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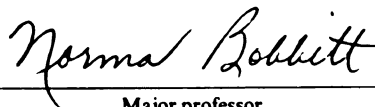
MARITAL QUALITY AS A FUNCTION OF GENDER-ROLE
EGALITARIANISM AMONG THE MALAY-MUSLIM STUDENT COUPLES IN THE
MIDWEST REGION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

presented by

RUMAYA JUHARI

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

PH.D. degree in FAMILY AND CHILD ECOLOGY


Major professor

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By

RUMAYA JUHARI

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

MARITAL QUALITY AS A FUNCTION OF GENDER-ROLE EGALITARIANISM AMONG THE MALAY-MUSLIM STUDENT COUPLES IN THE MIDWEST REGION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

By

Rumaya Juhari

The study investigates the relationship between gender-role egalitarianism, socio-demographic and economic background, degree of adaptation towards life in a foreign country and marital quality of the Malay-Muslim student couples in the United States of America.

Marital Quality is operationally defined by scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale and by a modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. It was hypothesized that an individual who behaves in an egalitarian gender-role, who has a high degree of adjustment towards life in the United States, and who has a higher socioeconomic status would have higher marital quality. Findings from the study indicate that for husbands, gender-role egalitarianism, number of children, and age at marriage were significant predictors of their marital adjustment. The husbands' age at marriage, number of children, and adaptation to life in the United States were found to predict their marital satisfaction. On the other hand, only the number of children predicted wives' estimated marital adjustment and marital satisfaction.

Husbands' gender-role egalitarianism also was found to be significantly related to the couples' marital adjustment. In addition, the couples' gender-role congruency was found to be significantly related to the husbands' marital adjustment. However, when the couples were divided into two groups of gender-role congruent and incongruent, there was no significant difference in mean marital adjustment or marital satisfaction scores.

Nevertheless, there were significant differences in mean marital satisfaction scores between the student and non student couples, and according to stages of the family life-cycle.

In the name of Allah, The Most Gracious, The Most Merciful

**.... And among His Signs is this, that He created
for you mates from among yourselves, that ye may
dwell in tranquility with them, and He has put love
and mercy between your hearts: Verily in
that are Signs for those who reflect.**

(Al-Quran 30:21)

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In spite of the overwhelming new ideologies on how to live one's life, marriage is still a prominent event in an adult's life in almost every culture in the world. Family scientists continue to focus on issues pertaining to marital relationships, yet more research is needed. Issues pertinent to gender differences as they relate to the quality of marriage, particularly in dual-career marriages have been extensively studied in the United States (Rappoport & Rappoport, 1971; Staines, Pleck, Shepard & O'Connor, 1978; Hardesty & Betz, 1980). However, marriage as a topic is yet to be explored extensively in other cultural and ethnic contexts, within and outside the United States. This study attempts to investigate the relationship between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality in selected Malay-Muslim student couples in the Midwest Region of the United States.

The concept of marital quality, as conceived in the early eighties, has been extensively used as an umbrella term for various dimensions of marriage. Variables such as

marital happiness, satisfaction, affective evaluation, adjustment, and stability have been used interchangeably to indicate marital quality. Snyder (1979) revealed in his work the weaknesses of marital assessments in evaluating marital quality. He indicated that the lack of a comprehensive, multidimensional measure implying a simultaneous assessment of the various aspects of marriage seemed to be one of the major weaknesses. Two decades later, the statement still plagues the nature of research in marital quality.

Lewis and Spanier (1979) proposed marital quality as the single greatest predictor of marital stability. They noted marital quality as the process that took place in a marriage relationship, while marital stability relates to the outcome. A year later, Spanier and Lewis (1980) indicated that the definition of marital quality does not convey a fixed idea of discrete categories of high and low, but rather a continuum that ranges from high to low. In their ten-year review of literature related to this field, they found that quality of marriage involves multidimensional phenomena governing marital interaction and marital functioning.

In the present study, the concept of marital quality is indicated by marital adjustment and marital satisfaction. Thus, an individual with high quality of marriage is mirrored by his or her high adjustment and high satisfaction in the marriage. Locke (1951), Spanier (1976), and Spanier

and Cole (1976) agreed upon utilizing the concept of marital adjustment as an indicator of those processes presumed to be needed for a harmonious and functional relationship. Conceptually, marital adjustment refers to a person's individual perception of the dyadic aspects of the relationship, which is claimed to be objective in nature (Thompson & Walker, 1982; Sabatelli, 1988). The concept of marital satisfaction, on the other hand, refers to a person's attitude toward the partner and the relationship (Roach, Frazier & Bowden, 1981). This notion captures the subjective impressions of the relationship (Sabatelli, 1988). Therefore, employing both concepts to indicate marital quality provides both the objective and the subjective dimensions of the relationship.

Over the years, numerous studies have suggested that marital quality is related to personality-derived measures of gender-roles. Marital adjustment, as an indicator of marital quality, is a process of interaction and communication between the spouses (Spanier, 1976). Throughout the marital relationship, couples become adjusted to fit within each other's roles. Among the major factors that may influence the process of adjustment would be the gender-role attitudes of the individual spouse. Studies of gender-role attitudes often include questions regarding the causes and consequences of attitude change (Thornton, Alwin & Camburn, 1983). Higher levels of education obtained by women, their greater involvement in the labor force, and a smaller

family structure are often associated with egalitarian gender-role attitudes of women (Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976; Thornton & Freedman, 1979).

Traditional gender-role attitudes in the context of marriage are often associated with the husband employing the role of breadwinner, and the wife the role of homemaker-mother. In contrast, egalitarian gender-role attitudes emphasize shared roles and egalitarianism. Gender-role attitude is perceived to have an impact on the personal and dyadic aspects of the relationship (Amato & Booth, 1995).

The present study strives to identify the relationship between gender-role attitudes and the marital quality of respondents, who come from geographical, religious, and cultural background from outside the United States. No such study has ever been reported for this population.

In addition to gender-role attitudes, gender-role congruency is also known as an important correlate of relationship satisfaction. Earlier studies indicated that attitude congruency is an important determinant of success in establishing and maintaining relationships (Allen & Thompson, 1984; Byrne, 1971; Ferreira & Winter, 1974). The partners or friends who are congruent in their attitudes perceive themselves as being rewarded and validated by each other, which leads to satisfaction with the relationship. Similarly, the marital relationship is assumed to be enriched by having both partners congruent in their gender-role attitudes. In other words, marital quality is enhanced

when both spouses are congruent in their gender-role attitude, and marital strain is the consequence of spouses' gender-role attitude incongruency (Bowen & Orthner, 1983; Nordlund, 1978).

The respondents in the present study are married couples who originate from Malaysia and who are currently either pursuing their studies or accompanying spouses who are studying at midwest universities. Malaysia is situated in southeast Asia. In 1995, the total population of Malaysia was 19.9 million; and it is projected to be 27.5 million and 34.5 million in the years 2010 and 2025 respectively (Source: Population Reference Bureau, Washington D. C., 1996). There are three major ethnic groups in Malaysia: Malay (50.0%), Chinese (30.0%), and Indians (15.0%) (Source: 1991 Census Report of Malaysia). The Malays of Malaysia are Muslims, according to the legal constitution of the country. Despite their contemporary lifestyle, the Malay Muslims of Malaysia religiously and culturally continue to value marriage as a lifetime event that has advantages both in their current lives and in the hereafter. Islam denotes that marriage is a blessed event that unites man and woman for the sake of the well-being of the universe. It is the only proper, blessed and righteous way of unity for procreation and forming a family. According to the Islamic teachings, there are means and ways to lead a high quality married life; if all efforts fail,

however, the couple is allowed to divorce, the final alternative and the one least sanctioned by the religion.

The 1991 Census Report of Malaysia indicates that there was a 42.3% increase in the number of households (for all ethnic groups) from the previous census in 1980. However, the sacred union of marriage is facing a great challenge as the country experiences drastic changes resulting from modernization and industrialization. The 1992 Report on the Malaysian Family Life Survey indicated that the divorce rate among the Malays is 8.4%, as compared to those of the Chinese (2.2%) and Indians (2.9%) (Kuala Lumpur: National Population & Family Development Board, Malaysia and RAND Corporation, USA). Higher rates of divorce and separation and an increase in the number of family and children's problem, are acknowledged to have been rooted in a poor quality of marriage and family life.

The Analytic Report on the 1984/85 Malaysian Population and Family Survey (Arshat, Tan, Peng, Subbiah, 1988) indicated that the age at first marriage of women in Malaysia has increased over the years. For the Malay women who were 45-49 years of age (born in the years of 1935-39), their mean age at first marriage was 16.4, as compared to those aged 25 to 29 (born in the years of 1955-1959), who have an average age at first marriage of 20.7 years. The authors concluded that the impact of various socioeconomic and cultural factors influenced the shift to a later marriage. Various opportunities for educational and

occupational pursuits, along with the relative availability of suitable spouses-to-be, may also have been viewed as temporary incentives, discouragements, or alternatives to marriage. This may also indirectly indicate the cultural changes in socializing young girls into women in terms of their gender-roles attitudes.

Marital status impacts one's life as a foreign student. Studies in the past have indicated mixed-messages about being married and having the spouse living with the student while studying in the United States. Collins's (1976) study of international students' perceived problems reveals that single students have more problems than married, separated or divorced foreign students. Other studies indicate that having a spouse in a foreign country contributes positively to the student's life and studies provided that the spouse is contented and happy (Hull, 1978; Klineberg and Hull, 1979; Ng, 1981). Unfortunately, most studies relating to foreign students' adjustment were of students only and did not include spouses. The most common marital or familial variable analyzed in such studies is marital status and its effects on the student's adaptation and academic well-being.

Malaysia is one of the top ten countries in the world in sending students for abroad study (Pyle, 1986). In 1981, Malaysian students became one of the ten largest groups of foreign students enrolling in American universities (Source: Malaysian-American Commission on Educational Exchange). In 1994, Malaysians were the seventh largest group of foreign

students in the United States following the Japanese, Chinese, Taiwanese, Koreans, Indians and Canadians. As of September, 1994, a total of 13,617 students from Malaysia were reported to have enrolled in American Universities (Source: Institute of International Education, Washington D. C.). These students pursue either undergraduate or graduate degrees. Approximately forty percent of the students pursue their degrees in the Midwest Region of the United States. The students may be sponsored by the Malaysian Government through its various agencies, by semi-government agencies such as local universities and colleges, by the private sector, or even by the students themselves.

Statement of problem

This study investigates the relationship between gender-roles egalitarianism and marital quality among Malay-Muslim couples currently residing in the Midwest region of the United States. Its aim is to identify the relationship between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality. Individual characteristics of age, age at marriage, education level, and income are explored in terms of their relationships to marital quality. Family variables such as length of marriage, number of children and age of children are also examined in terms of their relationships to marital quality. Length of stay in the United States and perceptions of one's own degree of adjustment as a student

and/or spouse in the United States are also utilized as independent variables.

In this study, the assessment of marital quality is derived from husbands and wives independently. Two separate measures of marital quality are used. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) and a modified version of The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (Schumm, Paff-Bergen, Hatch, et al., 1986) are used to indicate marital adjustment and marital satisfaction respectively. Gender-role egalitarianism is measured by using the Sex-Role Egalitarian Scale (Beere, King, Beere & King, 1984). Gender-role congruency is measured by subtracting the wife's scores on the SRES from the husband's.

Findings from the study enable the researcher to obtain insights on the relationships of gender-role attitudes and gender-role congruency between spouses, to marital quality and the correlates of marital quality in general. The findings also contribute to teaching, research and practice in Family Studies, as well as to the Marriage and Family Advising/Counseling program which will be implemented in Malaysia in the near future. Finally, the findings can also promote further research related to marriage and the family living patterns of the Malays of Malaysia.

Theoretical Perspectives

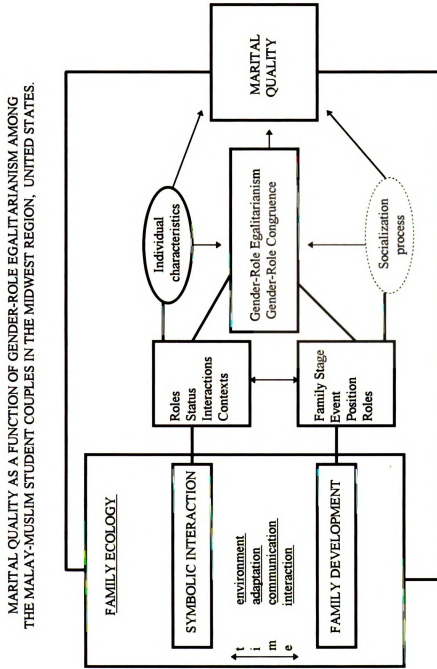
Three major theories have been identified as highly related to the study. Due to the nature of the study, some dimensions are found to be pertinent in a number of different theories. However, only theories that globally fit the phenomena are integrated into the conceptualization of this study.

The three major theories are: (Refer to Figure 1)

1. Family Ecology
2. Symbolic Interaction
3. Family Development

Family Ecology theory serves as the governing theory for the study. Concepts such as environment, adaptation, communication, interaction, and time are pertinent to the study and also relate to the other theories. Environment consists of the totality of the physical, biological, social, economic, political, aesthetic, and structural surroundings for human beings and becomes the context for behavior and development (Bubolz & Sontag, 1994). In the present study, the respondents are in a temporary setting, living in a foreign country. Adjustment in the context of the study refers to the adaptation made by the individual husband and wife, who are not only adapting to the new environment, but are also modifying the environment to reach their desired outcomes. Communication refers to the process of interaction where information and meanings are created

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework:



and transmitted between individuals in the family or between the family and other subsystems (Galvin & Brommel, 1982). Interaction deals with change or action in one part of the ecosystem that can induce a change in another part. The time dimension is crucial in terms of the relatedness of early childhood experience to past, current and future expectations. The temporary nature of their residence in a foreign country may also influence the outcome variable.

For the Symbolic Interaction theory, the basic premise of the *"connection between symbols (shared meanings) and interactions"* is highly related to the study. Concepts such as roles, status, interactions, and context are pertinent to the study. According to Heiss (1981), "roles" refers to the shared norms applied to the occupants of social positions. In the study, focus is given to the family roles of husband, father, wife, and mother. It is assumed that roles are not static; therefore, the difference in context and situation (i.e., one of the spouses is now studying and the other, who had been working before they came to the United States, is now spending more time at home) may also influence the roles of the individual husband and wife. Past experience and events can shape and form individual roles in the family (Maines, Surgue & Katovich, 1983; Wheaton, 1990). This study focuses on the relationship between gender-role attitudes and couples' marital quality. Therefore, interactions between the husband and wife are also examined in terms of marital quality.

Finally, the Family Development theory incorporates the dimensions of family stages, events, positions, and roles. Using time as a major dimension, family life stages are determined by the events that happen in the family. Events such as weddings, births, and launchings of children are among the major landmarks in the family life-cycle. In the study, family life stages determine if differences exist between marital quality for the husband and wife at any specific life stage. The family life stage is determined by the age of the first child in the family.

Position refers to the point or location within the particular type of social structure (Rogers and White, 1994). This definition solves the ambiguity of definitions that merge roles and positions that in fact sometimes conflict across culture and over time. In the Malay subculture, the roles of husband, father, wife, and mother do not generally conflict with one another. However, conflicts may arise if the wife is from the state which practices the matrilineal kinship system. In such a situation, the biological father's role is less significant than the roles of the uncles from the maternal side. Nevertheless, for the present study, given a different context and time, it is assumed that such conflict does not occur. Role, according to the family developmental approach is defined as "a part of social position consisting of integrated or related subset of social norms forming the same position" (Bates, 1956). Roles are mostly time oriented

and have several norms attached to them. Family developmentalists acknowledge that roles may change across time and contexts.

The aforementioned theories that clarify roles are supported by the concepts of role in Role Theory. According to this theory, roles are associated with social position and the consequences are *functions*. Roles are learned through the socialization process, are contextually bound, and are induced through the sharing of expectations for role behavior in the social system (Biddle, 1979).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents findings from previous research related to marital quality, gender-role egalitarianism, and the correlates of both. This chapter is organized into the following sections: 1) Marital quality, 2) Correlates of marital quality, 3) Gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality, 4) Gender-role congruency and marital quality, 5) Measuring marital quality and gender role egalitarianism, 6) Characteristics of Malay-Muslims of Malaysia, and 7) Chapter summary.

Marital Quality

As the most current and most widely used generic term, the concept of marital quality reflects marital adjustment, happiness, interaction, communication, integration, and satisfaction (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). Marital quality refers to the qualitative evaluation of an intact marriage. Low marital quality indicates a perception of a marriage that is less adjusted, an unhappy marriage and inadequately functioning dyad (Booth, Johnson & Edwards, 1983).

Landis (1963) notes that a low quality marriage does not necessarily signify marital instability. It is possible for a low quality marriage to remain intact and a high-quality marriage to end with divorce, separation or desertion.

Research in the decade of the sixties revealed that similarities in socioeconomic status, in attitudes and religion of the husband and wife, high occupational status, income and education of the husband, length of marriage, conventional life-style, adaptive and flexible personalities, and non-verbal communication tend to relate positively with marital satisfaction (Hicks & Platt, 1971). However, research of the same decade also indicates that length of marriage, socioeconomic status of the husband, wife's employment, and number of children are negatively related to marital satisfaction.

Previous findings were based on research conducted in the United States and in accord with the norms of that country. The intent of this study is to determine if there will be similarities or differences in findings based on Malay-Muslims of Malaysia residing temporarily within the United States. Furthermore, the inconsistency of the research conducted in the United States settings led to the decision of approaching this study from a more comprehensive perspective. This is attempted by incorporating individual characteristics as well as gender-role egalitarianism in one study to predict marital quality. Moreover, the measurement of marital quality in this study is done by using the

concept of marital adjustment, as well as by measuring global marital satisfaction of the respondents.

Snyder (1979) theorizes that an inconsistency of findings about marital well-being research occurs due to a lack of measurement of the various dimensions of marriage, as they relate to global marital satisfaction. Issues surrounding the study of marital quality as a dependent variable may relate to conceptualizing and measuring marital quality itself. Spanier's (1979) research review for 1970-79 has revealed that socioeconomic variables are not very successful in predicting marital quality. Hence, dyadic and interpersonal independent variables are found to have a better potential for explaining a subjective measure such as marital quality. This study aims to determine whether the same phenomenon is relevant for the Malay-Muslim couples temporarily residing in the United States.

Due to the lack of multidimensional concepts in an instrument to measure the unidimensionality of marital quality, Johnson, White, Edwards, and Booth (1986) extensively combined several concepts of marital quality from various measurements to indicate "marital quality". The concepts of marital happiness, marital interaction, marital disagreement, problems and instability (from different instruments) were used in one study on 1845 married couples to measure marital quality. The researchers reported that combining concepts tends to hinder the actual meaning of marital quality. They further suggest that the

multidimensional phenomenon in measuring marital quality may be more suitable for clinical settings, not for research studies.

In a review of family research from 1980 to 1989, Steggell and Harper (1991) conclude that satisfaction in marital relationships results from communication and interaction factors. Research from that decade indicates that spouse validation, reciprocation of positive affect, lack of negative verbal exchange, and satisfactory problem solving for both partners are among the most predictive variables of marital satisfaction. These communication dimensions are not covered in the present study.

Correlates of Marital Quality

Individual characteristics: Age and Age at marriage

With regards to age at marriage, Nye and Berardo (1973) report that individuals who marry in their teens are less prepared to perform important marital roles than those who marry in their twenties. Moore and Waite's (1981) analysis of the National Longitudinal Survey Data Set reports that those who marry early tend to dissolve their marriages more frequently than those who marry at a later age. It is significantly important to note that those who marry at a younger age are also facing multiple problems related to their age. Economic hardships, pre-marital pregnancies, and lack of education and training also contribute to their marital problems. In other words, the age at marriage

factor alone may not explain the variation in marital quality. Bahr, Chappell and Leigh (1983) tested a model in which role consensus and self and spouse role enactments, are intervening variables between age at marriage and marital quality. However, they indicate that age at marriage is not directly related to marital satisfaction. Although the age factor in general has not been identified as a determinant of marital quality, this study intends to identify the relationship between age and age at marriage with marital quality.

In Malaysia, major changes in the government's educational policy provide opportunities for females to seek higher education and to obtain better jobs with higher salaries. Urban-rural immigration has also encouraged young females from the rural areas to be involved in the workforce in the cities. From 1980 to 1990, the rate of female participation in the workforce in Malaysia increased from 44% to 48% (Kuala Lumpur: National Family Development and Population Board). These socioeconomic factors are often associated with later age of marriage among the females of Malaysia. Jones (1981) indicates that the media and the influence of the western values of romanticlove, individualism and consumerism are also major factors that made females prefer to marry at a later age. In 1966, the average age at marriage for Malaysian females was 16.6 years. This age had increased to 19.3 years by 1992 (Sooraj, N., personal communication November 9, 1995).

Individual characteristics: Income, Employment and Education

In the decade of 1970-80, research on marital relationships reported that family, as well as the individual spouse's, socioeconomic background (education, employment and income) serve as grounded factors related to marital quality. Economic well-being determines role identification between the spouses as well as influencing the time spent together for family activities, the decision making process, and the marital relationship in total. Both objective and subjective meanings of economic well-being are found to be positively related to a high quality of family living in general (Galligan & Bahr, 1978; Macke, Bohrnstedt, & Bernstein, 1979; Wilcoxon & Hovestadt, 1983).

Jorgensen's (1979) study strengthens the fact that an objective meaning of socioeconomic reward such as quantity of income is not eligible to be utilized in explaining and generalizing the quality of marital relationships. Hence, recent studies have focused on the subjective meaning of socioeconomic factors and the impact they have on marital satisfaction (Booth, Johnson, & White, 1984; Ross, Mirowski & Huber, 1983; Spitze & South, 1985; Thornton, 1985). In these studies, wives' employment is considered as a significant factor influencing the quality of marriage. The subjective meaning of socioeconomic rewards, such as the satisfaction of fulfilling and performing roles related to resource distribution in the family and positive attitude,

has been identified as the major factor in determining marital quality for working women.

Previous studies continued to reveal a positive relationship between marital success and family income (Baruch, Barnett & Rivers, 1983; Jeong & Schumm, 1990; Wilcoxon & Hovestadt, 1983), husbands' occupational prestige (Macke, Bohrnstedt, & Bernstein, 1979), and husbands' educational level (Galligan & Bahr, 1978). On the other hand, wives' educational level and income are found to be negatively related to marital satisfaction (Booth et al., 1984; Campbell, Converse, & Rogers, 1976; Houseknecht & Spanier, 1980). Vannoy and Philliber (1989), however, suggest that women's employment provides a stance for role interchangeability and sharing of household tasks between husband and wife, which in women elevates the sense of being supported. According to the researchers, working wives are more confident in expressing themselves to their husbands, an essential component of communication in any marital relationship. Husbands' sensitivity and supportiveness and individuals' sense of self-worth are found to be significantly related to wives' reported marital satisfaction in Vannoy and Philliber's study of 489 predominantly white couples.

Clark-Nicolas and Gray-Little (1991) hypothesize that there is a subjective value related to income that mediates the prediction of marital quality. In their study of Black married couples, they found that couples who perceived their

economic resources as adequate report high marital quality.

The economic benefits resulting from wives' employment may be accompanied by a decrease in household production, increase in role strain, and a stressful relationship, particularly if a more traditional arrangement between the couple is perceived as desirable (Ross, Mirowski, & Huber, 1983; Ross & Sawhill, 1975). In the present study, even though the non-student spouse is not working full time or not working in the United States, it is assumed that his or her employment before coming to the United States plays a significant role in his/her gender-role egalitarianism and perceived marital quality, both prior to and after coming to the United States.

It was discovered in Suitor's (1991) national survey of 741 men and 964 women that spouses' satisfaction with the division of household labor is positively related to marital quality. This finding is consistent with earlier studies (Pleck, 1985; White, 1983; White, Booth, & Edwards, 1986). Specifically, wives' marital satisfaction follows a U-shaped curve across the life-cycle in response to their relative contribution to household labor. When these contributions are perceived as being the greatest, their marriage satisfaction is less.

Hughes, Galinsky and Morris (1992) found from their cross-sectional study that excessive work hours result in difficulty meeting family role demands and, hence, influence marital quality. They also identified work-family

interference, defined by pressure without support at the work place and marital tension at home, as negatively related with marital quality.

Several studies indicate the need to relate wives' marital quality to their employment characteristics that include: lack of role complementary (Becker, Kaner, & Michael, 1977; Santos, 1978), threat to gender-role identity (Safilios-Rothschild, 1975), congruence of role expectations and performance (Hicks & Platt, 1970), and conflict and competition between partners (Scott, 1973).

Length of Marriage, Number of children, Age of Children and Stages of Family Life-Cycle

Earlier reports indicated that there is a curvilinear relationship between length of marriage and marital quality (Anderson, Russell & Schumm, 1983; Burr, 1970; Figley, 1973; Glenn, 1990; Rollins & Cannon, 1974; Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Rollins & Galligan, 1978; Spanier, Lewis, & Cole, 1975). However, this finding is often confounded by many other variables associated with length of marriage such as presence of children, stage of family life-cycle, and responsibilities and roles related to childrearing stages. Renne's (1970) study of a large cross-sectional sample reports that couples who are at the stage of raising children are less satisfied with their marriage than couples who are childless, or whose children are grown and have left home. Corresponding to this finding, Rollins and Feldman

(1970) note that childbearing and childrearing affect marital satisfaction negatively, particularly for women. Their findings also indicate that there is a substantial increase in marital satisfaction following the launching stage. However, Ying (1991) reports in her study of marital satisfaction among San Francisco Chinese-Americans that family life-cycle is not significantly related to marital satisfaction. It is important to note that most of the studies are cross-sectional in nature. A longitudinal study approach captures a better explanation of such phenomenon.

Early studies up until 1960 generally reported either no relationship or a negative relationship between number of children and marital happiness. Having too many children has been viewed as problematic causing and decreased marital happiness in the couples. The research of 1960-1970 reveal interesting findings on the relationship between number of children and marital happiness. Number of children is not perceived as an important determinant of marital happiness; it is agreement about the number of desired children and the actual number of children produced by the couple that account for couples' marital happiness (Figley, 1973; Heath, Roper & King, 1974; Nye, Carlson & Garrett, 1970). Couples who have the size of the family that they want, whether big or small, are found to be more happily married. Those couples who have more children than they desired report lower marital happiness.

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Rollins and Galligan (1978) use their symbolic interactionism perspective to theorize about the marital satisfaction of couples with children. The presence, spacing and age of children are believed to have indirect influences on marital satisfaction by impacting parent-child interactions. In this approach, perceived qualities of role enactments and role performances remain as the central constructs. The presence of a younger child in the family is a major structural factor which negatively relates to both marital interaction and happiness for husbands and wives (Zuo, 1992). This may not be due solely to the presence of children, but also to the enormous amount of work and responsibilities associated with childcare during the childrearing stages.

On the other hand, Belsky (1979) proposes that sharing activities in caring for a newborn can provide opportunities for enjoyable marital interaction. Ryder (1973), in his longitudinal study of 112 couples in the Washington D. C. area at the early stage of their marriage and again 1 or 2 years later, reports that wives with children feel that their husbands pay too little attention to them as spouses.

Some studies also indicate mixed findings of children's impact on marital adjustment. Children may be regarded as a source of contentment in many marriages, but they are also often seen as interfering with marital adjustment. Luckey and Bain (1970) indicate that highly satisfied couples report children as their greatest source of satisfaction

besides their contentment with the marital relationship. However, the less adjusted couples report that children are their only source of satisfaction.

Miller (1976) reports that number of children does not affect marital satisfaction directly, but it influences the frequency of companionate activities of the couples which acts as an intervening variable. For example, when companionship is low, there is a negative relationship between number of children and marital satisfaction. Likewise, Anderson, Russell, and Schumm (1983) suggest that the presence of children determines the amount of time spent between spouses, as well as determining the level of marital satisfaction perceived by the wives. Schumm and Bugaighis (1986) indicate that family life-cycle stages explain only 8% of the variance in marital satisfaction of specific low-income group mothers. The presence of preschool children in these families of working, low-income mothers tends to interfere with the mothers' time to interact with their spouses. The researchers conclude that family life-cycle in this study reflects a source of distress among the mothers.

Major changes in the family structure from extended to nuclear family are also evident from the reduced size of the average household in Malaysia. The 1980 average of four children per household reduced to 3.4 in 1995 (Sooraj, N., personal communication, November 9, 1995).

Childless couples also report various degrees of marital quality. In general, childless couples indicate higher marital quality than couples with children (Burr, 1972; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Olson, McCubbin, Larsen, Muxen, & Wilson, 1983; Renne, 1970; Rollins and Feldman, 1970). Early research findings indicate that childless couples are more divorce-prone (Bernard, 1972; Leslie & Leslie, 1980). Therefore, some researchers note that findings which indicate childless couples have higher marital quality than couples with children are misleading. Leslie and Leslie suggest an alternative conclusion which is to classify this situation as "surviving childless marriage". These "surviving childless couples" often report higher marital happiness than couples with children. Veroff and Feld (1970) found that childless husbands and wives indicate their childless marriage as being less restrictive and with fewer problems than those with children. Houseknecht (1979) compared 50 women who are childless by choice with a matching group of 50 mothers. The findings signify the importance of the choice of being childless. Women who voluntarily chose not to have children report higher marital adjustment than those with children.

In sum, as concluded by Rollins and Galligan (1978), the presence of dependent children has some negative impact on couples' resources (economically, physically and emotionally) and, therefore, decreases their marital satisfaction. Rollins and Feldman (1970) also conclude that

this phenomenon is especially true for women and following that, Rollins and Cannon (1974) suggested a theory of role strain as an explanation for the trend.

Length of Stay in the United States and Adaptation to Life in the United States.

As one of the most advanced countries, the United States of America has been a center for education for many students from all over the world. Enrollment of foreign students adds to the United States' economic prosperity, as well as allowing Americans to become acquainted with people from other countries which have direct or indirect influence on the American economy and way of life (Burn, 1980). Foreign student enrollment also allows Americans to communicate their beliefs, values and cultures to the selected current and future leaders, and elites of the various countries (Hoopes, Pederson, & Renwick, 1978). Various individual or family experiences during the sojourn in the United States may help the student and/or family put their goals and expectations about returning home and serving their country in a realistic perspective.

Heikinheimo and Shute (1986) report that language skills, academic issues, and social interaction are among the most difficult areas in the adjustment process for foreign students. One of the common findings across research in the area of adjustment and adaptation of foreign students is that contact with Americans (both in academic

and non-academic settings) tends to provide a key mechanism for coping as a foreign student (Hull, 1978). Although without adequate supportive data, Hull also indicates that younger students have more contacts with Americans in non-academic settings and this helps them to get better adjusted to life in the United States. This is due to the age factor that allows the younger students to become more socialized and open to fun and adventurous activities with their American friends.

Correlates of and factors determining acculturation and adjustment of foreign students vary from economic to racial as well as socio-demographic. English proficiency has been found to be an integral part of social adaptation and adjustment for international students (Schram & Lauver, 1988; Surdam & Collins, 1984). Loss of a familiar social support system is often reported as one of the major factors that delays the adaptation process.

The only marital variable that has been widely used in the study of foreign student adjustment is marital status. Often, spouses of the students are not included in the studies. Studies in the past revealed that marital status influences the students' life style, needs and problems. Pavri (1963) and El-Lakany (1970) indicate that married students perform better academically than single students, experiencing fewer problems (Han, 1975; Collins, 1976) and reporting high satisfaction with their United States experiences as compared to single students (Dunnett, 1977,

Siriboonma, 1978). Nevertheless, there is other research which contradicts the aforementioned findings. Melendez-Craig (1970) and Chongolnee (1978) report that marital status is not related to foreign students' academic performance. Pavri (1963) indicates that single students have fewer problems than married students and are more satisfied with their experiences in the United States.

Since most of the studies emphasize the needs and problems of foreign students, less focus is given on the personal aspects of the students such as marital well-being. Lee, Abd-Ella and Burks (1981), in their study of the needs of foreign students at United States colleges and universities, fail to reveal any major significant findings related to marital status of the students except that single students report a higher need for activities with Americans than married students. Married students in this study report a lesser degree of satisfaction with regard to housing needs, as compared to married students whose spouses are not with them in the United States. Although findings from related research are mostly from cross-sectional studies and generalizations are only appropriate for the small sample being studied, they reveal a significant indicator of the need to use a broader measure of marital-related characteristics to examine students' adjustment. An understanding of the dynamic and the psycho-social aspects of marriage may help researchers to understand the role of

marriage in students' adjustment to life in a foreign country.

Malaysia is one of the top countries in the world that sends students overseas, despite the high cost of tuition in host countries. Prior to the 70's, most Malaysian students studying abroad were sent to Britain. Following the elimination of subsidized tuition by the British government, the number of Malaysian students enrolling in American universities increased dramatically. The UNESCO report of 1992 indicated that 39% of Malaysian students (out of over 31,000 foreign students studying overseas) are currently enrolled in the United States. Geographically, more than one third of the top 65 United States universities with a high enrollment of Malaysian students are located in the midwest region.

It is believed that students who are better adapted to life in the United States will have more egalitarian gender-role attitudes and will be better adjusted and satisfied with their marriages. Student status also plays an important role in adaptation. For the wives who are also studying, the gender literature indicates that problems associated with this sub-population often linger with the women involved in multiple roles. Brease and O'Tools (1994) found that adult women's adaptation into the role of student highly depends upon the relationship between the women's internal selves and their roles. Highly supportive and

accepting academic officers often facilitate adult women's adaptation to student life.

Two recent research studies on the non-student population fail to support any significant relationship between length of stay in the U. S. and marital satisfaction (Jeong & Schuum, 1990; Ying, 1991).

Gender-Role Egalitarianism and Marital Quality

Object Relations Theory defines gender as a set of roles and cultural meanings acquired in the course of ego formation within family structures. The socialization process, through significant changes in childrearing practices, and kinship organization are claimed as precursors for closing the gap between the genders of "man" and "woman" and modifying the meaning of gender in individuals (Chodorow, 1978). Gender is often used interchangeably with sex, making gender the cultural, or social construction of sex. Orthner and Whitehead (1981) and Scott (1988) claim that gender does not reflect sex as a primary given; rather, it is the effect of social and cultural processes, where it is the contexts and meanings which the sexes assume that really matter. Behaviors which elucidate gender-role may change as a function of age, life stage, or cross-cultural transition (Block, 1973; Fleishman, 1983).

As a product of the socialization process, parents play an important role in shaping children's gender-role attitudes. Udry (1966) indicates that, in most societies, girls experience heavy socialization pressures toward nurturance and responsibility, while boys are encouraged to be self-reliant and achievement-oriented. Juni and Grimm (1993) reported in their study that gender-role attitudes of fathers and mothers are related to each other and to the gender-role attitudes of their adult children. Earlier

studies also indicated that marital-role expectations are formed in adolescence, not in the engagement or honeymoon period (Burgess & Locke, 1953; Cotrell, 1933, Hill & Becker, 1942).

In the seventies, the focus of most research on "sex-role" preferences was on sexual stratification, task-assignment in society and family, and the preferences that a person holds regarding behavioral arrangements between men and women. Through the decade of 1970 to 1980, findings from related research on sex-role concluded that gender preferences are becoming less traditional; however, men continue to be more traditional than women (Bayer, 1975; Mason et al., 1976; Scanzoni, 1976, 1978; Thornton & Freedman, 1978).

Findings from research in the decade of 1970-1980 also identify the influence of women's involvement in the work-force. Women's employment created a great interest among researchers in study of the relationship between sex-roles, marital power and decision making in the family. Resource Theory regarding family power was often utilized in the studies. Couple resources, rather than individual resources of the husband or the wife, account for marital power and decision making (Fox, 1973; Lewis, 1970; Richmond, 1976; Vanfossen, 1977). Education is also a factor that determines gender preferences, with less educated persons tending to be more traditional as compared to their counterparts (Sidel, 1978).

In the decade of 1980-1990, with marital power still being studied, the concept of marital quality received a significant focus in research. Li and Caldwell (1987) report that couples with a traditional husband and an egalitarian wife are found to have low marital quality. Correlates of marital adjustment in past and recent research demonstrate the significant relationships of personality-derived measures of gender-roles and marital adjustment (Agarwal & Srivasta, 1989; Burchardt & Sebin, 1982; Handal & Salit, 1988).

Earlier research on marital satisfaction and gender-role attitudes held by each partner revealed mixed findings. Lewis and Spanier (1979) and Katz and Briges (1988) indicate that egalitarian division of labor as perceived by wives, as well as the increased power of females in the family and society, have a positive influence on wives' marital satisfaction. Studies about marital adjustment involving working wives often indicate that wives may be less satisfied in marriage due to the overwhelming roles. Husbands who have traditional gender attitudes towards the roles of women are less satisfied in their marriage than those having egalitarian gender-role attitudes (Rappoport & Rappoport, 1971; Staines, Pleck, Shepard & O'Conner, 1978).

Lueptow, Guss, and Hyden (1989) indicate in their study that men's sex ideology is not significantly related to marital happiness and marital stability as opposed to women's sex role ideology. Their study reports that women

with traditional gender values are slightly happier than women with non-traditional values. Focusing on role expectation, Vannoy and Philliber (1992) found that the most important factor affecting marital quality for a wife is her perception of her husband's role expectation. The more the wife perceives her husband's expectations as being traditional, the lower the quality of marriage she experiences. For husbands, their marital quality closely relates to their sensitivity that enables them to provide greater support for employed wives.

Amato and Booth (1995) analyze the effect of changes in gender-role attitudes on marital quality in a longitudinal survey. Their findings indicate that when wives adopt less traditional gender-role attitudes, their perceived marital quality declines. That is, egalitarian wives report low marital quality. However, when husbands espouse traditional gender-role attitudes, their perceived marital quality increases. Their findings also indicate that changes in marital quality over the eight-year period did not affect the gender-role attitudes of either husbands or wives.

Gender-Role Congruency and Marital Quality

According to Hochschild (1989), role perceptions affect task division, perceived fairness, and understanding about why asymmetrical relationships are satisfying. If a couple's gender role attitudes are congruent, their perceptions on task arrangement will most likely be equitable. Research has shown that marital satisfaction is affected by the acceptance of asymmetrical relationships due to a perception of equity (Benin & Agostinelli, 1988; Rachlin, 1987; Thompson, 1991). Past research also provides evidence that partners who are similar are happier in their relationships (Allen & Thompson, 1984; Ferreira & Winter, 1974; Main & Oliver, 1988).

Cotrell (1933) and Mangus (1957) suggest that the incongruency of role performances and role expectations of the spouses serves as an effective stimulus to early marital adjustment. Interestingly, Main and Oliver (1988) report that couples who have parallel personality profiles have a better adjusted marriage as compared to complementary couples. Bowen's (1983) study, although with some limitations in the sample of military couples only, reports that when gender-role attitudes of wives are classified as traditional and husbands as modern, their marriage is as well adjusted as the marriage of gender-role congruent couples (modern husband-modern wife, traditional husband-traditional wife). Couples with traditional husbands and modern wives indicate the lowest evaluation of marital

quality. Li and Caldwell's (1987) report substantiates Bowen's findings. They indicate that incongruent gender-role attitudes alone do not justify an unadjusted marriage, but that it is the direction of the disagreement that is more influential. Their findings also indicate that the larger the magnitude of the difference in gender-role attitudes between husband and wife, the less the tendency toward adjustment. However, Li and Caldwell face some methodological issues regarding the construction of gender-role congruency measures.

A more recent study by Juni and Grimm (1994) focusing on gender-roles of the couple as the unit of analysis indicates that there are no differences in marital satisfaction between gender-role congruent versus incongruent couples. However, wives from undifferentiated couples (where both spouses have low masculinity and low femininity attributes) are less satisfied with their marriage as compared to other typology of the couples gender constellation. Juni and Grimm conclude that marriage requires gender-role assignments and that non-assignments (no specific type) can lead to maladjustment, especially in child-related issues. McHale and Crouter (1992) report that when there is incongruency between husband and wife in terms of their gender-role attitudes, they often report dissatisfaction with the marriage in cases where they have to perform family work roles more than their gender-roles define as appropriate for men and women.

Measuring Marital Quality and Gender-Role Egalitarianism

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale

As a subjective concept, measurement of marital quality has come a long way. First, there is an issue of conceptualization. Marital quality is often used interchangeably with marital adjustment, marital satisfaction, and marital happiness. As originally defined, marital adjustment is an indicator of a multidimensional phenomenon, as adequately measured by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976). Second, the issue of the person who is responding to the measurement of marital quality, the question of whose perception is actually accountable for the marriage, is still being debated.

Bernard (1972) conceptualizes "his and her marriage" as a phenomenon indicating that there was a great discrepancy in the meaning of marriage between husband and wife. Marriage has been conceptualized to be more rewarding for men than women. Traditionally, measures of marital satisfaction, or any other labels to indicate marital quality, have used global measures which have failed to provide a comparative assessment of the different dimensions of marital interaction (Snyder, 1979). Fincham and Bradbury (1987), on the other hand, suggest the utilization of a global evaluation of marriage as an indicator of marital quality. They base their argument on the fact that some dimensions which claim to measure marital quality, such as marital communication, are not distinguishable from the

marital quality concept. For example, when communication is included in the measurement of marital quality, it is very unlikely to be included as an independent variable (Norton, 1983). Besides the problem with conceptualization, the administration of marital quality scales often provoke controversial issues. Often, the marital quality scales have been administered to wives only, since they are more available at home during the day. Therefore, to conclude the couples' marital quality as reflected only by the wives' responses to the scale, can be misleading. Spanier (1973) suggests taking both spouses' responses to the scale is more appropriate to justify the indicator of group functioning as it relates to marital adjustment.

Regardless of conceptual differences, the marital adjustment concept has been found to be consistent in measuring the processes in the marital relationship that are presumed to be necessary to achieve a harmonious and functional level (Locke, 1951; Spanier, 1976; Spanier & Cole, 1976).

In the decade of the 80's, the concept of marital quality became accepted and widely used in marital relationship research. This concept combined marital adjustment and satisfaction in an inclusive way (Sabatelli, 1988). Therefore, marital quality is indicative of both the objective and subjective measures of the marital relationship, as an overall or global perception as well as from the specific dimensions measured in the instruments.

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was developed in 1976 by Spanier to assess both married and cohabitating couples. Adjustment is defined as a process in which the outcome is determined by the degree of troublesome dyadic differences, interspousal tensions and personal anxiety, dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, and consensus on matters of importance to marital functioning. These broad dimensions of marital adjustment are operationalized in the DAS with four sub-scales, namely dyadic satisfaction, dyadic consensus, dyadic cohesion, and affectional expression. The original version of the measure contained over 200 items but was pared down to 32 items measuring the above dimensions. Scale scores range from 0 to 151 with higher scores reflecting higher marital adjustment and lower scores reflecting lower marital adjustment. Both the total and sub-scales have been shown to be highly reliable (Cronbachs alpha = .96 for the total and range of .74 to .94 for the sub-scales). The content validity, criterion-related, and construct validity of the instrument have also been tested with an indication of satisfactory results (Spanier, 1976).

The DAS has been both praised and criticized for its ability to measure marital quality as a concept. Spanier (1976, 1979) claims that the global score of the DAS as well as the individual sub-scale scores can be used to indicate marital adjustment. However, more recent findings indicate that the dyadic satisfaction and affectional expression sub-scales exhibit some validity problems (Crane, Busby, &

Larson, 1991; Kazak, Jarmas, & Snitzer, 1988). Obviously, some of the items are homogeneous and some are not. The 32 item scale is also weighted inappropriately and disproportionately used (Norton, 1983). Busby, Christensen, Crane, and Larson (1995) revised the DAS by selecting out items that are homogeneous and by exhibiting the construct and criterion validity of the new revised version. They claim that the revised version of the DAS is appropriate for both clinical and non-clinical populations.

With its good standing as having an articulate and sound conceptual foundation, the instrument is chosen to be used in the study. The present study utilizes the total score of the original Dyadic Adjustment Scale as an indicator of marital adjustment. To overcome the problem of inappropriate weight given to the items, the standardized score of the items is used in the analysis.

Since its establishment, the DAS has been widely used both in the United States and in other cultural contexts in the world. For example, Shek (1995) utilizes the Chinese version of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale to check on the relationship between marital quality and psychological well-being of married adults in a Chinese context. Shek reveals that there is a link between marital adjustment and the psychological well-being of the sample in his study; that is, a less adjusted person tends to show more psychiatric and mid-life crisis symptoms and indicates a lower level of life satisfaction.

The modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale

Marital satisfaction is defined as a subjective evaluation of the overall quality of the marriage (Bahr, Chappell & Leigh, 1983; Burr, 1970; Burr, Leigh, Day, & Constantine, 1979; Lenthall, 1978; Rollins & Galligan, 1978). Individual spouses or couples are viewed as satisfied when their needs, expectations, and desires are met in the marriage.

Along with the DAS, the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (Schumm et al., 1986) is also included in the study. This scale measures the degree of overall satisfaction of each spouse with marriage as an institution, with the marital relationship, and with their husband or wife as a spouse. The authors signify the implicit meaning of these areas of satisfaction by implying that the individual spouse is assessing his or her degree of satisfaction on factors such as intimacy, quality of communication, and fulfillment of individual spousal responsibilities or duties. Such attempts are aligned with the early discussions on the conceptual issue of marital quality, whether it is appropriately measured with a global indicator or a multiple dimension measurement. Therefore, this measurement is included in the present study to evaluate its potential usage in measuring global indications of marital quality in contexts and norms outside the United States.

An additional item, regarding the overall degree of satisfaction with showing of affection in the marital relationship, is also added in the measure. This item attempts to relate any unanswered items from the DAS that deal directly with showing love and affection, which are assumed to be culturally inappropriate as a measure for Malay-Muslims. The four items in the modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (m-KMS) include: (1) How satisfied are you with your marriage? (2) How satisfied are you with your husband/wife? (3) How satisfied are you with your husband/wife as a spouse? and (4) How satisfied are you with the showing of affection in your marriage? In the present study, the m-KMS is measured by using seven response categories ranging from "extremely dissatisfied" to "extremely satisfied".

In a series of studies, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient on the original 3-items scale ranges from .81 to .98. The factorial, concurrent, criterion, and construct validity of the instrument have been established (Calahan, 1996; Jeong and Schumm, 1992; Schumm, Anderson, et al., 1985; Schuum, Nichols, et al., 1983). The authors warn of the tendency to get skewed responses by using the scale since, in general, people tend to report their marriage as satisfactory. The instrument, although limited, has also been used in other contexts. For example, it has been used with Arab immigrants to the United States (Faragallah, 1995), in Chinese (Shek, 1994; Shek & Tsang, 1993; Shek,

Lam, Tsoi, & Lam, 1993), in Korean (Rho & Schumm, 1989; Jeong & Schumm, 1990), and with Greek/ American couples (Wasielewski, 1991). Results from this research indicate a sound establishment of factor structure and the internal consistency reliability of the scale. Rho and Schumm (1989) indicate that marital satisfaction is the most substantial predictor of family satisfaction. Jeong and Schumm's (1990) study of Korean/American couples found that Korean wives' English proficiency and education are significantly related to marital satisfaction. Duration of stay of the Korean wives in the United States was not significantly related to marital satisfaction.

**Measuring Gender-Role Egalitarianism: The Sex-Role
Egalitarianism Scale (SRES)**

Gender-role attitudes have been studied extensively, and various paper-pencil instruments have been developed as measurements. In her book, Women's and Women's Issues: A Handbook of Tests and Measures (Beere, 1979), a total of 235 tests relating to women's issues, specifically relating to gender-role attitudes, is compiled by the author. The existing instruments for testing gender-roles are found to have limitations due to inconsistencies of the actual instruments and inaccurate claims about measurement of the concepts.

Considering several significant factors of previous gender-roles studies (such as poor domain specification, insufficient content relevancies and content coverage, reliability, and validity), Beere, King, Beere and King (1984) initiated the development of the Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES).

The SRES was developed to measure attitudes toward the equality of men and women and it contains items that require judgements about both men and women assuming non-traditional roles (King and King, 1993). The instruments have 4 forms: full forms B and K and short forms BB and KK. For the full forms B and K, there is a total of 95 items; there are 19 items for each of the marital, parental, educational, employment and social-interpersonal-hetero-sexual roles sub-scales. The response format is based on the 5-point Likert

scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". A total score is obtained by adding all the scores; the domain score is accumulative of the responses in each sub-scale.

Gender-role egalitarianism is defined by the authors of the SRES as an attitude that causes one to respond to another individual independently of the other individual's sex. The SRES has been used in different cultural contexts within and outside the United States with a reportedly sound reliability. The Cronbach alpha ranges from .70 to .95 for Form B, which is used in the study. For content validity, the SRES has been tested against several other instruments and provides evidence of convergent and discriminant validity (King and King, 1993).

Form B of the SRES is used in the study because of its exclusive conceptual foundation that specifically balances the judgement of equality and inequality, which can reduce bias toward the responses. (Form K is not available in published form). The sound validity and reliability indicators, as well as the less complicated nature of the instrument, provide the rationale for using the SRES (King and King, 1993).

It is important to note that distortion of traditional and Islamic beliefs can be justified in the related items which clearly indicate the difference between what is "right" and "wrong" from the religious perspective. An item such as "a marriage is likely to succeed if the wife is the

boss" may be misleading if it is considered traditional when the response is "disagree" since, in Islam, the husband should be the boss for the marriage in order for it to be successful.

Research using the SRES in the past has provided evidence that, in general, females score higher than males (Beere et al., 1984; Honeck, 1981). This result is aligned with other research on gender-roles attitudes using measures other than the SRES (Etaugh and Spiller, 1989; MacDonald, 1974). However, there is also research that reveals approximately similar scores between males and females on gender-role egalitarianism (Brabeck and Weisgerber, 1989; King and King, 1990). Most of this research utilized college students as respondents.

Sparks (1996) indicates in his study of 72 married couples having at least one child aged less than 24 months indicates that husbands report low marital adjustment when their wives are more egalitarian than them; the SRES was used in this study. Li and Caldwell (1987), in their study of gender-role congruency of married couples, indicate that the greater the incongruence is in the direction of the husband being more egalitarian in relation to the wife, the more adjusted the marriage is and vice versa. In other words, when the couples are incongruent in their gender-role attitudes, perceived marital adjustment is low when the wives score higher than their husbands on the scale.

Characteristics of the Malay-Muslims of Malaysia

Muslim scholars have interpreted the Quran as denoting marriage as a religious duty, a moral safeguard, and a social commitment (Abdalati, 1975). In Malay society, marital status and age play major roles in determining social status and participation in social activities. Married men and women are considered knowledgeable and experienced as compared to their counterparts. The Malay-Muslim family system in Malaysia is greatly influenced by Islam and westernization, as well as cultural and historical circumstances (Kling, 1995).

Islam as a religion does not discriminate against men and women according to their gender or social status. In front of Allah (God), it is their faith and deeds that count. Therefore, each man and woman, married or unmarried, is accountable for their own behavior. Marriage is recommended in Islam as a noble and the only way for procreation and the well-being of mankind. Husbands' and wives' rights are clearly outlined by the religion. Submission to Allah is at the top of everything else in a Muslim's list of priority and everything that follows must be in accord with the teaching of the religion. Both men and women in Islam are given specific roles in marital relationships due to their biological merits. There is no prohibition in Islam against women who wish to work outside the home provided they do it within the framework of modesty, in accord with the Islamic teaching (Doi, 1984).

A wife is not obligated for financial burden for the family. Any income that she brings to the household, provided it is from eligible sources, belongs to her and not the husband. It is important to note that without faith and an in-depth understanding of both Islam and the Malay customs and cultural system, an outsider can easily isolate the group as a male-dominant society which treats women as second class citizens which, of course, is not true.

There is not much research published on the Malay-Muslim society of Malaysia, particularly in the area of marriage and the family. Karim (1987) reviews the status of Malay women in Malaysia from cultural and Islamic perspectives. She notes that religious reform and industrialization have an impact in increasing gender differences in Malay society. However, it is wise to note that Malay-Muslim women of Malaysia are not only bound by the Islamic aspects of life, but also by Malay customs and cultural law. To some extent, even when Islam seems to promote a nondiscriminatory approach, the culture itself denotes the reverse. Kling (1995) concludes that the reality of a Malay marriage and family life today is a reflection of three major influences, namely the Islamic religion, customary law, and westernization.

Adams (1988) indicates that the components of marital quality are culture-bound, since marriage functions variedly across cultures. In the marriages of Malay-Muslim couples for instance, although not necessarily purely arranged by

the parents, a considerable amount of involvement by parents from both sides is inevitable. In Islam, an individual is advised to find a spouse who is approximately equivalent to oneself in terms of socioeconomic aspects. However, the best choice of all would be someone who is religious, and practicing Islam accordingly, to ensure the well-being of the marriage and offspring. As long as it is in accord with Islamic teaching, the wife is to obey the husband and safeguard herself in her husband's absence. These dimensions of the marital contract may seem to underestimate women's roles in the eyes of outsiders.

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Chapter Summary

To summarize this chapter, it is evident from the past four decades that the concept of marital quality has been widely researched, yet family scientists continue to further investigate the subject. Issues regarding conceptualization of marital quality are still debated, one of which is the issue of measurement. Measures of marital quality, marital adjustment or marital satisfaction often fall under two categories: one that combines both objective and subjective measure of the marital relationship and another that evaluates only the subjective dimension of the relationship. Given different contexts of cultural and religious backgrounds, marital quality is agreed upon as culturally bound. The causes and results of marital quality are still being explored, both empirically and qualitatively. Much emphasis is given to the study of marital quality, while gender-role egalitarianism of husbands and wives is also getting increased attention by researchers. The congruency of gender-role attitudes between husband and wife and its relationship to marital well-being one recent area of interest.

It is noteworthy to remember that given a different context of religion, culture, and geography, this study attempts to investigate the relationship between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality in Malay-Muslim student couples in the United States.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

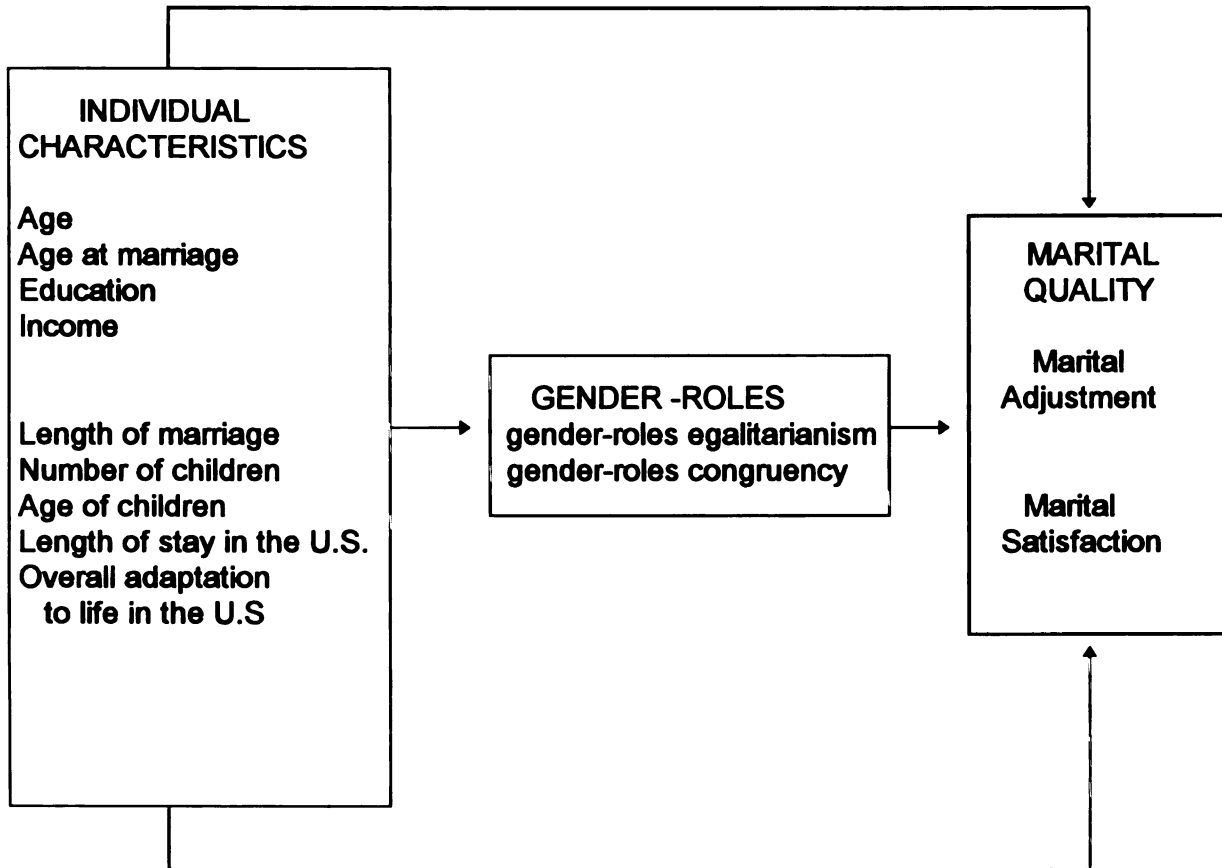
The present study attempts to investigate the relationship between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality among the Malay-Muslim student couples currently residing in the Midwest Region of the U.S. This chapter illustrates the conceptual framework of the study, definitions of the variables, the research questions, hypotheses, the research design, a description of the sample in the study, the procedures used, and the measurement instruments.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 2 illustrates the conceptual framework for the study. Marital quality as the dependent variable is analyzed as an indicator of marital adjustment and marital satisfaction. The relationship between marital quality and gender-role egalitarianism is explored. Gender-role congruency or incongruency is hypothesized to be related to marital quality. Individual characteristics as independent variables are hypothesized as having direct and/or indirect relationships with to gender-roles, and/or marital quality. Finally, individual characteristics and gender-roles are

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

**MARITAL QUALITY AS A FUNCTION OF GENDER-ROLE EGALITARIANISM AMONG
THE MALAY-MUSLIM STUDENT COUPLES IN THE MIDWEST REGION
OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**



used together in determining marital quality of the respondents.

Variables

Marital Quality: Dimensions of marital adjustment and marital satisfaction are independently measured for both husbands and wives. Marital quality serves as the dependent variable.

Individual Characteristics:

Age.

Age at marriage.

Length of marriage.

Education: Highest grade completed/years of education.

Household student status:

husband-only, wife-only, both students

Income (in Malaysia and United States)

Number of children.

Age of children (Age of oldest and youngest children).

Family life cycle (based on age of oldest child)

Length of stay in the United States.

Overall perception of degree of adjustment/adaptation to life in the United States.

Gender-Role Egalitarianism

Gender-role attitudes

Gender-role congruency

Summary of the variables

Individual characteristics and gender-role egalitarianism are the independent variables when used in determining correlates of marital quality. Gender-role egalitarianism is the independent variable when analyzing correlates of marital quality. Individual characteristics are the independent variables for studying both correlates of gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality.

<u>Independent Variables</u>		<u>Dependent Variables</u>
Individual characteristics	--->	Marital Quality
Individual characteristics	--->	Gender-roles egalitarianism
Gender-role egalitarianism	--->	Marital Quality
Individual characteristics and Gender-role egalitarianism	--->	Marital Quality
Gender-role congruency	--->	Marital Quality

Definitions

Marital Quality

Conceptual definition:

(i) Marital quality, as indicated by marital adjustment, refers to an interpersonal process of movement along a continuum, which can be evaluated at any point in time on a dimension from well-adjusted to maladjusted (Spanier, 1976). It denotes the degree of satisfaction in

the marital relationship, commitment to its continuance, degree of engaging in activities together, degree to which the couple agrees on matters of importance to the relationship, and the degree to which the couple is satisfied with expression of affection and sex in the marital relationship.

Marital adjustment also defines the degree to which couples fit together and satisfy each other's needs, desires, and expectations (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). The term adjustment is also associated with adaptation, ability to perform, flexibility, and satisfaction. Adjustment is also considered to be the ability of a person to comply his or her social position to the expected roles (Biddle, 1979).

(ii) Marital quality as an indication of global marital satisfaction refers to the degree of satisfaction with the marriage, with the relationship with one's spouse, and with the spouse (Schumm et al., 1986).

Operational definition:

(i) Scores on the 32-item scale of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) in 4 areas: 1-Marital satisfaction (10 items); 2-Consensus, i.e., the extent of agreement on such issues as finances, goals, career decisions, etc. (13 items); 3-Cohesion, i.e., the extent of quality of shared leisure time and other activities (5 items); and 4-Affectional expressions (4 items).

(ii) Scores on the modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (m-KMS) indicate degree of marital satisfaction. This scale contains 4 items, one each for overall marital satisfaction, satisfaction with the marital relationship, satisfaction with one's spouse, and satisfaction with expression of affection in the relationship; these are all used to measure an individual's perception of his or her marital satisfaction. A higher score indicates high satisfaction, while a lower score indicates lower satisfaction. A higher satisfaction scale score indicates a high quality of marriage. These items are measured on a 7-point Likert scale.

Gender-Role Egalitarianism

Conceptual definition:

According to Beere, King, Beere and King (1984), sex-role egalitarianism is defined as "an attitude that causes one to respond to another individual independently of the other individual's sex". Possession of this attitude reflects the belief that the sex of an individual should not influence the perception of an individual's abilities or the determination of an individual's rights, obligations, and opportunities. It also refers to a person's general overall position in reference to a continuum ranging from traditional to egalitarian gender-role attitudes. True sex-role egalitarians, according to the authors, exhibit

tradition-free attitudes to persons of either sex; they do not discriminate against either women or men who exhibit non-traditional behaviors.

Operational definition:

Scores on a five-point Likert Scale using items of the Sex-Role Egalitarian Scale (SRES) with three out of five areas measured: 1-marital roles, 2-parental roles, and 3-educational roles. The two areas which are not included in the study are employment-roles and heterosexual relationships-roles.

Gender-Role Congruency

Conceptual definition:

The attitude congruency of gender-roles between the husband and the wife.

Operational definition:

The difference or similarity in scores on the SRES between husband and wife. Wives' scores on the SRES are subtracted from husbands' scores on the SRES. A positive value indicates the husband being more egalitarian and a negative value indicates the wife being more egalitarian.

The variables involved in this definition are:

HSRES - Husbands' scores on the SRES

WSRES - Wives' scores on the SRES

HWSRES - subtraction of wives' scores from
husbands' on the SRES (HSRES - WSRES)

ABSRES - absolute values of the differences in
scores of HSRES and WSRES.

Besides using the continuous data, the scores are also divided into categories based on the difference in scores of the HWSRES. The possible categories are:

Husband egalitarian - Wife egalitarian (HEWE)

Husband traditional - Wife traditional (HTWT)

Husband traditional - Wife egalitarian (HTWE)

Husband egalitarian - Wife traditional (HEWT)

The nature of these variables provides flexibility in analyzing the relationship of gender-role congruency to marital quality.

Adaptation to life in the United States.

Conceptual definition:

The satisfaction of those needs related to survival or the process whereby an individual accommodates to an environment (Surdam & Collins, 1984). Two major components of adaptation are adjustment and assimilation.

Operational definition:

Scores on 10 items based on a five-point Likert Scale, ranging from poorly unadjusted to well adjusted, on degree of perception of own adjustment and adaptation in the United States.

Research Questions

The central research questions for the study are:

Are there any significant relationships between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality among the Malay-Muslim student couples residing temporarily in the United States? If so, what are the dynamics? What are the relationships between marital gender-role congruency/incongruency and marital quality? What are the relationships between individual characteristics and marital quality? What are the roles of the individual characteristics in explaining the relationships between gender-role egalitarianism and gender-role congruency with marital quality?

To answer the central research question and related research questions, several hypotheses are formulated. These hypotheses are organized to reflect the conceptual framework and the research questions for the study.

Hypotheses**Research Question #1:**

What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Marital Quality?

Age:

H_{O1}: There is no relationship between marital quality and age for husband/wife.

H_{A1}: Older husband/wife has higher marital quality than younger husband/wife.

Age at marriage:

H_{O2}: There is no relationship between age at marriage and marital quality for husband/wife.

H_{A2}: Husband/wife who is married at earlier age has lower marital quality than husband/wife who marries later.

Education:

H_{O3}: There is no relationship between education and marital quality for husband/wife.

H_{A3}: Husband/wife who is more educated has higher marital quality than husband/wife who is less educated.

H_{O4}: There is no mean difference in marital quality between husband/wife who studies and one who is not studying.

H_{A4}: Husband/wife who studies has higher marital quality than one who is not studying.

H₀₅: There are no mean differences in marital quality among husband/wife of husband-only studying couples, wife-only studying couples, and both-spouses studying couples.

H_{A5}: Husband/wife from husband-only studying couple has higher marital quality than one from wife-only studying and both-spouses studying couples.

Income:

H₀₆: There is no relationship between income (family income in United States, both spouses' income in Malaysia and individual income in Malaysia) and marital quality for husband/wife.

H_{A6}: Husband/wife who earns more income (family income in United States, both spouses' income in Malaysia, and individual income in Malaysia) has higher marital quality than those who earn less income.

Length of marriage

H₀₇: There is no relationship between length of marriage and marital quality for husband/wife.

H_{A7}: Husband/wife who has been married longer has higher marital quality than one who is just married.

Number of children

H₀₈: There is no relationship between marital quality and number of children for husband/wife.

H_{A8}: Husband/wife who has more children has lower marital quality than one who has fewer children.

Age of children

- H₀₉: There is no relationship between age of first child and marital quality for husband/wife.
- H_{A9}: Husband/wife who has older first child has higher marital quality than one who has younger first child.
- H₀₁₀: There is no relationship between age of youngest child and marital quality for husband/wife.
- H_{A10}: Husband/wife who has younger youngest child has lower marital quality than one who has older youngest child.
- H₀₁₁: There is no mean difference in marital quality among husband/wife at any stage of the family life-cycle.
- H_{A11}: Husband/wife who comes from family at earlier stage of family life-cycle has higher marital quality than one who comes from family at later stage of the family life-cycle.

Length of stay in the United States.

- H₀₁₂: There is no relationship between length of stay in the United States and marital quality for husband/wife.
- H_{A12}: Husband/wife who has stayed longer in the United States has higher marital quality than one who has just arrived.

Adaptation to life in the United States.

- H₀₁₃: There is no relationship between adaptation to life in the United States and marital quality.
- H_{A13}: Husband/wife who is better adjusted to life in the United States has higher marital quality than one who is less adjusted.

Research Question #2

What are the relationships between Gender-Roles Egalitarianism and Marital Quality?

Gender-roles Egalitarianism:

H₀₁: There is no relationship between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality for husband.

H_{A1}: Egalitarian husband has higher marital quality than traditional husband.

H₀₂: There is no relationship between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality for wife.

H_{A2}: Traditional wife has higher marital quality than egalitarian wives.

Research Question #3

What are the relationships between Gender-Roles Congruency/Incongruency and Marital Quality?

Gender-roles Congruency/Incongruency:

H₀₁: There is no relationship between gender-role congruency and marital quality for both husband and wife.

H_{A1}: Higher gender-role congruency decreases marital quality for both husband and wife.

H₀₂: There is no mean difference in marital quality between husband/wife who is congruent and incongruent in their gender-role egalitarianism with their spouse.

H_{A2}: Husband/wife whose gender-role egalitarianism is congruent with his/her spouse has higher marital quality than husband/wife whose gender-roles egalitarianism incongruent with his/her spouse.

H₀₃: There is no mean difference in marital quality among the pairs of gender-role congruency/ incongruency for the couples.

H_{A3}: Traditional husband-egalitarian wife couple has lower marital quality than those from egalitarian husband-traditional wife, both traditional, and both egalitarian couples.

Research Question #4:

What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Gender-roles Egalitarianism?

Age:

H₀₁: There is no relationship between age and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.

H_{A1}: Older husband/wife is less egalitarian than younger husband/wife.

Age at marriage:

H₀₂: There is no relationship between age at marriage and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.

H_{A2}: Husband/wife who is married at earlier age is less egalitarian than one who marries later.

Education:

H₀₃: There is no relationship between education and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.

H_{A3}: Husband/wife who is more educated is more egalitarian than husband/wife who is less educated.

- H₀₄: There is no mean difference in gender-role egalitarianism between husband/wife who studies and husband/wife who does not.
- H_{A4}: Husband/wife who studies is more egalitarian than those who do not study.
- H₀₅: There is no mean difference in marital quality among husband/wife from husband-only studying couples, wife-only studying couples, and both-spouses studying couples.
- H_{A5}: Husband/wife from husband-only studying household is less egalitarian than one from wife-only studying or both-spouses studying couples.

Income:

- H₀₆: There is no relationship between income (family income in United States, both spouses' income in Malaysia, and individual income in Malaysia) and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.
- H_{A6}: Husband/wife who earns more income (family income in United States, both spouses' income in Malaysia, and individual income in Malaysia) is more egalitarian than one who earns less income.

Length of marriage

- H₀₇: There is no relationship between length of marriage and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.
- H_{A7}: Husband/wife who has been longer married is more egalitarian than one who is just married.

Number of children

- H₀₈: There is no relationship between number of children and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.
- H_{A8}: Husband/wife who has more children is less egalitarian than one who has fewer children.

Age of children

- H₀₉: There is no relationship between age of first child and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.
- H_{A9}: Husband/wife who has older first child is less egalitarian than one who has younger first child.
- H₀₁₀: There is no relationship between age of youngest child and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.
- H_{A10}: Husband/wife who has younger youngest child is more egalitarian than one who has older youngest child.
- H₀₁₁: There is no mean difference in gender-role egalitarianism among husband/wife at any stage of the family life-cycle.
- H_{A11}: Husband/wife who comes from family at earlier stage of family life-cycle is more egalitarian than one who comes from family at later stage of the family life-cycle.

Length of stay in the United States.

- H₀₁₂: There is no relationship between length of stay in the United States and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.
- H_{A12}: Husband/wife who has stayed longer in the United States is more egalitarian than one who has just arrived.

Adaptation to life in the United States.

H_{013} : There is no relationship between adaptation to life in the United States and gender-role egalitarianism for husband/wife.

H_{A13} : Husband/wife who is better adjusted to life in the United States is more egalitarian than those who are less adjusted.

Research Question #5:

What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Gender-role Congruency?

This research question is exploratory in nature; therefore, no null hypothesis is being tested. The statistical analysis performed for this question is to explore the likelihood of having any linear relationship between individual characteristics and gender-role congruency.

Research Design

The study is descriptive, exploratory, correlational in design, and cross-sectional in nature. The units of analysis are the individual spouses and the couples.

Respondents

According to the Census Bureau of the United States, the Midwest region consists of two parts: East North Central (Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Ohio and Wisconsin) and West Central (Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North and South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas). All married Malay-Muslim students from Malaysia who are currently enrolled in midwestern universities and have their spouses residing with them are eligible for the study. Due to the non-availability of recorded data on Malaysian students' marital, racial and religious backgrounds, the sampling list was obtained manually. The Malaysian Student Department of the Midwest Region in Chicago, Illinois provided a list of contact persons from various midwestern universities. Most of the contact persons are student leaders of the Malaysian Student Organization at their universities. Through these contact persons, a listing of names and telephone numbers of eligible respondents was assembled. A total of 148 student couples were identified to be eligible for the study.

Respondents are analyzed individually and as a couple. Each spouse responds to the questionnaire that is appropriately modified for their gender. The respondents are student couples with a husband, wife, or both studying at a midwestern university.

Procedures

A total of 148 student couples (N=148 husbands and 148 wives) were contacted via telephone. The initial contact was made in order to verify their student status, length of time in the United States, the year they plan to return to Malaysia, and their addresses and to provide information about the study. Only those who had completed at least one academic semester in the United States were screened as eligible.

A mail survey was used for the study. A total of 148 sets of questionnaires were mailed to the student couples. Included in the envelope were 2 questionnaires which were labelled for each spouse, and 2 self-addressed postage paid envelopes for them to use to individually mail back the completed questionnaires.

Each participant was requested to respond to a questionnaire covering the following sections: (i) Marital Quality, (ii) Gender-Roles Egalitarianism, (iii) Adaptation to Life in the United States, and (iv) Individual Characteristics. As mentioned in the consent form and

instruction sheet, respondents were requested not to share their responses with their spouses.

For the first round, respondents were given three weeks to respond to the questionnaires. After the first round, another phone call was made to contact persons to ask them to remind all the eligible respondents about participating in the study. Three weeks after the second round, a thank you and reminder letter was mailed to each couple. This letter served to thank those who returned the completed questionnaire, as well as to remind others to return the questionnaire. The letter also offered the availability of a new set of questionnaires in case they were needed by the respondents. Those who did not respond within two weeks following the thank you letter were considered not to be interested in participating in the study. At the conclusion of the data collection time frame, a total of 97 sets (65.5% response rate) of the questionnaires were returned.

It was assumed that not all of the spouses would be well-versed in the English version of the questionnaire, therefore, both the husband and wife versions of the questionnaires were translated into Bahasa Malaysia, the native language for the Malaysian-Malays and also the national language of Malaysia. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale and Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale used in the study were translated by the researcher in January, 1996. Also, the translation was verified by a faculty member of the

Department of Family Studies and Development, College of Human Ecology, University of Agriculture, Malaysia in March, 1996. The translated versions of the instruments were approved by the Unit of Translation, Center of Linguistic Study, University of Science, Malaysia in April, 1996.

Prior to data collection, a pilot study was completed with local Malay-Muslim student couples who were scheduled to return soon to Malaysia. The pilot served to determine the appropriateness of wordings and structure of the questionnaire, as well as to identify the time frame needed to complete the questionnaire.

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) provided approval prior to the sending of the questionnaire to the respondents (see appendix).

Measurement Instruments

Marital Quality

The study utilized Spanier's (1976) Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). The DAS is a 32-item scale that assesses 4 aspects of marital quality: 1-Marital satisfaction (10 items); 2-Consensus, i.e., the extent of agreement on such issues as finances, goals, career decisions (13 items); 3-Cohesion, i.e., the extent of quality of shared leisure time and other activities (5 items); and 4-Affectional expressions (4 items). A total score and sub-scores for each area are obtained by summing the responses. Two of the

items are measured in a yes-no response, two items use a 5-point Likert scale, one item uses a 7-point Likert scale and the remaining one use a 6-point Likert scale. The total scores may range from 0 to 151 with higher scores indicating higher levels of marital adjustment. Since all four areas are different in nature, the computation of the standardized scores of these items is used as the total score for this scale. All 32 items were standardized and computed into a total score of marital adjustment. As presented in Chapter 2, evidence for the reliability and the validity of the DAS was reported by Spanier (1976). Throughout the years, many studies have employed this instrument and established that the instrument is reliable and valid.

Cronbach's alpha of .96 for the entire scale and ranges from .73 to .94 for the sub-scales have been reported for the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. Information on content, criterion-related, and construct validity have also been reported on this instrument (Sabatelli, 1988).

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale is chosen to measure marital quality in the study based on its broad conceptual base which covers a broad range of marital quality criteria, as well as its established use over the past two decades. Alpha reliabilities for the DAS in this study are .85 and .86 for husband and wife respectively. The Cronbach alpha for each area ranged from .41 to .85 for husbands (husbands' Dyadic Consensus = .85, Dyadic Cohesion = .78, Dyadic

satisfaction = .65, and Affection Expression = .41). For the wives, the Cronbach alpha for each area ranges from .57 to .83 (wives' Dyadic Consensus = .83, Dyadic Cohesion = .57, Dyadic Satisfaction = .65, and Affection Expression = .57). These results of the reliability testings are slightly lower than the reported values from other studies; however, with an exception of the Affection Expression sub-scale, the sub-scales manifest moderate alpha values.

As an addition to the DAS, a modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (m-KMS) (Schumm et al., 1986), which consists of 4 items measuring an individual's global marital evaluation, is included in the study. The three original items specifically are: 1) satisfaction with the marriage, 2) satisfaction with one's relationship with one's spouse, and 3) satisfaction with one's spouse. An additional item on satisfaction with the showing of affection in one's relationship is included in the scale. It was assumed that items related to detail measures of expression of affection may not be culturally appropriate for the respondents. Therefore, this additional item is included in order to obtain responses that might have been hindered from similar measure of expression of affection in the DAS. All of these four items are measured in a 7-point Likert scale on satisfaction from "extremely unsatisfied" to "extremely satisfied".

The total score for the modified version of the KMS may range from 0 to 28 with higher scores reflecting higher level of marital satisfaction in the areas measured. Cronbach's alpha reported for the original version of 3-items KMS ranges from .89 to .93 (Schumm et al., 1983). Information on criterion-related and construct validity has also been established for this scale (Sabatelli, 1988). The alpha reliabilities established for the m-KMS in this study are .95 and .93 for husband and wife respectively. These figures are slightly higher than the reported range of Cronbach's alpha for this scale. The correlational factor between the DAS and the KMS is $r = .51$ ($p \leq .01$) for husbands, and $r = .59$ ($p \leq .001$) for wives.

Gender-Role Egalitarianism

The Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES) developed by Beere, King, Beere and King (1984) measures gender-role egalitarianism in this study. Details of this scale are covered in Chapter 2. The SRES contains 5 sub-scales: Marital Roles, Parental Roles, Employment Roles, Social-Interpersonal-Heterosexual Roles, and Educational Roles. Each sub-scale contains 19 items with responses measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". For the study, only 3 out of the 5 sub-scales in Form B of the SRES are used; they are the marital, parental, and educational sub-scales. These sub-

scales reflected the current roles of the respondents: their marital relationship, their parental role, and their role as student (for at least one member of the couple). The other two sub-scales contained some items judged by the researcher as not appropriate to fit the Malay-Muslim religious and cultural standards; therefore, they are not included in the study.

According to the author of the scale, "Marital Roles" pertains to beliefs about the equality or inequality of husbands and wives regarding various aspects of relationships to each other and their home life; it does not pertain to beliefs about their roles as parents. "Parental Roles" pertains to beliefs about the equality or inequality of fathers and mothers regarding their roles as parents. "Educational Roles" pertains to beliefs about the equality and inequality of males and females in school, university, or training facility settings, including roles as students or providers of education and training. Since one or both spouses may be in an educational setting, the educational role sub-scale is perceived to be appropriately included in the measures for this study.

The response format for each item is a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The scoring indicates a score of 5 as the most egalitarian position, and a score of 1 as the least egalitarian position. Scores on each sub-scale are used

both independently and as a group. A higher score indicates egalitarianism while a lower score indicates traditionalism. The SRES is chosen for use in the study due to the comprehensive coverage of the marital and parental sub-scales and also the balance in the number of items for both traditional and egalitarian gender-roles.

Scoring for the SRES is done independently for each of the sub-scales and a total score is computed by summing all three sub-scales. There are 23 items out of the total 57 items that need to be recoded in order to have the high score that indicates high egalitarianism. The possible range of scores for each sub-scale is 19 to 95 and for the total scale is from 57 to 275.

The primary goal of the SRES, according to the authors, is to reliably measure individual differences so that meaningful answers to scientific questions can be obtained. As a non-clinical instrument, the SRES does not denote guidelines for categorizing persons as "very traditional", "moderately egalitarian", "highly egalitarian" and the like (King and King, 1993). The alpha reliabilities for the total scale used in this study of 57 items are .89 and .88 for husband and wife respectively, which is consistent with the Cronbach's alpha reported by other investigators (.81 to .97) (King & King, 1993). The Cronbach alpha for each sub-scale of the SRES in this study ranges from .68 to .80 for husbands (Marital Role = .70, Parental Role = .68, and

Educational Role = .80). The Cronbach alpha for each subscale ranges from .69 to .79 for the wives (Marital Role = .69, Parental Role = .77, and Educational Role = .79).

Gender-Role Congruency

This study operationalizes gender-role congruency based on the discrepancy between husbands' and wives' scores on the SRES. Wives' scores (WSRES) are subtracted from husbands' scores (HSRES). A positive value indicates husbands' scores as being higher than wives', thus implying the husband is more egalitarian in his gender-role attitudes relative to his wife. A negative value indicates wives scoring higher than husbands; therefore, it implies the wife is more egalitarian than her husband relatively.

Li (1985) used the differences in scores to create variables that refer to (i) magnitude-only of the discrepancy, (ii) direction of the discrepancy, and (iii) magnitude plus direction of the discrepancy. This is an attempt to ensure that the negative and positive values of the discrepancy do not "cancel out each other" in the Multiple Regression Analysis. Following in the same manner, ABSRES is created to indicate absolute value of the difference between HSRES and WSRES. ABSRES contains only positive values. Unlike Li (1985), who used the discrepancy of scores in two different settings to indicate the magnitude when the husband is egalitarian and the magnitude

when the wife is egalitarian (magnitude plus direction) variables, this study employs a categorical variable to meet the same purpose.

The HSRES and WSRES are divided into categories to imply highly traditional or highly egalitarian based upon the husbands' and wives' median scores. Following this step, the variable MATCH is created to indicate the configuration of the couples' gender-role egalitarianism. As mentioned earlier, four categories of MATCH reveal the possible combinations of gender-role egalitarianism for the couple: HEWE (both spouses are egalitarian), HTWT (both spouses are traditional), HTWE (Husband traditional-wife egalitarian), and HEWT (Husband egalitarian-wife traditional). It is assumed that this categorical variable provides a better understanding of the configuration of gender-role congruency or incongruency between the couple.

Adaptation Scale

A self-developed 10-item scale measuring individual adaptation to various aspects of life in the U.S. is used in the study. Individuals' adaptation to place to live, weather, the language, their financial situation, food, relationships with American students, relationships with American families, social relations, practicing Islam in general, and an overall adaptation towards life were measured. The response format for each item is based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "least adapted" to "most adapted". The possible range of scores for this scale is from 10 to 50.

In order to obtain more comprehensive insights into the respondents' backgrounds, information was gathered on age, age at marriage, length of stay in the United States, income, education, occupation while in Malaysia, number and particulars of children, and perceptions of their parents' marital happiness. This data was also obtained with a questionnaire.

Limitations

1. The validity and reliability of the instruments for use with the Malay-Muslims are unknown since these instruments have not been reported being used with a similar group.
2. Mailing, as the mode of data collection, may have yielded a lower response rate.
3. The couples' cooperation in terms of answering the questions independently from their spouses is critical to the quality of the study.

Assumptions

1. Marital quality is a process that the couple undergoes throughout the marital relationship.
2. Marital quality is indicated by the level of marital adjustment and a high level of marital satisfaction for both spouses.
2. Gender-role egalitarianism is a learning process that may be influenced by early childhood experiences.
3. Given different contexts, situations, time and various systems with which to interact, a person's gender-role egalitarianism may become flexible.
4. All responses are accurate and couples did not share their responses with each other.

Analysis

Initially, descriptive statistics and frequencies were utilized to determine the basic distributional characteristics of all the independent and dependent variables. Correlation analysis identified the relationships between the independent and the dependent variables. T-test analyzed the mean differences in marital adjustment scores and marital satisfaction scores between the husbands and wives. One-way ANOVA examined the mean differences of various scores of Marital Quality among the respondents based on their student status, family life-cycle stages and gender-role incongruency. Finally, Multiple Regression Analysis was used to examine predictors of Marital Quality.

Whenever appropriate, tests of assumptions were carried out prior to running the statistical analysis. Such tests included assumptions on normal distributions and homogeneity of variance. For all of the analysis, the .05 level of chance of probability is used in testing the null hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The study of Marital Quality as a Function of Gender-Role Egalitarianism Among the Malay-Muslim Student Couples in the Midwest Region, United States utilized a mail survey. This chapter includes descriptions of socio-demographic information of the respondents and results of the hypotheses testings. The organization of this chapter is in accord with the research questions and hypotheses of the study.

A total of 97 couples (N = 97 husbands and 97 wives) completed the questionnaires on various dimensions of individual characteristics, gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality. Seventy nine (81.4%) of the husbands and 39 (40.9%) of the wives are enrolled in a midwestern university at the time of the study.

Description of the respondents

The 97 couples who responded to the questionnaires represent 10 out of the 12 states in the midwest region of the United States. Those states include Michigan (32.0%), Illinois (19.6%), Indiana (18.5%), Ohio (11.3%), Iowa (5.2%), Missouri (5.2%), Wisconsin (4.1%), Minnesota (2.1%), Kansas (1.0%), and Nebraska (1.0%).

Tables 1 and 2 describe the respondents' socio-demographic backgrounds (note that Table 1 presents information for the husbands and Table 2 provides information about the wives). The majority of the husbands (60.4%) are 31 to 40 years old, with a mean age of 35.87 and standard deviation 5.34. As for the wives, 65.9% are 31 to 40 years old, with a mean age of 32.85 and standard deviation of 5.07.

The mean age at marriage for husbands is 26.41 and it is slightly higher than the mean age of wives at marriage (24.11). The youngest age at marriage for the husbands is 20 and for the wives, 16 years. The majority (79.4%) of the wives married by the time they were 25 years old. Fifty percent of the husbands married between the ages of twenty-six and thirty.

Since the respondents are selected from a student population, the educational level presented indicated either the students' current educational status or the highest level of education obtained by those who are non-students. The Malaysian Certificate of Examination (MCE) is the lowest level noted by the respondents. This certificate denotes the completion of the highest level in the Malaysian public school, which governs eleven years of schooling. The High School Certificate (HSC) indicates the two additional years of schooling following MCE, also known as pre-university years. Students who earn the certificate complete 13 years

of schooling. A diploma is a 3 year program at a college or university following the MCE. Students who earn a diploma complete 14 years of schooling. A Teaching Certificate is conferred on students who complete a 3 year program at any of the teacher training colleges in Malaysia. The MCE, HSC, Diploma, and Teaching Certificates are considered as non-degree qualifications in this category. The first degree holder or candidate is considered as having a total of 17 years of study; a Master's degree holder or candidate has 19 years of study and a Ph.D degree holder or candidate has 23 years of study.

The findings indicate that the average years of education for the husbands is 18.65 and for the wives, 15.96 years. A total of 7.4% of the husbands and 44.8% of the wives are non-degree holders. In describing the couples according to their student status, a total of 58 (59.8%) of couples constitute husband-only studying, 18 (18.6%) couples constitute wife-only studying, and 21 (21.6%) are couples which include both members studying at the time of the data collection.

Table 1

Profile of Malay-Muslim Husband Sample (N=97)

	n	(%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.
<u>Age in years</u>	96		35.87	5.34	23	50
23 - 30	21	(21.9)				
31 - 40	58	(60.4)				
41 - 50	17	(17.7)				
<u>Age at marriage</u>	96		26.41	3.14	20	37
20 - 25	39	(40.6)				
26 - 30	48	(50.0)				
31 - 37	9	(9.3)				
<u>Education</u>	95		18.65	2.69	11	23
Non-degree	7	(7.4)				
1st degree	33	(34.7)				
Masters	34	(35.8)				
Ph.D	21	(22.1)				
<u>Income</u> (1 US\$ = 2.5 Malaysian Ringgit)						
Individual income	97		\$ 805.20	\$455.73	0	\$2400
(monthly in Malaysia)			MR=(2013.62)	(1134.33)	0	(6000)
Family income	96		\$1226.16	\$603.63	\$506	\$4350
(monthly in U.S.\$)						
Both spouses income	92		\$1250.34	\$649.71	0	\$3200
(monthly in Malaysia)			MR=(3125.85)	(1624.27)		(8000)

Table 2

Profile of Malay-Muslim Wife Sample (N=97)

	n (%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.
<u>Age in years</u>	97	32.85	5.07	22	45
22 - 30	28 (28.9)				
31 - 40	64 (65.9)				
41 - 50	5 (5.2)				
<u>Age at marriage</u>	97	24.11	2.60	16	34
16 - 25	77 (79.4)				
26 - 30	17 (17.5)				
31 - 37	3 (3.1)				
<u>Education</u>	96	15.96	3.65	11	23
Non-degree	43 (44.8)				
1st degree	28 (29.2)				
Masters	13 (13.5)				
Ph.D	12 (12.5)				

Income (1 US\$ = 2.5 Malaysian Ringgit)

Individual income	97	\$ 448.40	\$306.40	0	\$1200
(monthly in Malaysia)		MR=(1121.48)	(766.87)	0	(3000)

Since some respondents were working in Malaysia prior to coming to the United States, it is important to also consider whether or not their income from their jobs in Malaysia continued. In describing income, two categories were considered. The first category is the total family income in United States, in which all sources were taken into account. These sources include scholarship and family allowances for sponsored students, salaries from both the husband's and the wife's jobs in the United States, food stamps, money received from home, and other resources. In U. S. dollars, the average family monthly income in the United States is \$1226.16. The other category is the individual income earned in Malaysia prior to coming to the United States. This is the income from salaries or other sources. The average Malaysia income for the husbands is US \$805.20, and for wives US \$448.40. The majority (55.2%) of the husbands continue to receive their income while studying in the United States. Only 32.8% of the wives' income continued. For those whose incomes continued, the mode of continuation is either full or partial.

Family Profile

Table 3 indicates the family profile of the respondents. The mean length of marriage for the respondents is 8.73 years with 24 years as the maximum

length. More than one-third of the respondents (38.1%) have been married for 6 to 10 years.

The mean number of children in the household is 2.18, with the majority of the respondents (36%) having 3 to 4 children. A total of 23.7% of the respondents are childless. The average age of the first child in the study is 102.92 months or 8.58 years. The youngest age for the first child is 2 months old and oldest age is 239 months or 19.91 years. A slightly higher number of boys live in the households as compared to girls (115:96).

Following Duvall's (1977) eight stages of family life cycle, the respondents are grouped according to the age of their first (oldest) child. The findings indicate that 23 (23.7%) are at Stage 1 (without children), 7 (7.2%) couples are at Stage 2 (childbearing families - oldest child age less than 30 months), 14 (14.4%) couples are at Stage 3 (families with preschool children - oldest child 2.5 - 6 years old), 43 (44.3%) couples are at Stage 4 (families with school-aged children - oldest child aged 6-13 years old), and 10 (10.3%) couples are at Stage 5 (families with teenagers - oldest child 13-20 years old). For those couples who have children, 53 (71.6%) have school-aged children or teenagers as the oldest child in their homes. Of those who are childless, the range of length of marriage for them is 1 to 19 years ($n = 23$, $\bar{M} = 3.96$, $SD = 4.17$).

Table 3

Profile of Malay-Muslim Family Sample (N=97)

	n (%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.
<u>Length of marriage</u> (in years)	97	8.73	5.15	1	24
1 - 5	26 (26.8)				
6 - 10	37 (38.1)				
11 - 15	27 (27.8)				
> 15	7 (7.2)				
<u>Children</u>	97	2.18	1.67	0	6
Without children	23 (23.7)				
1 - 2	31 (32.0)				
3 - 4	35 (36.0)				
5 - 6	8 (8.3)				
<u>Age of children in months:</u>					
1st child	74	102.92	50.23	2	239
2nd child	62	81.65	40.85	2	175
3rd child	43	63.05	35.07	10	161
4th child	22	44.86	31.06	5	139
5th child	8	50.50	34.51	5	119
6th child	2	17.0	22.62	1	33
<u>Age of first (oldest) child in years:</u> (Family life stages 1-5)					
(1) No children	23 (23.7)				
(2) < 2.5	7 (7.2)				
(3) 2.6 - 6	14 (14.4)				
(4) 6.1 - 13	43 (44.3)				
(5) 13.1 - 20	10 (10.3)				
<u>Age of youngest child in months:</u>					
No children	23 (23.7)				
< 24	27 (27.8)				
25 - 48	22 (22.7)				
49 - 72	12 (12.4)				
> 72	13 (13.4)				

Adaptation to life in the United States

The majority of husbands (66%) and wives (70%) in the sample are visiting the United States for the first time. Those who have been in the United States more than once have been here for their Bachelor's or Master's degree prior to their current educational pursuits or were accompanying their spouses.

A total of 81.4% of the husbands and 40.9% of the wives are currently studying in one of the universities in the midwest Region of the United States. For husbands, the mean length of stay in the United States is 30.68 months or 2.6 years; and for the wives it is 28.30 months or 2.4 years. The majority (81.4%) of the respondents came together to the United States. For those couples who did not come together, their non-student spouses and children came later.

Table 4 indicates the Adaptation Scale score of the respondents. The goal of this scale is to measure the respondents' degree of adaptation to life in the U.S. Using the median as the base for the cutting point, a score below the median indicates low adaptation while a score above the median indicates high adaptation to life in the United States. Findings from the paired sample t-test indicate that there is a significant difference in mean adaptation scores between the spouses ($t = 3.6$, $p \leq .001$). That is,

the husband's mean adaptation score is significantly higher than the wife's. This implies that the husbands are more adjusted to life in the United States than the wives.

	n	(%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.	med.
Possible Score Range					10	50	
<u>Total score (husbands)</u>	94		31.65	5.63	18	49	31
low adaptation	50	(53.2)					
high adaptation	44	(46.8)					
<u>Total score (wives)</u>	88		29.66	5.73	18	48	29
low adaptation	52	(59.1)					
high adaptation	36	(40.9)					
<u>Paired samples t-test:</u>	86						
Husbands			31.81	5.66			
Wives			29.58	5.72			
(<u>t</u> = 3.6 p ≤ .001)							

Gender-Role Egalitarianism

As identified in Chapter 3, as a non-clinical instrument, the Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale does not provide guidelines to classify an individual's gender-role orientation into highly egalitarian, moderately egalitarian, and so on. However, for the purpose of discussion, the respondents' scores on this scale have been divided into two categories by using the median score as the cutting point. Those who scored lower than the group median are indicated as having a low score, thus implicated as having a less egalitarian or a more traditional gender role. On the other hand, those who scored higher than the group median are indicated as being highly egalitarian.

Table 5 indicates the mean scores for both husbands and wives on the Sex-Role Egalitarian Scale. Scores on the 3 sub-scales are also presented in the table. The mean total score for husbands is 208.41, which is slightly lower than the wives' score of 214.52. Findings from paired sample t-test indicate that there is a significant difference in mean gender-role egalitarianism scores between the husbands and the wives ($t = -2.88$, $p \leq .01$). The mean egalitarianism score for the wives is higher than the husbands' score. This finding implies that the wives are more egalitarian than the husbands, as measured by the scale in this study.

Table 5

Mean Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale Scores for Husbands and Wives (N=97)

	n	(%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.	med.
Possible Score Range					57	285	
<u>Total score (husbands)</u>	84		208.41	18.42	157	258	206
Highly Traditional	43	(51.2)					
Highly Egalitarian	41	(48.8)					
<u>Sub-scale score</u>							
Marital role	89		69.28	6.75	44	84	
Parental role	91		69.26	6.72	56	89	
Educational role	89		70.45	7.84	51	91	
<u>Total score (wives)</u>	84		214.52	16.76	182	251	216
Highly Traditional	43	(51.2)					
Highly Egalitarian	41	(48.8)					
<u>Sub-scale score</u>							
Marital role	87		72.21	6.06	60	90	
Parental role	94		71.93	7.04	54	95	
Educational role	93		70.72	7.19	53	94	
Paired samples t-test	75						
Husbands			208.04	5.66			
Wives			214.77	5.72			
$t = -2.88, p \leq .01$							

Gender-role congruency

As noted earlier, the variable of gender-role congruency derives from the discrepancy of husbands' and wives' scores on the Sex-Role Egalitarian Scale (SRES). Wives' scores are subtracted from husbands' scores on the scale. Table 6 indicates the variables related to this construct. Variable HWSRES indicates the discrepancy of score between husband and wife. The minimum value for this variable is -52 and the maximum is 60. Positive values indicate husbands scored higher than wives and negative values indicate the reverse. A total of 44 (58.9%) of the husbands scored less than their wives. It is also evident that 28 (28.9%) of the husbands scored higher than their wives, while 3.1% scored exactly the same as their wives.

Another variable, ABSRES, is also constructed from the discrepancy of scores between the spouses. ABSRES represents the absolute difference of scores between husbands and wives. Thus, ABSRES displays only the magnitude of the discrepancy of the scores. The minimum value of ABSRES is 0 and maximum value is 60.

The couples are paired according their gender-role congruency based upon their median scores on the SRES. Nineteen (25.3%) of the couples are both egalitarian (HEWE), 22 (29.3%) are both traditional (HTWT), 17 (22.7%) are Husband Traditional-Wife Egalitarian (HTWE), and 17 (22.7%) are Husband Egalitarian-Wife Traditional (HEWT).

Table 6

Mean Sex-Role Congruency and Pairing of the Couples Based on Gender-Role Congruency (N=97)

	n (%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.
<u>HWSRES</u>	75 (77.3)	-6.30	20.22	-52	60
Negative scores	44 (58.7)				
Same scores	3 (3.1)				
Positive scores	28 (28.9)				
<u>ABSRES</u>	75 (77.3)	15.99	14.0	0	60
<u>Pairing of congruency</u>	75				
HEWE	19 (25.3)				
HTWT	22 (29.3)				
HTWE	17 (22.7)				
HEWT	17 (22.7)				

Negative score of HWSRES indicates husbands less egalitarian. Positive score indicates husbands more egalitarian than their wives relatively.

HWSRES=Wives' scores on the SRES subtracted from husbands' scores on the same scale.

ABSRES=the absolute values of the discrepancy of HWSRES

HEWE=Husband Egalitarian-Wife Egalitarian
HTWT=Husband Traditional-Wife Traditional
HTWE=Husband Traditional-Wife Egalitarian
HEWT=Husband Egalitarian-Wife Traditional

Marital Adjustment - The Dyadic Adjustment Scale

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale measures the degree of dyadic adjustment in four selected areas of the marital relationship. In this study, the correlational between the husbands' and wives' scores on marital adjustment scale is $r = .23$ ($p \leq .01$).

Table 7 indicates the findings on both husbands' and wives' scores on the scale plus the total and sub-scales scores. Using the total median score as a separation point, the couples are divided into two categories of having low or high marital adjustment.

The findings also indicate that husbands' mean scores are higher than wives' mean scores on Dyadic Consensus, Dyadic Satisfaction, and Affectional Expression. Only in the Dyadic Cohesion sub-scale are the wives' mean scores found to be slightly higher than their husbands'.

It is important to note that there were quite a number of missing cases for both husbands and wives in Dyadic Satisfaction (14 missing cases for husbands and 12 for wives) as well as Affectional Expression (14 missing cases for husbands and 16 for wives). For some cases, only selected items were found missing; while for others, the whole section of the sub-scale was unanswered. A further discussion of this phenomenon occurs in Chapter 5.

Table 7

Mean Dyadic Adjustment Scale Score for Husbands and Wives
(N=97)

	n	(%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.	med.
Possible Score Range					0	151	
<u>Total score (husbands)</u>	72		122.33	11.75	91	149	124
Low Adjustment	38	(52.8)					
High Adjustment	34	(47.2)					
<u>Sub-scale score</u>							
Dyadic Consensus	94		52.49	5.43	40	65	
Dyadic Cohesion	92		19.17	4.19	4	24	
Dyadic Satisfaction	83		40.76	4.31	30	49	
Affectional Expression	83		9.98	1.62	2	12	
<u>Total score (wives)</u>	74		120.15	10.74	91	145	121.5
Low Adjustment	37	(50.0)					
High Adjustment	37	(50.0)					
<u>Sub-scale score</u>							
Dyadic Consensus	94		51.10	5.17	39	63	
Dyadic Cohesion	90		19.40	3.28	10	24	
Dyadic Satisfaction	85		39.94	4.11	31	50	
Affectional Expression	81		9.78	1.50	6	12	
Paired samples t-test	63						
Husbands			122.89	11.28			
Wives			119.41	10.60			

$t = 2.17, p \leq .05$

Marital Satisfaction - The modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (m-KMS)

The four items in the modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (m-KMS) aim to measure the respondents' degree of satisfaction with the marital relationship, which is based on their satisfaction with the marriage itself, the relationship, the spouse, and their expression of love in the relationship. In this study, the correlation between husbands' and wives' scores on marital satisfaction is $r = .42$ ($p \leq .001$).

Table 8 indicates the summary of findings from the modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. The mean score for the husbands is 22.81, which is slightly higher than the mean score of 21.0 for the wives. Findings from paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference in mean marital satisfaction scores between the husbands and wives in the sample ($t = 4.27$, $p \leq .001$). That is, the husbands' mean marital satisfaction score is higher than that of the wives. This indicates that the husbands report higher marital satisfaction than the wives.

Table 8

Mean m-Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale Score for Husbands and Wives (N=97)

	n	(%)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	min.	max.	med.
Possible Score Range					4	28	
<u>Total score (husband)</u>	97		22.81	3.55	15	28	24
Low Satisfaction	73	(75.3)					
High Satisfaction	24	(24.7)					
<u>Total score (wives)</u>	90		21.00	4.17	12	28	20
Low Satisfaction	47	(52.2)					
High Satisfaction	43	(47.8)					
Paired samples t-test	90						
Husbands			22.89	3.59			
Wives			21.00	4.17			
$t = 4.27, p \leq .001$							

Hypotheses Testings

In order to present the results of the hypotheses testings, the findings are organized according to the research questions.

Research Question #1:**What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Marital Quality?**

Bivariate correlations are computed to examine the relationships between the individual characteristics and marital quality. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) and the modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (m-KMS) provide the measures of marital quality. Therefore, tests on the hypotheses are done for each Individual Characteristic with the DAS and the m-KMS. An average of the husband's and the wife's score for each of the Marital Quality measures serves as a variable to indicate an average score of marital adjustment and marital satisfaction of the couple.

Tables 9 and 10 reveal the results of bivariate analysis between individual characteristics and measures of Marital Quality for husbands and wives respectively. Table 9 reveals that none of the husbands' individual characteristics are significantly related to their scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. However, there is a significant negative relationship between the number of

Table 9:

Bivariate Correlations between Individual Characteristics
and Marital Quality of Husbands

	DAS (n)	mean-DAS (n)	\bar{r}	m-KMS (n)	mean-m-KMS (n)
Age	-.22 (78)	-.20 (63)		-.15 (96)	-.16 (90)
Age at marriage	-.15 (72)	-.13 (63)		-.22 (96)	* -.12 (90)
Education in years	.01 (71)	.05 (62)		.17 (95)	-.18 (88)
Income in Malaysia	-.13 (70)	-.14 (61)		-.07 (94)	-.06 (87)
Income in U. S.	-.05 (72)	-.06 (63)		-.04 (96)	-.09 (89)
Length of marriage	-.12 (72)	-.24 (63)		-.08 (97)	-.09 (90)
Number of children	-.23 (72)	-.29 (63)	**	-.13 (97)	-.22 (90)
Age of first child	.11 (55)	.21 (63)		.07 (74)	.04 (70)
Age of youngest child	.13 (55)	.30 (63)	*	-.00 (74)	-.04 (70)
Length of stay stay in U.S.	-.09 (72)	-.07 (63)		.03 (97)	.03 (90)
Adaptation Scale score	-.05 (69)	-.00 (60)		.30 (94)	** .22 (87)

* $p \leq .05$ ** $P \leq .01$

mean-DAS: an average of husbands' and wives' scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale

mean-m-KMS: an average of the couples' scores on the adapted version of the KMS

children, the average score on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale of the couples ($\bar{r} = -.29$), and the couples' average scores on marital satisfaction ($\bar{r} = -.22$). These findings indicate that as the number of children increased, the couples' marital adjustment and marital satisfaction decreased. The findings also reveal a significant relationship between age of the youngest child and the average score on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale of the couples ($\bar{r} = .30$). This implies that if the younger child was older, marital satisfaction tended to be higher for the husbands.

Husbands' age at marriage is found to be significantly negatively correlated with their scores on the m-KMS ($\bar{r} = -.22$). In other words, husbands who married at a younger age report a high satisfactory marriage. Husbands' scores on the Adaptation Scale are also found to be significantly related to scores on the m-KMS ($\bar{r} = .30$) and the couples' average scores on the mean-m-KMS ($\bar{r} = .22$). That is, when the husband is more adjusted to life in the United States, he tends to be more satisfied with his marriage.

Table 10 indicates the results of the bivariate analysis for wives. For the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, it is found that number of children ($\bar{r} = -.28$) and age of youngest child ($\bar{r} = .27$) are significantly related to the wives' scores on the scale. These findings indicate that as the number of children increased, wives' marital adjustment

decreased. If the age of the youngest child is older, wives' marital adjustment tends to be higher.

Wives' duration of stay in the United States is found to be significantly negatively correlated with the couples' average score on marital adjustment. This implies that as their stay in the United States is lengthened, wives' marital adjustment tends to decrease.

The number of children is also found to be significantly negatively related with wives' scores on marital satisfaction ($r = -.22$) and the couples' average score on marital satisfaction ($r = -.22$). In other words, as the number of children increases, the wives' and couples' marital satisfaction tends to decrease.

Table 10:

Bivariate Correlations Between Individual Characteristics
and Marital Quality of Wives (N=97)

	DAS (n)	mean-DAS (n)	\bar{r}	m-KMS (n)	mean-m-KMS (n)
Age	-.19 (74)	-.16 (63)		-.11 (90)	-.08 (90)
Age at marriage	-.04 (74)	-.04 (63)		.06 (90)	.02 (90)
Education in years	.07 (74)	-.04 (63)		.07 (89)	-.00 (89)
Income in Malaysia	-.11 (72)	-.14 (61)		.03 (87)	-.06 (87)
Income in U. S.	.02 (74)	.06 (63)		-.10 (89)	-.09 (90)
Length of marriage	-.17 (74)	-.24 (93)		-.14 (90)	-.09 (90)
Number of Children	-.28 * (74)	-.29 ** (63)		-.22 * (90)	-.22 * (90)
Age of first child	.15 (55)	.21 (63)		.01 (70)	.04 (74)
Age of youngest child	.27 * (55)	.30 * (63)		.06 (70)	.04 (74)
Length of stay in U.S.	-.14 (74)	-.22 * (63)		-.02 (90)	-.03 (90)
Adaptation Scale score	-.06 (69)	.09 (59)		.16 (80)	.21 (81)

* $p \leq .05$ ** $P \leq .01$

mean-DAS: an average of husbands' and wives' scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale

mean-m-KMS: an average of the couples' scores on the adapted version of the KMS

Age at marriage:

H₀₂: There is no relationship between age at marriage and marital quality for husband/wife.

The findings indicate that husbands' age at marriage is significantly negatively related to their scores on marital adjustment. This implies that husbands who are married at an earlier age have higher scores on marital adjustment. Therefore, null hypothesis 2 is not rejected.

Number of children:

H₀₈: There is no relationship between number of children and marital quality for husband/wife.

There is a significant negative relationship between number of children and husbands' score on marital satisfaction, wives' scores on marital adjustment, wives' scores on marital satisfaction, couples' average scores on marital adjustment and couples' average scores on marital satisfaction. As mentioned above, these findings imply that as the number of children increases, husbands' marital adjustment, wives' marital adjustment, wives' marital satisfaction, and couples' marital satisfaction decreases. Therefore, null hypothesis 8 is rejected.

Age of youngest child:

H_{010} : There is no relationship between age of youngest child and marital quality for husband/wife.

The findings also indicate that the age of the youngest child is significantly related to the wives' marital adjustment, couples' average score on marital adjustment, and couples' average score on marital satisfaction. In other words, if the age of the youngest child was older, wives and couples tended to be more adjusted in their marriage and couples tended to be more satisfied in their marriage. Therefore, null hypothesis 10 is rejected for wives.

Length of stay in the United States:

H_{012} : There is no relationship between length of stay in the United States and marital quality for husband/wife.

The findings reveal that wives' duration of stay in the United States is significantly negatively related with the couples' average score on marital adjustment. This finding implies that as the wives' stay in the United States lengthened, the couples' marital adjustment tended to decrease. Therefore, null hypothesis 12 is rejected for the couples.

Adaptation Scale Score:

H_{013} : There is no relationship between degree of adaptation to life in the United States and marital quality for husband/wife.

It is also evident from the findings that husbands' adaptation scale scores are significantly related to their scores on marital adjustment and the couples' average score on the marital adjustment scale. That is, as the husbands' adaptation to life in the United States increased, their marital satisfaction and the couples' marital satisfaction tended to increase as well. Therefore, null hypothesis 13 is rejected for the husbands and the couples.

Factors determining differences in Marital Quality**Student Status**

T-tests and One-way ANOVAs are used to examine mean differences of marital quality scores among the husbands and wives based on their student status "A" (husband-student or non student, wife-student or non-student), student status "B" (husband-only student, wife-only student or both students), presence of children, and family life stages.

As shown in Table 11, there are significant mean differences in marital satisfaction scores between the student and non-student husbands in the sample. The mean score on marital satisfaction for husbands who are students is slightly higher than the mean marital satisfaction score for non-student husbands ($t = -2.46, p \leq .05$). Student-

husbands also have higher mean scores than the non-student husbands in the couples' average score of marital satisfaction ($t = -2.32$ $p \leq .05$). Although student-wives also indicate higher mean scores than non-student-wives on each measure of marital quality, the differences are not significant.

The hypothesis that is pertinent to this research question is:

Student versus non-student status:

H_{04} : There is no difference in marital quality between husbands/wives who are studying and those who are not.

It is evident from the findings that there is a significant mean difference in marital satisfaction scores between husbands who are students and those who are non-students. The student-husbands have higher mean scores than the non-student husbands. There is also a significant mean difference in couples' average score on the marital satisfaction scale between the two groups of husbands. Student-husbands indicate higher couples' average scores than non-student husbands in the sample. Therefore, Null hypothesis 4 is rejected.

Table 11:

Mean Differences Between Husbands and Wives According to
Their Student Status in Measures of Marital Quality (N=97)

	<u>Means</u>		
	Student (n)	Non-Student (n)	<u>t-value</u>
<u>Husbands</u>			
DAS	123.53 (57)	117.80 (15)	-1.70
mean-DAS	122.06 (48)	118.23 (15)	-1.48
m-KMS	23.23 (79)	21.00 (18)	-2.46 *
mean-m-KMS	22.32 (73)	20.32 (17)	-2.32 *
<u>Wives</u>			
DAS	121.39 (33)	119.15 (41)	- .89
mean-DAS	120.83 (29)	121.42 (34)	.26
m-KMS	21.64 (36)	20.57 (54)	-1.19
mean-m-KMS	22.11 (36)	21.83 (54)	- .39

mean-DAS: an average of husbands' and wives' scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale

mean-m-KMS: an average of the couples' scores on the adapted version of the KMS

* $p \leq .05$

S = Student

NS = Non-student

A One-way ANOVA was utilized to compare the mean marital quality scores among the couples who differ in terms of student status. Prior to performing this analysis, the couples were divided into 3 categories: 1) Husband as student, 2) Wife as student, and 3) Both as students. Table 12 summarizes the mean differences in various measures of marital quality according to the student status of the couples.

There is a significant mean difference in husbands' scores on marital satisfaction among the three groups. The mean score for husbands from couples with husband-only studying, and for husbands from couples where both are studying are significantly different from the mean score of husbands from the wife-only studying group ($F(2, 94) = 3.24$, $p \leq .05$). The Bonferroni test is used to determine which means are significantly different from each other. The findings indicate that the mean marital satisfaction score for husbands from the husband-only studying group is significantly different from the mean marital satisfaction score of husbands from the wife-only studying group. The mean marital satisfaction score of the husbands from the both-spouses studying group is also significantly different from the mean marital satisfaction score of husbands from the wife-only studying group. Husbands from the both-spouses studying group have higher mean marital satisfaction scores than husbands from the other two groups.

Table 12 also indicates that there is a significant difference in mean scores of wives on marital satisfaction among the three groups based on student status. The mean score for wives from couples of both-spouses studying is significantly different from the other two groups - namely, wife-only studying and husband-only studying couples ($F(2, 87) = 4.74, p \leq .05$).

Significant mean differences between groups in the average score on the couples' marital satisfaction is also evident from the analysis. Couples who are both students indicate a higher mean score in couples' marital satisfaction than couples with wife-only students ($F(2, 87) = 5.34, p \leq .05$). The null hypothesis that is pertinent to the findings is:

Student versus non-student status:

H_0 : There is no difference in marital quality among the couples from all 3 groups of student-status.

It is evident from the findings that there is a significant mean difference between the groups of couples in terms of husbands' marital satisfaction, wives' marital satisfaction, and couples' average score on marital satisfaction. It is revealed that husbands/wives/couples from both-spouses studying group have a higher mean score on the marital satisfaction scale. Therefore, null hypothesis 5 is rejected.

Table 12:

Mean Differences in Marital Quality by Couple's Student Status (N=97)

	DAS		m-KMS	
	n	<u>M</u>	n	<u>M</u>
<hr/>				
<u>Husbands</u>				
Group 1	42	123.38	58	23.06
Group 2	15	117.80	18	21.00
Group 3	15	123.93	21	23.67
Total	72	122.33	97	22.81
<u>F</u> = 1.44, df (2, 69)			<u>F</u> =3.24, df (2, 94) * ^a	
<u>Wives</u>				
Group 1	41	119.15	54	20.57
Group 2	16	117.50	17	19.65
Group 3	17	125.06	19	23.42
Total	74	120.15	90	21.0
<u>F</u> = 2.54, df (2, 71)			<u>F</u> =4.74, df (2, 87) ** ^b	
<u>Couples</u>				
Group 1	34	121.43	54	21.83
Group 2	15	118.23	17	20.32
Group 3	14	123.61	19	23.71
Total	63	121.28	90	21.93
<u>F</u> = 1.37, df (2, 60)			<u>F</u> =5.34, df (2, 87) ** ^c	

* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$

Group 1 = Couples with husband only studying

Group 2 = Couples with wife only studying

Group 3 = Couples with both spouses studying

Bonferroni post-hoc test indicates these groups differ:

a = Group 1 & 2, 3 & 2

b = Group 3 & 2, 3 & 1

c = Group 3 & 2

Family Life-Cycle and Marital Quality

The families in this study are grouped into various stages in the family life-cycle by using the adapted version of Duvall's (1977) Family Life-Cycle stages. As mentioned in the family background section, the respondents in this study represent five stages of the family. They are at Stage 1 through 5, with 44.3% of them being at Stage 4 (family with school-aged children, oldest child aged 6 through 13).

Table 13 indicates the findings for the One-way ANOVA on marital quality measures by family life-cycle. The findings indicate a significant difference in mean scores on the marital adjustment scale for both husbands and wives according to the stages in the family life-cycle. The mean score in marital adjustment for husbands who come from families without children is significantly higher than the mean score of those husbands that come from families with children under 30 months of age (Stage 2) and families with school-aged children (Stage 4) ($F(4, 67) = 2.78, p \leq .05$). Husbands in Stage 1 (without children) indicate a higher mean score than the others, followed by husbands in Stage 5 (oldest child is a teenager), and Stage 3 (oldest child is a preschooler).

It is also evident that husbands' mean scores on marital satisfaction are also significantly different among the groups based on family life stages. Husbands without

children and husbands with a teenager as their oldest child indicate significantly higher mean scores than husbands in Stage 3 (preschool-aged children) ($F(4, 92) = 2.52, p \leq .05$). Husbands in Stage 5 (oldest child is a teenager) have the highest mean, followed by husbands in Stage 3 (oldest child is a preschooler) and Stage 1 (without children).

As for the wives, those without children are found to have a significantly higher mean marital adjustment score than those with preschool-aged children. Those with infants and toddlers as their oldest child have a significantly lower mean marital adjustment score than those with school-aged children ($F(4, 90) = 2.54, p \leq .05$). Wives at Stage 1 (without children) have the highest mean, followed by wives at Stage 4 (oldest child at schooling age) and Stage 5 (oldest child is a teenager).

The findings also indicate that there is no significant mean score difference in couples' average score on marital adjustment and marital satisfaction between the couples in the 5-family life stages.

The null hypothesis pertinent to these findings is:

Family life stages

H_{011} : There is no significant difference in marital quality among the husband/wife/couples at all stages of family life-cycle.

The findings emphasized that there are significant differences in mean scores on marital adjustment for husbands and wives, and in mean scores on marital satisfaction for husbands between the family life stages. Evidently, husbands and wives at Stage 1 (childless couples) differ significantly in terms of the mean scores on marital adjustment from the other family life stages. Husbands at Stage 1 also differ significantly in terms of the mean scores on marital satisfaction from their counterparts. Therefore, null hypothesis 11 is rejected.

Table 13:

Mean Differences in Measures of Marital Quality by
Family Life Cycle (N=97)

	DAS		m-KMS	
	n	<u>M</u>	n	<u>M</u>
<u>Husbands</u>				
Stage 1	17	128.00	23	23.78
Stage 2	7	116.57	7	24.00
Stage 3	10	124.40	14	20.93
Stage 4	30	118.60	43	22.33
Stage 5	8	126.75	10	24.50
Total	72	122.33	97	22.81
<u>F</u> = 2.78, df (4, 64) * ^a		<u>F</u> =2.52, df (4, 92) * ^b		
<u>Wives</u>				
Stage 1	19	125.95	20	22.10
Stage 2	6	115.17	7	23.71
Stage 3	10	115.00	12	19.52
Stage 4	31	119.65	41	20.54
Stage 5	8	118.50	10	20.60
Total	74	120.15	90	21.00
<u>F</u> = 2.54, df (4, 69) * ^c		<u>F</u> =1.67, df (4, 85)		
<u>Couples'</u>				
Stage 1	16	126.25	20	22.90
Stage 2	6	117.25	7	23.86
Stage 3	9	120.50	12	20.25
Stage 4	25	118.78	41	21.50
Stage 5	7	122.14	10	22.55
Total	63	121.15	90	21.94
<u>F</u> = 2.24, df (4, 58)		<u>F</u> =2.21, df (4, 85)		

* $p \leq .05$

Stage 1 = Couples without children

Stage 2 = 1st child birth through 2.5 years

Stage 3 = 1st child 2.6 through 6 years old

Stage 4 = 1st child 6.1 through 13 years old

Stage 5 = 1st child 13.1 through 20 years old

... Table 13 continued

Duncan post-hoc test indicates that these groups differ from each other significantly:

a = Group 1 & 2, 1 & 4
b = Group 1 & 3, 5 & 3
c = Group 1 & 3, 2 & 4

Research Question #2**What are the relationships between Gender-Roles
Egalitarianism and Marital Quality?**

Bivariate analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between gender-role egalitarianism of husbands and wives and measures of marital quality. As with the individual characteristics, the association between the couples' average scores on each measure of marital quality and gender-role egalitarianism is also examined.

Table 14 shows the results of the bivariate analysis of gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality. It is revealed that husbands' scores on gender-role egalitarianism are significantly related to the DAS scores ($r = .41$) and the couples' average score of DAS ($r = .33$). Wives' scores on the SRES are not significantly related to any of the marital quality measures.

Gender-role egalitarianism:

H_{01} : There is no relationship between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality.

The findings from the bivariate analysis indicate that null hypothesis 1 can be rejected at $p \leq .05$. That is, when the husband's score on the SRES increased, his marital quality as measured by marital adjustment tended to increase. However, there is no significant evidence to reject null hypothesis 2.

Table 14:

Bivariate Correlations between Gender-Role Egalitarianism
and Marital Quality of Husbands and Wives (N= 97)

	<u>r</u>			
	DAS (n)	mean-DAS (n)	m-KMS (n)	mean-m-KMS (n)
HSRES	.41 *** (67)	.33 * (58)	.18 (84)	- .11 (78)
WSRES	.02 (66)	.06 (58)	-.02 (78)	.00 (77)

* $p \leq .05$
 ** $p \leq .01$
 *** $p \leq .001$

HSRES= Husbands' scores on the Sex-Role Egalitarian Scale

WSRES= Wives' scores on the Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale

Research Question #3**What are the relationships between Gender-Role congruency and Marital Quality?**

In order to test the hypotheses pertinent to the above research question, bivariate correlational analysis is first utilized to check the relationship between the discrepancy scores (congruency) on HWSRES (husband's minus wife's scores) and various measures of marital quality. T-tests are used to examine mean differences between groups of couples' classification on the basis of their discrepancy scores. One-way ANOVA is used to examine the mean differences of scores on marital quality among various gender-role (egalitarianism) congruency/incongruency pairs of husbands and wives.

Table 15 summarizes the results of the bivariate correlations between gender-role egalitarianism and marital quality. The gender-role congruency score is significantly related to husbands' scores on the marital adjustment scale ($r = .34$). This indicates that as the congruency increases, husbands' scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale also increase. For wives, the correlation is close to zero. Null hypothesis 1 under research Question #3 is pertinent to these findings.

Table 15:

Bivariate Correlations between Gender-Role Congruency
and Marital Quality of Husbands and Wives (N= 97)

	(n)	HWSRES \bar{r}	ABSRES
<u>Marital Adjustment</u>			
Husbands' DAS	(61)	.34 **	-.20
Wives' DAS	(61)	-.01	-.04
mean-DAS	(68)	.24	-.13
<u>Marital Satisfaction</u>			
Husbands' m-KMS	(75)	.11	-.12
Wives' m-KMS	(69)	-.02	.02
mean-m-KMS	(75)	.07	-.05

* $p \leq .05$
 ** $p \leq .01$
 *** $p \leq .001$

HWSRES= Subtraction of wives' scores from husbands' scores
on the Sex-Role Egalitarian Scale

ABSRES= The absolute value of HWSRES

(Note: Congruency = discrepancy of score)

Gender-Role Congruency:

H_{01} : There is no relationship between gender-role congruency and marital quality for husband/wife.

It is hypothesized that high scores on gender-role congruency are negatively related to marital quality for husbands and wives. However, the findings indicate that gender-role congruency is significantly related to husbands' marital adjustment ($r = .34$). In other words, if there is an increase in score discrepancy between husband and wife in the direction of the husband being more egalitarian, his marital adjustment tends to increase. Therefore, null hypothesis 1 is rejected for husbands only.

Research Question #4:

What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Gender-Role Egalitarianism?

Bivariate correlation analyses are performed to test the hypotheses pertinent to the above research question. Table 16 indicates the results of the analysis. It is evident that wives' scores on the adaptation scale are significantly related to their scores on sex-role egalitarianism ($r = .26$). Null hypothesis 13 under research question #4 is rejected.

None of the husbands' individual characteristics are significantly related to either their scores on the SRES or to the couples' discrepancy scores.

T-tests are used to compare the mean gender-role egalitarianism scores of students and non-students. Table 17 indicates findings from individual sample t-tests on the gender-role egalitarianism scores of husbands and wives.

There is no significant difference between students and non-students' mean gender-role egalitarianism scores for either husbands or wives. Although student-husbands and wives indicate a higher gender-role egalitarianism mean score than non-students, the difference is not significant.

As presented in Table 18, there is no significant mean score difference in gender-role egalitarianism between the three couples' student status and five family life stages.

Table 16:

Bivariate Correlations Between Individual Characteristics
and Gender-Role Egalitarianism (N=97)

	r	
	HSRES	WSRES
Age	.02 (84)	-.20 (84)
Age at marriage	.02 (84)	.01 (84)
Education in years	-.03 (82)	.18 (83)
Income in Malaysia	.12 (82)	.05 (81)
Income in U. S.	.12 (83)	.15 (83)
Length of marriage	.01 (84)	-.20 (84)
Number of children	.05 (84)	-.15 (84)
Age of first child	.05 (70)	-.17 (65)
Age of youngest child	.05 (63)	-.21 (65)
Length of stay in U.S.	-.09 (84)	.18 (84)
Adaptation Scale score	.08 (82)	.26 * (77)

* $p \leq .05$

Table 17:

Mean Differences in Scores on Gender-Role Egalitarianism
According to Student Status (N=97)

	<u>M</u> Student status		<u>t-value</u>
	<u>Student</u> (n)	<u>Non-student</u> (n)	
Husbands' SRES	208.85 (68)	206.50 (16)	-.46
Wives' SRES	216.45 (35)	213.14 (49)	-.89

* $p \leq .05$

Note: student status = husband student or non-student,
 wife student or non-student

Table 18:

Mean Differences in Scores on Gender-Role Egalitarianism
According to Student Status and Family Life Cycle
(N=97)

	n	SRES M	F-ratio (df)
<u>Husbands</u>			
<u>Student status</u>			1.16 (2, 81)
Husband-only studying	48	210.94	
Wife-only studying	16	206.50	
Both studying	20	203.85	
Total	84	208.40	
<u>Family Life-cycle</u>			0.40 (4, 79)
Stage 1	21	208.19	
Stage 2	6	205.17	
Stage 3	10	203.10	
Stage 4	38	209.37	
Stage 5	9	212.89	
Total	84	208.40	
<u>Wives</u>			
<u>Student status</u>			0.45 (2, 81)
Husband-only studying	49	213.14	
Wife-only studying	18	215.50	
Both studying	17	217.47	
Total	84	214.52	
<u>Family Life-cycle</u>			1.07 (4, 79)
Stage 1	19	219.32	
Stage 2	7	220.14	
Stage 3	13	212.08	
Stage 4	37	213.43	
Stage 5	8	207.25	
Total	84	214.52	

* $p \leq .05$

Research Question #5:**What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Gender-Role Congruency?**

As mentioned in Chapter 3, this research question is exploratory in nature. Bivariate correlation analysis examines the relationship between individual characteristics and gender-role congruency. None of the variables listed under individual characteristics are found to be significantly related to gender-role congruency for either husbands or wives (See Table 19). However, there is a significant relationship between husbands' education and the absolute value of congruency ($r = .26, p \leq .05$). This implies that when the husbands have higher education, the absolute value of the congruency tend to increase. In other words, when the husbands are more educated, the discrepancy of scores on gender-role egalitarianism between the husbands and wives tends to increase.

T-tests examine the differences in mean scores of gender-role congruency between student and non-student husbands and wives. Table 20 indicates that the mean score on gender-role congruency is significantly different between student and non-student wives ($t = 2.40$). This finding implies that the student-wives are more egalitarian than their husbands, as compared to non-student wives.

Table 19:

Bivariate Correlations Between Individual Characteristics
and Gender-Role Congruency (N=97)

	<u>r</u>			
	HWSRES Husbands	Wives	ABSRES Husbands	Wives
Age	.20	.18	-.15	-.13
Age at marriage	.08	.04	-.09	-.09
Education in years	-.10	-.21	.26 *	.01
Income in Malaysia	-.00	.01	.01	-.00
Income in U. S.	-.01	-	-.06	-
Length of marriage	.16	-	-.10	-
Number of children	.15	-	.03	-
Age of first child	.14	-	.02	-
Age of youngest child	.14	-	-.08	-
Length of stay in U.S.	-.17	-.12	-.03	-.03
Adaptation Scale score	-.18	-.09	-.04	-.05

* p < .05

** P < .01

*** p < .001

Table 20:

Mean Differences in Scores on Gender-Role Congruency
According to Student Status (N=97)

	<u>M</u> <u>Student status</u>		<u>t-value</u>
	<u>Student</u>	<u>Non-student</u>	
<u>Husbands</u>			
HWSRES	-6.08 (59)	-9.13 (16)	-.53
ABSRES	16.90 (59)	12.63 (16)	-1.18
<u>Wives</u>			
HWSRES	-13.03 (32)	-2.05 (43)	2.40 *
ABSRES	16.84 (32)	15.34 (43)	-.45

* p < .05
 ** P < .01
 *** p < .001

Table 21 indicates the results of One-way ANOVA on gender-role congruency by couples' student status and family life stage. It reveals that there is a significant difference in the mean scores on the gender-role congruency between couples from husband-only student and both-students couples ($F(2, 72) = 3.52$). In other words, for couples who are both students, the wives are more egalitarian than the husbands as compared to wives from couples with husband-only studying group.

Table 21:

Mean Differences in Scores on Gender-Role Congruency
According to Household Student Status and Family Life-Cycle
(N=97)

	Congruency		F-ratio (df)
	n	M	
<hr/>			
Student status			3.53 (2, 72) * ^a
Husband-only studying	43	- 2.05	
Wife-only studying	16	- 9.13	
Both studying	16	-16.94	
Total	75	- 6.73	
Family Life-cycle			1.02 (4, 70)
Stage 1	18	-11.06	
Stage 2	6	-13.00	
Stage 3	10	- 7.70	
Stage 4	34	- 5.56	
Stage 5	7	5.42	
Total	75	- 6.73	

* $p \leq .05$

Bonferroni post-hoc test indicates these groups differ:

a = Group 1 & 3
(husband-only studying & both-spouses studying)

What predicts Marital Quality?

Based on the findings from bivariate correlational analyses on marital quality, several models combining different variables that are theoretically expected to predict marital quality are used in the Multiple Regression Analysis. Interestingly, for wives in the study, none of the models can very well predict marital quality. The only factor that accounts for variation in the wives' report of marital adjustment or marital satisfaction is the number of children.

On the other hand, as indicated in Table 22, husbands' marital quality is predicted by their score on the gender-role egalitarian scale, number of children and age at marriage. This model accounts for 27% of the variance in marital quality ($F(3, 63) = 7.59, p \leq .001$).

Table 22 also indicates a prediction model for the couples' average score on marital adjustment. The model combines number of children, wives' duration of stay in the U.S., husbands' gender-role egalitarianism, and husbands' age at marriage. This model accounts for 28% of the variance in marital quality ($F(5, 69) = 6.9, p \leq .001$).

Table 23 presents a summary of the regression analysis for variables predicting marital satisfaction for husbands and couples. When marital satisfaction is utilized as the dependent variable, significant predictors for husbands include his age at marriage, number of children, and their

Table 22

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting
Husbands' and Couples' Marital Adjustment (N=97)

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	t
<u>Husbands, marital adjustment (DAS)</u>				
Gender-role egalitarianism	.26	.07	.41	3.84 ***
Number of children	-.20	.83	-.27	-2.45 **
Age at marriage	-.87	.41	-.23	-2.11 *
Multiple R = .52 R squared = .27 Adjusted R = .23				
(F-ratio = 7.59, df 3,63, p = .0002)				
<u>Couples' marital adjustment (DAS)</u>				
Number of children	-2.08	.62	-.35	-3.36 **
Wives' duration of stay in U.S.	-.09	.04	-.29	-2.52 **
Husbands' gender-role egalitarianism	.18	.05	.36	3.49 ***
Husbands' age at marriage	-.66	.32	-.22	-2.07 *
Multiple R = .53 R squared = .28 Adjusted R = .24				
(F(4, 70) = 6.9, p ≤ .001)				

* p ≤ .05
 ** P ≤ .01
 *** p ≤ .001

score on the adaptation scale. This model accounts for 16% of the explained variance in the marital satisfaction score for husbands.

Number of children serves as a good predictor of wives' marital satisfaction. For couples' marital satisfaction, number of children and husbands' scores on the adaptation scale account for 9% of the variance.

Table 23

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting
Husbands' and Couples' Marital Satisfaction (N=97)

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	t
<u>Husbands' marital satisfaction(m-KMS)</u>				
Age at marriage	-.28	.11	-.25	-2.49 *
Number of children	-.39	.22	-.18	-1.79 ***
Adaptation to U. S.	.18	.06	.28	2.86 **
Multiple R = .41 R squared = .16 Adjusted R = .13 ($F(3, 89) = 5.7, p \leq .01$)				
<u>Couples' marital satisfaction (m-KMS)</u>				
Number of children	-.40	.19	-.20	-2.02 *
Husbands' adaptation to U. S.	.13	.06	.22	2.20 *
Multiple R = .30 R squared = .09 Adjusted R = .07 ($F(2, 91) = 4.6, p \leq .05$)				

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
 *** $p < .001$

Chapter Summary

This section summarizes the aforementioned findings in accord with the research questions.

Research Question #1:

What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Marital Quality?

Table 24 indicates the summary of the results of the hypotheses testings. Evidently, for husbands, none of the individual characteristics are significantly related to their marital adjustment. However, age at marriage and adaptation to life in the United States are found to be significantly related to their marital satisfaction. As for the wives, number of children, age of youngest child, and length of stay in the United States are significantly related to their marital adjustment. Only number of children is significantly negatively related to the wives' marital satisfaction.

The findings also indicate that there is a significant mean marital satisfaction score difference between student husbands and non-student husbands. One-way ANOVA further indicates that there is a significant mean marital satisfaction score difference among the groups with different student household status for husbands and wives. It is evident that husbands', wives' and couples' mean marital satisfaction scores are significantly higher than husband-only and wife-only student couples' scores. In

other words, when both spouses are studying, their scores in marital satisfaction tend to increase.

There are also significant differences in husbands' and wives' mean marital adjustment scores among the stages of family life-cycles. Across the groups, couples from Stage 1 (without children) have the highest mean score in marital adjustment. Only husbands' mean marital satisfaction scores are found to be significantly different among the family life-cycle stages. Husbands from Stages 1 and 5 have significantly higher mean marital satisfaction scores than husbands from Stage 3. In other words, husbands from families without children and families with oldest child over 13 years old (teenager) have higher marital satisfaction than husbands from families with a preschooler as their oldest child.

Research Question #2:

What are the relationships between Gender-Roles Egalitarianism and Marital Quality?

Only husbands' gender-role egalitarianism is found to be significantly related to their marital adjustment ($r = .41$) and the couples' marital adjustment ($r = .33$). That is, when the husband is more egalitarian, his and the couple's marital adjustment tends to increase.

Research Question #3**What are the relationships between Gender-Role Congruency and Marital Quality?**

The findings indicate that there is a significant correlation between gender-role congruency and husbands' marital adjustment ($r = .34$). This implies that when the congruency score is increased in the direction of the husband being more egalitarian than the wife, his marital adjustment tends to increase. However, there are no significant mean differences in gender-role congruency among the groups of student status, household student status, and family life stages.

Table 24

Summary of Findings Pertinent to Research Questions 1, 2, and 3.

	H	<u>DAS</u> W	Couple		H	<u>m-KMS</u> W	Couple
<u>Variables</u>				<u>r</u>			
Age at marriage	-	-	-	-.22*	-	-	-
No. of children	-.23	-.28*	-.29**	-.13	-.22*	-	-
Age of youngest child	-	.27*	.30*	-	-	-	-
Length of stay in U.S.	-	-.22*	-	-	-	-	-
Adaptation scale score	-	-	-	.30**	-	-	.22*
Husbands' SRES	.41***	-	.31**	-	-	-	-
Congruency	.34**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gender-Role egalitarianism	.41**	-	.33*	-	-	-	-
Gender-Role Congruency	.34**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Education:				<u>t-value</u>			
Student vs. non-student	-	-	-	-2.46*	-	-	-2.32
				<u>F-ratio</u>			
Student household status	-	-	-	3.24*	4.74*	5.34**	
Family life stages	2.78*	2.54*	-	2.52*	-	-	

Research Question #4:

What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Gender-Roles Egalitarianism?

The findings reveal that wives' scores on the adaptation scale are significantly related to their gender-role egalitarianism ($r = .26$). In other words, when the wives are more adapted to life in the United States, their scores on the gender-role egalitarianism scale tend to increase.

There is no significant mean score difference in gender-role egalitarianism between students and non-students for husbands or wives.

There is no significant mean difference in gender-role egalitarianism among student-household status and family life stages for husbands or wives.

Research Question #5:**What are the relationships between Individual Characteristics and Gender-Role Congruency?**

There is no significant relationship between any of the individual characteristics and gender-role congruency for both husbands and wives. However, there is a significant mean score difference in gender-role congruency between student-wives and non-student wives ($t = 2.40$). That is, student-wives tend to be more egalitarian than their husbands as compared to non-student-wives.

There is a significant mean gender-role congruency score difference between households with only husband studying and those with both spouses studying ($F(2, 72) = 3.52$). This finding implies that wives from couples both spouses studying are more egalitarian than their husbands as compared to wives from couples only the husband studying.

Predictors of Marital Quality.**Marital Adjustment:**

For the husbands, the Regression model that includes husbands' gender-role egalitarianism, number of children and age at marriage accounts for 27.0% of the explained variance in the model. On the other hand, only number of children predicts wives' marital adjustment. The couples' marital adjustment is predicted by number of children, wives' duration of stay in the United States, husbands' gender-role egalitarianism, and husbands' age at marriage, which accounts for 28% of the explained variance in the model.

Marital Satisfaction:

For husbands' marital satisfaction, the regression model that includes age at marriage, number of children, and score on the adaptation scale accounts for 16.0% of the variance. Again, only number of children predicts wives' marital satisfaction. Couples' marital satisfaction is predicted by the model that includes number of children and husbands' scores on the adaptation scale, which accounts for 9% of the variance in the outcome.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The study on Marital Quality as a Function of Gender-Role Egalitarianism Among the Malay-Muslim Student Couples in the Midwest Region of the United States is designed to investigate the relationship between gender-role attitudes and perceived marital quality of the respondents. Marital quality in this study is conceptualized as perceived marital adjustment, as measured by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and perceived marital satisfaction, as measured by the modified version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. This chapter discusses the findings and conclusions of the study, as well as recommendations for future research.

A total of 148 sets of questionnaires were distributed for this mail-survey study to Malay-Muslim student couples currently residing in the midwest region of the United States. Each set contained 1 questionnaire for each spouse. At the end of the study, a total of 97 (65.5%) couples (N = 97 husbands and 97 wives) returned the completed questionnaires.

Correlates of Marital Quality

Past research indicates various factors that contribute to marital quality. Given a different context, these factors may vary. In this study, the sample was the Malay-Muslim student couples of Malaysia who were currently residing in the midwest region of the United States. They were expected to stay in this country for approximately two to six years depending upon their academic pursuits. It is important to note that the temporal nature of their stay may somewhat influence the results of the findings. The idea of staying in a foreign country for a relatively short period of time and having a country, and most likely a better quality of life to return to, may explain this phenomenon. However, this notion of the phenomenon is not explored directly in this study.

It is evident from the study that the husband's age at marriage is negatively related to his perceived marital satisfaction. That is, the younger he was at marriage, the more satisfied he is with his marriage at the time of the study. Interestingly, this finding is not aligned with previous research focusing on age at marriage. Although previous findings are not directly focused on marital adjustment, early age at marriage is often associated with multiple problems, such as economic hardship, which contribute to marital difficulties (Moore and Waite, 1981). In the present study, it appears that the later the age at

marriage for the husband, the less satisfied he is with the marriage. Issues of maturity and economic stability (i.e., graduated from college and employed) as well as the capability to make better choices in life, may explain this phenomenon for the sample in this study.

The major predictor of wives' reported marital quality in this study is the number of children. This finding confirms the results of previous research (i.e., Burr, 1972; Olson et al., 1983; Rollins & Galligan 1978). Since earlier findings suggest that perhaps the number of children alone does not explain the phenomenon perfectly, the age of the first and the youngest child are examined to check the impact of children on marital quality. The age of the first child is reflective of the family life-cycle stages. It is predicted that as the age of the first child increases, so does the perceived marital quality of husbands, wives and couples. However, the results of these analyses do not support this phenomenon in the present study.

In the present study, age of the youngest child is found to be positively related to wives' and couples' marital adjustment. That is, the older the youngest child is, the more adjusted the wives and the couples. This result supports the findings of Rollins and Feldman (1970), Rollins and Galligan (1978), and Schumm and Bugaighis (1986). It implies that the presence of dependent children in the household complicates marital adjustment and

decreases marital satisfaction. As suggested by Anderson et al. (1983), the presence of young and dependent children may interfere with the allocation of time and other resources spent on one's spouse, which may further explain this phenomenon.

With regards to age of children, the stage of family life-cycle has also been identified as influencing marital quality. The expected curvilinear relationship between family life-cycle and marital quality is not evident in this study. This is not surprising since, in general, the couples in this study are at the early stage of the cycle and none have a child leaving their home. However, findings reveal that the childless couple or those at Stage 1 report higher marital quality than couples at other stages of the cycle. This finding supports previous claims regarding the effects of the presence of children in the family and its impact on perceived marital quality.

Because the sample is from a student population, it is important to examine the influence of couples' student status on marital quality. The findings reveal that student status is important in determining husbands' marital satisfaction. Student-husbands report higher marital satisfaction than non-student husbands. Among the 3 types of student household status, husbands from husband-only studying couples indicate higher marital satisfaction than husbands from wife-only studying couples. Husbands from

both-spouses studying couples report higher marital satisfaction than husbands of wife-only studying couples. These findings indicate that being a student and a husband provide the man with greater marital satisfaction as compared to his counterparts.

On the other hand, wives who come from both-spouses studying couples report higher marital satisfaction than wives from husband-only studying and wife-only studying couples. Wives from wife-only studying couples indicate the lowest mean marital satisfaction score among the three groups of student status. Interestingly, findings from this study reveal that being a wife and a student presents a great challenge to the wives' marital satisfaction, particularly if the husband is not a student.

Duration of stay in the United States is a factor that influences wives' marital adjustment. The longer they have been in the United States, the lower their marital adjustment. An explanation for this phenomenon could be that the wives are challenged to adjust to a different environment and culture; they may also be eager to go home.

When husbands in the sample indicate that they are more adapted to life in the United States, they report higher marital satisfaction. Husbands' adaptation also influences the couples' satisfaction about the marriage. In other words, husbands who are well adapted to life in the United States manage to cope better with their marriage as well.

Since this is a cross-sectional study, there is no way to check on the changes that might have occurred over time.

Previous studies of gender-role egalitarianism indicate that gender-role egalitarianism influences marital quality in a variety of ways. It was predicted that an egalitarian husband who has a traditional wife will have high marital quality. From the study, the husbands' scores on gender-roles egalitarianism are found to be significantly related to their marital adjustment scores. This implies that husbands who are more egalitarian perceive their marriages as being more adjusted. Interestingly, wives' traditional gender-role attitudes do not influence their perceived marital quality. These findings indicate that for the wives in the study, their gender-role egalitarianism is not significantly related to their perceived marital adjustment and marital satisfaction.

Analyses of gender-role congruency of the couples reveal an interesting finding. The larger the discrepancy in score between husband and wife (indicating the husband being more egalitarian relative to the wife), the more adjusted the marriage. This finding substantiates Li and Caldwell's (1987) findings.

The couples are further grouped by pairs in relation to their gender-role congruency. Interestingly, none of the husband-wife gender-role congruency/incongruency pairs relate to marital quality. This finding does not support

Bowen and Orthner's findings on the traditional wife-egalitarian husband pair who reports low marital quality.

The only individual characteristic that is found to be associated with wives' gender-role egalitarianism is their degree of adaptation to life in the United States. The finding reveals that the more adapted the wife is to life in the United States, the more egalitarian she becomes, or vice versa.

Looking at student status and gender-role congruency, student-wives had lower mean scores for gender-role congruency as compared to the mean scores for non-student wives. This implies that relative to the husbands, the student-wives are more traditional than the non-student wives. However, with further examination of the couples' student status, it is evident that couples with the husband only as a student had higher gender-role congruency. In other words, husbands in the husband-only studying couples are more egalitarian than other categories of husbands.

Regression analysis indicates that husbands' marital quality as measured by marital adjustment is explained by their gender-role egalitarianism, number of children, and age at marriage. Their marital satisfaction is explained by age at marriage, number of children, and degree of adaptation to life in the United States. Wives' marital adjustment and marital satisfaction are only explained in relation to the number of children in the family.

Conclusions

It is important to note that the differences in context (cultural, religious and/or geographic) may have influenced the findings of the study. These findings are only generalizable to the sample in this study. Most of the variables that are found to be related significantly to marital quality of this sample are also found significant elsewhere.

Evidently, there are differences in marital adjustment and marital satisfaction reported by the husbands and the wives. Looking at the student status provides a better understanding of this phenomenon. For future research, it is also worthwhile to explore the dynamics of role-enactment between the husband and wife, such as regards power, decision makings and division of household tasks in these unique, temporary setting households.

The findings on the relationship between number of children and perceived marital quality of the wives describes the importance of exploring child-related venues in future studies. As concluded by Rollins and Galligan (1978), the presence of young and dependent children in the home has some negative impact on couples' economic, physical, and emotional resources. An explanation for this phenomenon for the sample in the study is that the wives are the prominent caretakers of the households as well as of the children, especially in households where the husbands are

studying. The burden of household tasks with regards to childcare may have resulted in decreased perceived marital quality in the wives.

Egalitarianism is only evident to be important in predicting husbands' marital adjustment. This finding may be explained by the cultural perspective that the husband is considered the leader in the family and that his leadership is an important contribution to family well-being and marital quality.

Recommendations

Since this study is conducted on a sample that is culturally different from those of previous studies, the norms that are used in comparison of the findings may be misleading. Research should be replicated in order to establish norms that are more culturally sensitive. Furthermore, the instruments used to measure marital adjustment and marital satisfaction are developed in the United States for the norms of the United States. This may explain discrepancies in findings which result from cultural differences of the sample being studied. Items that were found to be culturally or religiously inappropriate for the population may need to be revised or replaced.

An issue of power may have influenced the significance of the findings. Increasing the sample size may improve the power to detect findings. In this study, a sample of less

than one hundred couples, became further reduced because responses to individual items were missing.

Methodologically, the use of individual spouses' scores to indicate attitude congruency is still being debated. Subtracting the wives' scores from the husbands' may not be the best way to measure congruency. Ideally, an instrument that includes items on individuals' perceptions of their spouses' gender-role attitudes, and their own attitude congruency may fulfill this gap. Using such an instrument, a researcher could directly measure the congruency of the couples.

Measurement of marital adjustment, although claimed to be multidimensional, may not have covered all the marital domains that may be important to the group being studied. For example, assessment of affection in a marital relationship can be better assessed in terms of intimacy, not merely the sexual relationship. The wordings of the items may have somewhat hindered the actual meaning of the scale. In an eastern culture, expressiveness in affection may also be displayed by other means and ways. Sharing the "intimate" details of a marital relationship (such as on sexual activities) may be viewed as taboo; therefore, future research should take precautions in rewording statements pertinent to this idea. Islamically, Muslims are not encouraged to brag about their sexual activities to others.

In the early stage of the development of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, items were excluded from the scale based on responses that were skewed. However, these items may be pertinent to some and not to others. Literature review of previous studies has also noted weaknesses of the scale; however, at this point in time, the DAS is the only popular, multidimensional, short, and reliable instrument available.

Finally, there are other areas in the marital relationship that may explain marital quality. Examples would be role enactment, role performance, and role strain. Since the presence of children plays a major role in determining marital quality, exploring other variables related to children and childcare may be worth the effort. For example, it may be valuable to examine the characteristics of the children in terms of spacing, gender, and so on. Variables such as parenting style, stresses in the parent-child relationship and others may also be worth exploring. Future researchers may want to include these areas in order to better understand the relationship between gender-role attitude and marital quality.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CONSENT FORM & QUESTIONNAIRE

**MARITAL QUALITY AS A FUNCTION OF GENDER-ROLE EGALITARIANISM
AMONG SELECTED MALAY MUSLIM STUDENT COUPLES CURRENTLY RESIDING
IN THE MIDWEST REGION OF UNITED STATES**

CONSENT FORM

Marital quality is a central aspect in any marital relationship. Factors contributing to marital well-being have been frequently researched in the United States. However, such studies have not been done in Malaysia, especially focusing on the Malays. This study attempts to describe the relationships between gender-role orientation and marital quality among the Malay student couples in the U.S. Findings from this study will enable couples, professionals, and society at large to better understand marital relationships of Malays which can help to improve the quality of marriages.

This study is a part of the doctoral degree in Family Studies that I am pursuing at the Department of Family and Child Ecology at Michigan State University. Mail-survey is conducted through-out Mid-West Region. I will be grateful to you if you will spend around 30 to 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Your participation is highly appreciated. All information obtained in the study will be strictly confidential. Results from the study will be reported as an aggregate for the whole group with no individual identified in the record. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent and participation at any time. You are free not to answer any question if you do not prefer. Please do not discuss your responses with your spouse. A copy of the results of this study will be made available to you upon request.

Please complete the following information:

*** I have read the above statement and agree to participate in this study. I understand that my participation is voluntary, and I can withdraw at any time.

(Signature) Date: ____/____/1996
Phone number: () - _____
Address: _____
 Number Street

 City Zip Code

I would like/would not like to receive a copy of the research findings.

Thank You very much for your participation.

Rumaya Juhari Tel: (517)-355-2761
Doctoral Student, Dept. of Family & Child Ecology, MSU.

QUESTIONNAIRE (Form A:HUSBAND)

**MARITAL QUALITY AS A FUNCTION OF GENDER-ROLE EGALITARIANISM
AMONG THE MALAY-MUSLIM STUDENT COUPLES IN THE MIDWEST REGION
OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**

Status: Student/Non-student #Time visiting USA: 1 or More

1. Birthdate : ____/____/____ Age: |__|__|
2. Date of marriage: ____/____/____ Length of marriage: ____ yrs
Age at marriage: _____
Did you get married in the US?: YES / NO
3. Date FIRST came to US: month _____ year _____
Length of stay in the US: _____ years and _____ months
When do you expect to return to Malaysia?
Month _____ Year _____
4. Did your spouse come with you to the U.S.? YES / NO
If not, when did your wife arrive in the
US: _____ month/year

Please fill in the following table regarding your children:

Gender (M/F)	Birthday	Place of birth	Length of stay in US (Mo/year)
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			

6. Please state your highest/current educational level:

SPM _____
STPM _____
Teaching Certificate _____
Diploma _____
Undergraduate _____ majoring in _____
Masters _____ majoring in _____
PhD _____ majoring in _____
Other (specify) _____ majoring in _____

University: _____ [] [] []

Understanding marital quality of one's parents helps one to understand own marital quality. Please provide information about your parents' marriage as you can recall for at least until you are up to 9-13 years old.

1. What is your parents' marital status when you were about 9 to 13 years old?
 - a. married
 - b. divorced
 - c. separated
 - d. death of a parent (name who): father/mother
 - d. others (please specify) _____

2. If your parents are still married (or at least were until you were 9 years old): in your own opinion, how do you perceive your parents' marital happiness? (Please circle one)

a. Extremely unhappy	e. Very happy
b. Fairly unhappy	f. Extremely happy
c. A little unhappy	g. Perfect
d. Happy	

3. What aspects of your parents marriage did you most admire? i.e their way of problem solving, communication

4. When one of your parents was not around due to divorce/separation, or death, did the other parent that you resided with remarry? YES / NO

How old were you when your parent you were residing with remarried? _____

5. If your parent(s) are still alive, how old is:

Your father = _____ Your mother = _____

6. Did your mother work outside the home? YES / NO

7. What is your parents' level of education?

	Father	Mother
No formal education	_____	_____
Some elementary	_____	_____
Elementary	_____	_____
Junior high	_____	_____
Secondary	_____	_____
Teachers college	_____	_____
College degree	_____	_____
Graduate (Masters/Ph.D)	_____	_____
Other (specify).....	_____	_____

PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT BEST DESCRIBES YOUR ADAPTATION
TO THE U.S.

KEY:

1=Extremely unadapted

4=Moderately adapted

2=Somewhat unadapted

5=Highly adapted

3=Neutral

1. How un-adapted or adapted are you in these areas:

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. Housing arrangement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Climate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. American language proficiency | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. Financial | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. Food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. Contact with American students | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. Contact with American families | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. Social interaction | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. Practicing Islam (in general) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| j. In general, how adjusted are
you to life in the U.S.? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| k. If you are a student, how
well do you fit in with the
faculty members? (i.e yours and
their expectations of each other) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| l. If you are a student, how
well do you fit in academically?
(i,e understanding lectures,
participating in class, preparing
assignments, examination) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|

2. In your opinion, have you changed in terms of your
attitudes towards the roles of the opposite sex?

- a. Never
- b. Somewhat
- c. Neutral
- d. Moderately changed
- e. Total changed

Please provide the following information regarding your background information:

1. State of origin (in Malaysia): _____

2. Your job prior to coming to US:

Title of job _____
Rank _____
Category _____

3. Your income for the above job: \$MR _____/mo

4. Does your income continue? YES/NO
If YES, at full pay _____ or half pay _____ or _____

5. What are the sources of income here in the U.S.? Check all that apply:

Source:	Amount (monthly in US\$)
Scholarship	: \$ _____
Family income from sponsor:	\$ _____
Job (temporary job here)	: \$ _____
Wife's job (here)	: \$ _____
Food stamp or the alike	: \$ _____
Money from home (salary or other sources):	\$ _____
Others (Specify) _____	: \$ _____
Total income:	\$ _____/month

8. Did your wife work in Malaysia? YES/NO
If yes, please provide the following answers:

Title of job _____
Rank _____
Category _____
Income (MR) _____mo/year

9. Does her income: a. continue - full pay
b. continue - half pay
c. discontinued

10. While living in the U.S. is your wife working?: YES/NO

If YES, please give the following answers:

Title of job _____
Income (MR) _____mo/year

SEX-ROLE EGALITARIAN SCALE

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

THE MODIFIED VERSION OF KANSAS MARITAL SATISFACTION SCALE

APPENDIX B

UCRIHS LETTER OF APPROVAL

**MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY**

May 22, 1996

TO: Rumaya Juhari
1514 F Spartan Village
E. Lansing, MI 48823

RE: IRB#: 96-353
TITLE: MARITAL QUALITY AS A FUNCTION OF GENDER-ROLE
EGALITARIANISM AMONG SELECTED MALAY MUSLIM
STUDENT COUPLES CURRENTLY RESIDING IN THE
MIDWEST REGION OF THE UNITED STATES
REVISION REQUESTED: N/A
CATEGORY: 1-C
APPROVAL DATE: 05/21/96

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project and any revisions listed above.

RENEWAL: UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must use the green renewal form (enclosed with the original approval letter or when a project is renewed) to seek updated certification. There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

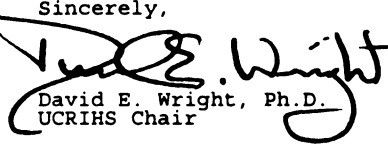
REVISIONS: UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. If this is done at the time of renewal, please use the green renewal form. To revise an approved protocol at any other time during the year, send your written request to the UCRIHS Chair, requesting revised approval and referencing the project's IRB # and title. Include in your request a description of the change and any revised instruments, consent forms or advertisements that are applicable.

**PROBLEMS/
CHANGES:**

Should either of the following arise during the course of the work, investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly: (1) problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects or (2) changes in the research environment or new information indicating greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517)355-2180 or FAX (517)432-1171.

Sincerely,


David E. Wright, Ph.D.
UCRIHS Chair

DEW:bed

cc: Norma Bobbitt



OFFICE OF
**RESEARCH
AND
GRADUATE
STUDIES**

University Committee on
Research Involving
Human Subjects
(UCRIHS)

Michigan State University
232 Administration Building
East Lansing, Michigan
48824-1046

517/355-2180
FAX: 517/432-1171

*The Michigan State University
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Excellence in Action*

*MSU is an affirmative-action,
equal-opportunity institution*

APPENDIX C

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE COPYRIGHTED MATERIALS



SIGMA ASSESSMENT SYSTEMS, INC.

Research Psychologists Press Division

1110 Military Street, P.O. Box 610984, Port Huron, MI 48061-0984
(800) 265-1285 Fax (800) 361-9411

January 18, 1996.

Rumaya Juhari
1514 F Spartan Village
East Lansing, MI 48823

Dear Ms. Juhari:

Please find enclosed two copies of our standard licensing forms for permission to reproduce copyrighted materials. These forms grant you the right to translate Forms B, BB & KK of the Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES), for use in your research only.

Please read through the forms to ensure that they correctly express the terms you have outlined in your letter. If all seems to be correct, please sign and date both copies of the license, have your advisor do the same, and return them to our office, for final endorsement. One authorized copy will then be sent back to you for your personal records. Once you have determined which items you intend to use, please inform me of this information.

The License allows for a total of not more than 150 administrations of the items to be made over a one year period. If for some reason you later find that you require an adjustment to either of these terms (time frame or quantity), simply contact us again citing the license number PTR470.

We wish you well with your research.

Sincerely,

Maureen Moffatt-Small
Director of Administration

/MMS

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PORT HURON, MI 48061-0984**

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Sigma Assessment Systems, Inc., on this date **January 18, 1996** hereby authorizes:

NAME: Rumaya Juhari and Dr. Norma Bobbitt

TITLE: Graduate Student and Advisor

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A. The Work: The Work means:

NAME: Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES)

AUTHOR(S): Lynda King, Ph.D. and Daniel King, Ph.D.

SPECIFIC FORM OF THE TEST OR THE WORK: Forms BB, KK & B

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Items from the SRES will be translated into Malay and used in an exploratory study investigating the relationship between marital sex-role orientation and marital quality of the Malay students currently pursuing their studies in the United States.

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APPENDIX D

CERTIFICATE OF TRANSLATION



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10 May 1996

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I certify that, to the best of my knowledge, this is a true and accurate translation of the original research documents that were written in English entitled:

- a. *Dyadic Adjustment Scale* (by Graham Spanier)
- b. *Form B, Form KK and Form BB of SRES* (by King & King)

submitted by Rumaya Juhari of Michigan State University in East Lansing.

The above documents were translated by a couple of translators from this Center i.e.:

Zainuddin bin Ghazali M.Phil. (Translations and Interpretation) CNAALondon.

Abidin Shafie M.Ed. (Bilingualism and Translation), Wales.

and the translated versions were edited by Associate Prof. Razak Dali.

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR DR. RAZAK DALI
CHAIRMAN OF THE ENGLISH PROGRAMME

LIST OF REFERENCES

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