To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Patrick Charles McKenry entitled "A Comparison of Divorced and Married Dyads." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Home Economics.

Priscilla N. White

Priscilla N. White, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

J. Lynn Cunningham

Judith S. Kuipers

Roger M. Strauss

Eugene N. Schoch

Accepted for the Council:

Hilton A. Smith

Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

Thesis
76b
.M337
cop. 2

A COMPARISON OF DIVORCED AND MARRIED DYADS

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy.

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Patrick Charles McKenry

December 1976

1303782

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am indebted to all those individuals who aided me in the completion of this study. I am particularly grateful to my chairperson, Dr. Priscilla White. Dr. White provided enthusiastic leadership and encouragement not only with this present project, but throughout my entire doctoral program. She went to great lengths to make my graduate experience very beneficial and enjoyable.

I would like to acknowledge the support of Dr. Jo Lynn Cunningham who diligently spent many hours assisting me in the analysis of my data. I would also like to express my sincere appreciation to Dr. Roger Swagler, Dr. Brent Miller, Dr. Judith Kuipers, and Dr. Eugene Schoch for their helpful suggestions, guidance, and encouragement. They have greatly influenced me over the span of my graduate career and have had a profound effect on my professional development.

I would like to express my gratitude to the research assistants who so ably assisted me in the completion of the project: Emily Capadalis, Jeanne Goodman, Beth Rice, Janice Sailors, Karen Sailors, Diane Tripp, and Randy Wood. I would finally like to thank my parents, Mr. and Mrs. R. E. McKenry, as well as other family members, for their consistent support and encouragement throughout my many years of education.

ABSTRACT

This study is a comparison of divorced and married dyads on the dimensions of affect, marital adjustment, personality homogamy, value homogamy, and selected sociodemographic variables. The differences between divorced and married dyads were explored by the use of the Caring Relationship Inventory, the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire (1974), the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, the Rokeach Value Survey, and sociodemographic data. A systematically selected sample of 20 divorced dyads was drawn from the records of the Knox County Court Clerk's Office, and 20 married dyads were systematically selected from apartment complexes. Controls were placed on potentially contaminating variables of race, presence of children, socioeconomic status, and years married. Multivariate and univariate analyses of variance with spouse as a repeated dimension were used in order to determine which variables differed as a function of marital status.

The analysis of the data revealed that the divorced and married dyads significantly differed on the dependent variables of affect, marital adjustment, and the sociodemographic variables. More specifically the divorced group as contrasted with the married group was characterized by greater affect dissatisfaction in the areas of affection, friendship, eros, empathy, self-love, and being love; a lower level of marital adjustment; greater perceived parental marital unhappiness; a greater incidence of parental marital dissolution; a greater incidence of female employment; and less inclination to attend church.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	General Introduction	1
	Potential Contributions of this Project	10
	Statement of the Problem	12
	Nominal Definitions of Variables	14
II.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	16
	Introduction	16
	Factors Related to Marital Alienation	19
	Factors Related to Marital Disenchantment	25
	Factors Related to Marital Disengagement	29
	The Decision to Divorce	33
	Societal Factors in Marital Dissolution	41
III.	METHODS	45
	Design and Sample Selection	45
	Sample Characteristics	46
	Instrumentation	50
	Data Collection and Analysis	53
	Operational Definitions of Variables	55
IV.	RESULTS	58
	Introduction	58
	Sociodemographic Variables	58
	Affect	63
	Marital Adjustment	66
	Personality Homogamy	67
	Value Homogamy	68
	Summary	69
V.	CONCLUSIONS, INTERPRETATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	71
	Conclusions	71
	Interpretations	73
	Implications	86
	Summary	91
	Limitations of the Study	93
BIBLIOGRAPHY		97

PAGE

APPENDICES 106

Appendix A 107
Appendix B 109
Appendix C 112
Appendix D 114
Appendix E 116
Appendix F 118
Appendix G 120
Appendix H 122

VITA 125

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
I.	Percentages and Means of Criterion Variables	47
II.	Percentages and Means of Sociodemographic Background Variables	49
III.	Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Marital Status Over Sociodemographic Variables	60
IV.	Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Spouse (Repeated Measure) Over Sociodemographic Variables	61
V.	Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Marital Status Over Affect	65
VI.	Analysis of Variance for Marital Status Over Marital Adjustment	67
VII.	Comparison of Divorced and Married Dyad Scores with the Norms on the Caring Relationship Inventory	79

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

General Introduction

The divorce rate in the United States increased by two-thirds between the mid-1950's and early 1970's. According to the Bureau of Census there were 34 divorces for every 100 marriages in 1971, or more accurately stated there was a divorce rate of 3.7 couples per 1,000 individuals or 7.4 persons per 1,000 (Glick & Norton, 1971). In fact, if the present rate of divorce persists, four out of every ten couples who married in 1975 will see their marriages end in divorce (Preston, 1974). Such levels of divorce are without precedent in any industrialized society and reinforce the general impression that a fundamental modification of life styles and values relating to the institution of marriage is taking place (Schoen, 1975).

Research on divorce has occupied the energies of many social scientists during the past several decades, and a fascination with divorce is just as great among the American populace as among social scientists. Investigations into divorce have been carried out by lawyers, judges, social workers, psychiatrists, physicians, and others. Divorce is one of the predominant themes in literature, and specific divorces are even newsworthy. Today, books on how to initiate and survive a divorce are challenging sex manuals in popularity; divorce insurance is being promoted by some feminists, lawyers, and legislators; divorce greeting cards are

now available to acknowledge the uncoupling; and organizations like "Parents Without Partners" are growing rapidly to offer counsel and companionship to the divorced. The recent emergence of divorce counseling further indicates society's concern for this mounting problem that is afflicting its major institution of socialization and affective expression.

Divorce constitutes a social problem of major importance for a number of reasons. Because of the premium American society places on romanticism, love, and fidelity, a great deal of frustration and disappointment awaits thousands of individuals whose marriages end in divorce, not to mention many more individuals whose marriages fail but remain intact. Moreover, children are often the unwilling pawns in divorce actions; frequently they are either too young to understand the breakup of the family, or they are too emotionally involved in the dispute between their parents to accept the final decisions without bitterness and resentment (Kelley, 1974). The problem of divorce is compounded for children because they lack legal representation in most jurisdictions, even though child advocates are working to change this procedure.

Besides the dissolution of the traditional familial institution, divorce also results in numerous problems for individual family members. Social and employment discrimination are all too frequent consequences (Bohannon, 1968). Anomie and identity crises are particularly common in divorced women (Cashion, 1970). Renne (1971) found that divorced people were more likely to suffer physical disability, chronic illness, neurosis, depression, and other emotional illnesses than were married or never

married individuals. Economic difficulties also plague many divorced people because in most cases the family's income is limited by the necessity of creating two households where there has just been one.

For many individuals and society as a whole, divorce does, however, have some positive aspects. From a societal, structural-functional perspective, divorce can be seen as one kind of mechanism for dealing with the pressures and problems inevitably caused by marriage. For this reason the rise in divorce rate cannot be viewed as a simple index of social pathology or even of personality disorganization, but merely an index of social change (Goode, 1956). From an individual, interactional perspective, divorce also may be viewed somewhat positively. Numerous helping professionals and social scientists have recognized divorce as a growth-producing experience, an opportunity for self-renewal and fundamental changes in behavior so that personal fulfillment and successful emotional relationships may occur (Krantzler, 1974; Melville, 1976).

Range of Divorce Research

Much investigation has gone into the etiology of divorce or marital dissolution, resulting in an abundance of speculation and demographic correlations. According to Goode (1956), these analyses have focused on two themes: (1) divorce as an index of social disorganization and (2) divorce as a barrier to individual happiness. With respect to the societal focus of concern, the consensus among family life scholars is that too much is being asked of the institution of marriage, which was never designed to bear the burdens of an urbanized, industrialized society

with its strong emphasis on individuality. It is an institution that has evolved over centuries to meet some very specific, fundamental needs of a nonindustrialized society. Romantic love was originally viewed as tragic or merely irrelevant; today it is the sine qua non of marriage. Marriage was never designed as a mechanism for providing friendship, erotic experiences, romantic love, personal fulfillment, continuous lay psychotherapy, or recreation—all of which are demanded of marriage today (Nye & Berardo, 1973).

Ackerman (1969), among others, saw a parallel in the social disruption and disorganization of today and those of the post-World War II era when the divorce rate reached its historical peak in the United States of 4.7 couples per 1,000 individuals in 1946. Hill (1949) attributed this extremely high divorce rate to societal disruption brought about by the war; the results were hasty marriages, long separations, and most importantly a new role of independence for the American woman. Ackerman (1969) saw a similar pattern more recently with the American male separated from his family as a result of employment requirements, the lack of respect given the traditional marital institution, and the revolutionized female role resulting from the women's movements and greater labor force participation of women.

This sociohistorical account of the etiology of divorce provides insight into the growth of the divorce rate in the United States, but most research efforts have focused around Goode's second theme (impact on the individual) and have sought to answer the questions of why some marriages dissolve while others remain intact. For many years, family life scholars

have attempted to discover factors that might predict marital success; studies include those of Burgess and Terman (1938), Cottrell (1939), Locke (1951), and Burgess and Wallin (1953). More recently, researchers have examined marital dissolution per se in an attempt to discover what factors are significant not only to the happiness of a marriage but to its stability as well.

Greater insight into marital instability may be gained by examining the time of the peak divorce rate in marriage today, which is the first five years of marriage. Twenty-five percent of all divorces are granted in the first three years of marriage and 40% in the first five years (United States Bureau of the Census, 1971). Blood (1960), Eshleman (1974), and Pineo (1961) have argued that marital breakdowns actually begin very early in the marriage, but the actual decision to divorce and the legal processing of divorce evolve some years later. The divorce may simply provide an indication of a greater willingness to acknowledge a legal termination of a marital relationship that was terminated emotionally at an earlier point in time. Hicks and Platt (1970), in their review of the literature of marital stability in the 1960's, cited that this finding of the developmental nature of marital dissolution has required numerous scholars to review their original research findings.

An interesting phenomenon of marital dissolution in the middle-class population is Cuber and Harroff's (1965) conclusion that the stability of these marriages is not necessarily related to marital happiness or satisfaction. Thus, numerous marriages of the middle-class are intact

as a result of factors less obvious than mere satisfaction or happiness. Levinger (1965) also alluded to this aspect of middle-class marriages in his framework of divorce when he mentioned the "bars" that hold couples in unhappy marriages, e.g., long-range financial commitments. Consequently, the middle-class divorce rate might be much higher were it not for the acceptance of less than ideal conditions.

Psychological and Sociological Perspectives

The bulk of research on the etiology of marital dissolution falls into two major perspectives, psychological and sociological. Psychologists view this question through a framework of personal inadequacy and maladaptive childhood experiences. Sociologists do not discount the validity of personal abilities and motivation, but they do not really look at abilities and motivation per se in the behavior of individuals in the specific context of their enactment of family roles (Nye & Berardo, 1973).

Nye and Berardo (1973) exemplified this sociological perspective by viewing diminishing or changing affect as strongly related to marital dissolution. They contended that there are three categories of divorce-prone relationships as measured by the single variable of affect: the "aborted marriage," in which a satisfactory level of affect was never achieved; the mediocrely functioning families," which are characterized by very little affect; and the "interrupted functioning marriages," which were once characterized by strong, positive affect but now have very little or negative affect.

The psychological perspective of inadequate and confused personalities as the major factor in divorce has not changed much over time as demonstrated by Waller and Hill (1968) and Foregger (1966). They contended that the most prevalent reasons for divorce were the lack of maturity of one or both partners expressed in egocentricity; an excessive need for attention; and unreasonable, neurotic, emotional needs.

These two perspectives coalesce as one concentrates on competent role performance, which is thought to be central to adequate marital interaction and stability. Immaturity may be defined as the inability or or unwillingness of married individuals to enact marital roles. Likewise, malformation of personality as described by psychologists may prevent adequate role enactment in marriage (Nye & Berardo, 1973). Knowledge of a couple's marital adjustment is another gauge of maturity that may lend further support to the thesis that divorce in the early years of marriage is often the result of a gradual breakdown of a marriage entered before adult identities were developed. In fact, demographic data show that the peak divorce rate at five years of marriage is for a youthful group because first marriages in the United States tend to be heavily concentrated in a narrow, young age range: 17-23 years for females ($\bar{x}$ = 21.1) and 18-25 years for males ($\bar{x}$ = 23.1) (Carter & Glick, 1970). Kelley (1974) went so far as to state that marital stability is dependent on a couple's ability to make purposeful decisions together initially and thus adjust to marital life in the first years of marriage.

The concept of values is central to any understanding of human social behavior. Within a dyadic relationship, such as a legal marriage, the

value systems of two individuals interact, and it is through interaction that growth and family values and roles develop (Nickell & Dorsey, 1967). When this process fails to occur, the marriage has assumed a role secondary to the individual and thus becomes less stable.

Research Imperatives

In an effort to reduce the present critical divorce rate, numerous scholars have called for a closer analysis of the dissolving marriage and a move beyond mere demographic analysis. Schoen (1975) claimed that the increasingly high rates of divorce underscore the fact that in spite of a wealth of statistical data relatively little is actually known about what occurs inside divorce or the importance of factors associated with differentials in divorce; he contended that despite the abundance of demographic data on divorce, the knowledge of the patterns of divorce is still severely limited. Hicks and Platt (1970), in their review of literature on marital stability in the 1960's suggested that the time had come for a major shift in research emphasis. They contended that too many research studies had focused on isolated variables thought to be related to marital stability and had thus arrived at previously known relationships among homogamous factors, affectional rewards, and socioeconomic status and marital stability. Scanzoni (1968) reiterated the same concern when he stated that, even though there are large numbers of empirical generalizations extant in the literature on marital dissolution, there has been a lack of concern for the development of systematic linkages among these data. Too often sweeping generalizations

are made from strictly demographic data, e.g., the positive relationship between divorce and the liberalization of divorce laws, without considering intervening variables (Glick & Norton, 1973). Blood (1976) recently contended that the variables of affect and decision making have been neglected in the research literature of marriage and family life. Nye and Berardo (1973) stressed the fact that much could be learned about marital dissolution by combining sociological and psychological perspectives.

Females have been the primary foci of previous research efforts on marital dissolution. Just as the male has been relatively ignored in the literature on parenting until very recently (LeMasters, 1970), the same can be said about most divorce studies. Too often the male viewpoint, when it has been sought at all, has been obtained indirectly through the female (Scanzoni, 1968). Hicks and Platt (1970) found that the male expressive role has too often been ignored by researchers. Furthermore, psychological studies of divorced dyads have had perhaps an even greater bias, for they have tended to focus on the single individual receiving some sort of therapy; the results of such studies have been limited not only to one spouse's viewpoint, but also to a clinical population.

Given the increase in the divorce rate together with a still very high marriage and remarriage rate, the stability of marriage must remain a high priority in research investigation and public concern if individual happiness and fulfillment through marriage as well as the institutional tasks of the family are to be maintained. Any attempt to deal with this problem, whether it be liberalization of divorce laws or a greater emphasis

on marital and divorce counseling, requires a greater understanding of the dynamics of the marital relationship in its initial years when it is most susceptible to dissolution.

This project is an investigation of the differences in affect, marital adjustment, personality homogamy, value homogamy, and selected sociodemographic characteristics between divorced and married dyads in first five years of marriage. The spiraling divorce rate in recent years suggests that the type of information provided by this research is sorely needed.

Potential Contributions of this Project

This study is potentially useful for the following reasons:

1. The need to understand the rising divorce rate. If the marital-familial institution is to remain as the major institution of socialization and affectional expression, then a greater understanding of the most vulnerable years of marriage is mandatory for effective marriage and divorce counseling and any public policy measures designed to support this societal institution.

2. The lack of in-depth research of marital dissolution in its most critical years. Psychological studies have tended to be of a clinical orientation, whereas sociological studies have been overly represented by broad and massive demographic studies of isolated variables. Few have interrelated both psychological and sociological analysis in any depth.

3. The lack of research on marital dissolution in recent years since the advent of "no fault" and other liberal divorce legislation. The

assumption that such legislative changes have weakened or affected in any way the marital institution has not been substantiated adequately or even explored other than by rough demographic analysis.

4. The limited amount of research on marital dissolution in consideration of radical changes in sex roles and norms of behavior in recent years. Changes in the female instrumental role and the male expressive role have yet to be examined thoroughly as they relate to the dissolution of marriage (Hicks & Platt, 1970).

5. The need for more research on affect and decision making. Blood (1976) has stated that these are two major research needs in the areas of family life education and marriage counseling.

6. The inclusion of the divorced male as a subject. Most previous studies of this nature have either reported the male view from the former wife's perspective or from a clinical perspective.

7. The need for more research on marital adjustment. By understanding the dissolution process in the first five years of marriage, factors related to marital adjustment may become more evident.

8. To gain a better understanding of the marital institution as a whole. By understanding factors associated with many unfulfilling middle-class marriages remaining intact, the understanding of the structural-functional nature of marriage will be enhanced. Whereas most intact, middle-class marriages are categorically judged happy by society, this research project should bring out other explanations for stable marriages other than mere happiness.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the differences between divorced and intact white, middle-class marriages in the first five years of (the first) marriage. Specific attention was devoted to the differences in selected sociodemographic characteristics of the sample, amount and type of affect, marital adjustment, personality homogamy, and value homogamy to marital dissolution. Those sociodemographic characteristics of the sample included in this study were: marital history of parents, female employment, age at marriage, religious affiliation, church attendance, length of courtship, and background factors (chronological age, socioeconomic background, religious background, and educational background).

Five instruments were used in this study—a background data sheet (McKenry, 1976), the Caring Relationship Inventory (Shostrum, 1966), the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire (1974), the Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (1969), and the Rokeach Value Survey (1967). The data were examined to determine on which variables divorced and married dyads differed.

Objectives and Hypotheses

The general objectives of this study were to determine whether there is:

1. A difference in selected sociodemographic variables (parental marital history, female employment, age at marriage, religious affiliation,

church attendance, length of courtship, and homogamy of husband-wife background variables) between divorced and married dyads.

2. A difference in the amount and type of affect between divorced and married dyads.

3. A difference in marital adjustment between divorced and married dyads.

4. A difference in husband-wife personality homogamy between divorced and married dyads.

5. A difference in husband-wife value homogamy between divorced and married dyads.

6. A difference between spouses (ex-spouses) on the above mentioned variables. The null hypotheses to be tested were:

Ho1: There is no difference in sociodemographic variables as a function of marital status and/or spouse.

Ho2: There is no difference in amount and type of affect as a function of marital status and/or spouse.

Ho3: There is no difference in marital adjustment as a function of marital status and/or spouse.

Ho4: There is no difference in husband-wife personality homogamy as a function of marital status.

Ho5: There is no difference in husband-wife value homogamy as a function of marital status.

Nominal Definitions of Variables

The nominal or theoretical definitions of the variables in this study are as follows:

1. Marital dissolution is the legal termination of a socially recognized marital arrangement; it includes divorce and legal separation. It does not include anything concerning marital satisfaction or communication (Nye & Berardo, 1973).

2. Affect is a subjective, emotional feeling toward another person. It includes affection, friendship, eros, empathy, and self-love (Shostrum, 1966).

3. Marital adjustment is the process of adaptation of the husband and the wife in such a way as to avoid or resolve conflicts sufficiently so that the mates feel satisfied with the marriage and with each other, develop common interests and activities, and feel that the marriage is fulfilling their expectations (Locke, 1951).

4. Personality homogamy refers to the similarity of traits, modes of adjustment, defense mechanisms, and ways of behaving that characterize the individual and his/her relation to others in his/her environment (Morgan & King, 1966).

5. Value homogamy refers to the degree of similarity or agreement in values existing between individuals (Keeley, 1955).

6. Female employment is the participation of the wife in the labor force during the marriage.

7. Homogamous background factors refers to the similarity of spouses before marriage on the factors of chronological age, socioeconomic background, religious background, and educational background; chronological age is the age at the time of marriage; socioeconomic background is the income level and occupational status of the individuals' parents; religious background is the religious affiliation of the individuals' parents; educational background is the extent of formal schooling.

8. Religious affiliation refers to the religious preference of the individuals.

9. Church attendance indicates the attendance of services at a formal religious institution.

10. Courtship is the time period preceding marriage wherein culturally prescribed heterosexual behaviors socialize one for marriage (Davids, 1971).

11. Parental marital history refers to the existence of marital instability or unhappiness in the marriages of the individuals' parents; parental marital dissolution is the existence of a legally terminated marriage in the marital history of the individuals' parents; parental marital happiness is the estimation of happiness in the marriages of the individuals' parents.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature related to the etiology of marital dissolution or divorce spans several disciplines. Although the majority of the research on this subject comes from sociology with its massive surveys and demographic analyses and psychology with its clinical case study approach, other disciplines have yielded significant findings. History has provided a sociocultural perspective on divorce across time; political science and law have investigated divorce legislation and its relationship to marital behavior; anthropology has given the subject a cross-cultural perspective; and the field of home economics has integrated such findings from these and various other disciplines into an interdisciplinary conceptual framework of the family which allows for the systematic investigation of the relationship between the near and far environment.

Contrary to the many notions of the etiology of marital dissolution, this decision is rarely the response of a married couple to one stressor event such as an extramarital affair. Instead it is usually the end result of diminishing satisfactions. Farber (1964) said that it is simply a failure of spouses to attain an expected level of role enactment. Pineo (1961) viewed marital dissolution as the climax of a developmental breakdown of a marriage. Based on Pineo's conceptualization of divorce as a process, marital dissolution can be seen as beginning with alienation

caused by excessive idealization, moving through disenchantment as a result of excessive romanticism, and concluding with disengagement arising out of a loss of mutual interests at which point the married couple finds itself in the irretrievable stage of marital dissolution. Pineo found all marriages going through a similar decline in satisfaction, but it was only the marriages that passed through these stages of declining satisfaction rather rapidly that dissolved. Goode (1951) likewise saw divorce as a developmental outcome of initial maladjustments and not any single event. Blood (1960) found that the average marriage deteriorated almost from the beginning. Adams (1975) contended that little research has been done with the exception of Pineo's work which has employed this processual perspective on marriage.

The term marital dissolution may be defined rather simply as the dissolving of a socially recognized marital arrangement. It includes divorce, desertion, and permanent voluntary separation, although almost all of the research is on divorce—the most visible of the three processes. Marital dissolution is synonomous with the traditional terms of marital instability or marital breakdown. It does not include anything concerning marital satisfaction, levels of communication between spouses, or effectiveness of role enactment (Nye & Berardo, 1973). The research literature on marital dissolution as a whole is representative of multiple conceptual frameworks; on etiology per se three major frameworks seem to dominate the findings—developmental, symbolic-interaction, and structural-functional. The theoretical model in Figure I represents the integration of these three major frameworks and the interdisciplinarity of research evidence on the etiology of marital dissolution.

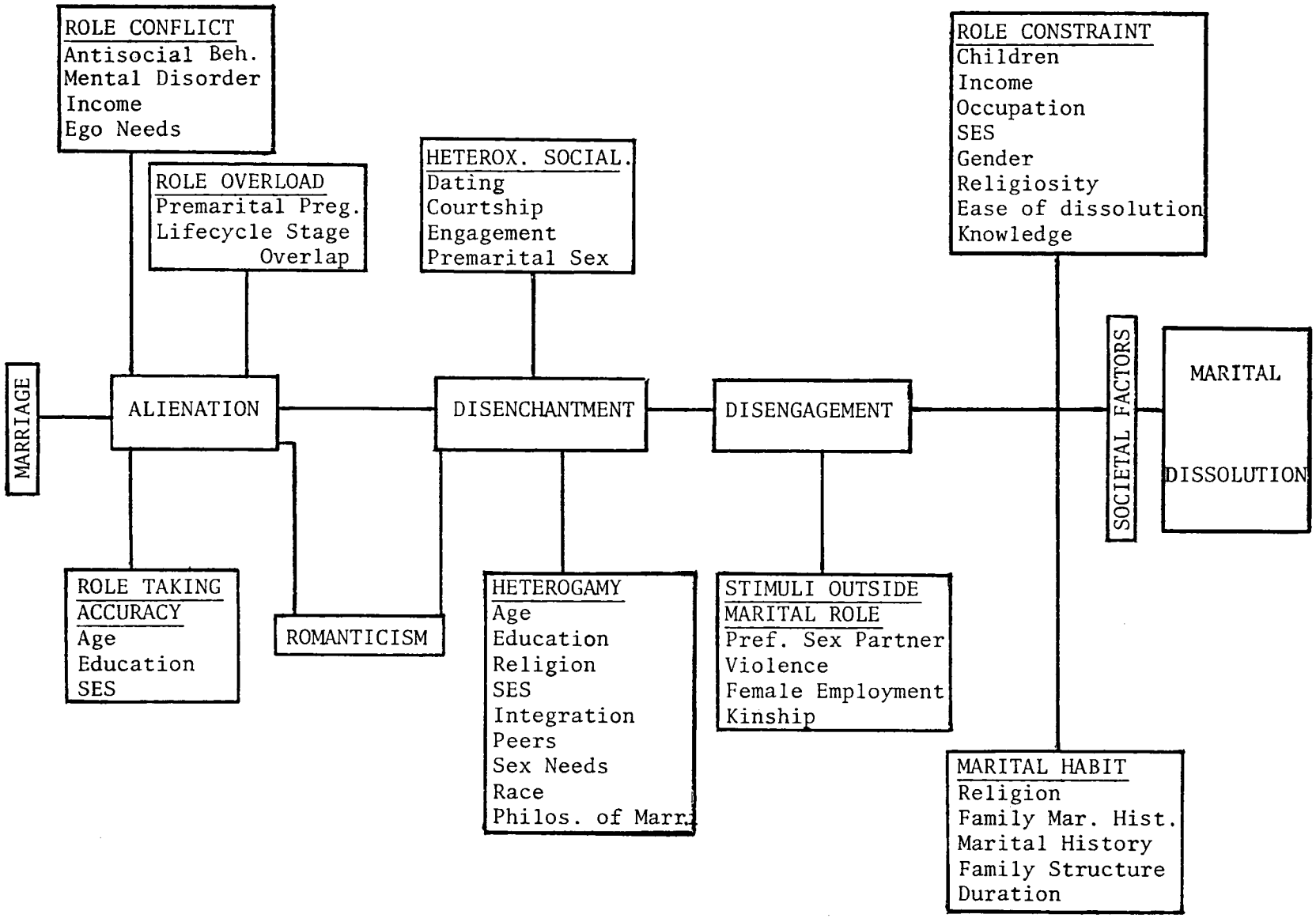


Figure I. A Theoretical Model of Marital Dissolution.

Factors Related to Marital Alienation

Role conflict, defined as the demands of the role definer exceeding the capacity of the role taker (Eshleman, 1969), for whatever reason, will result in alienation or the loss of the idealism that once characterized the marital roles (Saxton, 1968; Waller & Hill, 1968). A person incapable of playing the marital role sufficiently to comply with society's norms for that role is probably unable to meet many of the basic needs of the spouse.

A frequent factor relating to the inability to play the marital role or to role conflict is antisocial behavior or personality disorder. Antisocial behavior as it is applied to the inability to play the marital role includes such behaviors as wanderlust, alcoholism, gambling, drug abuse, violence, and infidelity (Skarsten, 1974). Harmsworth and Minnis (1955) in their survey of divorce lawyers found the most frequently reported factors in divorce to be financial problems, infidelity, and drunkenness. Skarsten (1974) found antisocial behaviors to be quite common in his desertion subjects; most demonstrated violent behaviors, alcoholism, infidelity, or excessive gambling. Woodruff et al. (1972) discovered in their study of divorce in psychiatric outpatients that alcoholism was the most predictive factor of divorce ranking far above any other.

Those afflicted with mental or personality disorders to any degree are logically not as likely to be able to fulfill any societal role as are those who are mentally healthy. Waller and Hill (1968) suggested

that the alienated spouse was often married to one prone to excessive use of defense mechanisms. Foregger's (1966) psychoanalytic evaluation of divorcing clients found those seeking divorce to be suffering from a depressed state unresolved since childhood and obsessed with intense jealousy and self-love. Loeb (1968) used the MMPI and discovered divorcing individuals to be more disturbed psychologically than controls and to have greater psychopathic tendencies than controls; especially prominent were psychopathic defenses and indications of lower frustration tolerance. Personality findings outside the clinical perspective are somewhat lacking and/or isolated in the literature on marital dissolution.

Some occupations are more prohibitive of marital role enactment than others, but it is usually the direct relationship between the occupation and income rather than the nature of the occupation itself that accounts for some occupations being overly represented in divorce statistics. As demonstrated by Maslow's hierarchy (1954), affect needs follow survival needs. Goode (1951), Kephart (1952), and Udry (1966) have all found a general relationship between marital disruption and socioeconomic status as measured by income and occupation. Kephart and Goode did not find a significant difference at the lower occupational levels (i.e., skilled, semiskilled, and clerical), but the difference in divorce rate between this lower sector and the upper sector of professionals and proprietors was very great. As for specific occupations, those engaged in personal and domestic service tended to have a higher divorce rate than others (Udry, 1966),

Income itself has been found to be a significant factor in performing the societal roles of husband and wife. Udry's (1966) analysis of census data revealed an almost direct linear relationship between amount of income and marital stability; however, Glick and Norton (1971) found that a leveling off occurred at the $3,000 level, below which the lack of money and the fundamentalist religious beliefs greatly limited utilization of the divorce alternative. Levinger (1965), in his review of literature of marital dissolution, stated that the husband's income is a major stabilizer in marriage. Because of American society's stress on achievement and success, these economic factors are even more important than merely indicating survival strength, for they indicate a man's self-worth as head of his family (Scanzoni, 1966). As a result of the dual importance of income, Goode (1962) discovered that the lower-socioeconomic-class marriages experienced far less romance and marital satisfaction and much greater internal strain. In this present era of affluence with the changing notions of quality of life, information is lacking concerning the importance of income to marital stability.

Bell (1975) noted that the factor of strong ego needs is particularly related to the ability of a couple to carry out traditional roles of husband and wife at the present time. He saw such strong ego needs as being more important than the marital institution to the point that if one spouse wants out of the marriage contract, the other is very likely to comply. Duberman (1971) agreed by declaring that many individuals today are too interested in self-love to be able to maintain a marital relationship for a long period of time.

Too much activity prescribed for a role over a short span of time (role overload) is related to the inability to play a role successfully (Burr, 1973). The situation of premarital pregnancy is frequently mentioned in the literature as an example of role overload (Christensen, 1953 and 1969; Coombs & Zumeta, 1970; Goode, 1964). Controlling for income, Christensen (1969) found in his study of premarital sexual behavior a direct relationship between premarital pregnancy and marital dissolution. Besides the possibility of forcing a marriage on two individuals perhaps unsuited to one another, such a birth places added responsibilities on a couple who are just beginning to master marital role behaviors. Rapoport and Rapoport (1965) pointed out that whenever two critical changes in life occur at the same time, the crisis effect of each will be greater. Also, Coombs and Zumeta (1970) found that couples who married as a result of pregnancy were rather young (70% less than 20 years of age) and from a lower socioeconomic class, and thus their resources to meet added responsibilities were less than average.

A corresponding situation is also related to role overload. This variable is the onset of pregnancy in the first year of marriage. According to Turner (1971), children at this time dramatically increase the strain on the newly married couple. Any time family life cycle stages overlap and a new role must be mastered before a prerequisite role is learned, there tends to be role overload.

One's maturity or role-taking accuracy has much to do with adjustment to a new role. Eshleman (1969) defined role-taking accuracy as the anticipation of the responses of others involved with one in a social act and the subsequent modification of one's behavior in light of such

anticipation. One who can anticipate the responses of a spouse and modify his/her behavior in response is not likely to suffer from excessive alienation.

One logical variable related to maturity or role-taking accuracy is chronological age. Because most divorces occur in the first five years of marriage and most desertions in the first ten years of marriage, the spouses involved in marital dissolution tend to be very young; taking the average age at marriage to be in the early 20's, the spouses involved in marital dissolution are largely in their late 20's (Kelley, 1974). Goode's (1956) survey of divorced individuals revealed that almost 40% of all divorces involved individuals who were less than 30 years of age; Coombs and Zumeta (1970) found that 50% of all couples seeking a divorce were less than 30 years old. Several possible reasons have been proposed to account for the inability of youthful marrieds to achieve role-taking accuracy. Goode (1956) and Coleman (1961) saw the adolescent stage of development to have elongated to reinforce immature and irresponsible behaviors in many young adults so that if these individuals marry, they are not likely to make a wise selection or be willing to adjust their behaviors for another person. Bumpass and Sweet (1972) reasoned that the youthful marriage is very prone to instability because individuals involved in the marriage are still struggling for independence from their families of orientation and are not yet prepared to make a commitment to a new family structure.

Numerous researchers (Coombs & Zumeta, 1970; Goode, 1962; Udry, 1966) have noted a relationship between the amount of education and one's ability to carry out a marital role successfully. Generally it was found

that education is positively related to marital stability. Education in this context reflects one's self-confidence and ability to perform a role successfully as well as potential earning power. Bauman (1967) and Glick and Norton (1971) suggested that the extent of education per se was not the critical factor, for the divorce rate for high school dropouts was approximately the same as for college dropouts; these graduating groups were thought to be somewhat similar in self-concept as well as in certain character traits. Saxton (1968) concurred, stating that vocational preparedness is more important to carrying out the marital role successfully than merely the extent of education.

Socioeconomic status has a strong bearing on role-taking accuracy that lies outside the strictly economic realm (Kenkel, 1973). For those in the lower socioeconomic status, life generally is less satisfying; they are more prone to mental illness, infant mortality, conviction of a crime, chronic illness, industrial accidents, and various physical diseases (Kenkel, 1973). Because they lack such resources as communication and problem-solving skills as well as those of an economic nature, these families of the lower socioeconomic strata are more vulnerable to stress and react more radically. Whereas marital dissatisfaction may be equal in all class groupings, those in the upper strata have the resources to work at and tolerate less than ideal marriages (Cuber & Harroff, 1965). Also, as Goode (1962) and Levinger (1965) pointed out, the life of the lower-class husband is more disorganized and anonymous, and he thus can more easily escape the postdivorce financial commitments that often bind husbands of the middle and upper classes to their marriages.

Factors Related to Marital Disenchantment

Marital disenchantment is the disappointment that spouses feel when they discover that their marriage has failed to fulfill their idealistic goals and expectations (Pineo, 1961). Just as alienation often occurs when romanticism has clouded rational thought to the extent that idealization of a spouse temporarily conceals obvious character flaws or stressful marital situations, quite often disenchantment occurs in highly romanticized marriages when the romantic illusions vanish as the realities of marriage become apparent. Turner (1971) contended that any marriage perpetuated by romantic love is highly vulnerable to disruption. Waller and Hill (1968) claimed that the highly romantic marriage is doomed from the onset, for romance evolves into idealism and fantasy, and when these are shattered by reality, the participants then turn against each other and the marriage itself. On the other hand, there is little in the literature to indicate the type of love or affect conducive to marital stability or if this is even a significant factor.

It would seem logical, considering the emphasis today most married couples naturally place on the heterosexual aspect of their marriages, that prior heterosexual socialization would be strongly related to the onset of disenchantment with married life. Research in various areas of significant heterosexual activity before marriage has supported this relationship. Goode (1964) and Messer (1969) stressed the importance of a lengthy dating and courtship period prior to marriage as well as a sufficiently long engagement to perfect social skills with the opposite

sex and to clarify well the characteristics that will constitute a suitable mate. Messer (1969) claimed that one reason for the high divorce rate in the post-World War II era was the lack of sufficient courtship and dating experiences prior to marriage. As for premarital sexual experiences, the research results are not as conclusive. Although sexual ignorance and inadequacy were thought to be related to marital dissatisfaction and dissolution (Saxton, 1968), excessive or very early sexual experience prior to marriage was found to be related to marital dissatisfaction and instability (Woodruff et al., 1972).

There is a wealth of research in family life literature that indicates a direct relationship between heterogamy or heterogamous factors and marital dissolution (Bumpass and Sweet, 1972; Goode, 1964; Kephart, 1954; Scanzoni, 1968; Waller & Hill, 1968); in fact, the majority of the literature on marital dissolution has been aimed at isolating already known sociodemographic variables relating to dissolution while omitting systematic linkages (Scanzoni, 1968). Turner (1971) saw such a strong relationship between heterogamy and marital dissolution that he felt that individuals who make markedly heterogamous choices have not experienced sufficient socialization experiences. Levinger (1965) saw the opportunity for an individual to gain a more homogamous partner as a major attraction or reason for breaking up his/her present marriage.

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) visualized marital behavior as dictated by rewards, costs, and profits; they thought that through societal norms each spouse has an expectation of what the other should do and what he/she ought to receive in exchange for services. They contended that homogamy

is vitally important, for as partners reward themselves, they reward their spouses; in heterogamous situations someone must compromise, and this greatly reduces the profit.

The major variables of heterogamy that may eventually lead to disenchantment include education, age, religion, and socioeconomics class (Goode, 1965; Saxton, 1968; Scanzoni, 1968). Landis' (1949) classic study of religious intermarriage has been replicated numerous times, indicating a high degree of marital instability according to the degree of difference between faiths involved. The factors of age, education, and socioeconomic differences all were found to be related to the same variable—power. According to societal norms, the spouse who is older, has the higher educational attainment, and belongs to the higher socioeconomic class has the greatest assets for assuming power (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972). Marital instability is not affected if the wife is in the less powerful position, but when the husband is in such a position, the marriage is supposedly severely threatened. Scanzoni's (1968) social system analysis of marital dissolution showed female hypogamy (marriage downward) to be a leading cause of marital instability. He found that in these hypogamous marriages interests and friendships varied and that husbands tended to overcompensate dramatically to the point that the spouses soon did not recognize each other as the spouses they had married. The most recent research findings (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972) indicated that this problem of hypogamy was threatening the stability of marriages even in an era of changing norms for sex-role behavior. Further research is necessitated to conclude that such

differences are related today to marital dissolution. Besides the change in sex roles, the increase in cross-class dating and generally equalitarian social atmosphere of the last decade encourage further analysis of hypogamy and the changing role of women in terms of relationship of these two factors to marital instability.

Another important category of homogamy is what Saxton (1968) referred to as family integration (i.e., shared values, interests, intelligence, personality traits, and peer groups). Cattell and Nesselrode (1967) demonstrated empirically that marital instability was associated with large differences in outgoingness, enthusiasm, sensitivity, drive, intelligence, conscience, and imagination. Scanzoni (1968) and Mindel (1972) found that heterogamous reference or peer groups were strongly related to marital instability, for such groups accentuated existing differences and appeared to cause the spouses to develop differently. The question of value compatibility or complementarity has yet to be explored sufficiently in the literature to ascertain if alternatives to rigid homogamy are conducive to marital stability.

In regard to the variables of sex and race, the research findings are sparse. Udry's (1966) demographic study of census data revealed a very high divorce rate for racial intermarriage, but no control was placed on potentially contaminating factors such as income or place of residence. Kephart's (1954) factor analysis of Philadelphia divorce records revealed a fairly positive relationship between compatibility of sexual needs and interests, but the assumption in this case was that the female did not have equal sexual needs. Goode (1964) concluded that

the relationship between any individual heterogamous factors and marital instability is rather low, but the relationship is quite high when numerous factors are involved; hence he was suggesting an additivity effect of these heterogamous variables.

Factors Related to Marital Disengagement

The factors related to marital disengagement include those conditions, needs, interests, or attractions (stimuli) that compel an individual to seek a formal termination of his/her marital relationship. First an examination of motivating factors will be put forth, followed by an analysis of those factors which act as barriers to the termination of a marriage in the decision to divorce.

As previously mentioned, Thibaut and Kelley (1959) viewed marriage as an exchange of services and cooperative activities, and they saw marital behavior as explainable by the concepts of rewards, costs, and profit. Thibaut and Kelley contended that each spouse has a comparison level of what he/she envisions in other relationships; whenever the satisfaction level of the marriage appears much less than that of a comparison level, then it is potentially vulnerable to dissolution. Other researchers have expressed similar ideas in speaking of role failure or failure to meet unique individual needs. Farber (1964) presented perhaps the most radical theory, for he viewed marriage as only a voluntary association in which a person continues membership only as long as personal commitments to one's spouse do not exceed commitments elsewhere; divorce is thus encouraged, and the implication is that one is

expected to better his/her lot in life by moving on to more attractive marital partners. Farber replaced the norm of permanent marriage with that of permanent availability.

Most researchers have taken a more moderate viewpoint of the factors related to marital disengagement in close agreement with Saxton (1968), who stated that a marital relation will break formally whenever one or both spouses fail to provide for the other the satisfaction that he/she expects in the areas of marital, sexual, and interpersonal needs. Waller and Hill (1968) felt that a marriage collapsed whenever the habitual trends that have built up in the marriage to meet important needs (e.g., sex habits, ego habits, and food habits) are severed for whatever reason. A significant gender variable interacts in this case. Ort's (1950) study of factors of instability in young married couples revealed that men reported twice as many unrealized role expectations as did women, and that few marriages that reported a happy husband also reported a happy wife; also, it was found that far fewer female needs had to be met in order for the wife to judge her marriage as happy. Levinger (1966) too found husbands far less satisfied in the marital role than were wives by a ratio of 2:1.

Usually the factor that motivates a person to seek a formal end to his/her marriage is one of negative reinforcement rather than positive; that is, the reinforcement is that of leaving a highly unpleasant, unrewarding relationship. Levinger (1965) cited only one of his four major causative factors of divorce as related to positive gain—preference for other sex partner. The intensity and number of conflicts

characteristic of an unpleasant marital relationship have been found to be positively related to marital dissolution by several family life researchers (Ort, 1950; Scanzoni, 1968; Waller & Hill, 1968). Kenkel (1973) observed that stable marriages are not without conflict, but that the intensity and frequency are not as great because these couples share important values, customs, and habits. Kelley (1974) noted that the mere expression of violent communicative modes prevents any real problems from being considered in an objective manner and treated professionally. O'Brien (1971), who was one of the few researchers to look at violence as a communicative mode in unstable marriages, found violent behaviors to be very frequent in families where there was a status inconsistency in which the higher ascribed status of husband was deficient in achieved status and characteristics (e.g., education, income, and socioeconomic class). Violence was viewed by O'Brien as an extreme reaction to a seemingly insurmountable frustration, and it was not related to income or environment. The variables of communication, problem solving, and decision making have been probed to a significant extent in the marital satisfaction literature, but research in the realm of marital dissolution has failed to approach both divorced spouses to obtain any pertinent information on these factors.

Numerous recent studies of marital dissolution have explored the variable of female employment outside the home as contributing to the instability and disengagement of a marital dyad. Large-scale analyses by Goode (1962), Landis (1963), Scanzoni (1968), and Udry (1966) found very strong relationships between employment by a wife outside the home

and marital dissolution. Instead of strengthening the marriage with additional resources, this practice actually had the effect of separating the husband and wife. Female employment was often perceived as a threat to the superior status of husband, thus incurring male resentment (Coombs & Zumeta, 1970). Female employment outside the home was found to be particularly threatening to the husband when the wife felt the husband's income was inadequate and desired to go to work to compensate (Coombs & Zumeta, 1970; Scanzoni, 1966) or when the wife had greater access to employment or earned more than her husband (Uhlenberg, 1972). Turner (1971) too recognized the same effect of female employment on a marriage, but he explained it differently. He contended that substantive activities involved in a marriage are few enough today and sufficiently weak in quality to permit relatively easy disengagement. Turner felt these substantive activities are of even lesser importance in a dual-work household; thus a working wife's investment in a marriage is lessened, making it easier for her to leave an unfulfilling marriage. Other family life researchers (Benson, 1971; Levinger, 1965) contended simply that the greater financial independence of the working wife makes unstable marriages far more vulnerable to dissolution. Yet few of these research findings are applicable to the emerging dual-career family wherein the wife's professional employment is agreed upon before marriage.

Another negative reinforcer or motivating factor that propels a spouse out of a marriage is that of kinship affiliation in the lower socioeconomic groups (Levinger, 1965; Scanzoni, 1965). The research evidence revealed conflicting data as to whether extended family

relationships are positively related to marital dissolution in all cases. Mercer's (1967) extensive survey of North Carolina households indicated that nuclear families had significantly lower divorce rates than extended families. Also, Mindel (1972) suggested that extended kinship affiliations are related to divorce, but only if they are unilateral, for this forms an asymetrical kinship arrangement that defines one spouse as an outsider. Messer (1969), however, saw the increasing divorce rate as a result of a lack of extended kin for emotional support. Scanzoni (1965) clarified the paradox, for he suggested that the lower socioeconomic classes were manipulated by extended kin, whereas the higher socioeconomic classes performed the manipulation of their extended kin. The lower class individuals were thus seen by Scanzoni to be motivated out of insecurity to maintain close ties and thus were vulnerable to kin interference, whereas the upper classes were found to be motivated only in gaining a greater economic advantage.

The Decision to Divorce

A couple who become disengaged do not necessarily make this decision permanent by divorce. There are many reasons why people may be willing to endure a marriage that gives them little satisfaction and much unhappiness: religious or ethical scruples, a variety of inhibitions, or even a calculated review of alternative possibilities. Surprisingly, very little research information is available on the subject. Other than rough demographic relationships and theoretical speculations, the research literature has failed to distinguish sufficiently between many

intact, unstable marriages, often called "empty-shell" marriages, and unstable marriages that gradually terminate in divorce (Benson, 1971). According to the information that was available in the literature, this decision to divorce is dictated by two sets of variables, marital habit and marital role constraint. Marital habit is an attitude or tendency to act in a specific way, acquired as a result of experiences. Marital role constraint is the willingness to carry out the marital role in spite of obvious barriers.

Marital habit, according to recent research findings, is influenced primarily by religious training, familial marital trends, and previous marital history. Several family life scholars (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972; Levinger, 1965; Rosenthal, 1970) attested that church attendance and/or adherence to a proscriptive religious sect were inversely related to the decision to dissolve a marriage. Bumpass and Sweet (1972) also found that mutual spousal church membership and/or attendance were negatively related to the decision to divorce (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972).

Also, numerous family life scholars (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972; Goode, 1964; Saxton, 1968; Woodruff et al., 1972) have contended that marital patterns in one's family of orientation have a strong influence on the decision to dissolve a marriage. Numerous families have demonstrated divorce as a legitimate means of dealing with marital problems to the extent that marital dissolution is becoming perceived as a more realistic alternative (Saxton, 1968).

An individual's marital history also has been related to his/her decision to dissolve a marriage. Carter and Plateris (1963), Glick and

Norton (1971), and Monahan (1962) all found that divorce tended to beget divorce in subsequent marriages. All of these were demographic studies that failed to provide additional data as to common characteristics of those that had more than one divorce.

Saxton (1968) stated that mere habit and inertia are built up after a long duration of marriage to the point that the spouses will not consider dissolving the marriage regardless of the problems. Glick and Norton (1971), Jacobson, (1950), and Kephart (1954) all found in their demographic studies a steady downfall in the divorce rate after the first five years of marriage. Yet not enough is known to determine accurately why inertia or even commitment occurs in some marriages and not in others.

An individual's attitude toward the marital institution as a result of socialization was found to be related to his/her susceptibility to marital dissolution. Scanzoni (1968) saw marital ideology as one of the leading causes of divorce. He found that some individuals never believed that marriage was a permanent institution. Scanzoni found also that similarity in marital philosophies, whatever they might be, tended to prevent formal dissolution. Turner (1971) reported that values have changed to such an extent in today's generation that the majority conceptualize marriage as an arrangement that is both easy to enter and easy to leave.

Family structure itself was found to have a great influence on one's decision to dissolve a marriage. Parson's institutional family structure placed the importance of the family institution over that of individual

happiness and fulfillment and thus one would expect greater reluctance in such families to dissolve a marriage even after alienation and disenchantment. The companionship family structure with its more pragmatic approach and emphasis on individual fulfillment was thought to be more prone to perceive marital dissolution as a feasible alternative in times of stress (Hicks & Platt, 1970). The impact of the "open marriage" concept (O'Neill & O'Neill, 1972) and the ready alternatives to marriage among the middle class have not been analyzed sufficiently to determine their effect on the decision to divorce.

Role constraints also have been reported as influencing the decision to formally dissolve a marriage. Marital role constraints constitute those factors that motivate a spouse to carry out the marital role in spite of obvious barriers to dissatisfactions. One of the most common constraints is the presence of minor children in the home. Whereas it was clear from the literature that childless couples were more divorce-prone (Chester, 1972; Goode, 1964; Levinger, 1965; Saxton, 1968), it was also true that an excessive number of children was related to marital role failure (Kunzel, 1974). Children, however, were found to act only as a constraining factor while they were dependent, for after that time many couples lost a sense of purpose in their marriages (Messer, 1969). Jacobson's (1950) analysis of data from the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company contradicted these findings, for he found the divorce rate of childless couples only slightly above couples with children, and he attributed this small difference to the effect of urbanity and related forces.

Cuber and Harroff (1965) and Levinger (1965) placed much emphasis on the economic restraints of marriage in the upper socioeconomic groups. Levinger proposed that there was a direct relationship between income level and the reluctance to divorce because of the economic investment in the marriage by the husband and the economic dependence on the marriage by the wife. Long-term expenditures and home ownership were particularly significant in a husband's decision to maintain his marriage, whereas the husband's income and social opportunities as a result of this income were of great importance to the wife. Because of lesser economic advantages in the lower classes, this economic factor failed to exert much influence. Although it was assumed that there was a positive relationship between socioeconomic class and the economic restraints of marriage, the middle-class marriage per se has not been studied in this context.

The closely related concepts of occupation and socioeconomic class were also related to decision to divorce, but for a different reason. Besides the income factor, the mere nature of certain occupations, wherein a dissolution reflected incompetency, e.g., ministers, public figures, and certain "helping" professionals such as psychologists, strongly confined the individual to a marriage even after disengagement had taken place, (Goode, 1962; Kephart, 1952; Levinger, 1965).

Also, socioeconomic class itself was found to be related to the decision to dissolve a marriage. Levinger (1965, 1966) concluded that because of the greater anonymity and disorganization of the behaviors of lower-socioeconomic-class individuals, divorce carried far less stigma

in the lower class than in the middle and upper classes. In recent years, however, divorce has become an acceptable solution to a marriage judged unfulfilling or unhappy (Kelley, 1974); this would call into question the effect of social stigma on the middle-class divorce rate especially. In fact, Benson (1971) saw informal separations following a relatively stable pattern culminating in divorce in the tightly organized middle and upper classes. He stated that it is at this level that divorce is usually a much better arrangement and is undoubtedly more frequently used than desertions and nonamicable separations that characterize the lower social classes; in sociological terms such patterns of separation are anomic, leaving a great deal of confusion and uncertainty. Benson thus reasoned that the middle and upper classes prefer divorce because it produces standard procedures for dissolving marriage and settling all legal claims.

Husbands and wives differ over the amount of role constraint marriage places on them. Nye and Berardo (1973) reflected society's norms when they stated that marriage is a more desired status for women than for men. Marriage thus means more to women's lives to the extent that they are more eager to escape a dissatisfying marriage than are men. Men can physically depart their marriages routinely whereas it is not so easy for women to do the same. Men also have more alternatives for meeting outside needs as they are more likely to be engaged in work and social activities outside the home. Goode (1962) found that 75% of all divorces were initiated by the female. Nye and Berardo (1973) used Goode's findings to support their contention that women initiate

divorce proceedings out of concern for their own welfare and not because men chivalrously allow them to do so.

Church attendance and membership in a proscriptive religious sect were found to act as role constraints as well as affecting the socialization pattern that formed marital habit (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972; Levinger, 1965). Catholicism and some of the more fundamentalist religious sects were found to have applied negative sanctions to marital dissolution to a high degree of effectiveness; however, adherence to any traditional religious sect was found to have strengthened the marital role constraint (Kephart, 1952). Kephart (1952) even found that civil ceremonies resulted in 25% more divorces than did religious ceremonies; this difference suggested different degrees of commitment to marriage from the onset of the marriage.

The duration of a marriage also has an effect on marital role constraint as well as on marital habit. Glick and Norton (1971) found that not only did couples become habituated and dependent on one another with the passage of time, but they also became more committed; each felt an increasing investment and a sense of responsibility with the passing of time.

Nye and Berardo (1973) also pointed out that access to knowledge is related to the constraint of marital role. They proposed, for example, that knowledge of the behaviorial sciences, particularly the fact that divorce was no more injurious to one's children than a dysfunctional marriage, greatly frees a person to give more consideration to oneself than to the formal institution of marriage. Knowledge of alternative

life styles would seem to have a similar effect. The effect of the mass media on marital expectations and stability has only begun to be explored. As more and more idealistic models of marriage and alternatives to marriage are given credence through the mass media, the marital institution probably will be significantly influenced.

Related to the knowledge of alternatives is the accessibility of such alternatives. The American society has formulated legal constraints to the roles of the marital institution which are still very difficult to break in many states. Whether or not such legal constraints are effective is at this time still debatable. Attention to this question has increased even more with the advent of no-fault divorce in the late 1960's. Messer (1969) detected a direct relationship between liberality of divorce laws and marital dissolution, whereas others (Levinger, 1966; Pineo, 1961) saw the legal restraints as ineffectual and really unrelated to marital dissolution. State demographic data used to support the anti-no-fault position was ruled invalid because of the great migratory divorce rates ("No fault," 1973). The latest research (Stetson & Wright, 1975) on the effect of "no fault" and other liberal divorce measures indicated that there was an inverse relationship between restrictive divorce laws and divorce, but the authors admitted that their study failed to take into account the marital separations that had not passed through legal channels in the restrictive areas.

Societal Factors in Marital Dissolution

Because of the increasing interdependence of the various sectors of the United States, individual behaviors were found to be increasingly sensitive to macrosocietal conditions (Pinard, 1966). Kingsley Davis (1950) was one of the first to note that short-run fluctuations in the marriage rate were related to national fluctuations of the economic cycle and political stability. Because the economy in recent years has been subjected to greater short-term variations, corresponding variations in macrosocioeconomic conditions are readily seen in fluctuating divorce rates. Although individuals appear to be freer from the constraints of their small social systems, they have become more dependent on those of the larger social systems.

Nye and Berardo (1973) proposed that the greater affluence of the United States in recent years has made divorce a more realistic alternative for many individuals than heretofore; they contended that with affluence individual happiness can be afforded outside the confines of the family. Analysis of government-compiled data over the years by Carter and Plateris (1963) clearly revealed a direct relationship between marital dissolution and the national business cycle.

Carter and Plateris (1963) and Hill (1949) also documented the validity of Davis' (1950) contention that political stability was related to marital dissolution. Hill stated that World War II resulted in hasty marriages, long separations, and most importantly a new role of independence for the American woman—all of which were related to divorce.

Whereas Davis noted a low divorce rate during World War II and a very high rate in the years immediately following, Carter and Plateris noted particularly high rates following numerous national conflicts but did not find especially low rates during the conflicts. The difference might be explained by the greater magnitude of World War II as compared to other conflicts since.

Many family scholars have accounted for the spiraling divorce rate in the United States by viewing it in context of increasing modernization or industrialization of American society. Burgess and Locke (1945) detected a relationship between increasing industrial-urban development and a decline in kinship networks and functions and permanence of marriage. Such industrial development results in greater individualism and independence, for individuals are encouraged to be less dependent on the institution of marriage for as many resources and services (Duberman, 1974; Goode, 1964; Saxton, 1968; Waller & Hill, 1968). Ackerman (1969) has contended that the highly competitive nature of modern industrialized society demands freedom from binding social relations.

Many social scientists have seen increasing individualism related to the alienation that exists in American society today (Ackerman, 1969; Nye & Berardo, 1973). They, in turn, have viewed the growing societal alienation as a major contributor to the rising divorce rate. Divorce has been seen by these social scientists as just part of an ever-growing alienation toward traditional societal institutions. The traditional family has been viewed as incapable of assimilating a radical change of

values, while at the same time peer groupings and societal institutions have taken over many of the family's essential reasons for existence (Ackerman, 1969).

Various civil rights and social welfare movements have been cited specifically as being responsible for this increasing alienation (Miao, 1974; Saxton, 1968). Blacks, women, and others were seen as having fought for freedom from traditional white, male-dominated institutions, including the traditional marital institution, and increased the consciousness of those oppressed; for example, no longer is a woman expected to sacrifice personal fulfillment in marriage for the sake of her family. Birth control, too, was mentioned as freeing many women from excessive child-care responsibilities, and equal access to employment was cited as freeing many women from total dependence on men (Saxton, 1968). The impact of the women's movement on divorce has only superficially been investigated thus far and deserves greater analysis.

America's so-called youth culture developed in part out of this sense of alienation. Coleman (1961) found many young people disillusioned with the older generation's institutions, particularly marriage, which they consider hypocritical.

Several social scientists through demographic studies found a relationship between place of residence in the United States and the rate of marital dissolution (Carter & Plateris, 1963; Fenelon, 1971; Pang & Hanson, 1968). The results indicated that the divorce rate increased as one moved from east to west across the United States. This trend was explained by the greater Catholic population in the East; the effect of

the "frontier" tradition, which stresses independence, self-reliance, and adventuresomeness; and the restrictive divorce laws in the East that force individuals to migrate westward to such states as Idaho and Nevada to obtain a divorce.

The literature on marital dissolution thus depicts the dissolved marriage as a developmental process contingent upon a variety of isolated variables. The overwhelming weakness in this wealth of literature centers around the lack of connection among these variables, particularly in regard to the insufficient research on the factors related to marital instability in the middle-class conjugal marriage. The present small-scale, but in-depth investigation of the differences in affect, marital adjustment, personality homogamy, and value congruence between dissolved and intact marital dyads fills some of these gaps in the literature and provides some of the needed links among variables.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Design and Sample Selection

The sample for this study consisted of 20 married and 20 divorced dyads. The 20 married dyads were systematically selected from apartment complexes in a middle-class section of Knoxville, Tennessee. The 20 divorced dyads were systematically selected from divorce records in the Knox County Court Clerk's Office over the past two years; however, those divorced within the last six months were not sampled, for Scanzoni (1968) found unusually hostile feelings toward ex-spouses during this time period.

For the purpose of this study, only legally married or divorced dyads who were native-born, white Americans were utilized. Other criteria for inclusion were the number of years married, socioeconomic status, and the presence of children. In order to study divorce at its peak in marriage, only subjects married three or seven years were used. Because numerous researchers (Goode, 1962; Scanzoni, 1966; Udry, 1966) have found a strong positive relationship between marital instability and socioeconomic status, with the lower classes lacking in resources and social structure and the upper classes bound by their resources and social structure as well as rigid social restraints (Cuber & Harroff, 1965; Levinger, 1965), the population of concern in this study was the middle-income status, classified by the Bureau of the Census (1975) as those households with

between $7,000 and $20,000 annual income gained from employment in sales, clerical, managerial-administrative, or professional-technical occupations. The presence of children was also controlled because of the strong research evidence indicating that children act as a barrier to marital dissolution (Goode, 1964; Kunzel, 1974; Levinger, 1965; Messer, 1968).

A relatively small sample was selected because of the depth of analysis of the study and the limited availability of potential subjects. The subject pool contained 79 married dyads and 183 divorced dyads. All 183 divorced dyads were contacted by mail, but only 25 could be located, and five of these could not be used because of an ex-spouse's refusal to participate. Systematic selection of every fifth couple from the pool of married dyads yielded 20 married dyads and eight refusals.

Sample Characteristics

All the subjects were white Americans, of the middle-income status, conjugal dyads with no children, and married three to seven years (Table I). The two groups appeared especially similar on the socioeconomic status variables. Eighty-five percent of the males in both the divorced and married samples were employed in either professional-technical or managerial-administrative occupations, as were 55% of the divorced females and 50% of the married females. Ninety percent of the divorced dyads had an average annual income exceeding $13,000 (while married), as did 80% of the married dyads. This exceeded the mean household earnings of suburban families, $14,007 as determined by the Bureau of the Census (1975).

TABLE I

PERCENTAGES AND MEANS OF CRITERION VARIABLES

	Divorced		Married	
	% Husband	% Wife	% Husband	% Wife
Spouses' occupation[a]				
Professional-technical	60	50	55	40
Managerial-administrative	25	5	30	10
Sales	15	5	15	10
Clerical	0	40	0	20
Unemployed	0	0	0	20
	% Families		% Families	
Family income[a]				
Above $20,000	45		20	
$15,000-$20,000	30		40	
$13,000-$15,000	15		20	
$11,000-$13,000	5		10	
$ 9,000-$11,000	5		5	
$ 7,000-$ 9,000	0		5	
	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
Years married	4.75	1.39	3.90	1.19

[a]These classifications follow those developed by the Bureau of the Census (1975).

The examination of the dyads' designated background variables, including parents' socioeconomic status, parents' religious affiliation, the extent of each individual's formal education, and age at marriage revealed additional similarities between the two groups. Comparisons are reported in Table II. These subjects were primarily from middle-class backgrounds with the few working-class parents offset by the presence of some upper-middle-class parents. As expected, the religious background of the subjects was primarily Protestant, but approximately 20% in each group had parents who were affiliated with other religious groups or were not affiliated with any formal religious organization. Although this number of Protestants well exceeded the national percentages of 50%-60%, it was consistent with the norm in the southern United States. The subjects were very well educated; only one individual in each group did not have some college education, and 62.5% of the divorced individuals and 70% of the married individuals possessed college degrees. This degree of education exceeded the national norms of suburban, middle-income populations according to the Bureau of the Census (1975). Although the Bureau of the Census (1975) found almost 70% of the population 25-34 years of age in this income group to have graduated from high school, it found only 11% to have held a college degree and only 7% to have had any graduate training. The age-at-marriage figures indicated that the two groups of subjects were again very similar with the females almost equal and the married males exceeding the divorced males by an average of approximately one year. These age-at-marriage figures were very near the

TABLE II

PERCENTAGES AND MEANS OF SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	Divorced		Married	
	% Husband	% Wife	% Husband	% Wife
Parents' socioeconomic status[a]				
Upper-middle class	20	5	5	5
Middle class	65	85	75	75
Working class	15	10	20	20
Parents' religious affiliation				
Mother				
Protestant	75	85	80	75
Catholic	15	10	10	10
Jewish	5	0	10	5
Other	5	0	0	5
None	0	5	0	0
Father				
Protestant	75	85	90	75
Catholic	10	5	5	10
Jewish	5	0	5	5
Other	5	0	0	5
None	5	10	0	5
Spouse's formal education[a]				
Doctorate degree	25	5	0	0
Masters and additional graduate work	0	0	5	0
Masters degree	5	20	15	15
Bachelors and some graduate work	5	5	10	5
Bachelors degree	45	25	50	30
High school and some college	20	40	10	45
High school diploma	0	5	0	5

	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
Age at marriage (years)	22.5	2.42	21.35	2.11	23.4	3.03	21.55	2.44

[a]These classifications follow those developed by the Bureau of the Census (1975).

average age at marriage for the nation as a whole—23.1 years of age for males and 21.1 years of age for females (Bureau of the Census, 1975).

Other sociodemographic data obtained included length of courtship, religious affiliation, church attendance, frequency of church attendance, parents' marital dissolution, and parents' marital happiness. The percentages and means of these variables are reported in Appendix A. Again the two groups were rather comparable. In conclusion, the criterion variables, background variables, and many of the other sociodemographic variables indicated that the two samples were not only very similar to each other but compared very favorably with the normative, middle-income couple in the United States.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire approach was chosen because it was the most economical and practical means of obtaining the desired information. There were five instruments used in this study. A background data sheet was developed (McKenry, 1976) to obtain information on sociodemographic variables (Appendix B). The data sheet was subjected to review by married and divorced individuals who were not part of the sample to ensure the clarity of the questions. Because the subjects were required to complete five instruments during one time period, all instruments in this study were chosen with a concern for interest and brevity as well as validity and reliability.

The Caring Relationship Inventory developed by Shostrum (1966) was chosen to measure affect. The Caring Relationship Inventory (CRI)

measures five types of affect: affection, friendship, eros, empathy, and self-love. Also measured are two additional scales with pertinent items logically clustered according to Maslow's (1962) concepts of being love and deficiency love. The CRI is a paper and pencil device of 83 true-false descriptive statements, and thus the time involved for administration is minimal. A median of .80 split-half reliability has been established. The only evidence of validity (predictive) has been the significant difference (.05) found between successfully married couples and couples seeking marriage counseling (Shostrum, 1966). Alternatives to the CRI are generally antiquated and based upon a clinical population of couples undergoing counseling (e.g., van der Veen, 1960).

The Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF), Form C (1969) was chosen to investigate the personality characteristics of the subjects. The 16 PF is an objectively scorable test devised by basic research in psychology to give the most complete coverage of personality possible in a brief time; comprehensive coverage of personality rests upon measurement of 16 functionally independent and psychologically meaningful dimensions isolated in years of factor-analytical research on normal and clinical groups (Cattell et al., 1970). The 16 PF is easily administered and most subjects find it intriguing. Whereas the split-half reliability is low (.54-.93) and is thus unsatisfactory for individual use, the validity data provided for use of the test suggests that it is very useful when comparison is the major purpose (Kleinmuntz, 1967). The construct validities for each scale have been found to be as high as those typically reached for scales of their lengths (Cattell et al., 1970).

The Rokeach Value Survey (1967) was selected to assess value homogamy between dyads. This instrument is also easily administered and interesting to complete, for the subjects build a value hierarcy with two sets of 18 adhesive labels. Although the concepts are broad, they are well suited for comparisons (Cochrane and Rokeach, 1970). Compared to other value instruments in the literature, the Rokeach Value Survey consists of a very comprehensible vocabulary and requires a minimal time period for completion. The median reliabilities have been established between .70 and .80 after intervals of three weeks to three months (Rokeach, 1973). The validity, however, is reduced by the hierarchal nature of the instrument, which does not allow for value conflicts resulting from several values at the same level and the positive nature of all the values, but Gorsuch (1970) has stated that this value instrument is as predictive as any other if it is not used as an indicator of motivation. Rokeach (1973) has, however, found the predictive validity of the ranking of certain variables to be quite strong.

For the assessment of marital adjustment, the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire (Kimmel & van der Veen, 1974) was selected because of its emphasis on problem-solving and decision-making skills. Also, it is very easy and interesting to complete. Kimmel and van der Veen through factor analysis have developed a very current instrument of marital adjustment, which even has taken sex-role differences into account by modifying questions for each sex. Relatively high test-retest reliability figures have been established (.69-.78), (Kimmel & van der Veen, 1974). Locke (1951) found that the original test

was quite valid in differentiating significantly between divorced and married dyads.

Data Collection and Analysis

The subjects were notified by mail that they had been selected to take part in a project on marital stability (Appendix C). A cover letter of introduction from the investigator's major professor and department head accompanied the investigator's letter (Appendix D). Each subject was assured that his/her anonymity would be protected, and a reward for participation (in addition to the results of the study) was offered. As an inducement to participate, the individual test scores were interpreted for each of the subjects individually in a beneficial manner by the investigator, who is a trained counselor.

After telephoning and obtaining the couple's permission, an appointment with the dyad was made; all data were collected in the subjects' homes to make the interview as convenient as possible for the subjects and thereby reduce the threat of mortality and measurement reactivity. In order to reduce social pressure each subject was tested separately. The data were collected from January, 1976 through May, 1976 by five thoroughly trained female interviewers; female interviewers were chosen because of the sensitive nature of some of the questionnaire items (Benney et al., 1956). These interviewers were carefully trained by direct instruction, role playing, and viewing a videotaped sample interview session.

In order to maintain a low anxiety level, the background data sheet was administered first; it took approximately five minutes. Next, the seemingly two most interesting tests were administered—the 16 PF to assess personality characteristics and the Rokeach Value Survey to assess values; the administration of these two measures took approximately 30 to 40 minutes. The CRI and the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire were administered last because of their direct focus on the marital relationship—a potentially more sensitive area for some; this required about 20 to 30 minutes. The entire series of tests required no more than 75 minutes.

The primary focus of this study was the systematic difference between married and divorced dyads on numerous variables. Because the couple was the unit of analysis, the analysis of the husband-wife repeated measure was necessary to examine differences between spouses. Thus marital status was the independent variable of the study and spouse was a repeated measures dimension. There were numerous dependent variables—degree and type of affect, homogamy of personality traits, marital adjustment, value homogamy, female employment, homogamous background factors (age at marriage, socioeconomic status, educational background, and religious background), religious affiliation, church attendance, length of courtship period, and parental marital history (perceived parental marital happiness and parental marital dissolution). According to Huck and others (1974) and Mussen (1970), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was the most appropriate statistical procedure because of the numerous dependent variables.

The difference between the intact and dissolved dyads was examined statistically by the multivariate analysis of variance with the spouse variable tested as a repeated measure when indicated. Hotelling's T^2 was computed to test the null hypotheses. Univariate analyses of variance were used as follow-up procedures to determine relative contributions of the dependent variables.

The Multivariance—Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of Variance, Covariance, and Regression—Fortran IV Program (Finn, 1971) was the computer program used for both the ANOVA and the MANOVA. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie et al., 1975) was the computer program used to obtain measures of central tendency and frequencies. All analyses were carried out at the University of Tennessee Computer Center.

Operational Definitions of Variables

The operational or behavioral definitions of the variables in this study are as follows:

1. Marital dissolution is a legally terminated marriage according to the records of the Knox County Court Clerk's Office.

2. Affect is the extent of affection, friendship, eros, empathy, and self-love as measured by the numerical scores on the Caring Relationship Inventory.

3. Personality homogamy is the similarity of spouses (ex-spouses) according to deviation scores on sixteen factors of personality as determined by the 16 PF.

4. Value homogamy is the similarity of spouses (ex-spouses) in values according to deviation scores on the Rokeach Value Survey.

5. Marital adjustment is the total points earned on the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire (1974).

6. Female employment is the participation of the wife to any degree in the labor force during the extent of the marriage according to the sociodemographic questionnaire.

7. Homogamous background factors refer to the similarity of spouses (ex-spouses) before marriage on the factors of age, socioeconomic background, religious background, and educational background according to deviation scores on the sociodemographic questionnaire; age is the chronological age of the subject at the time of marriage; socioeconomic background is the parental income level and occupational status; religious background is the religious affiliation of the subjects' parents; educational background is the years of formal schooling the subjects have completed.

8. Religious affiliation is the current religious preference of the subjects as indicated on the sociodemographic questionnaire.

9. Church attendance is the attendance of services at a formal religious institution once a year or more as indicated on the sociodemographic questionnaire.

10. Courtship period is the length of time between the first date and marriage as indicated on the sociodemographic questionnaire.

11. Parental marital history is the existence of divorce or legal separation and the estimated degree of happiness in the marriages of the

parents of the subjects as indicated on the sociodemographic questionnaire; parental marital dissolution is the existence of a legally terminated marriage in the marital history of the individual's parents; parental marital happiness is the estimation of happiness on a 5-point semantic differential in the marriages of the subjects' parents.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were used in five separate comparisons to analyze the collected data. Thus the group of sociodemographic variables, the Caring Relationship Inventory, the Revised Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire, the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, and the Rokeach Value Survey were each analyzed to determine differences among subjects as a function of marital status and spouse. Because the couple was the unit of analysis, the spouse variable was treated as a repeated measure. The probability level of .05 was used as a criterion to reject null hypotheses. In cases of the MANOVA where a significant F-ratio was computed at or above the .05 level of significance, univariate analyses of variance were used to determine the relative contribution of various subscales to the between-group variance.

Sociodemographic Variables

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine sociodemographic differences between the divorced and married groups and between spouses. Fifteen sociodemographic variables from the background data sheet were analyzed to determine differences as a function of marital status, and 12 of 15 sociodemographic variables (those which referred to

the individuals) were tested for differences as a function of spouse (repeated measure). Three variables describing the couple as a unit (years married, length of courtship, and income) were tested only for differences as a function of marital status.

The subclass means are shown in Table I, page 47 and Table II, page 49, and Appendix A. The hypothesis being tested was that there is no difference in sociodemographic variables as a function of marital status and/or spouse (Ho1).

The MANOVA on the twelve individual sociodemographic variables revealed that the marital status by spouse interaction was nonsignificant ($p < .7957$), but both the main effect for marital status ($p < .0018$) and spouse ($p < .0039$) were significant. Such main effect differences allowed consideration of the sources of the differences. The univariate analyses of each of the sociodemographic factors for the main effect for marital status (Table III) indicated that the differences between the divorced and married groups were primarily dependent upon estimations of parental marital happiness ($p < .0065$), church attendance ($p < .0152$), parental marital dissolution ($p < .0334$), individual employment status ($p < .0356$), and individual religious affiliation ($p < .0463$). The univariate analyses of each of the sociodemographic factors for the main effect of spouse (Table IV) indicated that the differences between husbands and wives were largely the result of chronological age ($p < .0001$), education ($p < .0001$), and employment ($p < .0356$).

Because husband-wife differences on the background sociodemographic variables were hypothesized as being different between divorced and

TABLE III

MULTIVARIATE AND UNIVARIATE ANALYSES OF VARIANCE FOR MARITAL STATUS OVER SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

F-Ratio For Multivariate Test of Equality of Mean Vectors = 3.85

d.f. = 12 and 27 p less than .0018

Variable	d.f.	Mean Square	Univariate F	p
Age at marriage	1,38	6.0500	.5665	<.4563
Parents' socioeconomic status	1,38	.4500	2.4083	<.1538
Parents' marital dissolution	1,38	.3125	3.2310	<.0334
Parents' marital happiness	1,38	9.8000	8.3217	<.0065
Religious affiliation	1,38	20.0000	4.2458	<.0463
Church attendance	1,38	1.5125	6.4759	<.0152
Frequency of church attendance	1,38	9.8000	2.6572	<.1114
Employment	1,38	.2000	4.7495	<.0356
Occupation	1,38	1.0125	1.1528	<.2898
Education	1,38	3.6125	.4167	<.5225
Mother's religious affiliation	1,38	.1125	.1407	<.7097
Father's religious affiliation	1,38	.4500	.3555	<.5546

TABLE IV

MULTIVARIATE AND UNIVARIATE ANALYSES OF VARIANCE FOR SPOUSE (REPEATED MEASURE) OVER SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

F-Ratio For Multivariate Test of Equality of Mean Vectors = 3.4297

d.f. = 12 and 27 p less than .0039

Variable	d.f.	Mean Square	Univariate F	p
Chronological age	1,38	45.0004	22.0504	.0001
Parents' socioeconomic status	1,38	.0500	.1597	.6918
Parents' marital dissolution	1,38	.0125	.0868	.7700
Parents' marital happiness	1,38	1.8000	1.1968	.2809
Religious affiliation	1,38	.2000	.1490	.7017
Church attendance	1,38	.0125	.0644	.8011
Frequency of church attendance	1,38	.2000	.1200	.7310
Employment	1,38	.2000	4.7500	.0356
Occupation	1,38	.1125	.1281	.7225
Education	1,38	35.1124	22.8968	.0001
Mother's religious affiliation	1,38	.1125	.1345	.7159
Father's religious affiliation	1,38	.4500	.4844	.4907

married dyads, discrepancy scores were computed for the variables of chronological age, education, and parental socioeconomic status. The MANOVA of these husband-wife discrepancy scores was nonsiginficant ($p < .6901$).

Although religious affiliation and church attendance were significant in the MANOVA for marital status over the socioeconomic variables, further analysis was required because religious affiliation and church attendance were nominal variables. Thus religious affiliation and church attendance as well as father's religious affiliation and mother's religious affiliation were examined by chi-square analyses. A 2 × 2 chi-square analysis indicated that religious affiliation (affiliated or not affiliated) was not different between divorced and married dyads at the .05 level, but was different between the two groups at the .10 level of siginficance ($\chi^2 = 3.14$). The 2 × 2 chi-square analysis of church attendance (attend or not attend) showed significant differences ($p < .005$) between divorced and married dyads ($\chi^2 = 6.760$). Religious affiliation (affiliated or not affiliated) and church attendance (attend or not attend) were not, however, significantly different for husbands and wives ($\chi^2 = 2.27$ and $\chi^2 = 2.35$ respectively). To analyze the differences between divorced and married dyads on parental religious background variables, discrepancy scores were computed. The 2 × 2 chi-square analyses of these scores on both the father's and the mother's religious background (same or different) were not significant ($\chi^2 = .38$ and $\chi^2 = .15$ respectively).

Parental marital dissolution was also a nominal variable (yes or no), and thus it too required chi-square verification. The chi-square ($\chi^2 = 4.51$) was significant ($p < .05$).

Because the MANOVA for marital status over the sociodemographic variable of employment utilized both husband and wife employment status in the analysis, further statistical analysis was needed to determine the differences on female employment per se between divorced and married dyads. A 2 × 2 chi-square analysis was performed investigating the differences between divorced and married dyads on female employment (employed or not employed). The chi-square ($\chi^2 = 4.45$) was significant ($p < .05$).

The MANOVA for marital status over the three variables describing the couple as a unit (i.e., income, years married, and length of courtship) was not significant ($p < .2021$). It was concluded that with respect to the sociodemographic variables, the divorced group was statistically different from the married group only by greater perceived parental marital unhappiness, a greater extent of parental marital dissolution, a greater frequency of female employment, and being less inclined to attend church. Although it was found that husbands differed from their wives in being older in chronological age, having greater educational attainment, and being more likely to be employed, this tended to correspond with the normative patterns in the United States as a whole.

Affect

To determine affect differences between the divorced and married groups and between spouses, the 15 subscale scores on the Caring

Relationship Inventory were analyzed by multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Seven scores represented the subject's affect feelings in terms of his/her spouse or ex-spouse; seven scores reflected the subject's affect needs in terms of an ideal spouse; and one score represented the total differences between the "other" and "ideal" scores—i.e., the discrepancy score.

A 2 × 2 factorial design was determined by two levels of marital status and two levels of spouse (repeated measure). Subclass means are appended (Appendix E). The hypothesis being tested was that there is no difference in amount and type of affect as a function of marital status and/or spouse (Ho2).

Results of the MANOVA indicated that the marital status by spouse interaction was not significant ($p < .2019$). The main effect for spouse was also not significant ($p < .4195$), but the main effect for marital status was significant ($p < .0005$). The significant main effect for marital status allowed consideration of the sources of the difference. The results of the MANOVA and ANOVA for marital status over affect are reported in Table V. The univariate analyses for each subscale revealed that the differences between the divorced and married dyads depended largely upon "other affection" ($p < .0001$), "other friendship" ($p < .0001$), "other eros" ($p < .0001$), "other being love" ($p < .0001$), and the discrepancy between the "ideal" and "other" scores ($p < .0001$). "Other empathy" ($p < .0003$) and "other self-love" ($p < .0370$) also contributed to the variance between the two groups. The two groups did not differ on any of the "ideal" scores.

TABLE V

MULTIVARIATE AND UNIVARIATE ANALYSES OF VARIANCE FOR MARITAL STATUS OVER AFFECT

F-Ratio For Multivariate Test for Equality of Mean Vectors = 4.6875

d.f. = 15 and 24.0000 p less than .0005

Variable	d.f.	Mean Square	Univariate F	p
Other affection	1,38	241.5124	36.0775	<.0001
Other friendship	1,38	515.1104	38.3144	<.0001
Other eros	1,38	259.1992	21.9490	<.0001
Other empathy	1,38	122.5127	16.0988	<.0003
Other self-love	1,38	56.1126	4.6752	<.0370
Other deficiency love	1,38	7.2000	1.2860	<.2639
Other being love	1,38	460.8003	52.5589	<.0001
Ideal affection	1,38	.0500	0.0134	<.9086
Ideal friendship	1,38	11.2500	3.7191	<.0613
Ideal eros	1,38	1.2499	0.1296	<.7209
Ideal empathy	1,38	2.4500	0.7658	<.3871
Ideal self-love	1,38	16.1999	2.8105	<.1019
Ideal deficiency love	1,38	10.5125	2.1206	<.1536
Ideal being love	1,38	4.0501	1.1170	<.2973
Other-Ideal discrepancy	1,38	84343.6055	48.6768	<.0001

In conclusion, the hypothesis specifying a difference in affect as a function of marital status was rejected whereas the hypothesis specifying a difference in affect as a function of spouse was not rejected. The married group expressed significantly higher affectional satisfaction in regard to their spouses than did the divorced dyads while married.

Marital Adjustment

The total score on the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire was used in the analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine marital adjustment differences between the divorced and married groups and between spouses. The test score was obtained by totaling the responses to each question according to respective weighting. A direct relationship exists between this total score and the estimated adjustment of a spouse to his/her marriage. The subclass means are appended (Appendix F). A 2 × 2 factorial design was determined by two levels of marital status and two levels of spouse (repeated measure). The hypothesis being tested was that there is no difference in marital adjustment as a function of marital status and/or spouse (Ho3).

The marital status by spouse interaction ($p < .0615$) was not significant, but it did appear as if there was a tendency for the divorced male to perceive a higher level of adjustment than his ex-wife while married, whereas the married female tended to perceive a higher level of marital adjustment than her husband. The main effect for spouse ($p < .7157$) was not significant, but the main effect for marital status was highly significant ($p < .0001$). The results of the ANOVA appear

in Table VI. In conclusion, the divorced group had significantly lower mean marital adjustment scores, and consequently the hypothesis specifying a difference in marital adjustment as a function of marital status was rejected whereas the hypothesis specifying a difference in marital adjustment as a function of spouse failed to be rejected.

TABLE VI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR MARITAL STATUS OVER MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

	d.f.	M.S.	F	p
Marital Adjustment	1,38	28200.0430	115.720	< .0001

Personality Homogamy

The 16 subscale scores of the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire were analyzed by the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) procedure to determine differences between divorced and married dyads on personality homogamy. Each subscale score corresponded to a distinct personality trait as indicated in the mean raw scores appended (Appendix G). The scores used in the statistical analysis were discrepancy scores—the differences between the husband and wife scores on the 16 respective traits. The hypothesis being tested was that there is no difference in personality homogamy as a function of marital status (Ho4).

The analysis revealed that personality discrepancy scores did not differ as a function of marital status, (p < .9747), and thus the null hypothesis was not rejected. It was thereby concluded that personality homogamy or the similarity of personality characteristics between husband and wife was not different between the divorced and married groups.

Value Homogamy

The rank-order scores of the 18 instrumental value scores and the 18 terminal value scores on the Rokeach Value Survey were analyzed by multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine differences between the divorced and married dyads on husband-wife value homogamy. Each subscale score corresponded to the subjects' ranking of the two sets of distinct values; the mean ranking scores are appended (Appendix H). The actual scores used in the analysis were discrepancy scores—the differences between the husband and wife on the 34 respective values; the first value in each set was dropped from the analysis because the scores were ipsative. The hypothesis being tested was that there is no difference in value homogamy as a function of marital status (Ho5).

The analysis revealed that neither set of values nor all the values considered together was significant. The divorced and married groups did not differ on the discrepancy scores of the terminal values (p < .1213), the instrumental values (p < .3177), or the two sets of values considered as a whole (p < .3601). Thus the null hypothesis was not rejected. Therefore, it was concluded that husband-wife value homogamy was not different between the divorced and married dyads.

Summary

The major purpose of this study was to identify and examine differences between divorced and married dyads and between husbands and wives, who were white Americans, childless, of the middle-income status, and married three to seven years. Marital status (divorced-married) was the independent variable and spouse (husband-wife) was a repeated measures dimension. The dependent variables tested by the univariate and multivariate analyses of variance were the scores/responses from five instruments. These instruments included a sociodemographic questionnaire, the Caring Relationship Inventory, the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire, the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, and the Rokeach Value Survey.

Five null hypotheses were formulated to answer these major research questions. The results of testing these are:

Ho1: There is no difference in sociodemographic variables as a function of marital status and spouse.

The MANOVA test of the sociodemographic variables revealed significant main effects for both marital status ($p < .0018$) and spouse ($p < .0039$). The univariate F-ratios and chi-square analyses indicated that the variables of estimation of parental marital unhappiness, parental marital dissolution, church attendance, and female employment status contributed largely to this significant main effect for marital status. The univariate F-ratios indicated that chronological age, education, and employment primarily contributed to this main effect for spouse.

Ho2: There is no difference in amount and type of affect as a function of marital status and spouse.

The MANOVA on the 15 subscales of the Caring Relationship Inventory resulted in a significant F-ratio only for the main effect of marital status ($p < .0005$). The univariate analyses revealed significant F-ratios for the variables of "other affection," "other friendship," "other eros," "other being love," "other empathy," "other self-love," and the discrepancy between the "ideal" and "other" scores.

Ho3: There is no difference in marital adjustment as a function of marital status and spouse.

The ANOVA of the total scores of the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire resulted in a significant main effect only for marital status ($p < .0001$).

Ho4: There is no difference in personality homogamy as a function of marital status.

The MANOVA of the husband-wife discrepancy scores on the 16 subscales of the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire was nonsignificant ($p < .9747$).

Ho5: There is no difference in value homogamy as a function of marital status.

The MANOVA of the husband-wife value discrepancy scores on the Rokeach Value Survey was nonsignificant ($p < .3601$) as was the MANOVA of the terminal ($p < .1213$) and instrumental ($p < .3177$) values separately.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, INTERPRETATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusions

Several factors limit the generalizations from this study. These factors are: the sample size was relatively small for survey research; complete randomized sampling was not achieved in the divorced sample; and the sample was drawn from a single county. Any inferences from the findings should be limited to populations similar to the one in this study. Insofar as the sample characteristics approximate other groups and insofar as the findings agree with those of other studies of marital dissolution, they may be considered to have greater generality. More scientific random sampling procedures and a larger sample size and distribution should be considered in the next step in the investigation of these research questions.

In this analysis of divorced and married dyads, three of the five major dependent variables—sociodemographic characteristics, affect, and marital adjustment—were significantly different between the two levels of the independent variable, marital status. More specifically the divorced group was characterized by greater perceived parental marital unhappiness; a greater incidence of parental marital dissolution; a greater incidence of female employment; less inclination to attend church; greater affect dissatisfaction with one's spouse in the areas of affection, friendship, eros, empathy, self-love, and being love; greater

discrepancy between the affect desired in an ideal spouse and the affect received from the actual spouse; and a lower level of marital adjustment while married than the married dyads. The remaining two dependent variables, husband-wife personality homogamy and value homogamy, did not differ as a function of marital status.

Only the dependent variable of sociodemographic characteristics was significantly different between the two levels of the repeated measure, spouse. Specifically the variables of chronological age, employment, and education were different for husbands and wives. These three husband-wife differences were quite comparable to the normative expectations in our society that the husband be older, be the primary wage earner, and have more education. Thus neither conceptually nor statistically did the husband-wife differences confound the major research questions.

On the basis of the data, the following conclusions were derived:

1. Divorced dyads tended to have perceived greater parental unhappiness in their families of orientation than did married dyads.

2. Divorced dyads were more likely to have experienced parental marital dissolution in their families of orientation than were married dyads.

3. Divorced dyads were more likely to have employed wives than were married dyads.

4. Divorced dyads were less likely to attend church than were married dyads.

5. Age at marriage, religious affiliation, length of courtship, income, years married, and discrepancies in husband-wife background (education, chronological age, socioeconomic status, and religious affiliation) were not different for divorced and married dyads.

6. Divorced dyads expressed greater affect dissatisfaction in the areas of affection, friendship, eros, empathy, self-love, and being love than did married dyads.

7. Divorced dyads reported greater affect unfulfillment by their spouses while married as compared to an ideally chosen spouse than did the married dyads.

8. Divorced dyads expressed less marital adjustment while married than did the married dyads.

9. Husband-wife personality homogamy and value homogamy were not related to marital status.

Interpretations

Sociodemographic Variables

The four sociodemographic variables which were significantly different between the divorced and married dyads—perceived parental marital happiness, parental marital dissolution, female employment, and church attendance—provide many insights into the differences between divorced and married dyads. The largely sociodemographic literature on marital dissolution offers additional research support and insight in the interpretation of the impact of these four variables.

Whereas most research seemed to agree that the variables of parental marital unhappiness and parental marital dissolution, taken together as parental marital history, were related to marital dissolution, there was some disagreement in the interpretation of the effect of these factors on marital dissolution. Some saw individuals from an unstable or unhappy family environment as having personality problems that would interfere with their establishing a satisfactory marital relationship, e.g., emotional immaturity, antisocial behavior, or general personality disorders (Woodruff et al., 1972). Most, however, took a learning theory approach in viewing the divorced from such families as modeling their parents' marital behavior by developing a certain response or attitude toward marriage in general through their years of socialization to the extent that they were unable to enact marital roles successfully as adults (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972). Others took a more general position by viewing this variable of parental marital history as merely having an additive effect; i.e., when given a certain set of problems and/or circumstances, having witnessed parental marital failure causes one to view divorce as a more viable alternative (Goode, 1964).

Hill's (1958) A+B+C=X model of family crisis seems most applicable to the divorced dyads in the present study; simply put A (the event)—interacting with B (the family's crisis-meeting resources)—interacting with C (the definition the family makes of the event)—produces X (the crisis). The second and third determinants—the family resources and definition of the event—lie within the family itself and must be seen in terms of the family's structures and values. Because it was found in the analysis of divorced dyads that the crisis-meeting resources were

somewhat depleted in terms of low overall affective healing power and low level of marital adjustment, the parental marital history would critically affect the definition or interpretation of the event to the extent that the vulnerability to stress would be greatly increased.

The effect of the wife's employment on the marital relationship has only begin to be studied intensely as an increasing number of women formally enter professional careers. The majority of studies in the literature indicated, however, that the wife's employment of any nature outside the home was positively related to marital dissolution. There was, however, some disagreement concerning the interpretation of the impact of the wife's working on the marital relationship. Turner (1971), Thibaut and Kelley (1959), and Levinger (1965) all saw the separation of the wife from her domestic duties as weakening the tie or bond to her marriage and making it easier for her to disengage from her marriage when other viable alternatives were presented. Scanzoni (1968) and O'Brien (1971) saw the wife's working as simply emasculating the husband by threatening his adequacy as a husband or his position as the main locus of authority.

The divorced women in the present study were highly educated and most worked in professional capacities and thus probably not just for additional income while married. In the instance of the married women, not only did a significant number not work, but many that were working did so in lower status positions and/or on part-time bases. The divorced women and their husbands thus constituted dual-career households more than did the married dyads, and the applicability of these general

findings in the literature pertaining to the employment of the wife outside the home must be viewed in that regard. Because the males in each group had professional and/or well-paying occupations, the theory of emasculation cannot be supported totally. Orden and Bradburn (1969) found that wife's employment was much less related to the marital happiness if the woman was from an upper socioeconomic class and was not working out of necessity. The wife's employment, especially when it was economically as well as psychologically rewarding, may have been primarily a factor in divorce in that it gave the woman an alternative and the needed emotional and financial support to leave her husband if she was not receiving satisfaction in her marital relationship; this would be similar to what Nye and Berardo (1973) term the "increased freedom to voice opposition to the husband" hypothesis. The fact that these divorced women were adversely affected by parental marital unhappiness and dissolution would support the contention that their employment did help to free them psychologically and economically from poorly functioning marital relationships that perhaps held their mothers for too long a time.

The low incidence of church attendance by the divorced dyads, together with the strong tendency for these divorced dyads not to be affiliated with any religious organization as compared with the married dyads, can be viewed as part of a more general move in society today. Many individuals are moving away from meeting society's normative expectations for family living (familism) to meeting one's own needs for personal growth and self-actualization pragmatically (individualism).

This low-incidence of church attendance and church affiliation certainly removed one of the major societal constraints on marriage. The overall decline in religiosity in American society is certainly related to the replacement of the institutional marriage with the companionship or conjugal model, for the religious institution in the United States has traditionally been more protective and supportive of the institutional functions of marriage in contrast to the affectional and companionship components.

The lack of significance of the homogamous background variables (chronological age, education, parents' religious background, and parents' socioeconomic status) is perhaps partially the result of the stringent preselection controls placed on the samples. The control of socioeconomic status, race, presence of children, and years married undoubtedly had more effect than expected on the control achieved on these general background characteristics.

Affect

The divorced dyads significantly differed from the married dyads on seven subscale measures of affect. These seven measures of the Caring Relationship Inventory were: "other affection," "other friendship," "other eros," "other empathy," "other self-love," "other being love," and the discrepancy between the total "ideal" and "other" scores; the "other" scores referred to the spouse or ex-spouse, whereas the "ideal" referred to an ideally chosen spouse. Because the "ideal" scores did not differ between the divorced and married dyads, it was concluded that each group had similar affectional requirements in a spouse, but that in the case of the divorced dyads these needs were not satisfied.

Norms for the Caring Relationship Inventory have been established for happily married couples, troubled couples (couples seeking marital therapy), and divorced individuals. The normative scores for affection (a helping, nurturing form of love), friendship, (peer love based on a common interest and respect for each other's equality and individual identity), eros (romantic, sexual love), empathy (a charitable, altruistic form of love), self-love (ability to accept one's strengths as well as one's weaknesses), being love (love in which the person is loved as an end in himself), and the discrepancy score are reported in Table VII. Whereas the married group thus approached the norm for marital happiness on each of these discriminating affect factors, the divorced group in most instances would be classified only as "troubled" or at least not nearly so low as the "divorced" norm. Such scores along with the equivalency of the "ideal" scores would indicate a great importance being placed on the affectional aspect of the marital relationship. The lack of children would also result in greater emphasis on the affectional components. The apparent secure economic state of these middle-class dyads might also have contributed to accentuation of these affectional aspects of the relationship according to Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. Levinger (1966) found that there was a direct relationship between socioeconomic class and concern about emotional and psychological expression; in fact, the middle-class subjects in his study were most likely to complain about lack of love.

Numerous family life scholars have cited a move to the companionship marriage, in which affect is a central component, as a major factor in the

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF DIVORCED AND MARRIED DYAD SCORES WITH THE NORMS ON THE CARING RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY

	Dyad Scores		Normative Scores		
Subscale	Divorced	Married	Happily Married Couples	Troubled Couples	Divorced Individuals
Affection	8.6	12.0	11	8.5	7
Friendship	8.7	13.8	13	8.5	6.5
Eros	7.2	10.8	9	8	7
Empathy	11.1	13.6	13	12	10.5
Self-love	9.1	10.8	11	8.5	7.5
Being love	9	14.6	13.5	11	9
Discrepancy Score	9	12.4	11.2	a	a

[a]No norms given.

rising divorce rate today (Ackerman, 1969; Burgess & Locke, 1945; Nye & Berardo, 1973; Waller & Hill, 1968). In this companionship model the traditional unifying forces of paternal authority, rigid discipline, and economic necessity have been replaced by cohesive factors inherent in the interpersonal relations among family members. Because the sole anchor of this companionship or conjugal model is the relationship, it is recognized that this type of marriage is more vulnerable to dissolution (Hicks & Platt, 1970). From a macroperspective, Janeway (1971) points out that the dwindling variety and extent of personal relationships and social bonds and the narrowing of the world of physical satisfaction as modern man withdraws from nature in a highly impersonal, competitive, materialistic world, results in greater emphasis on the affectual components of the marital relationship.

Nye and Berardo (1973) have examined affect as it applies to divorce, as mentioned in Chapter I, and have identified certain divorce-prone relationships according to the level of involvement. Their central thesis is that divorce in the early years of marriage stems from the inability of a couple to establish a set of functioning relationships that are necessary for a permanent marriage. This "aborted" marriage socially and psychologically never is fully established. The affectional differences seen in the comparison of the divorced and married dyads in this study coincided with this speculation by Nye and Berardo. The marriage that is characterized by a comparatively insufficient amount of affection, friendship, eros, empathy, self-love, and being love cannot possibly be considered a total functioning relationship with any potential

for growth. An affectional relationship that is lacking in unconditional acceptance and giving, a respect and appreciation for each other's equality, and self-acceptance of one's full range of positive and negative feelings toward one's partner in addition to the romantic and erotic elements will never develop toward actualization or permanent satisfaction (Shostrum et al., 1975).

Marital Adjustment

The norms for the Modified Form of Locke's Marital Questionnaire (1974) came from those established for the original Locke Marital Adjustment Test (1951). The only means of comparison is by contrasting percentages of total possible responses, formulated by dividing the mean score for each group by the total possible score; Locke used this type of scoring procedure to generate the original norms. The mean percentage for Locke's (1951) divorced group was approximately 64%, whereas the divorced group in the present study had a mean of 55%. Locke's mean percentage for his married group was 87%, whereas the married group in this present study had a mean of 83%. Husband-wife differences were not significant in either study. Although a direct comparison between the two samples is not possible as the test and the norms of marital adjustment have changed somewhat over the years, it is clear that the divorced group in the present study suffered from a very low level of marital adjustment as married dyads. Undoubtedly the incidents or behaviors that resulted in the lack of marital adjustment in the divorced group were at least partially responsible for the low affect scores that also differed between the divorced group and the married group.

Robert Winch (1967) has suggested that a combination of expressive and instrumental abilities is most conducive to marital adjustment because of the existing cultural norms. He has contended that in the United States the marriage will run more smoothly if the husband is the instrumental spouse and the wife is more expressive. In a dual-career household, as in the case of the divorced group, such a uniform division of tasks was not feasible, although this normative expectation may have been present and thus violated. Scanzoni's (1968) comparison of divorced and married wives on the dimensions of authority, social class, ideology, and community interaction indicated that dissolved marriages tended to be characterized by divergence over the occupational norms and behaviors of both husbands and wives. Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) contended that the dual-career marriage demands not only that the wife play two roles—a career role in addition to her traditionally familial role—but that the husband also play a more egalitarian familial role in addition to his traditional career role. Such roles may have been contrary to the divorced dyads' socialization experiences, especially if such experiences had been influenced negatively by parental example of marital unhappiness and/or dissolution.

Pineo (1961) analyzed the failure of the adjustment processes specifically in the early years of marriage. His studies suggested that there was a direct relationship between romanticism and the failure to attain adjustment and that the early years of marriage were times of major "reality shocks." The numerous unmet affect needs and the emphasis placed on affect in the divorced group may well have been related to

romanticized or otherwise unrealistic marital expectations. Pineo also saw the occupational commitment as operating as a "reality drag" for the husband in the early years of marriage that quickly reduced the euphoria of this "honeymoon period," analagous to the birth of the first child in the case of the wife. Rapoport and Rapoport (1965) observed that whenever two critical changes in life occur at the same time, the crisis effect of each will probably be greater. Perhaps in a dual-career family occupational concerns and pressures of both husband and wife result in the neglect of affectional needs and the effort required for marital adjustment. Adams (1975) described such a predicament as an imbalance between internal (family) and external (community) involvement; this imbalance became a problem only when the community did not support or was in competition with the family. The business world has only begun to stress husband-wife solidarity for efficiency, if not as an end in itself, by offering daycare services, flexible work schedules, and less mandatory geographic mobility.

Personality Homogamy and Value Homogamy

There is much research evidence to support the proposition that the degree of value homogamy and family integration (shared interests, values, intelligence, beliefs, and personality traits) is inversely related to marital dissolution (Cattell & Nesselrode, 1967; Levinger, 1965; Scanzoni, 1968). It has been proposed that shared norms or values facilitate marital adjustment by increasing communication/ understanding, reducing potential for conflict, and increasing the

congruence of marital expectations (Kenkel, 1973; Scanzoni, 1965; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Personality homogamy per se has also generally been shown to be inversely related to marital dissolution (Cattell & Nesselrode, 1967; Kelley, 1974). It is thought that divergent personality characteristics between husband and wife result in personality clashes (sources of conflict), failure to meet each other's expectations, failure to gain ego satisfaction, and failure to make satisfactory marital adjustment.

The married and divorced dyads in the present study did not differ in value homogamy and personality homogamy. Perhaps the preselection controls, especially the control of socioeconomic class, brought about the indicated similarity of the divorced and married groups on both the dimensions of value homogamy and personality homogamy. Also, as previously stated, perhaps value homogamy and personality homogamy are less important factors in today's society when so much emphasis is placed on individuality and personal growth and fulfillment in contrast to family development. Perhaps, too, values and personality characteristics began to merge after the three to seven years of ongoing marital interaction; Turner (1970) found a direct relationship between homogamy of husband-wife personality characteristics and years of marital interaction; Keeley (1955) found that value convergence was directly related to length of marriage, similarity in socioeconomic background, and functionality of the values among other factors. The similarity in chronological age would furthermore account for value homogamy. Neugarten (1964) viewed personality as quite flexible and dynamic in

young adulthood as it adapts to new situations of marriage, career, and parenthood; specific patterns of responses between spouses do become more common as the individuals adjust to marriage. Thus personality differences may not be as meaningful in discriminating between divorced and married dyads in the early years of marriage as the literature has indicated. If there were differences in values and personality characteristics between husbands and wives in the two groups, the dyads obviously were able to integrate these into their relationship so that such husband-wife differences were not differentially apparent in the divorced and the married dyads.

In the examination of specific value rankings, it was observed that next to honesty, loving was the highest ranked value of the instrumental set in the divorced group, whereas it was third highest in the married group; also mature love was ranked as third highest of the terminal values by both the divorced and married dyads. This lends further support to the great importance placed on affect in these marriages. Also, in comparison of females, the divorced women ranked such work-related values as independence, intellectual, courageous, capable, and a sense of accomplishment considerably higher than the married females; this further reveals the career orientation of the divorced women. Both of these observations could have been affected by the divorce experience. Overall, the values that were ranked the highest by both groups (i.e., inner harmony, happiness, true friendship, honesty, self-respect, wisdom, mature love, loving, independent, and responsible) reflect higher order needs according to Maslow's hierarchy; this finding further accentuates

the high level of affluence and education as well as the relative absence of safety and security concerns that characterized the dyads in this study (Rokeach, 1973).

Implications

This study has many implications for both family life scholars and practitioners concerned with the issue of marital dissolution. Although divorce has been a heavily researched area (Blood, 1976), there is today no one sound, encompassing theory of divorce nor have there been many significant attempts by practitioners in recent years to apply research findings either to reduce the divorce rate or curtail the many negative consequences of divorce for those couples represented by this study's sample.

Family Life Practitioners

In the applied area of family studies, the following implications are warranted as a result of this study:

1. This study accentuated the fragile nature of what is termed the companionship or conjugal marriage, and if one assumes that such a model of marriage will remain in the future, then means must be taken to reduce its inherent vulnerability to stress. Because the focus of this marital model is upon the quality of the interpersonal relationships and the interpersonal skills of communication necessary to develop and maintain them, it seems logical that an effective means of supporting such relationships would be some form of human relations training. Such

training might be obtained in family life education programs, in the increasingly popular "growth" groups, in formal classes on the subject, and in counseling situations.

2. The failure of marriage so soon after its inception points to the related problem of the idealistic and unrealistic expectations individuals bring into marital relationships today. Greater anticipatory socialization for marriage should be carried out in educational, religious, legal, and family institutions. "It should be at least as difficult to enter marriage as it is to leave it" ("No Fault," 1973).

3. Practitioners also need to find better means of integrating the career-oriented female role into the formal middle-class marital structure. Certainly in time the dual role of career woman and wife will merge and become less of a strain for both the husband and wife, but in the interim this situation poses a major problem for many marriages. Premarital counseling possibly could sensitize the engaged couple to potential problems arising out of the female's employment. Also, family life educational efforts in all their many contexts should emphasize the benefits of more egalitarian sex roles for males and females in the marital relationship. Measures also should be undertaken to lessen the stigma on couples who choose alternatives to the traditional sexist marital arrangement, e.g., relationships outside of marriage or communal arrangements; the access to alternative life styles could be facilitated through the formal recognition of such alternatives to the norm by various governmental, family-oriented agencies. The various sectors of business and industry should be encouraged to effect strategies such as

daycare services and flexible schedules that would support the dual-career or dual-work family.

4. The fact that both factors of parental marital history were significant in this study underscores the impact that divorce and/or parental marital unhappiness has on children. Such factors have been deemphasized in recent years, as numerous studies have indicated that such situations may not affect children adversely (Goode, 1956; Landis, 1960). The very fact that the divorced individuals in this present study, socialized under such marital circumstances, were more likely to view divorce as a more viable option (for whatever reason) when their own marriages were unsatisfactory certainly constitutes a serious repercussion of unhappy and/or unstable marriages in one's family of orientation. Children may somehow get lost in the legal scramble of divorce and their welfare too often is left uncertain. Child advocates at last are beginning to encourage legal representation for children not only during divorce cases but at any time their welfare is threatened. Family life practitioners are beginning to initiate therapeutic/educational programs to help children understand and deal with divorce (Weiss, 1975). Also the legal term child neglect has been broadened in many states to include psychological stress as a result of a hostile home environment. Additional efforts along these lines should be strongly encouraged.

Postdivorce adjustment is often difficult for parents and children as parents adapt to solo parenting and role overload. The mother often finds that she is unable to support herself because of inadequate

economical support provisions, lack of quality, economical daycare, and the lack of training for a satisfactorily paying job. Greater accessibility to public supported daycare, job training, and homemaking services would undoubtedly facilitate this adjustment process. Such provisions for the mother would also facilitate the father's adjustment financially and, along with supportive homemaking services, probably would encourage him to assume a higher level of paternal involvement. No-fault divorce measures too should facilitate this postdivorce adjustment for the sake of the child as the spousal hostility would probably be reduced by avoiding placement of blame on the ex-spouse.

5. The low level of religiosity demonstrated by the divorced dyads points to the need for some component(s) of society to replace or strengthen again the function that organized religion once served in supporting and strengthening family life. Many of the needs brought out by this study were at one time handled by society's religious institution. Major governmental programs at the national level should be encouraged as well as other societal measures designed to strengthen the family.

Research and Theory Development

In the areas of future research thrusts and theory construction, the results of this study point to the following implications:

1. This study suggested that the nature and quality of the marriage of one's parents has a significant effect upon one's marital pattern or habit. Additional research is needed to determine more precisely in what manner these circumstances operate to make one vulnerable to divorce and

also to isolate factors that are detrimental to a child's adjustment to such family situations. Greater research utilization of the more encompassing and scientific longitudinal studies is needed to analyze this phenomenon comprehensively.

2. Female career orientation seemed to have played a part in effecting the marital stability of the dyads in this study adversely, as has been shown to be true in numerous other studies that dealt with female employment in general. Today as the dual-career family becomes an increasingly common occurrence among the middle class, additional research is required to examine the internal dynamics and adjustment processes of this type marital relationship.

3. The affectional responses of the dyads indicated the importance of affectional factors in discriminating between divorced and married dyads in today's society. Further research into alternative modes of meeting affective needs is suggested to determine the affectional quality of such relationships as well as the motivations of the participants. Greater research efforts into the marital and sexual relationships of young adults is needed to determine the effect of the social change, affluence, and mobility that have characterized this generation; such factors as homogamy and socioeconomic status may indeed be less significant for marital success today.

4. This study's abundance of objective data based upon valid and reliable instrumentation still does not specify what situations or problems specifically led to the failure in marital adjustment and loss of affect. Considering the processual or interactional model of this

study, it would be of interest to see how these divorced dyads actually defined their marital situation. An open-ended interview schedule, and perhaps even clinical techniques, is recommended for use in any replication of this research project.

5. The failure to find significant differences on the dimensions of value homogamy and personality homogamy suggests further analysis of the various values and personality traits to determine any relationships (e.g., complementarity) or specific values and personality traits that could differentiate between divorced and married dyads.

Summary

The findings of this study support the concept of marriage as process. Marriage as process consists of abrupt and gradual transitions and the effect of these transitions on the course of interpersonal accommodations and role alterations. It is in the varying abilities of couples to adjust and in such processes as anticipatory socialization, task accomplishment, and the accumulation of experience that the success or failure of a marriage lies (Adams, 1975). The variables on which the divorced differed from the married in this study support Adams' processual measure of marital success. The anticipatory socialization processes for the marital institution certainly were aberrant as the divorced dyads entered marriage unduly influenced by the parents' marital unhappiness and/or dissolution. A traditional source of support and socialization for family living (e.g., religiosity) appeared to be lacking in these divorced dyads. The divorced dyads evidenced a failure to adjust to

marriage by their inability or unwillingness to accomplish various marital tasks, perhaps related to the career orientation of the wife. Many variables that could have easily contributed to differentiating the divorced dyads from the marital dyads, at least according to the literature, were either directly controlled by sample selection (socioeconomic status, race, children, and years married) or were not significantly different (value homogamy, personality homogamy, and various sociodemographic variables).

Certainly the type of anticipatory socialization and the inability to adjust to marriage were related to the affectional dissatisfaction experienced by the divorced dyads in creating unrealistic, affectional expectations and areas of conflict and hostility respectively. But, also, this affectional dissatisfaction should be perceived in light of the condition of today's society, in which such factors as competition, materialism, industrialization, and urbanization have created an environment which may be unsuitable to meeting the affectional needs of men and women.

Society should respond to the rising incidence of divorce in the early years of marriage by providing sufficient experiences of anticipatory socialization for marriage, means of improving human relations, alternatives to marriage that allow for affectional satisfaction without the constraints of marriage, integration of the career-oriented wife-mother into the middle-class marital structure, programs to facilitate postdivorce adjustment, and general family advocacy programs at the national and local levels. In the research

arena, family life scholars should examine marriage in the early years more as a dynamic process that is dependent on premarital socialization experiences, the affectional and career needs of individuals in today's society, and the individual differences that account for the differential abilities to adjust to marriage.

Limitations of the Study

The possible limitations of this study include the following:

1. Factors decreasing the representativeness of the sample. Certain factors may have operated to decrease the representative character of the sample; two of these were movement away from the community and the method of securing the sample. Whereas relatively few divorced individuals refused to participate (five individuals out of 183 couples), many more had moved out of the community or were unable to be located; 152 divorced dyads were lost. It was decided not to attempt to obtain a subject if it was discovered that he/she lived more than 50 miles from Knoxville. One divorced dyad had reunited and thus was not used for that reason. Movement away from the community was not a factor in the married sample because these dyads must have resided in apartment complexes in order to have been selected.

The method of securing subjects for the married sample may, however, have decreased the representativeness of this sample. The apartment complexes were chosen because of their size, accessibility, the nature of their residents, and their complete set of records that allowed maximum control of the selection factors. All other apartment complexes

contacted either refused to participate or lacked the records for controlling the sample selection. In fact, no other records of potential subjects could be found that would allow total control on all these factors of concern.

2. Cross-sectional rather than longitudinal study. A major limitation of this study, as of so many social science investigations, was its cross-sectional rather than longitudinal approach. Whereas a longitudinal study over a relatively long period through repeated interviews would have given a much more accurate report, it would have involved serious difficulties, such as the expense, and the attrition of cases through mobility and death; consequently the cross-sectional approach was more practical. The use of retrospective history-taking in the divorced group and to some extent in the married group was perhaps suspect because it is generally believed that certain behaviors may not be elicited back in time, e.g., marital happiness, communication, allocation of roles, and value consensus (Hill & Rodgers, 1964). Scanzoni (1968), however, has contended that investigations not exceeding two years should not impair the ability of subjects to recall most sociopsychological behaviors; in fact, he found that some time lapse was needed for divorced individuals to put their previous marriages into proper perspective.

3. Responses modified by the experience of divorce. Another limitation closely related to the one previously mentioned was the suspicion that the answers of divorced persons to the various questions may have reflected bitterness and resentment associated with the experience

of divorce. Also, the answers, in part, may have reflected rationalization of the divorce. Therefore, the methodological and theoretical concern was whether or not the differences between the divorced and happily married were greater than those that might have been found between the same married group and a group on the brink of divorce, but who had not gone through the divorce process. Scanzoni's (1968) explanation as aforementioned partially lessens this limitation, as he found that a certain lapse of time curtails the bitterness, hostility, and resentment associated with divorce. Campbell (1975) concurred as he stated that bitter feelings and attitudes of divorced people change with the years after the divorce. Locke (1951) found in his study of divorced and happily married couples that the differences between these groups were only partly the result of the tendency of the divorced group to be overly derogatory and the happily married to be overly generous. Certainly the overlap in adjustment and affect scores of the divorced and married dyads in the investigator's study indicated that both groups could be quite candid in their responses. Locke (1951) also stated that rather than being a limitation, the supposed tendency of the divorced to exaggerate the difficulties in their marriage could indicate certain individuals who are not adjustable to the marital situation.

4. The use of different interviewers. Another limitation may have been the use of different interviewers. Care was taken to reduce the influence of this factor by giving interviewers thorough preliminary training and by having periodic staff conferences. One interviewer secured 55% of the married dyads, and another, the remaining 45% of these

dyads. One interviewer secured 60% of the divorced individuals; another, 30%; and another, 10%. The fact that a script was furnished each interviewer and the fact that these interviewers asked no questions but merely administered the instruments would serve to increase further the reliability of multiple interviewers. The investigator's spot comparison of the adjustment and affect scores of each interviewer's subjects revealed general consistency according to marital status.

5. Degree of generality of conclusions. The sample was drawn from a single period of time and from a single county in a southeastern state with controls placed on race, socioeconomic status, years married, and the presence of children. The findings apply to the population from which the sample was drawn. Insofar as the findings agree with those of other studies of marital dissolution, they may be considered to have greater generality.

6. The small sample size. Ideally a study of this nature should have included additional subjects both to increase its representativeness and the power of the statistical procedures. Attempts were made initially to obtain 30 dyads for each group. Using the Knox County files, the investigator literally exhausted the supply of subjects for the divorced group with the designated controls, for he was forced to return to the files on two occasions after the initial preselection to obtain additional names of potential subjects who had become available since the beginning date of the study. As aforementioned, the problem was not one of unwillingness to participate, but instead, mobility and lack of forwarding addresses. Future studies of this nature should have the resources to utilize a greater pool of subjects and employ fewer preselection controls.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ackerman, C. Affiliations: Structural determinants of differential divorce. The American Journal of Sociology, 1963, 69, 13-20.

Ackerman, N. W. Divorce and alienation in modern society. Mental Hygiene, 1969, 53, 118-126.

Adams, B. N. The family: A sociological interpretation. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1975.

Bauman, K. E. Relationship between age at first marriage, school dropout, and marital instability. Social Forces, 1967, 45, 672-680.

Bell, R. R. Marriage and family interaction. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey, 1975.

Benney, M., Riesman, D., & Star, S. A. Age and sex in the interview. American Journal of Sociology, 1956, 62, 143-152.

Benson, L. The family bond. New York: Random House, 1971.

Blood, R. Marriage. New York: Free Press, 1960.

Blood, R. Research needs of a family life educator and marriage counselor. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1976, 38, 7-12.

Blood, R., & Wolfe, D. M. Husbands and wives. New York: Free Press, 1960.

Bohannon, P. Divorce and after. New York: Doubleday, 1968.

Bumpass, L. L., & Sweet, J. A. Differentials in marital stability. American Sociological Review, 1972, 37, 754-766.

Burgess, E. W., & Cottrell, L. S. Predicting success and failure in marriage. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1939.

Burgess, E. W., & Locke, H. J. The family. New York: American Book Company, 1945.

Burgess, E. W., & Wallin, P. Engagement and marriage. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1953.

Cadwallader, M. Marriage as a wretched institution. Atlantic, 1966, 218, 62-68.

Campbell, A. The American way of mating: Marriage si, children only maybe. Psychology Today, August 1975, 37-41.

Carter, H., & Plateris, A. Trends in divorce and family disruption. In Health, education, and welfare indicators. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963, 5-14.

Carter, H., & Glick, P. C. Marriage and divorce: A social and economic study. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1970.

Cashion, B. B. Durkheim's concept of anomie and its relationship to divorce. Sociology and Social Research, October 1970, 29-55.

Cattell, R. B. Sixteen personality factor questionnaire (Form C). Champaign, Ill.: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1969.

Cattell, R. B., Eber, H. W., & Tatsuoka, M. M. Handbook for the sixteen personality factor questionnaire. Champaign, Ill.: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1970.

Cattell, R. B., & Nesselrode, J. R. Likeness and completeness theories examined by sixteen personality factor measures on stably and unstably married couples. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1967, 7, 351-361.

Cavan, R. S. The American family. New York: Crowell, 1969.

Chester, R. Is there a relationship between childlessness and marriage breakdown? Journal of Biosocial Science, 1972, 4, 443-454.

Christensen, H. T. Normative theory derived from cross-cultural family research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1969, 31, 209-222.

Christensen, H. T. & Neissner, H. H. Premarital pregnancy as a factor in divorce. American Sociological Review, 1953, 18, 641-644.

Cochrane, R., & Rokeach, M. Rokeach's value survey: A methodological note. Journal of Experimental Research in Personality, 1970, 4, 1959-1961.

Coleman, J. S. The adolescent society. New York: Free Press, 1961.

Coombs, L. C., & Zumeta, A. Correlates of marital dissolution in a perspective fertility study—A research note. Social Problems, 1970, 18, 92-102.

Cuber, J. F., & Harroff, P. B. The significant Americans. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965.

Davids, L. North American marriage 1990. The Futurist, 1971, 5, 190-194.

Davis, K. Statistical perspective on marriage and divorce. Anals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1950, 272, 10-19.

Duberman, L. Marriage and its alternatives. New York: Praeger, 1974.

Farber, B. Family: Organization and interaction. San Francisco: Chandler, 1964.

Farley, R., & Hermalin, A. I. Family stability: A comparison of trends between blacks and whites. American Sociological Review, 1971, 36, 1-17.

Fenelon, B. State variations in U. S. divorce rates. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1971, 33, 321-327.

Finn, J. D. Multivarance—Univariate and multivariate analysis of variance, covariance, and regression—A Fortran IV program (Version 4-1). Buffalo: State University of New York, School of Education, 1971.

Foregger, R. The love triangle in marriage and divorce. Mental Hygiene, 1966, 50, 199-204.

Glick, P. C. & Norton, A. J. Frequency, duration, and probability of marriage and divorce. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1971, 33, 307-317.

Glick, P. C., & Norton, A. J. Perspectives on the recent upturn in divorce and remarriage. Demography, 1973, 10, 301-314.

Goode, W. J. Economic factors in marital stability. American Sociological Review, 1951, 16, 802-812.

Goode, W. J. After divorce. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956.

Goode, W. J. Marital satisfaction and instability: A cross-cultural class analysis of divorce rates. International Social Science Journal, 1962, 14, 507-526.

Goode, W. J. Family organization. In R. K. Merton (Ed.), Contemporary social problems. New York: Rupert-Hart-Davis, 1964.

Gorsuch, R. L. Rokeach's approach to value systems and social compassion. Review of Religious Research, 1970, 11, 139-145.

Harmsworth, H. C., & Minnis, M. S. Non-statutory causes of divorce: The lawyer's point of view. Marriage and Family Living, 1955, 17, 316-321.

Hicks, M. W., & Platt, M. Marital happiness and stability: A review of research in the 1960's. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1970, 32, 301-325.

Hill, R. Families under stress. New York: Harper and Row, 1949.

Hill, R. Sociology of marriage and family behavior: 1945-1956: A trend report and bibliography. Current Sociology, 1958, 7, 1-98.

Hill, R., & Rodgers, R. H. The developmental approach. In H. Christensen (Ed.), Handbook of marriage and the family. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1964.

Huck, S. W., Cormier, W. H., & Bounds, W. C. Reading statistics and research. New York: Harper and Row, 1974.

Jacobson, P. H. Differentials in divorce by duration of marriage and size of family. American Sociological Review, 1950, 15, 235-244.

Janeway, E. Man's world, woman's place. New York: Dell, 1971.

Keeley, B. J. Value convergence and marital relations. Marriage and Family Living, 1955, 17, 342-345.

Kelley, R. K. Courtship, marriage, and the family. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Johanovich, 1974.

Kenkel, W. F. The family in perspective. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973.

Kephart, W. M. Occupational level and marital disruption. American Sociological Review, 1952, 17, 456-463.

Kephart, W. M. The duration of marriage. American Sociological Review, 1954, 19, 287-295.

Kephart, W. M. Some variables in cases of reported sexual maladjustment. Marriage and Family Living, 1954, 16, 241-243.

Kephart, W. M., & Monahan, T. P. Desertion and divorce in Philadelphia. American Sociological Review, 1952, 17, 719-727.

Kerlinger, F. N. Foundations of behavioral research. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1973.

Kleinmuntz, B. Personality measurement. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1967.

Kimmel, D., & van der Veen, F. Factors of marital adjustment in Locke's marital adjustment test. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1974, 36, 57-63.

Krantzler, M. Creative divorce. New York: Evans, 1974.

Kunzel, R. The connection between the family life cycle and divorce. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1974, 36, 379-387.

Landis, J. T. The trauma of children when parents divorce. Marriage and Family Living, 1960, 22, 7-13.

Landis, J. T. Social correlates of divorce or nondivorce among the unhappy married. Marriage and Family Living, 1963, 25, 178-180.

Landis, J. T. The pattern of divorce in three generations. Social Forces, 1956, 34, 213-216.

Levinger, G. Marital cohesiveness and dissolution: An integrative view. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1965, 36, 803-807.

Levinger, G. Sources of marital dissatisfaction among applicants for divorce. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1966, 36, 803-807.

Locke, H. J. Predicting adjustment in marriage: A comparison of a divorced and a happily married group. New York: Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston, 1951.

Maslow, A. H. Motivation and personality. New York: Harper and Row, 1954.

Maslow, A. H. Toward a psychology of being. New York: Van Nostrand, 1962.

Melville, K. Marriage and family text. New York: Random House, in press.

Mercer, C. V. Interrelations among family stability, family composition, residence, and race. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1967, 29, 456-460.

Messer, A. A. Dissolution of long-standing marriages. Mental Hygiene, 1969, 53, 127-130.

Miao, G. Marital instability and unemployment among whites and non-whites: The Moynihan report revisited. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1974, 36, 77-86.

Mindel, C. H. Kinship affiliation: Structure and process in divorce. Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 1972, 3, 254-262.

Monahan, T. P. Divorce by occupational level. Marriage and Family Living, 1955, 17, 322-324.

Monahan, T. P. When married couples part: Statistical trends and relationships in divorce. American Sociological Review, 1962, 27, 625-633.

Morgan, C. T., & King, R. A. Introduction to psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

Mussen, P. H. Carmichael's manual of child psychology. New York: Wiley, 1970.

Neugarten, B. Personality in middle and late life. New York: Atherton, 1964.

Nickell, P., & Dorsey, J. Management in family living. New York: Wiley, 1972.

Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., Steinbrenner, K., & Brent, D. H. Statistical package for the social sciences (Version VI). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.

No fault divorces—They're catching on. U. S. News and World Report, June 4, 1973, pp. 41-42.

Nye, F. I., & Berardo, F. M. The family: Its structure and interaction. New York: Macmillan, 1973.

O'Brien, J. E. Violence in divorce-prone families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1971, 33, 692-697.

O'Neill, N., & O'Neill, G. Open marriage. New York: Evans, 1972.

Orden, S. R., & Bradburn, N. M. Working wives and marital happiness. American Journal of Sociology, 1969, 74, 405-412.

Ort, R. S. A study of role-conflicts as related to happiness in marriage. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1950, 45, 691-699.

Pang, H., & Hanson, S. M. Highest divorce rates in the western states. Sociology and Social Research, 1968, 52, 228-236.

Pinard, M. Marriage and divorce decisions and the larger social system: A case study. Social Forces, 1966, 44, 341-351.

Pineo, P. C. Disenchantment in the later years of marriage. Marriage and Family Living, 1961, 23, 3-11.

Preston, S. H. Estimating the proportion of American marriages that end in divorce. Unpublished manuscript, Department of Sociology, University of Washington, 1971.

Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. Work and family in contemporary society. American Sociological Review, 1965, 30, 381-394.

Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. Dual-career families. New York: Penguin, 1971.

Renne, R. S. Health and marital experience in an urban population. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1971, 33, 338-350.

Rokeach, M. The Rokeach Value Survey. Sunnydale, Calif.: Halgren Tests, 1967.

Rokeach, M. The nature of human values. New York: Free Press, 1973.

Rosenthal, E. Divorce and religious intermarriage: The effect of previous marital status upon subsequent marital behavior. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1970, 32, 435-440.

Saxton, L. The individual, marriage, and the family. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1968.

Scanzoni, J. A reinquiry into marital disorganization. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1965, 27, 483-491.

Scanzoni, J. Family organization and the probability of disorganization. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1966, 28, 407-411.

Scanzoni, J. A social system analysis of dissolved and existing marriages. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1968, 30, 452-461.

Schoen, R. California divorce rates by age at first marriage and duration of first marriage. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1975, 37, 548-556.

Shostrum, E. L. The caring relationship inventory. San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1975.

Shostrum, E. L., Knapp, L. F., & Knapp R. R. Actualizing therapy: Foundation for a scientific ethic. San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1975.

Skarsten, S. Family desertion in Canada. Family Coordinator, 1974, 23, 19-25.

Stetson, D. M. & Wright, G. C. The effects of laws on divorce in American states. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1975, 37, 537-547.

Terman, L. M. Psychological factors in marital happiness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938.

Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, R. K. The social psychology of groups. New York: Wiley, 1959.

Turner, C. Dual-work households and marital dissolution. Human Relations, 1971, 24, 535-548.

Turner, R. H. Family interaction. New York: Wiley, 1970.

Udry, J. R. Marital instability by race, sex, education, occupation, and income using 1960 census data. American Journal of Sociology, 1966, 72, 208-209.

Uhlenberg, P. Marital instability among Mexican Americans: Following the pattern of blacks. Social Problems, 1972, 20, 49-56.

United States Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce. Current population reports (Series P20, No. 223). Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

United States Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce. Current population reports (Series P23, No. 55). Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

Waller, W., & Hill, R. The process of alienation. In Heiss, J. (Ed.), Family roles and interaction. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1968.

Weiss, R. S. Marital separation. New York: Basic Books, 1975.

Winch, R. F. Another look at the theory of complementary needs in mate-selection. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1967, 29, 756-762.

Woodruff, R. A., Guze, S. B., & Clayton, R. J. Divorce among psychiatric outpatients. British Journal of Psychiatry, 1972, 121, 289-292.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TABLE A-I

PERCENTAGES AND MEANS OF SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

	Divorced		Married	
	% Husband	% Wife	% Husband	% Wife
Spouses Religious Affiliation				
Protestant	45	60	80	70
Catholic	5	0	0	10
Jewish	5	0	5	5
Other	5	0	0	0
None	40	40	15	15
Spouses' Church Attendance				
Yes	55	50	75	85
No	45	50	25	15
Frequency of Spouses' Church Attendance				
Weekly	25	20	35	30
Monthly	20	15	15	15
More than once a year	5	10	20	30
Less than once a year	5	5	5	10
Does not attend	45	50	25	15
Parents' Marital Dissolution				
Yes	25	25	10	5
No	75	75	90	95
Parent's Marital Happiness				
Very happy	25	15	40	30
Happy	30	30	45	45
Average	15	30	10	15
Unhappy	30	5	0	5
Very unhappy	0	20	5	5
	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
Length of courtship	21.9	15.37	23.55	19.11

APPENDIX B

BACKGROUND DATA SHEET

DIRECTIONS: Please complete the following form to the best of your ability. Any questions that you might have should be directed toward the interviewer. Do not write your name on this sheet. All of this information is completely confidential.

Sex _____
Number of years married _____
Age at time of marriage _____
How long was the period between your first date and marriage to your spouse (months) _____

Please check the income range that was most applicable to your parents while you were a minor:

below $7,000	_____	$15,000-$19,999	_____
$7,000-$9,999	_____	$20,000-$24,999	_____
$10,000-$14,999	_____	above $25,000	_____

What is/was your father's occupation? _____
What is/was your mother's occupation? _____
What is/was your parents' religious affiliation or background?

Mother _____
Father _____

Were your parents ever legally separated or divorced? _____

Where would you place your parents' marriage on the following scale happy to unhappy? Circle what you feel is the most appropriate number:

1 2 3 4 5
HAPPY UNHAPPY

Circle the last year of school completed:
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 B.A. B.A. + M.A. M.A. + Doctorate

MARRIED INDIVIDUALS: Answer the remaining questions in terms of your present marriage:
DIVORCED INDIVIDUALS: Answer the remaining questions in terms of your former marriage:

What is/was your religious affiliation? _____
Do/did you attend church? _____. If so, how often? Weekly _____
Monthly _____
More than once a year _____
Once a year or less _____

BACKGROUND DATA SHEET (Continued)

Are/were you employed? _____ If so, what is/was your occupation? _____ If not employed, did you work while married? _____. If so, what was your occupation _____ and income _____.

Please check the income range which is/was most applicable to your present/previous annual income:

$7,000-$8,999	_____	$13,000-$14,999	_____
$9,000-$10,999	_____	$15,000-$19,999	_____
$11,000-$12,999	_____	above $20,000	_____

APPENDIX C

Dear

I am presently a doctoral student in the Department of Child and Family Studies at the University of Tennessee, and I am interested in gathering data pertaining to marital stability.

You have been randomly selected to participate in my research. Your participation would involve approximately sixty minutes of your time completing four short questionnaires. All information that you provide will be held completely confidential. You have the right to refuse to participate, though I hope you will consider assisting me in my research. As a participant, you will be rewarded not only with the results of the study, but also with an interpretation of the psychological questionnaires that you have completed for me.

Within the next week, you will be notified by phone, and at that time an appointment will be set up for the interview session. I would greatly appreciate your assistance. Any questions about this research may be directed to my advisor and project director, Dr. Priscilla White.

Sincerely,

Patrick C. McKenry
Graduate Student

APPENDIX D

Dear Resident of Knoxville:

Patrick McKenry is a graduate student in the Department of Child and Family Studies at the University of Tennessee, and he is presently working on an important problem in the area of marital relations. We are asking you to participate in this doctoral research project. You have been scientifically chosen from all Knoxville residents to participate in this project.

We will be asking you some questions about your marriage (former marriage if divorced). Your help is very important to us.

All your answers will be kept confidential. No names will be recorded, and only statistical summaries such as those you have seen in newspaper opinion polls will be used.

Your cooperation in this research is greatly appreciated. Thank you for your time and effort.

Sincerely yours,

Dr. Judith Kuipers
Chairperson, Department of
Child and Family Studies

Dr. Priscilla White
Project Director

APPENDIX E

TABLE E-I

SUBCLASS MEANS FOR CARING RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY

Caring Relationship Inventory Subscales	Spouse: Husband[a] $\bar{x}$	Husband[a] SD	Spouse: Wife[a] $\bar{x}$	Wife[a] SD
		Divorced		
Other affection	9.20	3.09	7.90	3.28
Other friendship	8.95	3.61	8.45	4.49
Other eros	8.65	4.82	5.80	4.54
Other empathy	10.65	3.39	11.50	2.72
Other self-love	8.80	3.64	9.40	3.82
Other deficiency love	6.40	2.48	5.05	2.01
Other being love	10.40	3.20	9.25	3.64
Ideal affection	12.80	1.44	12.70	1.46
Ideal friendship	14.30	1.38	14.75	1.21
Ideal eros	11.75	2.63	11.60	3.60
Ideal empathy	14.40	1.43	14.45	1.47
Ideal self-love	11.75	2.47	12.85	2.21
Ideal deficiency love	7.25	1.55	7.05	2.37
Ideal being love	14.95	1.50	15.00	1.59
Ideal-Other discrepancy	31.70	11.95	34.00	14.72
		Married		
Other affection	12.15	1.87	11.90	1.99
Other friendship	13.30	2.08	14.25	2.17
Other eros	10.40	2.39	11.25	2.97
Other empathy	13.85	1.79	13.25	2.22
Other self-love	10.70	2.34	10.85	2.78
Other deficiency love	6.00	2.22	6.65	2.21
Other being love	14.70	1.95	14.55	1.99
Ideal affection	12.15	2.30	13.25	1.52
Ideal friendship	13.65	2.72	15.60	1.14
Ideal eros	11.10	3.02	12.75	2.49
Ideal empathy	13.70	2.18	14.45	2.21
Ideal self-love	10.55	1.99	12.25	2.40
Ideal deficiency love	5.90	2.38	6.95	2.24
Ideal being love	14.80	2.26	16.05	1.61
Ideal-Other discrepancy	11.95	7.67	12.90	8.84

Note: There is a direct relationship between raw score and amount of affect.

[a] $n = 20$ for each group.

APPENDIX F

TABLE F-I

SUBCLASS MEANS FOR THE MODIFIED FORM OF LOCKE'S MARITAL QUESTIONNAIRE

	Husband[a]		Wife[a]	
Marital Status	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
Divorced	79.20	16.38	72.95	14.57
Married	111.50	10.28	115.75	14.08

Note: There is a direct relationship between test scores and marital adjustment.

[a] n = 20 for each group.

APPENDIX G

TABLE G-I

SUBCLASS MEANS FOR SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

16 PF Subscale	Spouse: Husband[a] $\bar{x}$	Husband[a] SD	Spouse: Wife[a] $\bar{x}$	Wife[a] SD
		Divorced		
A Reserved-Outgoing	9.20	2.24	8.50	1.99
B Dull-Bright	5.25	1.33	5.35	1.14
C Affected by feelings-Stable	7.15	2.62	7.70	2.94
E Humble-Assertive	7.50	1.93	5.65	2.13
F Sober-Happy-go-lucky	7.25	2.53	7.10	2.40
G Expedient-Conscientious	6.45	2.54	6.60	2.98
H Shy-Venturesomeness	7.40	3.02	7.40	3.76
I Tough Minded-Tender Minded	5.70	2.47	7.55	2.31
L Trusting-Suspicious	6.45	2.16	6.00	2.18
M Practical-Imaginative	7.30	2.30	6.85	2.08
N Forthright-Astute	4.70	1.59	3.95	2.44
O Self-assured-Apprehensive	6.30	2.20	7.00	2.64
Q1 Conservative-Experimenting	7.65	2.56	7.10	2.43
Q2 Group-dependent-Self-sufficient	5.15	3.25	4.95	3.44
Q3 Undiciplined-Controlled	7.35	2.48	7.25	2.50
Q4 Relaxed-Tense	6.30	2.68	6.05	2.04
		Married		
A Reserved-Outgoing	8.70	1.46	8.20	1.88
B Dull-Bright	4.75	1.62	4.15	1.66
C Affected by feelings-Stable	7.55	2.28	6.65	1.57
E Humble-Assertive	7.00	1.89	5.45	2.35
F Sober-Happy-go-lucky	7.15	1.95	6.90	1.86
G Expedient-Conscientious	7.10	1.71	7.30	2.47
H Shy-Venturesomeness	7.70	2.64	6.40	2.91
I Tough Minded-Tender Minded	5.45	2.28	6.05	2.26
L Trusting-Suspicious	5.55	2.14	4.90	1.52
M Practical-Imaginative	5.30	2.30	5.55	1.93
N Forthright-Astute	6.05	2.37	5.75	1.94
O Self-assured-Apprehensive	6.40	2.39	7.40	2.11
Q1 Conservative-Experimenting	6.45	2.67	5.30	2.11
Q2 Group-dependent-Self-sufficient	5.55	2.11	4.95	2.11
Q3 Undiciplined-Controlled	7.45	2.01	7.90	1.92
Q4 Relaxed-Tense	6.60	1.85	7.50	2.12

Note: Raw scores were used to compute means; the scale descriptions refer to low and high scores.

[a] $n = 20$ for each group.

APPENDIX H

TABLE H-I

SUBCLASS MEANS FOR ROKEACH VALUE SURVEY

		Spouse			
		Husband[a]		Wife[a]	
	Rokeach Subscale	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
		Divorced			
TERMINAL VALUES	A comfortable life	10.60	4.43	12.00	4.26
	An exciting life	9.20	3.93	11.05	4.27
	A sense of accomplishment	7.40	4.67	7.10	3.45
	A world at peace	11.85	4.20	13.15	3.96
	A world of beauty	12.50	3.64	12.50	2.86
	Equality	10.80	4.68	12.75	4.27
	Family security	10.70	4.66	8.70	4.19
	Freedom	6.60	4.20	7.70	4.04
	Happiness	6.95	4.41	4.75	3.48
	Inner harmony	7.90	4.30	4.55	3.33
	Mature love	5.90	3.64	5.75	3.08
	National security	16.05	2.21	16.60	1.76
	Pleasure	9.65	3.75	12.90	3.46
	Salvation	14.60	5.91	12.60	6.42
	Self-respect	5.25	3.89	3.55	2.20
	Social recognition	12.15	4.20	11.95	3.73
	True friendship	6.35	4.55	6.75	3.32
	Wisdom	6.80	5.49	7.10	3.45
INSTRUMENTAL VALUES	Ambitious	11.20	4.79	10.15	4.61
	Broadminded	8.60	4.72	7.90	4.10
	Capable	8.50	4.88	7.90	4.59
	Cheerful	9.00	4.65	10.15	3.95
	Clean	12.25	5.51	13.45	4.52
	Courageous	8.95	4.41	7.95	4.37
	Forgiving	7.80	4.41	9.20	4.42
	Helpful	10.15	5.02	11.85	2.60
	Honest	5.90	4.27	4.40	3.22
	Imaginative	9.60	5.55	10.35	5.20
	Independent	9.25	5.66	6.05	5.35
	Intellectual	9.40	5.75	7.25	5.09
	Logical	8.90	4.96	10.70	3.90
	Loving	7.05	4.50	5.05	4.30
	Obedient	15.70	2.87	16.50	2.07
	Polite	10.45	5.16	14.90	2.05
	Responsible	7.20	3.65	7.40	4.44
	Self-controlled	10.90	5.18	9.80	5.44

TABLE H-I (Continued)

		Spouse			
		Husband[a]		Wife[a]	
	Rokeach Subscale	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
		Married			
TERMINAL VALUES	A comfortable life	9.60	4.32	7.75	3.63
	An exciting life	11.45	5.62	11.40	4.07
	A sense of accomplishment	7.95	4.87	9.15	4.43
	A world at peace	11.05	5.20	12.60	4.93
	A world of beauty	13.95	3.07	12.30	4.54
	Equality	12.10	3.91	12.90	4.23
	Family security	5.65	4.16	5.20	3.74
	Freedom	6.40	3.87	9.15	4.21
	Happiness	6.10	3.91	3.35	3.47
	Inner harmony	7.20	4.35	9.00	3.88
	Mature love	8.05	3.47	5.05	3.10
	National security	14.80	3.27	14.30	4.03
	Pleasure	11.70	5.07	10.90	4.35
	Salvation	11.45	6.47	10.20	6.80
	Self-respect	7.40	4.64	6.10	3.70
	Social recognition	12.45	4.44	14.90	3.21
	True friendship	8.05	3.55	7.50	3.30
	Wisdom	7.50	4.49	9.25	4.59
INSTRUMENTAL VALUES	Ambitious	6.35	4.79	8.45	5.38
	Broadminded	8.40	5.18	8.60	4.45
	Capable	7.20	3.94	8.65	4.08
	Cheerful	10.00	5.56	7.65	4.06
	Clean	11.80	4.78	11.75	4.35
	Courageous	11.30	4.69	10.60	3.39
	Forgiving	8.95	3.35	8.75	5.42
	Helpful	10.50	4.14	9.55	4.11
	Honest	6.05	4.63	5.15	4.21
	Imaginative	12.90	4.87	12.60	6.02
	Independent	7.70	4.82	10.60	5.07
	Intellectual	10.20	5.50	10.05	4.66
	Logical	9.05	4.57	11.30	4.94
	Loving	8.05	4.94	4.50	3.79
	Obedient	15.45	3.28	16.20	2.98
	Polite	12.65	4.50	11.40	4.75
	Responsible	6.85	4.37	5.10	3.26
	Self-controlled	7.65	5.24	10.50	3.99

Note: The mean scores correspond to ordinal ranking.

[a] $n = 20$ for each group.

VITA

Patrick Charles McKenry was born in Knoxville, Tennessee on June 13, 1949. He attended the Knox County Public Schools, graduating from Farragut High School in 1967. In the Summer of 1967, he entered the University of Tennessee, and he graduated magna cum laude in 1971 with a Bachelor of Arts degree, majoring in history. He was a member of Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Kappa Phi, Phi Eta, Sigma, and Eta Sigma Phi honorary societies while an undergraduate at Tennessee.

Mr. McKenry entered the Graduate School at the University of Tennessee in the Fall of 1971. He was granted the degree of Master of Science with a major in college student personnel in 1972. Mr. McKenry was employed from June, 1971 to August, 1973 at United Schools, Inc. where he was coordinator of student personnel services.

In the Fall of 1973, Mr. McKenry entered the interdisciplinary doctoral program in home economics at the University of Tennessee. While pursuing the doctorate with a concentration in individual and family behavior, Mr. McKenry held the positions of graduate teaching assistant, graduate research assistant, and instructor in the department of Child and Family Studies. In the Summer of 1974, he was awarded the degree of Master of Science with a major in child development and family relationships, and at the Fall Convocation of 1976, he was granted the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Following his graduation, Dr. McKenry accepted an appointment to the faculty of the University of Georgia in the department of Child and

Family Development. He is a member of the National Council on Family Relations, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and the American Home Economics Association.