their social roles. He theorizes that husbands have an advantage over wives as a result of the simple number of roles they occupy. Wives typically occupy

only one major social role, that of housewife, whereas husbands usually occupy two major roles, head of household and worker. Thus, if the man finds one of his roles unsatisfying he can focus on the other. The woman has no such option. However, more recent attempts to explain gender differences in well-being on the basis of social roles have focused upon the quality of various roles rather than the quantity. According to Kontos (1991) the simple number of roles is apparently unrelated to marital quality.

Gove (1972) also addressed the quality issue. He cited aspects of the housewife role that make it unsatisfactory. Being a housewife is frustrating, requires little skill, is low-status, and is relatively unstructured and invisible. The definition of the women's role is usually more vague and unclear than that of men's (Angrist, 1969; Goode, 1960; Kirkpatrick, 1936; Rose, 1951). By contrast, the husband's role as jobholder requires him to meet constantly structured demands and stay involved with his environment. When a married woman does have a job, it is typically a lower status, less satisfying one, even though the effect of employment seems to have a positive effect on women's marital satisfaction generally (Gore, & Mangione, 1983; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970).

Traditionally, women tend to perceive their career in terms of what men do and men perceive their career in terms of their own needs (Rose, 1951). There has been significant suggestion that women are more likely than men to rely on marital roles for their sense of personal value and self-worth (Vanfossen, 1981; Frieze et al., 1978; Gove et al., 1983). However, Williams (1988) opposes this explanation of why social roles affect women in marriage in favor of the explanation that women have higher expectations for intimacy and social support throughout life and are more sensitive to the emotional quality of their relationships.

Women's roles in marriage often are thought to be more stressful and/or less gratifying than those of men. Women may be more responsive to the affective quality of the marriage relationship because they lack compensatory gratification from the work role (Williams, 1988), or it may be that women are more sensitive generally to social roles in the determination of their happiness. Perceived role discrepancy (difference between role expectations and role enactments) is related to marital satisfaction for women but not for men (Bochner, Krueger, & Chmielewski, 1982; Kotler & Hammond, 1981); but, in a study of dual career couples, Terry and Scott (1987) found this only true for traditional wives, not egalitarian wives.

The exact impact of social roles in determining the quality of the marriage relationship is unclear in the

literature. There is a good deal of evidence that marital intimacy and the quality of interpersonal relationships are considerably important for the marital satisfaction of women (House & Kahn, 1984). Apparently, women receive less emotional intimacy than they want. This can be seen in a significant discrepancy between perceived and desired emotional intimacy (Wade, 1988). When intimacy was defined in terms of specific behavioral aspects, the intellectual, emotional, sexual, and recreational dimensions appeared to be most important to judgements of marital quality. Gender differences were found only for emotional and sexual intimacy by Jacobson (1988). Having high expectations along most dimensions of intimacy was related to higher levels of marital quality for men but not for women. But both genders appeared to experience higher marital quality when there is concordance between actual and ideal intimacy.

Gender-Role Orientation

Another example of the complex way in which gender interacts with marital satisfaction can be seen when the relationship between marital satisfaction and gender-role orientations is examined. Gender-roles are formed through a social role-construction process and they influence how one interprets the behavior of his/her relational partner as well as one's own behavior and the feelings that surround the behavior (Peplau, 1983). They are patterns of thinking, feeling, perceiving, responding, and behaving that an individual learns through the sex-typing process (Cook, 1985). This process has many avenues through which a person takes on characteristics which are deemed to be proper for his or her gender in a particular cultural situation. According to Peplau (1983, p. 221), "Gender is one of the most basic social categories around which roles are organized. In American society, girlfriends and boyfriends, wives and husbands, and fathers and mothers behave in somewhat different and characteristic ways."

According to Atkinson and Huston (1984), gender-role orientation has three specific aspects: (a) gender-role attitude, (b) gender-role identity, and (c) behavior. Gender-role attitude has to do with a person's beliefs and presuppositions about how men and women ought to behave and the rights, privileges, and requirements which pertain to them as a result of their gender. Two gender-role attitudes are seen as significantly distinguishable in the literature, traditional and egalitarian (Peplau, 1983). It has been found that egalitarian attitudes on the part of the husband are associated positively with marital quality (Bowen, 1987; Bowen & Orthner, 1983; Li & Caldwell, 1987) and both spouses tend to report higher marital satisfaction when their relationship is egalitarian.

However, some research has viewed the effect of gender-role structures on marital quality from the more general level of traditional versus modern gender-role orientations with different results. On the one hand, women with traditional gender-role orientations tend to be more likely to be involved in marital structures which hold them responsible for communicating about emotional issues and seeking resolution of conflict as well as performing the greatest portion of the household work (Ferree, 1991; Thompson & Walker, 1989). On the other hand, evidence also indicates that women with traditional gender-role orientations report higher marital satisfaction than women with modern gender role orientations (Lueptow, Guss, & Hyden, 1989).

With respect to gender-role identities, scholars have been interested in masculine and feminine traits for some time (Bem, 1974; Constantinople, 1973; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). At first, masculinity and femininity were seen as two poles of the same continuum (Constantinople, 1973). A high score in femininity automatically meant a low score in masculinity. However, recently scholars have begun to regard masculinity and femininity as separate factors in personality so that any single individual might be either low or high on each factor (Murstien & Williams, 1983). Thus, being high on masculinity doesn't exclude one from possibly being high on femininity. In this framework, androgyny becomes the descriptor for those who measure above a certain threshold on each factor (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975).

Androgyny researchers have pursued the notion that people who measure high in masculinity and femininity and are relatively balanced in both areas will experience positive psychological well-being (Bem, 1974). This positive effect of androgyny also has been shown to be related to relationship satisfaction (Ickes, 1985; Ickes & Barnes, 1978). Others, however, (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Heilbrun, 1986; Heilbrun & Mulqueen, 1987) have held that masculinity is the factor that positively effects psychological well-being and femininity has little influence. With respect to marital quality, several researchers have found that the more egalitarian the husband, the higher the marital quality of both spouses (Bowen, 1987; Bowen & Orthner, 1983; Hood, 1989; Li & Caldwell, 1987). However, it also has been reported that femininity is related positively to marital quality for both spouses (Antill, 1983; Hood, 1989; Ickes, 1985).

Hood (1989) conducted a discriminant analysis and found that masculinity, femininity, spouse masculinity, spouse femininity, total income, length of marriage, score on the Marital Roles Attitude Scale, and presence of children

discriminates between less satisfied and more satisfied groups of couples. Egalitarian couples were more satisfied. Also, Minsky (1984) studied combinations of couples with respect to gender-role identity and found that both companionate and traditional couples were highly satisfied with their marriages for different reasons. Spouses in the companionate marriage expect equality, but in the traditional marriage both spouses agree on the traditional structure. Minsky also found wives were more emotionally expressive than their husbands but this was not related to marital satisfaction. Lueptow et al. (1989) found that women with nontraditional gender-role values were less happy with their marriages and more likely to be separated or divorced.

Work

A major area of research which appears relevant to marital satisfaction has to do with employment and the general category of work. Gender also plays a role in the relationship of work to marital satisfaction but, again, in a somewhat complicated way. To understand the way in which work is related to marital satisfaction, particularly for women, researchers have divided work into paid and unpaid work with the latter category referring primarily to the area of housework. Strong evidence that employed wives typically experience no great decrease in the amount of housework which they do (Douthitt, 1988; Miller & Garrison, 1982; Spitze, 1988; Thompson & Walker, 1989) has led to an identification of what has been called the married woman's "second shift" (Hochschild & Machung, 1989). This suggests that women typically carry a noticeably unfair share of the total work, but others have presented evidence that total paid and unpaid work is about equal for husbands and wives (Berk, 1985; Pleck, 1985).

According to Blood and Wolfe (1960) there apparently is no difference between working and nonworking wives on marital satisfaction. Yet how does the economic factor work itself in? What sends women to work? Blood and Wolfe (1960) found two contrasting categories of wives were equally satisfied with their marriages: working wives of low-income husbands and nonworking wives of high-income husbands. Wives in other categories "on the average" were "somewhat" less satisfied (Blood & Wolfe, 1960).

Work is important to the question of gender differences in psychological well-being. It also is important to the question of family life satisfaction. Repetti (1987) found that women who reported their work environments to be unpleasant or their work loads to be too heavy also reported lower satisfaction with family relationships. Some writers have argued that paid work is associated naturally with

greater personal gratification than is household work because it has higher status (Thompson & Walker, 1989). Generally speaking, employed wives experience higher psychological well-being than women who work only at home (Gore & Mangione, 1983; Gove & Geerken, 1977; Kessler & McRae, 1982). Walsh and Allen (1991) found that women who work outside the home tend to have higher marital satisfaction. However, some studies have found no differences between employed and unemployed wives (Aneshensel, Frerichs, & Clark, 1981; Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Pearlin, 1975). This disagreement could possibly be explained when one looks more closely at the type and level of paid work in which a woman is engaged as well as the amount of help she gets with housework at home. There is evidence that the beneficial effects of wives employment are greatly reduced by burdens of family responsibility (Kessler & McRae, 1982; Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983; Vanfossen, 1981) and women's marital satisfaction is increased when housework is shared equally between husband and wife (Rachlin, 1987).

A major theme having to do with work, obviously, is the imbalance in unpaid, household work which is born by women. This is particularly noticeable in the light of studies of expectations in which wives were doing far more housework than their husbands but tended not to see their husbands as not doing enough (Yogev, 1981, 1982). However, recent studies give evidence of a trend toward men increasing their total unpaid work (Douthitt, 1988; Sherman, 1988) and also that the notion of the second shift has been exaggerated (Ferree, 1991).

Saliency

In general, the evidence reviewed so far still remains unclear on many questions about the definition of marital satisfaction. However, some clarity exists. Perhaps the most significant is that relational factors such as trust, mutual respect, commitment, companionship, intimacy, and love are most important to marital satisfaction (Argyle & Furnham, 1983; Broderick & O'Leary, 1986; Rhyne, 1981; Sabatelli, 1984; Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986; Thompson & Walker, 1989). It also is apparent that, from a social exchange perspective, absolute reward level is the primary predictor of marital satisfaction (Cate, Lloyd, Henton, & Larson, 1982; Martin, 1985; Michaels, Edwards, & Acock, 1984; Reynolds, 1991). However, there is still a need to identify more specifically which rewards are most important for husbands and which are most important for wives (White, 1990).

In order to shed light on some of the unclear questions surrounding marital satisfaction, the present study

considered an importance variable. The history of research in this area seems to indicate a need for a finer grained exploration of which aspects of marital satisfaction are most important to each gender group (Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986; White, 1990). Sabatelli and Pearce (1986, p. 319) point out that "In general, importance and expectation levels for marital dimensions are not uniform: they are higher for some dimensions than for others." Nye (1979) presented the idea that different factors have different saliency in determining marital satisfaction and one of the most viable theories for explaining the fact that not all investigators have found gender differences in marital satisfaction is that their research places different saliency on different aspects of marital satisfaction in the measures used. This saliency factor, in fact, would seem to be synonymous with importance.

Examining Foa and Foa's (1974) six resources plus equity (each as separate variables) for their effect on relationship satisfaction, Lloyd, Cate, and Henton (1982) found that information first, equity second, and love third, were the most significant predictors of satisfaction. Goldberg (1982) found power, nurturance, trust, and intimacy to be most important in marital satisfaction.

Nevid (1984) conducted a study of what students look for in partners with whom they engage in romantic relationships. The results indicated that both sexes value the same essential aspects of relationship, but different ones are salient. As an example, men valued the variables of strength and money very low but women did not place a low value on either of the variables. This result dovetails Rhyne's (1981) finding that the bases of marital satisfaction were the same for men and women but salience of different bases were different. Davidson (1984) found another interesting sex difference in his study of equity and reward levels. Husbands manifest a curvilinear relationship between equity and rewards with marital satisfaction at lower levels on either side of the optimal point of equity. Wives, however did not show this kind of relationship. Rather, their marital satisfaction showed a simple positive linear relationship with reward level.

Intuitively, there is a relationship between marital expectations and importance. It seems reasonable that a married partner would have expectations about things in his/her marriage that are of importance. In fact, expectations and importance could possibly be just different ways of saying the same thing. To have a low expectation about a particular aspect of one's marriage may easily be seen as implying that this aspect is simply not very important. On the other hand, an aspect about which one holds high expectations would logically be quite important.

Sabatelli and Pearce (1986) found empirical support for this idea. In their study items measuring expectations were correlated linearly and positively with importance for both men and women. Also, they found that expectation levels were higher for items which tap relationship areas and lower for items tapping areas like time spent together, privacy, and sexual activity. However, White (1990) provided evidence that importance (saliency) and expectations are not highly correlated, by noting that expectations are sometimes high on unimportant aspects of satisfaction. In general, both of these variables represent contextual, perceptual factors that influence the evaluations individuals make of their relationship exchanges but are factors which may be hard to distinguish one from the other.

In summary, importance is a key variable in the definition of marital satisfaction but exactly how it fits is unclear. It seems to be sensitive to gender differences and to be closely related to expectations but the two variables are not synonymous. Future research is needed to explicate the precise relationship between importance and the discrepancy definition of marital satisfaction.

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VITA

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