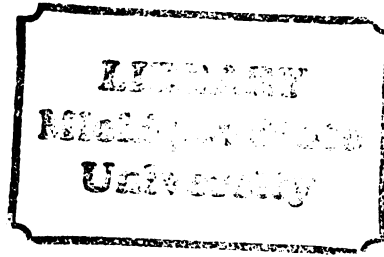


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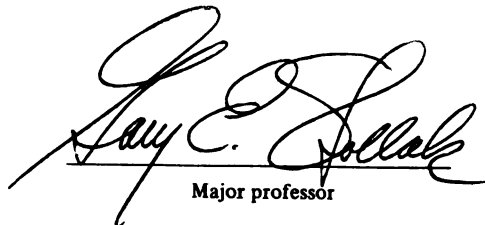
NEED PATTERNS, GENDER DIFFERENCES AND
MARITAL SATISFACTION

presented by

CARL GERALD CHENKIN

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

M.A. degree in PSYCHOLOGY


Major professor

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NEED PATTERNS, GENDER DIFFERENCES
AND MARITAL SATISFACTION

By

Carl Gerald Chenkin

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ABSTRACT

NEED PATTERNS, GENDER DIFFERENCES
AND MARITAL SATISFACTION

By

Carl Chenkin

This study investigated (a) homogeneity and heterogeneity of couples' need patterns based upon both Maslow-defined and Murray-defined needs, and (b) gender differences in need patterns, considering both in terms of their contributions to marital satisfaction. The subjects were 17 married couples.

These couples completed demographic questionnaires, Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Aronoff's Sentence Completion Test, and Edwards's Personal Preference Schedule.

The importance of complementarity and similarity for engendering marital satisfaction was found to be slight, as was the utility of Maslow-defined needs in predicting marital satisfaction.

Wives' ASCT needs had, when correlated with their couples' DAS scores at each need level, correlations that were twice as large as their husbands'. These findings were consistent with prior research

suggesting that spouses' contributions to marital satisfaction differ. Women may seek a greater proportion of their personal satisfaction from the marital relationship.

The importance of gender differences and the need for marital and personality measures that are factor analyzed separately for men and women are highlighted. The general lack of significant results and the need to utilize interpersonal and intrapersonal data in research into marital satisfaction also are discussed.

To all whose example, friendship or teachings
have contributed to me, in particular Alvin Chenkin and
Beatrice Glotzer Chenkin.

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I stand as well in debt to Sara Woodhull who has taught me much that has been invaluable to me in the completion of this thesis, as well as in other aspects of my professional and personal evolution.

"Se non e vero, e ben trovato."

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Currently, one research area of great interest for at least some psychologists and other social scientists is that of marital "success" or "failure": its components, progenitors, behavioral referents, and predictors. To investigate this area is to be confronted at the outset with the need to make decisions of several sorts on the basis of (all too often implicit) theoretical considerations.

First we must decide what after all this strange and elusive animal, "marital success," is; how to recognize it and what to call it. Various researchers call this pleasure in the marital relationship "marital happiness" (Blazer, 1963), others call it "marital satisfaction" (Miller, 1976; Burr, 1970), to give just two of the ways it has been yclept. The naming of the phenomenon by researchers results in a strong pull (or vice versa) to view it in some constricted fashion. Often the bulk of the research reminds me of the story of the blind men and the elephant. One thinks the elephant is best described by the trunk, another by its leg, etc. As Burr (1970) states, " . . . the nature of the successful marital state is predefined by the criteria that are

selected by the researchers to measure it." Furthermore, these preconditions are all too often not clearly set forth buttressed by a theoretical argument. Problems with many of the terms used are discussed by Lively (1969) in which he argues that they ought to be eliminated.

Second, and a corollary of the above, most research into marital functioning has failed to be based upon a thorough theoretical framework for the individuals' perceptions as well as the dyadic interactions, and has only differentiated among happy and unhappy couples on the basis of a few variables. These studies are more classificatory than they are explicatory. Hobbs (1965) states, "if meaningless collection of facts is to be avoided, research must be formulated in terms of theoretically cogent approaches rather than naïve practical issues."

One component of the theoretical approach of most researchers is that of the needs of the individual. There has been, in fact, much interest on the part of researchers in the role of needs in predicting level of marital satisfaction.

A recurrent question in this research has centered on the issue of the patterns of needs existing between dyadic partners, in particular whether the pattern involves complementary needs or similar needs. Winch and Ktsanes (1954) published preliminary data and Winch (1955)

followed up with his final analysis of that same data, all of which were reported as supporting the hypothesis that people choose mates who have needs in a complementary relationship to their own. According to Winch (1958), this complementary relationship can be of two sorts. Type I complementarity obtains when one need is gratified in both parties in a relationship though at greatly differing levels of intensity. Type II complementarity obtains when "A's behavior in acting out A's need x is gratifying to B's need y and B's behavior in acting out B's need y is gratifying to A's need x."

Winch studied the Murray-defined needs levels for each member of marital dyads. The determinations of needs were made on the basis of judges' evaluations of three sources of evidence: an interview, a case history, and responses to eight TAT cards. He predicted the direction of 344 spousal correlations and found that about two-thirds of his predictions were accurate. However, as Bowerman and Day (1956) point out, "although 82% of their (Winch et al., 1954) significant correlations were in the hypothesized direction, only 22% of all their correlations were significant at the .05 level, and 34% of all their correlations were in the opposite direction to that hypothesized, in spite of the fact that they selected the 344 paired need correlations which they believed had the best chance of fitting their theory."

Winch's research is of dubious value even without

supporting or debunking the need-complementarity theory because of another problem. There is the strong likelihood of there being systematic sex-linked differences in the general levels of needs on at least several of the scales, which would serve to confound the marital correlations that he found. Consider that, in 1954, if one were to choose a number of Murrayan needs (dominance, abasement, and deference, to choose but three) and asked to predict solely upon the basis of expected differences due to gender, what the spousal correlations would be, we might very probably predict that we would have men scoring high on dominance, with their wives scoring high on abasement. It comes as little surprise, then, that Winch in fact found strong correlations in this direction that were "in support of" his complementarity theory. This consistent gender-linked difference certainly serves to vitiate the generalizability of the results over differing times and Zeitgeists, not to mention Weltanschauungen. Additionally, I suggest that the systematic differences indicate that, dependent as they were upon available strategies for interactions, rather than upon what will be later described as "deep" needs, the results are uninformative.

There is, then, less statistical support for the complementarity theory than Winch indicates, and the logical grounding of even that support is quite muddled.

Bowerman and Day (1956) attempted to replicate

Winch's results using EPPS scores from 60 couples comprised of college students who either were just married or were self-described as "regular dating partners." They selected needs on the EPPS which were most clearly related to those used by Winch. They found no support for complementarity as a dominant trend in need patterns: only 19 correlations out of 225 computed were significant at the .05 level, and of these, only five were in the direction which would support the complementarity theory, the others supporting homogamy as contributing to marital satisfaction.

In an attempt to reconcile the quite-different results obtained by Winch on the one hand and Bowerman and Day on the other, Schellenberg and Bee (1960) gave the EPPS to both married and unmarried couples to account for one possible source of the variation in the results of the two studies discussed above. They also corrected for systematic sex differences in the EPPS scores. Their results corroborated Bowerman and Day's results, with some slight support of the similarity (homogeneity) position, as opposed to that of complementarity.

Centers and Granville (1971) compared the predictive ability of Winch's complementarity theory to that of the theory of need gratification as proposed by Schutz. Schutz (1958) suggests that there are three areas in which needs operate in dyads. These areas are inclusion-- "the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory

relation with people with respect to interaction and association"; control--"the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to control and power"; and affection--"the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to love and affection."

Schutz considers compatibility to be isomorphic with marital need-gratification and says that there are three dimensions which underlie this mutual need-gratification. The first underlying dimension is what Schutz calls "interchange compatibility." He hypothesizes that "desire to originate and the desire to receive the behavioral commodity involved are independent" (Centers and Granville, 1971, p. 29). Thus, interchange compatibility exists when both members of a dyad have a similar amount of desire to interchange behaviors to gratify a need. His second dimension is "originator compatibility." Schutz predicts that for originator compatibility, dyadic members exhibit complementary desires to be the originators or the receivers of need-gratifying behaviors. Third, Schutz suggests that the actual behaviors shared in a relationship would be isomorphic with regard to the other's desired behaviors. This he calls "reciprocal compatibility."

Centers and Granville found no support for Winch's complementarity theory and support for only two of Schutz's dimensions of need gratification. These were

interchange compatibility and reciprocal compatibility. A discussion of possible causes of this only partial support for Schutz's hypotheses is presented later.

What we find then in the literature on need-gratification in marriage is that there is virtually no support for the complementarity theory, little more for the obverse, namely the homogamy theory, and great confusion about the role of needs in determining marital satisfaction. More recently, research on marital satisfaction and needs has investigated what appears to be gender-oriented differences in patterns of needs, and different demands upon the marriage for husbands than for wives. This research is considered in the Discussion section.

An approach to human needs different from that proposed by Murray is presented by Abraham Maslow. It may prove more illuminating when utilized in investigations into marital satisfaction.

Maslow (1954), in Motivation and Personality, offered a theory of motivation based upon a theory involving core needs. Briefly, Maslow posited a hierarchy of needs beginning with physiological needs (hunger, thirst, etc.); then safety needs (order, security, etc.); love and belongingness needs (affection); esteem needs (recognition, mastery, etc.); and self-actualization needs. This hierarchy would be the normal and in our culture necessary progression of needs which an individual

must seek to gratify for satisfactory living.

Maslow states that the more basic needs are prepotent vis-à-vis those that follow them. The higher needs cannot dominate until the lower ones have become gratified. As they are gratified, the need for further gratification becomes diminished, until a complete gratification results in total (if possibly temporary) extinguishing of the need.

These need categories (safety, esteem, etc.) were called by Maslow meta-needs. They are types of needs, which can be expressed in a variety of ways. These types or categories of needs clustered together analogous needs, and were represented by Maslow as being the "atoms" of need theory. Some of them can be further broken down--e.g., hunger can be seen as physiological needs for many chemicals, salts, etc.--but it is at this level of meta-need that the role of needs gratification is perhaps most clear. These are the needs that we seek to gratify. We can think of them as need-contents which can take many need-forms. The need-forms, such as those described by Murray, and subsequent interpersonal behaviors, can further be conceptualized as different individuals' strategies (often unconscious) developed to gratify the underlying meta-needs.

In reconsidering the earlier studies of the contribution of need gratification to marital satisfaction with this perspective, we understand that while they

purported to be analyzing needs, they could, in fact, have been considering strategies for gratifying meta-needs. Thus, e.g., behaviors which might have been interpreted as expressing dominance needs might, in fact, have been designed to satisfy any of a variety of meta-needs. The implication is that similar-seeming behaviors do not necessarily mean similar things. Winch predicts that couples would show complementarity of needs. In this perspective, this prediction becomes translated as follows: a successful dyadic relationship will bring complementary strategies to bear upon the problem of need-gratification. Nowhere, however, in the studies, has anyone pinpointed what the actual needs (meta-needs) are, so it is difficult to understand how complementarity or similarity can be sensibly assessed. The low correlations found both for complementarity and for homogamy are not surprising when viewed in this light.

There are many implications of this "new" approach (namely using Maslow's need clusters instead of Murray's need). One, people can have a variety of strategies for gratifying a need of theirs (or a need of another person). Two, behaviors can gratify different needs. Three, people by defining behaviors that can gratify a need are defining types of situations in which the need might be gratifiable. For example, if a man feels that it is necessary to propose to someone with whom he wishes to have sexual relations, he is probably defining marriage as a situation in

which he expects to gratify sexual desires (note that this example is perhaps an unfortunate choice in that sexual desires themselves can be expressions of physiological needs, esteem needs, etc.). Four, these situations need not be the same for each partner; nor is it clear that it is usual for the situations to be the same for each. That is, while one partner is gratifying esteem needs, for example, the other could well be gratifying safety needs. To expect a clear pattern of complementary or homogamous strategies for gratifying what might well be different meta-needs might therefore not be fruitful.

Consider the hypotheses of Schutz using this perspective. Schutz states that there are three areas of needs, which are similar in nature to Maslowian meta-needs in that they are clusters of needs which can find gratification through any number of strategies. To then compare Schutz's need theory to Winch's as Centers and Granville did is unelucidating.

Schutz further states that there are three underlying dimensions. Some of his statements about these dimensions are summarized below:

1. Desires to originate and to receive behaviors are independent of each other
2. Interchange compatibility is the result of similar amounts of interchange desired
3. Reciprocal compatibility is the result of behaviors being interchanged which respond to the other's

needs

4. Originator compatibility is the result of complementary distribution of desire to receive and desire to originate behaviors that will gratify needs.

Considering these ideas in the light of Maslow's theory we would find that the first of these statements would be disputed by meta-need theory. Since operant meta-needs suffuse much of the individual's sensory apparatus and behaviors (as an example, when we are hungry, we are more likely to see or hear references to food), we would expect some correlation. Schutz's own data support the Maslowian position on this statement.

The fourth statement, as a corollary of the first, we would also expect not to be true. It, too, failed to gain support in the Centers and Granville study.

The second statement can be translated to read that couples whose partners are operating upon similar meta-needs will be more compatible than other couples will be. Since need level is hypothesized to be correlated with accuracy of perception and cognitive complexity, if only because by passing through various stages we would expect to develop a facility with or exposure to a wider range of behavioral strategies, we would expect this to be true. Someone who is very good at satisfying another's needs is not so likely to choose to remain with a spouse who is relatively unable to gratify him or her.

The third statement is to some degree a restatement of our definition of marital satisfaction. Thus we would expect this to be borne out.

In fact, only these two of the four Schutz statements were supported by the Centers and Granville study. We are encouraged then to approach the role of needs in marriages using Maslow's meta-need theory.

In keeping with the above, there is a basic issue that has informed this study. This is the relative importance of the homogeneity-heterogeneity axis, compared to the "surface need"-"deep need" continuum. Accordingly, research questions have been formed to consider several issues. One compares the utility of the Aronoff Sentence Completion Test (ASCT) or "deep needs" to that of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) or "surface needs" in considering the development of marital satisfaction. Another investigates the utility of examining interdyadic responses on these measures for evidence of homogeneity or heterogeneity. A third considers the relative utility of looking at interpersonal versus interdyadic factors.

Several types of couple patterns have been considered in investigating the importance of needs in developing marital satisfaction. One is the overall level of the couple for any particular need. Since the meta-need perspective is hypothesized to have more utility than the older Murrayan approach, it was expected that

couples' composite (summed) scores on the ASCT ought to be better predictors of marital satisfaction than the couple composite (summed) scores on the various scales of the EPPS.

Another type of couple pattern considered here involved the size of the differences between the scores of dyadic partners. A positive correlation between difference score and marital satisfaction would have been supportive of the heterogeneity theory, while the obverse would have been supportive of the homogeneity theory.

It was expected, that as the deep-need perspective was hypothesized to have greater utility in explicating marital adjustment, that the couples' mental advancement (summed scores) on the ASCT ought to be better predictors of marital satisfaction than the couples' difference scores (measured by their summed squared differences) on either the ASCT or the EPPS.

METHOD

Subjects

Subjects in this study were seventeen married couples. Their participation was sought in one of two ways. Letters were distributed to all couples living in Michigan State University married student housing briefly explaining the nature of the study and outlining the investment of time being asked of volunteers. Those who were interested in hearing more about the study returned postcards that had been provided to them. The second manner in which participants were sought was through giving talks to several Lamaze childbirth classes and parent groups in New Jersey. After these talks, couples' participation was solicited. All sample couples were volunteers.

Demographic data on the sample couples follow. The mean age of husbands was 40.06 years, with a minimum of 22 years and a maximum of 70. The mean age of wives was 37.65 years with the youngest being 22 years old and the oldest being 59. The average length of marriage for the couples was 162.75 months. The couple married for the shortest length of time had been married for 13 months. The marriage of greatest duration had at the

time lasted for thirty-seven years and ten months.

The husbands' mean number of years of education was 17.35 years (undergraduate degree plus some graduate work). The wives' mean number of years of education was 15.35 years.

Approximately fifty percent of the men were professionals. About one-third of the wives were secretaries and one-third were professionals.

Men's own individual mean income was approximately \$20,000. The wives' incomes averaged approximately \$12,500.

The couples had an average of 1.53 children.

In general, this sample was well educated and middle-class. The husbands tended to be older, better educated, earn more and work in more prestigious occupations than their wives.

Instruments

Three measures were utilized in this study.

The first measure is the Spanier Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) which was used as the dependent measure. The DAS was created by factor analyzing all of the then developed and accepted measures of marital satisfaction and happiness. It is a relatively short and simple scale, and has been validated fairly thoroughly. It may be taken independently by the members of a couple, enabling examination of systematic differences between sexes and the spouses, and allowing for

the possibility of examining the importance of marital differences in self reports of marital satisfaction.

The Aronoff Sentence Completion Test is designed to elicit material that will enable scorers to place the subjects on the continuum of different need levels as was proposed by Maslow. It is proposed that these underlying needs provide the motivation for the various strategies that people devise for their interactions with each other and with their environment. For this measure, interrater reliability levels have been ascertained. It has been measured between .68 and .89 for safety needs, between .66 and .86 for love and belongingness needs, and between .75 and .92 for esteem needs.

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) was used as the measure for "surface" needs, primarily because it has been the most common measure of this sort of marital need, historically.

The reliability of the EPPS has been assessed extensively. The split-half reliability coefficients for the fifteen personality variables range from a low of .60 to a high of .87 as measured over 1509 subjects in the college student age group. Test-retest reliability coefficients range from .74 to .88 for a group of 89 students, each of whom took the EPPS twice with a week separating the test administration (EPPS manual). The intercorrelations of the variables are generally low (with a high of -.36).

The influence of social desirability upon the EPPS

results has been examined by correlating the EPPS scales with both a measure of social desirability and the K scale from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. For the social desirability measure and the EPPS, the highest correlation was $-.33$ and the low was $-.01$.

The validity of the EPPS has been investigated, with rather spotty results. Bernardin and Jessor (1957) considered the construct validity of the deference and autonomy subscales, looking at them as aspects of the dependency-independence continuum. They found that independent and dependent people, labeled as a result of their scores on the autonomy and deference subscales, did show significantly different results in the predicted direction in experiments ascertaining their reliance on others' approval and help. They did not, however, differ in their display of group conformity.

Gisvold (1958) related the deference and autonomy scales to a group conformity measure devised by Asch. He found that the correlation between the conformity scores and the autonomy scores was significant (at the $.02$ level), while the corresponding correlation for the deference scales and the conformity scores was not significant.

Melikian (1958) compared McClelland's measure of achievement motivation to the achievement subscale on the EPPS, and found no relationship between the measures.

Zuckerman (1958) found that peer ratings of student nurses for submissiveness, conformity, dependence and

rebelliousness differentiated high scorers on the combination of autonomy, deference and abasement scales from the others, as well as low scorers on the combination of deference, succorance and abasement scales from high scorers.

It is suggested that part of the difficulty in validating the EPPS (note the Melikian results) stems from a fact that such psychological constructs as achievement motivation may find quite varied forms of expression, while the EPPS examines only a limited range of these. As Melikian indicates, the EPPS questions on this subscale refer only to one type of achievement, namely the "hope for success" form.

Procedures

All of these measures were self-administered. After return of a postcard indicated interest in participation in the study, or after choosing to participate during a Lamaze or parent group meeting, packets were administered to the volunteers. The packets included the following:

1. explanation of study
2. demographic information sheet (2) husband and wife
3. consent form (2) husband and wife
4. Dyadic Adjustment Scale (2) husband and wife
5. Aronoff Sentence Completion Test (2) husband and wife

6. Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (2)

husband and wife

7. all the appropriate answer sheets, clearly defined.

The information sheet and the DAS, the ASCT and the EPPS are reproduced in Appendices A-D, respectively.

The investigator remained present while members of the couple read the explanation of the study and responded to any questions. It was emphasized that dyad members were to complete the measures individually and without comparing responses. They were requested to complete the forms in the order presented in the packet. When couples had finished the forms they were returned via mail in previously stamped and addressed envelopes.

RESULTS

In order to test the various hypotheses, several types of comparisons were made between the capability of the ASCT and of the EPPS to predict marital satisfaction. Since, as will be seen, the magnitude of the correlations was low and generally failed to reach statistical significance, a correlation of .3 ($p < .12$) was selected post hoc as being of sufficient strength to warrant further consideration.

For purposes of clarity, hypothesis number one is here restated:

H₁: Couples' composite scores on the ASCT are better predictors of marital satisfaction than are couples' composite scores on the various scales of the EPPS.

To test this hypothesis, comparisons were made between correlations of couples' scores on each of the two independent measures with Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). For the purposes of these comparisons, scores on the scales of the EPPS were each summed over couples, as were the scores for the various Maslowian stages as measured by the ASCT. Spouses' scores on the DAS were similarly summed to provide a couple's measure of marital satisfaction. The relevant data can be found in

Table 1.

As can be seen, couples' DAS scores were not significantly correlated with couples' scores on the ASCT or on the EPPS for any of the scales. The correlations for the various Maslow stages were uniformly low. There were several correlations among the EPPS scales that exceeded .3, specifically the couples' Order needs and Deference needs. However, they all failed to reach statistical significance as well. There is, then, little to support the hypothesis that a couple's score on the ASCT is a better predictor of the couple's marital satisfaction than is the couple's score on the EPPS (or that either is particularly useful).

The second hypothesis was as follows:

H₂: Couples' composite scores on the ASCT are better predictors of marital satisfaction than are the summed squared difference scores of the couple for the EPPS scales.

These correlations are also presented in Table 1. None of the composite scores on the ASCT reached statistical significance when correlated with the couples' DAS scores. Two of the summed squared difference scores on the EPPS reached statistical significance, namely Deference and Intraception (which latter was negatively correlated). Another EPPS scale, Dominance, exceeded a .3 correlation. There is thus no support for the hypothesis that total advancement of the couple on the Maslow hierarchy is a better predictor of marital satisfaction than consideration of the couple's heterogeneity or homogeneity. There

TABLE 1

COUPLES' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH COUPLES' EPPS AND ASCT SCORES

	ASCT															
	CACH	CORD	CDEF	CEXH	CAUT	CINT	CSUC	CDOM	CABA	CNUR	CEND	CHET	CAGG	CSFT	CAFF	CEST
CDAS r=	.20	.37	.31	-.08	-.16	.10	-.25	.08	-.05	-.22	.24	-.23	.11	.14	.09	.04
p=	.22	.07	.11	.39	.27	.36	.17	.38	.43	.20	.17	.18	.34	.29	.36	.43

COUPLES' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH COUPLES' SUMMED SQUARED DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE EPPS AND ASCT

	ASCT															
	SQD- ACH	SQD- ORD	SQD- DEF	SQD- EXH	SQD- AUT	SQD- INT	SQD- DOM	SQD- DABA	SQD- DNUR	SQD- DCHG	SQD- DEND	SQD- DIET	SQD- DAGG	SQDSFT	SQDAFF	SQDEST
CDAS r=	-.27	-.12	.51*	-.27	-.19	-.46*	.36	.07	.08	.10	.00	-.27	-.24	-.04	-.17	.23
p=	.14	.32	.02	.15	.23	.03	.07	.39	.39	.34	.50	.15	.17	.44	.26	.18

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

is little support, as well, for the position that examination of the similarity or complementarity of the couple's responses will lead to understanding of the couple's marital satisfaction.

The third hypothesis is stated as follows:

H₃: Couple's composite scores on the ASCT are better predictors of marital satisfaction than are their summed squared difference scores on the ASCT. The relevant data are again presented in Table 1.

None of these correlations approach statistical significance and their magnitude generally was low. Hence there is little evidence that either the complementary-similarity pattern of the couple, or the total progress made on the Maslowian need hierarchy, is a useful predictor of marital satisfaction.

The fourth hypothesis is that:

H₄: Couples' summed squared difference scores on the ASCT are better predictors of marital satisfaction than are their summed squared difference scores on the EPPS.

These correlations are also presented in Table 1. Since none of the ASCT scores herein presented approached statistical significance, this hypothesis is unsupported by the data.

In order to consider the differences due to gender, several comparisons were made. Husbands' and wives' DAS scores were all correlated with their own ASCT and with their own EPPS scores. These data are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

HUSBANDS' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH HUSBANDS' EPPS AND ASCT SCORES

ASCT																			
HACH HORD HDEF HEXH HAUT HAFF HINT HSUC HDOM HABA HNUR HCHG HEND HHET HAGG																			
HSFT HAFE HEST																			
HDAS	r =	.07	.35	-.04	-.06	-.12	-.09	.23	-.16	.08	-.16	-.28	.18	-.09	-.16	.31	-.18	-.01	.11
	p =	.39	.08	.44	.40	.32	.37	.18	.26	.38	.26	.14	.25	.37	.27	.11	.22	.49	.33

WIVES' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH WIVES' EPPS AND ASCT SCORES

																	ASCT		
																	WSFT WAFF WEST		
WACH	WORD	WDEF	WEXH	WAUT	WAFT	WINT	WSUC	WDOM	WABA	WNUR	WCHG	WEND	WHET	WAGG					
WDAS	r =	.30	.31	.39	.08	-.19	-.13	-.36	-.23	-.01	-.07	-.06	-.15	.56*	-.21	-.13	.39	.25	.06
	p =	.12	.11	.06	.38	.23	.31	.08	.18	.48	.39	.41	.28	.01	.20	.31	.06	.16	.41

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

Husbands' DAS scores are correlated at or above the .3 level with their Order and Aggression needs. Wives' DAS scores are correlated at this criterion with their Achievement, Order, Deference, Endurance and (negatively) Intraception and Safety needs.

To consider whether men and women contribute differently to a couple's marital satisfaction, couple's DAS scores were correlated with husbands' and with wives' ASCT and EPPS scores. These correlations are presented in Table 3.

As can be seen in Table 3, only two of the EPPS scales for the husbands had correlations over .3, i. e., Order and Intraception. Four of the wives' scores on the various EPPS scales had correlations over .3: Achievement, Deference, Endurance and Intraception (this last being negatively correlated). On the ASCT, none of the husbands' scores were correlated at the .3 criterion while one of the wives' was, namely Safety needs.

Husbands' and wives' DAS scores were also correlated with their spouses' EPPS and ASCT scores. These correlations are presented in Table 4.

Husbands' DAS scores are correlated at the .3 level with their wives' Achievement and Intraception scores. Wives' DAS scores are correlated with their husbands' needs for Order, Intraception, and (negatively correlated) Exhibitionism, Succorance, and Heterosexuality.

While the correlations are small, husbands' DAS

TABLE 3

COUPLES' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH HUSBANDS' EPPS AND ASCT SCORES

	HACH	HORD	HDEF	HEXH	HAUT	HAFF	HSUC	HINT	HDOM	HABA	HNUR	HCHG	HEND	HHET	HAGG	HSFT	HAFT	HEST
CDAS r =	-.02	.40	.03	-.21	-.07	-.04	-.25	.33	.17	-.07	-.24	.10	-.06	-.27	.22	-.16	-.12	-.01
p =	.47	.06	.45	.21	.40	.44	.17	.10	.25	.39	.17	.35	.41	.15	.19	.26	.33	.50

COUPLES' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH WIVES' EPPS AND ASCT SCORES

	WACH	WORD	WDEF	WEXH	WAUT	WAFF	WSUC	WINT	WDOM	WABA	WNUR	WCHG	WEND	WHET	WAGG	WSFT	WAFF	WEST
CDAS r =	.34	.19	.35	.13	-.22	-.12	-.16	-.40*	-.06	.02	-.09	-.16	.45*	-.14	-.06	.36	.24	.05
p =	.09	.23	.09	.31	.20	.32	.27	.05	.40	.47	.37	.27	.04	.30	.41	.08	.18	.42

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

TABLE 4
HUSBANDS' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH WIVES' EPPS AND ASCT SCORES

	ASCT													
	WACH	WORD	WDEF	WEXH	WAUT	WAFF	WINT	WSUC	WDOM	WABA	WNUR	WCHG	WEND	WHET
	WSFT WAFF WEST													
HDAS	r =	.36	.03	.27	.17	-.23	-.11	-.42*	-.06	-.11	.12	-.11	-.16	.28
														-.05
														.03
														.29
														.20
														.04
	p =	.08	.45	.15	.25	.19	.34	.05	.41	.34	.32	.33	.27	.14
														.43
														.46
														.13
														.22
														.44

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

WIVES' DAS SCORES CORRELATED WITH HUSBANDS' EPPS AND ASCT SCORES

	ASCT													
	HACH	HORD	HDEF	HEXH	HAUT	HAFF	HINT	HSUC	HDOM	HABA	HNUR	HCHG	HEND	HHET
	HSFT HAFF HEST													
WDAS	r =	-.10	.41*	.09	-.31	-.03	.01	.39	-.30	.25	.01	-.20	.02	-.03
														-.34
														.13
														-.12
														-.20
														-.11
	p =	.35	.05	.36	.11	.46	.49	.06	.12	.17	.48	.22	.46	.45
														.09
														.31
														.32
														.22
														.34

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

scores are more correlated with their wives' Safety and Affiliation needs than with their own, while wives' DAS scores are more correlated with their husbands' Esteem needs than with their own.

The intercorrelations among the EPPS scales were computed for husbands and for wives. These correlations are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

TABLE 5
WIVES' EPPS INTERCORRELATIONS

	WACH	WORD	WDEF	WEXH	WAUT	WAFF	WINT	WSUC	WDOM	WABA	WNUR	WCHG	WEND	WHET	WAGG	WCON
WACH	r = 1.000	.11	.11	.43	-.10	-.62	.17	-.03	.26	-.26	-.46	-.58	.08	.06	.15	-.37
	p = -	.33	.34	.04*	.35	.01*	.26	.45	.16	.16	.03*	.01*	.38	.41	.28	.09
WORD	r =	1.000	.61	-.30	.26	-.51	-.29	-.28	.20	-.24	-.47	-.51	.49	-.08	-.06	-.60
	p =	-	.01*	.12	.15	.02*	.13	.14	.22	.18	.03*	.02*	.02*	.37	.40	.01*
WDEF	r =		1.000	.07	.11	-.42	-.41	-.40	.08	.05	-.28	-.46	.55	-.07	-.26	-.03
	p =		-	.40	.33	.04*	.05*	.06	.39	.42	.14	.03*	.01*	.40	.15	.45
WEXH	r =			1.000	-.06	-.12	.05	.08	-.27	-.19	-.16	-.15	-.13	.30	-.12	-.01
	p =			-	.40	.32	.42	.38	.15	.22	.27	.28	.31	.13	.32	.49
WAUT	r =				1.000	-.42	.18	-.21	-.22	-.22	-.63	-.01	.04	-.15	.36	-.12
	p =				-	.05*	.24	.20	.20	.20	.01*	.49	.44	.48	.08	.32
WAFF	r =					1.000	-.17	.24	-.31	.14	.62	.82	-.43	.24	-.39	.39
	p =					-	.26	.18	.11	.29	.01*	.01*	.04*	.18	.06	.06
WINT	r =						1.000	-.01	.30	-.44	-.08	-.03	-.23	-.01	.22	.14
	p =						-	.49	.12	.04	.39	.45	.19	.49	.19	.29
WSUC	r =							1.000	-.42	.33	.19	.10	-.42	.06	-.16	-.35
	p =							-	.05*	.10	.23	.35	.05*	.41	.26	.09
WDOM	r =								1.000	.31	.02	-.33	.26	.31	.18	.14
	p =								-	.11	.47	.10	.16	.12	.25	.29
WABA	r =									1.000	.45	-.09	.18	-.47	.12	.12
	p =									-	.03*	.37	.25	.03*	.32	.32
WNUR	r =										1.000	.40	-.02	-.26	-.36	.42
	p =										-	.06	.47	.15	.08	.05*
WCHG	r =											1.000	-.46	.26	-.29	.43
	p =											-	.03*	.16	.13	.04*

TABLE 5--continued

		WACH	WORD	WDEF	WEXH	WAUT	WAFF	WINT	WSUC	WDOM	WABA	WNUR	WCHG	WEND	WHET	WAGG	WCON
WEND	r =													1.000	-.65	.03	-.04
	p =													-	.01*	.45	.44
WHET	r =													1.000	-.36	-.06	
	p =													-	.08	.41	
WAGG	r =													1.000	-.19		
	p =													-	.24		
WCON	r =													1.000			
	p =													-			

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

TABLE 6

HUSBANDS' EPPS INTERCORRELATIONS

HACH HORD HDEF HEXH HAUT HAFF HINT HSUC HDOM HABA HNUR HCHG HEND HHET HAGG HCON																	
HACH	r =	1.000	.04	-.11	-.07	-.29	-.02	-.02	-.18	.25	-.45	-.15	-.29	.13	.16	.10	-.04
	p =	-	.43	.33	.39	.13	.47	.47	.24	.17	.03*	.28	.13	.31	.27	.36	.44
HORD	r =	1.000	.08	-.21	-.23	-.22	-.17	.08	-.26	-.01	-.31	-.01	.39	.05	-.17	-.37	
	p =	-	.38	.21	.18	.20	.25	.38	.16	.50	.07	.49	.06	.42	.26	.07	
HDEF	r =	1.000	-.22	-.19	-.14	.30	.05*	.21	.20	.21	.31	.32	.39	.26	.36	.40	
	p =	-	.20	.24	.30	.07	.01*	.44	.39	.23	.08	.41	.48	.02*	.04*	.24	
HEXH	r =	1.000	.11	-.38	-.58	-.04	.07	-.19	-.36	.06	.06	.01	.51	.44	-.18		
	p =	-	.33	.07	.01*	.44	.39	.23	.08	.41	.48	.02*	.04*	.24			
HAUT	r =	1.000	-.25	-.23	-.31	-.14	.06	-.33	-.05	-.54	.39	.38	-.34				
	p =	-	.16	.19	.12	.29	.41	.10	.42	.01*	.06	.06	.09				
HAFF	r =	1.000	.21	.25	.19	-.09	.77	.15	.07	-.41	-.69	.12					
	p =	-	.21	.17	.23	.37	.01*	.28	.39	.05*	.01*	.32					
HINT	r =	1.000	.11	.23	.10	.44	-.22	-.06	-.74	-.27	.27						
	p =	-	.34	.18	.35	.04*	.20	.42	.01*	.14	.14						
HSUC	r =	1.000	-.50	.05	.35	.38	-.15	-.06	-.32	.25							
	p =	-	.02*	.42	.08	.06	.28	.41	.10	.17							
HDOM	r =	1.000	-.36	.12	-.19	.29	-.17	-.03	.24								
	p =	-	.08	.32	.23	.13	.25	.46	.17								
HABA	r =	1.000	.11	-.37	-.04	-.49	.09	-.12									
	p =	-	.34	.07	.45	.02*	.37	.32									
HNUR	r =	1.000	-.03	.20	-.60	-.72	.28										
	p =	-	.45	.22	.01*	.01*	.14										
HCHG	r =	1.000	-.10	.23	-.12	.36											
	p =	-	.34	.19	.33	.08											

TABLE 6--continued

	HACH	HORD	HDEF	HEXH	HAUT	HAFF	HINT	HSUC	HDOM	HABA	HNUR	HCHG	HEND	HHET	HAGG	HCON
HEND	r =												1.000	-.26	-.47	-.14
	p =												-	.16	.03*	.29
HHET	r =												1.000	.43	-.13	
	p =												-	.04*	.31	
HAGG	r =													1.000	-.03	
	p =													-	.45	
HCON	r =														1.000	
	p =														-	

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

DISCUSSION

Much attention has been paid, over the years, to the roles that the needs of the members of a dyad might play in determining marital satisfaction. Generally, the research into this issue has centered on needs such as those that have been delineated by Henry Murray. Another approach to the nature of needs has been posited by Abraham Maslow, who theorized that a hierarchy of needs exists which includes physical and emotional safety needs, affiliation needs, self-esteem and self-actualization needs. This study was an attempt to compare the utility of these two disparate approaches to need theory, in terms of predicting levels of marital satisfaction.

Research into marital satisfaction also has been concerned with the types of patterns of needs that are predictive of marital harmony, most notably whether a complementary or a similar pattern increases dyadic happiness (Winch, 1954; Schellenberg, J. A. and Bee, L. S., 1960; Murstein, 1967). A further concern was to understand the different approaches of men and of women to marriage, to consider how the genders differ in what is sought and the means used to attain their goals. The results of this study were examined in the light of these last two

concerns.

Prior to engaging in a discussion of the results, a general caveat needs to be tendered. The results consistently failed to support any of the hypotheses. Overall, 382 correlations were considered of which only 50 (13%) were statistically significant; however, none of these were as originally hypothesized. This failure needs to be considered with the following factors in mind. Foremost is the fact that the sample size was too small to provide for statistically significant results due to the magnitude of correlations under investigation. For the purposes of speculation about trends suggested by the data, a correlation level of .3 ($p < .12$) was selected ex post facto as being of possible interest. Second, the sample yielded a surprisingly high intra-dyadic marital satisfaction correlation of .85 on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. This compared to findings of .60 in a prior study (Bertram, 1981). This vitiates the ability to evaluate need differences that may have been gender determined, by providing for less difference than might otherwise have been expected, across dyads.

With the foregoing in mind, I shall briefly speculate on the nature of some of the findings and some of their possible ramifications. The comparisons between the Aronoff Sentence Completion Test and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule are generally unilluminating. The correlations mostly are low and the number of significant correlations that were as hypothesized to occur does not equal 5% of the correlations. There is little in these data to recommend

either measure as being a good predictor of marital satisfaction. There are several correlations that were noteworthy, however, and which do seem to offer possible insight into what has made these marriages satisfying to the dyads involved. These correlations tend to be most interesting in the light of gender differences.

There are many differences suggested by the data that exist between husbands and wives on each of the independent measures. On the EPPS there are five scales that for wives are correlated above the .3 level with their own marital satisfaction score, though only one of these (Endurance) reached statistical significance. These five scales are Achievement, Order, Deference, Endurance, and Intracception (which last was negatively correlated). Thus, there is a suggestion in these results that the wives in this sample who were motivated to do difficult work well, to accomplish things, to defer to the leadership of others, to be organized and systematic, to adhere to routine, to stick to problem resolution even when it appears as if no progress is being made, and who are relatively uninterested in their own feelings and motives as well as those of others, are most likely to have reported being satisfied with their marriages. For men, only two of the EPPS scales are correlated at the .3 level with their own marital satisfaction. These are Order and Aggression.

When considering which EPPS scales are correlated with a spouse's marital satisfaction, a similar pattern

unfolds. Again, wives' satisfaction is correlated at or beyond the .3 level with five of their husbands' EPPS scale scores. These are Order, Intraception, and (negatively correlated) Exhibitionism, Succorance and Heterosexuality. Husbands' marital satisfaction is correlated at the same level with but two of their wives' EPPS scores, Achievement and Intraception (negatively correlated). Again, there is a suggestion that the wives in our sample tended to be dependent for their marital satisfaction upon being deferent, well organized, persistent, determined and relatively uninterested in feelings and motivations. There is a tendency for women who characterized themselves as being in satisfactory marriages to be married to men who are orderly and systematic and relatively interested in feelings and the underlying motivations that inspire behaviors. Their husbands also tend not to need to be the center of attention, nor to be sympathetically looked after, nor to be relatively interested in sex and sexuality or general heterosexual activities.

Husbands' marital satisfaction is relatively correlated with their own Order and Aggression needs. Satisfied husbands tend to be married to wives who are motivated to persist in doing something well, and who are also relatively uninterested in feelings and motivations and understanding others.

These findings are suggestive of a difference between husbands and wives. One could speculate that wives expect a greater range and variety of their personal

needs to be met through the marital relationship than do husbands. Husbands might be relatively satisfied, for example, simply if their wives are not preoccupied with feelings and are motivated to be persistent in accomplishing difficult work. Their spouses, however, tend to demand of them that they conform to preferred behaviors in more numerous ways. Further, husbands' marital satisfaction might be dependent upon little in their own need structure while these wives tend to fall into a more particular pattern of needs as their marital satisfaction increases.

Added to the above is the additional factor that the wives' mean dyadic adjustment score is similar to and indeed marginally greater than their husbands', and their standard deviations are approximately 15% greater. Ordinarily we would expect that if women are more particular, they would experience more difficulty in maintaining satisfactory relationships, yet this was not the case. All of this suggests a greater involvement in marriages for wives than for their husbands. It is their persistence and determination to succeed that establishes the tone of the relationship. Their husbands are generally less interested in working to change or to improve the relationship, probably because they gain greater satisfactions for themselves outside their marriages, most likely through their work, than their wives do. The wives average out to be about as happy as their husbands but the variety is

greater, there are greater extremes, because, it is theorized, marital relationships have greater salience to the general emotional satisfaction of wives than to that of their husbands, their gratifications and their disappointments are both greater. This is consonant with the typical clinical pattern which finds that in the preponderance of couples seeking therapy the wife initiates contact and the professional service is sought at her behest.¹

These findings, that men and women respond differently to marriage and have different expectations of the marital relationship, are consonant with prior research. Bernard (1972) stated, "There is now a very considerate body of well-authenticated research to show that there really are two marriages in every union and that they do not always coincide." It is, however, less clear precisely what has brought about those differences, and what impact the changes in economic and political life in the past two decades have had on these gender differences. We find, for example, that wives in our sample who had relatively high Achievement needs tended to rate their marriages as more satisfying. In attempting to explicate such a finding, the difficulty of using such essentially intrapersonally defined characteristics (Spanier and Lewis, 1980) becomes clear. Achievement needs can be met in and out of the marital relationship, in a myriad of settings and within variegated forms, yet taken by itself, Achievement needs as measured by the EPPS will

agglomerate all of these. It seems probable that men will tend to have many of their Achievement needs met through their role as worker or breadwinner. Women have tended not to have this option, although recently this arena is becoming more accessible to them. If, then, Achievement needs can sensibly be merged into a monolithic concept, we might expect that wives who work probably have greater Achievement needs than wives who do not and that they will report their marriages to be happier. Past research, however, suggests (Nye, 1961; Grover, 1963) that women who are not working are likely to rate their marriages as happier than working women do. Some possible reasons for this discrepancy come to mind. One is that the wives worked out of necessity and not out of preference (economic demands). Two is that societal opprobrium for women who work put additional strains on the marriage, or caused guilty feelings (intrapersonal demands), or behavioral changes by either spouse that disturbed marital harmony (interpersonal demands). The effect of women working cannot be simplified, however. In a study of lower-class families, it was reported that when the wives worked, marital satisfaction increased, despite the employment arising out of economic necessity, and not by choice. Probably, then, this is a result of decreasing tensions due to financial insolvency concomitant with the increased ability to establish pleasant and enjoyable recreational activities. Here, too, however, research has indicated

that the picture is cloudy. Goode (1956) reported that perceived adequacy of income is important to marital adjustment, and Green (1960) extended this to demonstrate that economic failure did not detract from marital satisfaction, if economic success is not expected. The inadequacy of marital satisfaction measures that rely solely on intrapsychic, interpersonal, or demographic data is then quite highlighted.

To repair then to the earlier point, in order to properly assess the difference between husbands' and wives' approaches to marriage and the theorized effect of a greater availability of external sources of emotional gratification to husbands, many factors must be taken into account. To consider the different impact of work upon men and women may clarify this. We find that Achievement-oriented wives tend to report greater satisfaction with their marriages than women with lower Achievement scores. And, we find in the literature that women who find extensive satisfactions in the working world experience enhanced marital adjustment (Fogarty, Rapoport, and Rapoport, 1971; Orden and Bradburn, 1968; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). There is then tentative support for the notion that as societal biases and discriminations attenuate, as opportunities for women increase, some of the differences between men and women may dissipate. What then of the findings that suggest that wives who work experience less satisfaction with their marriages? One

notable issue as touched on above is the ability of the wife to choose whether to work (Orden and Bradburn, 1968). Enforced work activity tends to lead to dissatisfaction, unless the husbands' economic success was not an expected part of the relationship. Hence the match of role definitions is important. Bird (1979) reports that as wives' salaries increase, every thousand-dollar rise in income raises the likelihood of her marriage ending in divorce, by two percent. This finding appears to be at odds with earlier findings. We would assume that as women's salaries increase, they would be more likely to be achieving satisfaction in the workplace, probably functioning in more interesting jobs and with greater responsibility. We will address this point later. What, too, of the findings that unemployed women rate their marriages as happier than do employed women? (Stoltz, 1960; Axelson, 1963) These latter studies were performed almost two decades ago, when mores, opportunities and expectations may have been different in many ways. One difference is that life expectations, which according to Max Weber define in large part the Stand or social class, were such that women were expected to remain in the home. Those who did not risked social and often marital displeasure. Two, the jobs that were available to women were even more limited in number, interest, responsibility and financial remuneration than is so today.

It may be, in considering Erik Erikson's model for psychological development, that men and women, because of

different socialization, tend to progress along somewhat different lines. It may be that women tend to confront intimacy issues before identity issues as they learned early that their "job" would be to become married and raise children--all relationship issues. Men learn early to consider the forms of their labor (an alternative and cogent construction of this is that women's identity struggles center around relationships while men's identity struggles tend to revolve around work issues).² Speculation then would be that women, as yet, still typically derive less personal gratification from work than do men. They might typically have more guilt and feelings of being misplaced in their work environment--beyond the harassment and discrimination with which they are not infrequently confronted. They may find that the work still is not integrated as being as important to them, to their own self-definitions as is so for men. An interesting question for further research would be to consider whether husbands and wives who work at equivalent occupational levels experience equivalent emotional satisfactions at work, and to consider how this affects the different approaches to marital satisfaction taken by the spouses.

Our sample's couple's Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores (CDAS) are correlated at or greater than .3 with only two of the husbands' EPPS scales and with four of the wives'. These CDAS scores are, not surprisingly, correlated with husbands' Order and Intraception needs,

and with wives' Achievement, Deference, Endurance, and (negatively correlated) Intraception needs. Since the CDAS scores are simply the sum of the individual scores, these findings are not unexpected.

While there were no significant correlations for ASCT levels and marital satisfaction, there were some patterns that may be of interest, particularly, again, when compared across genders.

For both men and women there was distinct linearity for the correlations of their marital satisfaction with their own Safety, Affiliation, and Esteem needs. This linearity of correlation size occurred in opposite directions for the genders. Wives' correlations decreased as Maslow's hierarchy of needs was ascended, while husbands' correlations increased. These correlations can be found in Table 2. As can be seen, women whose needs are predominantly in the level of Safety needs are clearly similar to the pattern of needs found earlier on the EPPS to be correlated with wives' marital satisfaction. This is characterized in large part by desire for stability, routine and predictability. The correlations for husbands with their own DAS scores were generally smaller than their wives' scores were, and the order was different. Husbands' DAS scores were negatively correlated with their own Safety needs. Husbands, then, who had predominantly passed through the Safety need stage tended to rate their marriages as happier, though due to the small correlations involved

this conclusion is tenuous. Husbands' DAS scores are also correlated in descending order with their wives' Maslow (ASCT) scores. Though none of these three correlations is .3 or greater, the directionality is clear, that as women begin to function in ways that Maslow would characterize as increasingly mature and healthy, both they and their husbands become less satisfied with their marriages.

The CDAS scores mirror these above-mentioned trends, as can be seen in Table 3. An interesting finding, quite in keeping with the results on the EPPS discussed previously, is that the couples' DAS scores are correlated much more with the wives' ASCT scores, the absolute value of the correlation for each level of ASCT need being at least double for wives than of their husbands. Again we find, then, that marital satisfaction depends more upon wives than upon husbands, further supporting our earlier speculations that marital satisfaction comprises a greater portion of wives' emotional resources than of husbands', quite possibly, as theorized, because of the greater availability to men of socially accepted satisfactions external to the marital relationship. Why, though, this result that as women get "healthier" their marriages tend to be less satisfying? It would ordinarily be expected that as people progress along the Maslowian hierarchy they begin to be able to gratify their needs in increasingly flexible ways, thus increasing their satisfactions. In order to consider this finding, it may be helpful to

raise questions about the difference between marital quality and marital stability. Levinger (1965) and Spanier, Lewis and Cole (1975) posit that while the stability of a marriage and its quality are correlated, they are by no means a unitary concept. All four combinations exist (high quality-high stability, high quality-low stability, low quality-high stability, low quality-low stability). We might, in retrospect, expect of our sample that as wives (or husbands) express, on the ASCT, predominantly Safety needs, that their marriages would be more stable. Fear of change and loss of dependency would encourage this. These women, however, rated their marriages as more satisfying, not merely more stable. Consider again the possibly analogous finding by Bird that as wives' incomes increase the likelihood of marital dissolution does as well. We cannot with confidence adjudicate whether this is due to increased marital difficulty, increased awareness of marital stress, or vitiated restraints against the dissolution of marriage. It may be that wives, such as those in our sample, who score predominantly in the Safety need stage on the ASCT, having resigned themselves to continuing in the relationship, and being fearful of divorce and the concomitant changes that would thus be fostered, ignore, rationalize away, or deny displeasures and problems in the marriage to which "healthier" women might attend with greater acuity. Future research might profitably consider some of the following questions. Are wives who are more advanced on the Maslow hierarchy more likely to become

divorced? Are they more likely to become divorced than less-"healthy" women who report equivalent satisfaction with their marriages? Do "healthier" women perceive the difficulties of their relationships more accurately than less-"healthy" women, judged by external criteria?

In order to consider the respective predictive capacities of the similarity and complementarity theories, summed squared differences between spouses were obtained. Positive correlations of these with dyadic adjustment are suggestive of complementarity while the obverse is true for similarity. There is scanty evidence in the data to suggest that complementarity or similarity is important for well-adjusted marriages. There is one significant correlation for each, and beyond these no clear trend is evident.

In support of the complementarity position is the finding for the Deference scale. Here the squared differences for husbands and wives were a predictor of marital satisfaction. There was little difference due to sex in the individual results, with husbands' mean Deference score being 11.35 and wives' being 11.82. Interestingly, husbands' DAS scores were relatively uncorrelated with their wives' Deference scores, while wives' scores were correlated with their own Deference scores ($r = -.39$, $p < .059$). Neither husbands' nor wives' DAS scores were correlated with husbands' Deference scores. One interpretation of this, which dovetails with earlier

speculations is that husbands will not act much differently in their marriages regardless of their wives' Deference needs. They will not respond differently nor will the gratification of their personal needs be affected, perhaps because they have sources of gratification outside their marriages. Women, then, who are less deferent will tend to be more frustrated and less gratified than will women whose higher needs for Deference inclines them toward demanding less equality in the decision-making processes with their husbands.

In support of the similarity theory is the result on Intraception for which the difference score is negatively correlated with couples' DAS scores at an $r = .46$ level ($p < .05$). Here, the mean scores for husbands and wives were different by 1.6 points or three times the margin on the Deference scale. Wives' scores were larger than their husbands'. As similarity on this scale was predictive of happier rated couples, wives who score lower in Intraception needs rated their marriages as being happier. Husbands' DAS scores also increase as their wives' scores diminish. Wives' DAS scores are correlated at a level surpassing the .3 criterion ($r = .39$) with their husbands' scores on Intraception, however, the husbands' DAS scores were relatively uncorrelated with their own Intraception scores. DAS scores were relatively uncorrelated with the sum of a couple's Intraception scores ($r = .10$).

The patterns of interrelationships among EPPS scales

for husbands and wives differ extensively from each other, as seen in Tables 5 and 6. Here ten of the scales have no correlations in common, six have only one, and only two of them have as many as half of their intercorrelations in common across genders. To then compare husbands' scores with wives' in an attempt to look at complementarity versus similarity or to talk of the scores as representing equivalent psychological constructs, is of dubious utility. Indeed, since the scales appear to mean different things to the two genders, it may be that measures that are to be used in similar research ought to be factored separately for men and women. A similar finding to this concerning the Dyadic Adjustment Scale was presented in Bertram (1981) in which a factor analysis performed separately for men and women indicated that Spanier's scales, based as they were upon pooled data, did not adequately reflect the approach that women take to marriage. Interestingly, no major marital-adjustment scale has been factor analyzed using separated data pools for husbands and wives.

In summary, then, the findings highlight the difficulties in attempting to assess marital satisfaction using limited theoretical schema (need theory, role theory, etc.) or examining limited forms of data (intrapersonal, interpersonal, or demographic). The importance of examining cognitive attributions, expected role constructs, demographics, interpersonal process and intrapersonal needs, is stressed. The hypotheses failed to be supported by the

data and statistically significant results were few and failed to occur at chance levels. Several patterns of differences between the genders emerged, however, that are provocative and engender suggestions for future research. It is particularly thought that utilization of measures that have been constructed allowing for gender differences is imperative for continuing research into the field of marital satisfaction.

NOTES

¹Personal communication with Phyllis Lenard,
M. S. W., Children's Psychiatric Center, Freehold, New
Jersey, 1981.

²Personal communication with Dr. Gary Stollak,
Ph. D., Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan,
1981.

APPENDIX A
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SHEET

WIVES

CODE NO. _____

INFORMATION SHEET

Your Sex: _____

Your Age: _____

Length of Time Married (Years and Months): _____

Number of Previous Marriages: _____

Number of Children: _____

Ages of Children: _____

Number of Children Living With You: _____

Last Year of School You Have Completed: _____

Occupation: _____

Your Income (Not Including That of Your Spouse): _____ Per Year

APPENDIX B
DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

DIADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

CODE NO. _____

Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

	<u>Always</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Almost</u> <u>Always</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Occa-</u> <u>sionally</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Pre-</u> <u>quently</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Almost</u> <u>Always</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Always</u> <u>Disagree</u>
1. Handling family finances	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Matters of recreation	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Religious matters	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Demonstrations of affection	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Sex relations	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Friends	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Philosophy of life	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Aims, goals, and things believed important	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. Amount of time spent together	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. Making major decisions	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. Household tasks	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
14. Leisure time interests and activities	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. Career decisions	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>All</u> <u>the time</u>	<u>Most of</u> <u>the time</u>	<u>More</u> <u>often</u> <u>than not</u>	<u>Occa-</u> <u>sionally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. Do you confide in your mate?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
20. Do you ever regret that you married?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>All</u> <u>the time</u>	<u>Most of</u> <u>the time</u>	<u>More</u> <u>often</u> <u>than not</u>	<u>Occa-</u> <u>sionally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
21. How often do you and your mate quarrel?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
22. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Every</u> <u>day</u>	<u>Almost</u> <u>Every day</u>	<u>Occa-</u> <u>sionally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
23. Do you kiss your mate?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

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

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

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship in the past few weeks. (Check yes or no)

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
29. _____ Being too tired for sex.	_____	_____
30. _____ Not showing love.	_____	_____

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy", represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

<u>Extremely</u> <u>Unhappy</u>	<u>Fairly</u> <u>Unhappy</u>	<u>A little</u> <u>Unhappy</u>	<u>Happy</u>	<u>Very</u> <u>Happy</u>	<u>Extremely</u> <u>Happy</u>	<u>Perfect</u>
.

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

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

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

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

_____ It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.

_____ It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.

_____ My relationship can never succeed, and there is nothing more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

APPENDIX C
ARONOFF SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST

ARONOFF SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST

Date: _____

Name: _____

Below are forty incomplete sentences. Read and complete each one. If the suggested word occurs in the middle of the line, place it wherever you wish.

1. I should like to
2. Most important
3. My appearance
4. good mood
5. When I am not treated right, I
6. If I could only
7. My head
8. The people who work for me
9. The main driving force in my life is
10. Other people are

- 2 -

11. If I could change anything, I

12. For sure

13. last

14. The more involved one gets

15. For me, the best

16. As a child, I

17. A friend

18. I will fight when

19. care

20. It's fun to daydream about

21. valuable possession

22. A stranger

- 3 -

23. When told to keep my place, I

24. Dormitory living

25. When an animal is wild,

26. If I were in charge

27. Being

28. People think I am

29. I don't like

30. What bothers me most

31. continually

32. To me, people

33. If I am put under pressure

34. I am happy when

- 4 -

35. broke , then

36. I want

37. The future

38. The people I like best

39. When I can't do something, I

40. Tests like this

APPENDIX D

EDWARDS PERSONAL PREFERENCE SCHEDULE

Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

Allen L. Edwards, University of Washington

DIRECTIONS

This schedule consists of a number of pairs of statements about things that you may or may not like; about ways in which you may or may not feel. Look at the example below.

A I like to talk about myself to others.

B I like to work toward some goal that I have set for myself.

Which of these two statements is more characteristic of what you like? If you like "talking about yourself to others" more than you like "working toward some goal that you have set for yourself," then you should choose A over B. If you like "working toward some goal that you have set for yourself" more than you like "talking about yourself to others," then you should choose B over A.

You may like both A and B. In this case, you would have to choose between the two and you should choose the one that you like better. If you dislike both A and B, then you should choose the one that you dislike less.

Some of the pairs of statements in the schedule have to do with your likes, such as A and B above. Other pairs of statements have to do with how you feel. Look at the example below.

A I feel depressed when I fail at something.

B I feel nervous when giving a talk before a group.

Which of these two statements is more characteristic of how you feel? If "being depressed when you fail at something" is more characteristic of you than "being nervous when giving a talk before a group," then you should choose A over B. If B is more characteristic of you than A, then you should choose B over A.

If both statements describe how you feel, then you should choose the one which you think is more characteristic. If neither statement accurately describes how you feel, then you should choose the one which you consider to be less inaccurate.

Your choice, in each instance, should be in terms of what you like and how you feel at the present time, and not in terms of what you think you should like or how you think you should feel. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Your choices should be a description of your own personal likes and feelings. Make a choice for every pair of statements; do not skip any.

The pairs of statements on the following pages are similar to the examples given above. Read each pair of statements and pick out the one statement that better describes what you like or how you feel. Make no marks in the booklet. On the separate answer sheet are numbers corresponding to the numbers of the pairs of statements. Check to be sure you are marking for the same item number as the item you are reading in the booklet.

If your answer sheet is printed
in **BLACK** ink:

For each numbered item draw a circle around
the A or B to indicate the statement you
have chosen.

If your answer sheet is printed
in **BLUE** ink:

For each numbered item fill in the space
under A or B as shown in the Directions
on the answer sheet.

Do not turn this page until the examiner tells you to start.

- 1 A I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
B I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.
- 2 A I like to find out what great men have thought about various problems in which I am interested.
B I would like to accomplish something of great significance.
- 3 A Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.
B I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.
- 4 A I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.
B I would like to write a great novel or play.
- 5 A I like to be able to come and go as I want to.
B I like to be able to say that I have done a difficult job well.
- 6 A I like to solve puzzles and problems that other people have difficulty with.
B I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.
- 7 A I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
B I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.
- 8 A I like to plan and organize the details of any work that I have to undertake.
B I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.
- 9 A I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.
B I like to read about the lives of great men.
- 10 A I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.
B I like to read about the lives of great men.
- 11 A I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.
B I like to have my work organized and planned before beginning it.
- 12 A I like to find out what great men have thought about various problems in which I am interested.
B If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.
- 13 A I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.
- 14 A I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.
B I like to have my meals organized and a definite time set aside for eating.
- 15 A I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.
B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.
- 16 A I like to be able to do things better than other people can.
B I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.
- 17 A I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.
B I like to talk about my achievements.
- 18 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
B I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.
- 19 A I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
B I like to be the center of attention in a group.
- 20 A I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
B I like to use words which other people often do not know the meaning of.
- 21 A I like to accomplish tasks that others recognize as requiring skill and effort.
B I like to be able to come and go as I want to.
- 22 A I like to praise someone I admire.
B I like to feel free to do what I want to do.
- 23 A I like to keep my letters, bills, and other papers neatly arranged and filed according to some system.
B I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.
- 24 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
B I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
- 25 A I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.
B I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
- 26 A I like to be successful in things undertaken.
B I like to form new friendships.
- 27 A I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.
B I like to have strong attachments with my friends.
- 28 A Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.
B I like to make as many friends as I can.
- 29 A I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.
B I like to write letters to my friends.
- 30 A I like to be able to come and go as I want to.
B I like to share things with my friends.
- 31 A I like to solve puzzles and problems that other people have difficulty with.
B I like to judge people by why they do something—not by what they actually do.
- 32 A I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.
B I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.
- 33 A I like to have my meals organized and a definite time set aside for eating.
B I like to study and to analyze the behavior of others.

- 34 A I like to say things that are regarded as witty and clever by other people.
B I like to put myself in someone else's place and to imagine how I would feel in the same situation.
- 35 A I like to feel free to do what I want to do.
B I like to observe how another individual feels in a given situation.
- 36 A I like to accomplish tasks that others recognize as requiring skill and effort.
B I like my friends to encourage me when I meet with failure.
- 37 A When planning something, I like to get suggestions from other people whose opinions I respect.
B I like my friends to treat me kindly.
- 38 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
B I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.
- 39 A I like to be the center of attention in a group.
B I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick.
- 40 A I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.
B I like my friends to sympathize with me and to cheer me up when I am depressed.
- 41 A I would like to write a great novel or play.
B When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed or elected chairman.
- 42 A When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership of someone else in deciding what the group is going to do.
B I like to supervise and to direct the actions of other people whenever I can.
- 43 A I like to keep my letters, bills, and other papers neatly arranged and filed according to some system.
B I like to be one of the leaders in the organizations and groups to which I belong.
- 44 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
B I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.
- 45 A I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
B I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.
- 46 A I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.
B I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.
- 47 A I like to read about the lives of great men.
B I feel that I should confess the things that I have done that I regard as wrong.
- 48 A I like to plan and organize the details of any work that I have to undertake.
B When things go wrong for me, I feel that I am more to blame than anyone else.
- 49 A I like to use words which other people often do not know the meaning of.
B I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.
- 50 A I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
B I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard as my superiors.
- 51 A I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.
B I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.
- 52 A I like to find out what great men have thought about various problems in which I am interested.
B I like to be generous with my friends.
- 53 A I like to make a plan before starting in to do something difficult.
B I like to do small favors for my friends.
- 54 A I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.
B I like my friends to confide in me and to tell me their troubles.
- 55 A I like to say what I think about things.
B I like to forgive my friends who may sometimes hurt me.
- 56 A I like to be able to do things better than other people can.
B I like to eat in new and strange restaurants.
- 57 A I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.
B I like to participate in new fads and fashions.
- 58 A I like to have my work organized and planned before beginning it.
B I like to travel and to see the country.
- 59 A I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.
B I like to move about the country and to live in different places.
- 60 A I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.
B I like to do new and different things.
- 61 A I like to be able to say that I have done a difficult job well.
B I like to work hard at any job I undertake.
- 62 A I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.
B I like to complete a single job or task at a time before taking on others.
- 63 A If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.
B I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.
- 64 A I sometimes like to do things just to see what effect it will have on others.
B I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.

- 65 A I like to do things that other people regard as unconventional.
B I like to put in long hours of work without being distracted.
- 66 A I would like to accomplish something of great significance.
B I like to kiss attractive persons of the opposite sex.
- 67 A I like to praise someone I admire.
B I like to be regarded as physically attractive by those of the opposite sex.
- 68 A I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.
B I like to be in love with someone of the opposite sex.
- 69 A I like to talk about my achievements.
B I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays a major part.
- 70 A I like to do things in my own way and without regard to what others may think.
B I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
- 71 A I would like to write a great novel or play.
B I like to attack points of view that are contrary to mine.
- 72 A When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership of someone else in deciding what the group is going to do.
B I feel like criticizing someone publicly if he deserves it.
- 73 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
B I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.
- 74 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
B I like to tell other people what I think of them.
- 75 A I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
B I feel like making fun of people who do things that I regard as stupid.
- 76 A I like to be loyal to my friends.
B I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.
- 77 A I like to observe how another individual feels in a given situation.
B I like to be able to say that I have done a difficult job well.
- 78 A I like my friends to encourage me when I meet with failure.
B I like to be successful in things undertaken.
- 79 A I like to be one of the leaders in the organizations and groups to which I belong.
B I like to be able to do things better than other people can.
- 80 A When things go wrong for me, I feel that I am more to blame than anyone else.
B I like to solve puzzles and problems that other people have difficulty with.
- 81 A I like to do things for my friends.
B When planning something, I like to get suggestions from other people whose opinions I respect.
- 82 A I like to put myself in someone else's place and to imagine how I would feel in the same situation.
B I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.
- 83 A I like my friends to be sympathetic and understanding when I have problems.
B I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.
- 84 A When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed or elected chairman.
B When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership of someone else in deciding what the group is going to do.
- 85 A If I do something that is wrong, I feel that I should be punished for it.
B I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.
- 86 A I like to share things with my friends.
B I like to make a plan before starting in to do something difficult.
- 87 A I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.
B If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.
- 88 A I like my friends to treat me kindly.
B I like to have my work organized and planned before beginning it.
- 89 A I like to be regarded by others as a leader.
B I like to keep my letters, bills, and other papers neatly arranged and filed according to some system.
- 90 A I feel that the pain and misery that I have suffered has done me more good than harm.
B I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
- 91 A I like to have strong attachments with my friends.
B I like to say things that are regarded as witty and clever by other people.
- 92 A I like to think about the personalities of my friends and to try to figure out what makes them as they are.
B I sometimes like to do things just to see what effect it will have on others.
- 93 A I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick.
B I like to talk about my achievements.
- 94 A I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.
B I like to be the center of attention in a group.
- 95 A I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard as my superiors.
B I like to use words which other people often do not know the meaning of.
- 96 A I like to do things with my friends rather than by myself.
B I like to say what I think about things.

- 97 A I like to study and to analyze the behavior of others.
B I like to do things that other people regard as unconventional.
- 98 A I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.
B I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.
- 99 A I like to supervise and to direct the actions of other people whenever I can.
B I like to do things in my own way without regard to what others may think.
- 100 A I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.
B I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
- 101 A I like to be successful in things undertaken.
B I like to form new friendships.
- 102 A I like to analyze my own motives and feelings.
B I like to make as many friends as I can.
- 103 A I like my friends to help me when I am in trouble.
B I like to do things for my friends.
- 104 A I like to argue for my point of view when it is attacked by others.
B I like to write letters to my friends.
- 105 A I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.
B I like to have strong attachments with my friends.
- 106 A I like to share things with my friends.
B I like to analyze my own motives and feelings.
- 107 A I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.
B I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.
- 108 A I like my friends to do many small favors for me cheerfully.
B I like to judge people by why they do something—not by what they actually do.
- 109 A When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.
B I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.
- 110 A I feel better when I give in and avoid a fight, than I would if I tried to have my own way.
B I like to analyze the feelings and motives of others.
- 111 A I like to form new friendships.
B I like my friends to help me when I am in trouble.
- 112 A I like to judge people by why they do something—not by what they actually do.
B I like my friends to show a great deal of affection toward me.
- 113 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
B I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.
- 114 A I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.
B I like my friends to do many small favors for me cheerfully.
- 115 A I feel that I should confess the things that I have done that I regard as wrong.
B I like my friends to sympathize with me and to cheer me up when I am depressed.
- 116 A I like to do things with my friends rather than by myself.
B I like to argue for my point of view when it is attacked by others.
- 117 A I like to think about the personalities of my friends and to try to figure out what makes them as they are.
B I like to be able to persuade and influence others to do what I want to do.
- 118 A I like my friends to sympathize with me and to cheer me up when I am depressed.
B When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.
- 119 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
B I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.
- 120 A I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard as my superiors.
B I like to supervise and to direct the actions of other people whenever I can.
- 121 A I like to participate in groups in which the members have warm and friendly feelings toward one another.
B I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.
- 122 A I like to analyze the feelings and motives of others.
B I feel depressed by my own inability to handle various situations.
- 123 A I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.
B I feel better when I give in and avoid a fight, than I would if I tried to have my own way.
- 124 A I like to be able to persuade and influence others to do what I want.
B I feel depressed by my own inability to handle various situations.
- 125 A I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
B I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard as my superiors.
- 126 A I like to participate in groups in which the members have warm and friendly feelings toward one another.
B I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
- 127 A I like to analyze my own motives and feelings.
B I like to sympathize with my friends when they are hurt or sick.
- 128 A I like my friends to help me when I am in trouble.
B I like to treat other people with kindness and sympathy.
- 129 A I like to be one of the leaders in the organizations and groups to which I belong.
B I like to sympathize with my friends when they are hurt or sick.

- 130 A I feel that the pain and misery that I have suffered has done me more good than harm.
B I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.
- 131 A I like to do things with my friends rather than by myself.
B I like to experiment and to try new things.
- 132 A I like to think about the personalities of my friends and to try to figure out what makes them as they are.
B I like to try new and different jobs—rather than to continue doing the same old things.
- 133 A I like my friends to be sympathetic and understanding when I have problems.
B I like to meet new people.
- 134 A I like to argue for my point of view when it is attacked by others.
B I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
- 135 A I feel better when I give in and avoid a fight, than I would if I tried to have my own way.
B I like to move about the country and to live in different places.
- 136 A I like to do things for my friends.
B When I have some assignment to do, I like to start in and keep working on it until it is completed.
- 137 A I like to analyze the feelings and motives of others.
B I like to avoid being interrupted while at my work.
- 138 A I like my friends to do many small favors for me cheerfully.
B I like to stay up late working in order to get a job done.
- 139 A I like to be regarded by others as a leader.
B I like to put in long hours of work without being distracted.
- 140 A If I do something that is wrong, I feel that I should be punished for it.
B I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.
- 141 A I like to be loyal to my friends.
B I like to go out with attractive persons of the opposite sex.
- 142 A I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.
B I like to participate in discussions about sex and sexual activities.
- 143 A I like my friends to show a great deal of affection toward me.
B I like to become sexually excited.
- 144 A When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.
B I like to engage in social activities with persons of the opposite sex.
- 145 A I feel depressed by my own inability to handle various situations.
B I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
- 146 A I like to write letters to my friends.
B I like to read newspaper accounts of murders and other forms of violence.
- 147 A I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.
B I like to attack points of view that are contrary to mine.
- 148 A I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick.
B I feel like blaming others when things go wrong for me.
- 149 A I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.
B I feel like getting revenge when someone has insulted me.
- 150 A I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.
B I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.
- 151 A I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
B I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.
- 152 A I like to travel and to see the country.
B I like to accomplish tasks that others recognize as requiring skill and effort.
- 153 A I like to work hard at any job I undertake.
B I would like to accomplish something of great significance.
- 154 A I like to go out with attractive persons of the opposite sex.
B I like to be successful in things undertaken.
- 155 A I like to read newspaper accounts of murders and other forms of violence.
B I would like to write a great novel or play.
- 156 A I like to do small favors for my friends.
B When planning something, I like to get suggestions from other people whose opinions I respect.
- 157 A I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
B I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.
- 158 A I like to stay up late working in order to get a job done.
B I like to praise someone I admire.
- 159 A I like to become sexually excited.
B I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.
- 160 A I feel like getting revenge when someone has insulted me.
B When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership of someone else in deciding what the group is going to do.
- 161 A I like to be generous with my friends.
B I like to make a plan before starting in to do something difficult.

- 162 A I like to meet new people.
B Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.
- 163 A I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.
- 164 A I like to be regarded as physically attractive by those of the opposite sex.
B I like to plan and organize the details of any work that I have to undertake.
- 165 A I like to tell other people what I think of them.
B I like to have my meals organized and a definite time set aside for eating.
- 166 A I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.
B I like to say things that are regarded as witty and clever by other people.
- 167 A I like to try new and different jobs—rather than to continue doing the same old things.
B I sometimes like to do things just to see what effect it will have on others.
- 168 A I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.
B I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.
- 169 A I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
B I like to be the center of attention in a group.
- 170 A I feel like blaming others when things go wrong for me.
B I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
- 171 A I like to sympathize with my friends when they are hurt or sick.
B I like to say what I think about things.
- 172 A I like to eat in new and strange restaurants.
B I like to do things that other people regard as unconventional.
- 173 A I like to complete a single job or task at a time before taking on others.
B I like to feel free to do what I want to do.
- 174 A I like to participate in discussions about sex and sexual activities.
B I like to do things in my own way without regard to what others may think.
- 175 A I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.
B I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
- 176 A I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
B I like to be loyal to my friends.
- 177 A I like to do new and different things.
B I like to form new friendships.
- 178 A When I have some assignment to do, I like to start in and keep working on it until it is completed.
B I like to participate in groups in which the members have warm and friendly feelings toward one another.
- 179 A I like to go out with attractive persons of the opposite sex.
B I like to make as many friends as I can.
- 180 A I like to attack points of view that are contrary to mine.
B I like to write letters to my friends.
- 181 A I like to be generous with my friends.
B I like to observe how another individual feels in a given situation.
- 182 A I like to eat in new and strange restaurants.
B I like to put myself in someone else's place and to imagine how I would feel in the same situation.
- 183 A I like to stay up late working in order to get a job done.
B I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.
- 184 A I like to become sexually excited.
B I like to study and to analyze the behavior of others.
- 185 A I feel like making fun of people who do things that I regard as stupid.
B I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.
- 186 A I like to forgive my friends who may sometimes hurt me.
B I like my friends to encourage me when I meet with failure.
- 187 A I like to experiment and to try new things.
B I like my friends to be sympathetic and understanding when I have problems.
- 188 A I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.
B I like my friends to treat me kindly.
- 189 A I like to be regarded as physically attractive by those of the opposite sex.
B I like my friends to show a great deal of affection toward me.
- 190 A I feel like criticizing someone publicly if he deserves it.
B I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick.
- 191 A I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.
B I like to be regarded by others as a leader.
- 192 A I like to try new and different jobs—rather than to continue doing the same old things.
B When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed or elected chairman.
- 193 A I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
B I like to be able to persuade and influence others to do what I want.

- 194 A I like to participate in discussions about sex and sexual activities.
B I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.
- 195 A I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.
B I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.
- 196 A I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.
B When things go wrong for me, I feel that I am more to blame than anyone else.
- 197 A I like to move about the country and to live in different places.
B If I do something that is wrong, I feel that I should be punished for it.
- 198 A I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.
B I feel that the pain and misery that I have suffered has done me more good than harm.
- 199 A I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
B I feel that I should confess the things that I have done that I regard as wrong.
- 200 A I feel like blaming others when things go wrong for me.
B I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.
- 201 A I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.
B I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.
- 202 A I like to do new and different things.
B I like to treat other people with kindness and sympathy.
- 203 A When I have some assignment to do, I like to start in and keep working on it until it is completed.
B I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.
- 204 A I like to engage in social activities with persons of the opposite sex.
B I like to forgive my friends who may sometimes hurt me.
- 205 A I like to attack points of view that are contrary to mine.
B I like my friends to confide in me and to tell me their troubles.
- 206 A I like to treat other people with kindness and sympathy.
B I like to travel and to see the country.
- 207 A I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.
B I like to participate in new fads and fashions.
- 208 A I like to work hard at any job I undertake.
B I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
- 209 A I like to kiss attractive persons of the opposite sex.
B I like to experiment and to try new things.
- 210 A I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.
B I like to participate in new fads and fashions.
- 211 A I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.
B I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
- 212 A I like to move about the country and to live in different places.
B I like to put in long hours of work without being distracted.
- 213 A If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.
B I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.
- 214 A I like to be in love with someone of the opposite sex.
B I like to complete a single job or task before taking on others.
- 215 A I like to tell other people what I think of them.
B I like to avoid being interrupted while at my work.
- 216 A I like to do small favors for my friends.
B I like to engage in social activities with persons of the opposite sex.
- 217 A I like to meet new people.
B I like to kiss attractive persons of the opposite sex.
- 218 A I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.
B I like to be in love with someone of the opposite sex.
- 219 A I like to talk about my achievements.
B I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays a major part.
- 220 A I feel like making fun of people who do things that I regard as stupid.
B I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays a major part.
- 221 A I like my friends to confide in me and to tell me their troubles.
B I like to read newspaper accounts of murders and other forms of violence.
- 222 A I like to participate in new fads and fashions.
B I feel like criticizing someone publicly if he deserves it.
- 223 A I like to avoid being interrupted while at my work.
B I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.
- 224 A I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays a major part.
B I feel like getting revenge when someone has insulted me.
- 225 A I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
B I feel like making fun of people who do things that I regard as stupid.

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