



## ABSTRACT

### A PILOT STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEGREE OF EXPRESSED SELF-ACCEPTANCE AND INTERSPOUSAL NEED STRUCTURE IN THE MATE SELECTION PROCESS

by Marvin Goodman

Recent studies of mate selection focusing upon psychological variables reveal inconsistent findings. Results have been in the direction of homogamy, heterogamy or no relationship between mates when the latter are related on a variety of psychological criteria. Current emphasis upon both self and interpersonal behavior theory provides a framework within which the study of mate selection can occur.

The purpose of this investigation was to explore the relationship between degree of expressed self-acceptance and need arrangements within couples who recently participated in the mate selection process. Hypotheses were formulated on the speculation that high self-accepting individuals tend to choose, interact and affiliate with persons like themselves, whereas low self-accepting persons are attracted to others unlike themselves. Degree of self-acceptance is seen also as a criterion of personal adjustment.

The instrument for assessing high and low self-acceptance, the independent variables, was the Index of Adjustment and Values.<sup>1</sup> Its validity was qualified by the use also of the Berger Scale of Expressed Acceptance of Self.<sup>2</sup> The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule<sup>3</sup> was employed for measuring needs.

Prior to omission of couples wherein spouses were widely discrepant

in self-acceptance, the initial sample of the study was 102 couples. After delineation there were seventy-five couples, all of whom were childless, married less than one year and resided in married housing facilities provided by Michigan State University. Thirty-eight and thirty-seven couples were operationally defined as high and low self-accepting respectively, according to their position relative to the median of the distribution of self-acceptance scores. Subjects formed a relatively homogeneous group when comparisons were made according to age, age at marriage, academic level and socio-economic status, using father's occupation as the criterion of the latter. Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated on need scores obtained by spouses, thereby providing indications of interspousal need structure, the dependent variable of the study.

Within the limits dictated by a lack of both a random sample and cross validation, the following were the major conclusions:

1. Mates who composed high self-acceptance couples were similar in their respective need structures specifically when the needs dominance ( $p .05$ ), nurturance ( $p .01$ ) and succorance ( $p .05$ ) were considered. Correlations of scores on the needs abasement and deference did not exceed the level of chance expectation.

2. Mates who composed low self-acceptance couples were complementary in their respective need structures and specifically when spouses' scores were correlated on the needs dominance ( $p .05$ ), dominance and deference ( $p .05$ ), nurturance ( $p .01$ ) and nurturance and succorance ( $p .01$ ). Correlations of scores on the needs dominance and abasement

did not exceed the level of chance expectation. When the same need was compared for husband and wife, its expression varied in intensity and in this sense spouses' needs complemented each other. Different needs as expressed by spouses also were complementary.

3. The highest degree of relationship between needs as expressed by husbands and wives was found when the needs nurturance and succorance were considered for both high and low self-acceptance couples. Thus, the nurturant-receptive dimension of complementarity was probably more relevant than the dominant-submissive dimension in understanding interspousal need structure. The traditional interpretation of complementarity based upon all needs provides a misleading framework for the study of mate selection.

4. High self-acceptance couples were composed of individuals who indicated much variation in respective degree of expressed self-acceptance. The difference between self-acceptance mean scores was significant at the .0001 level of confidence. In contrast, differences in self-acceptance scores between spouses who composed low self-acceptance couples were negligible. The latter finding, coupled with complementarity of need structure, leads to the conclusion that the individual who was low in self-acceptance was attracted to persons who presumably provide sources of need satisfaction which may compensate for self inadequacy.

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<sup>1</sup>R. E. Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values, Manual, Auburn, Alabama: Alabama Polytechnic Institute, undated, (mimeographed).

<sup>2</sup>E. M. Berger, "The Relation Between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," University of Pittsburgh Bulletin, 1951, 47:1-8.

<sup>3</sup>Allen Edwards, Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, Manual, New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1959.



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A PILOT STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN DEGREE OF EXPRESSED SELF-ACCEPTANCE  
AND INTERSPOUSAL NEED STRUCTURE  
IN THE MATE SELECTION PROCESS

By

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Dedicated to my parents:

Abraham and Sarah Goodman

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## CHAPTER I

### THE PROBLEM

Only recently have psychologists and sociologists turned scientific inquiry to the ancient institution of marriage. Particularly relatively little empirical evidence is available about mate selection. A cursory examination of folklore attests to the fact that some rationale, however feebly constructed, is available in answer to this basic question. In western society, the explanations that are offered are analogous to the activity of charges of electricity. Simply stated, some propose that "likes attract" whereas their counterparts suggests that "opposites attract". Notwithstanding the generality of these notions, it becomes evident that the process of mate selection is a complex phenomenon, if only from the viewpoint of considering it as another manifestation of human activity.

#### Sociological Variables in Mate Selection

Much effort has been devoted to the multi-concomitants (traditional sociological variables) affecting mate selection. It is reasonable to assume that physical or environmental proximity is a necessary ingredient. As early as 1932, James Bossard found that over thirty per cent of a sample of 5,000 marital pairs lived within twenty city blocks of each other.<sup>1</sup> The role of occupational propinquity has also been studied, indicating that intermarriage between men and women of the same industry

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<sup>1</sup>James Bossard, "Residential Propinquity as a Factor in Marriage Selection," American Journal of Sociology, 1932-33, 38:219-224.

was distinctly more common than chance expectancy.<sup>2</sup>

Within the traditional framework of a limited field of inquiry, Centers attempted to discern the extent to which persons intermarry according to their membership in various occupational strata. He concluded as follows:

1. In four out of seven of the strata a tendency toward occupational endogamy is shown. Sons of fathers in these strata are found to be married to daughters of fathers in the same strata more commonly than to those of any other single stratum.
2. Exogamous marriages are as a rule with daughters from a contiguous occupational level, with wide disparities in status between the marriage partners not being at all common.<sup>3</sup>

Religion is another factor which presumably is a potent determinant in the selection process. Most groups have traditionally advocated endogamy for the purpose of maintaining "status quo". Today barriers are still erected against considering marriage with a partner who is not of the same religious affiliation. Even though extent of current inter-faith marriages is an open question, the restrictions were seemingly more closely adhered to in the past. On the basis of a thorough study of the intermarriage pattern of the citizens of New Haven, Connecticut, Kennedy summarized her findings as follows:

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<sup>2</sup>Donald M. Marvin, "Occupational Propinquity as a Factor in Mate Selection," Journal of American Statistical Association, 1918-19, 16: 131-150.

<sup>3</sup>Richard Centers, "Marital Selection and Occupational Strata," American Journal of Sociology, 1949, 54:530-535.

We shall, in other words, be able to state that, while strict endogamy is loosening, religious endogamy is persisting and the future cleavages will be along religious lines rather than along nationality lines as in the past.<sup>4</sup>

In 1951 Thomas tested some of Kennedy's hypotheses on a broader sample and found, in contrast to the latter's results, that the mixed marriage rate was even higher than had previously been discovered. He concluded also "that religion, although important, is only one of the factors determining intermarriage rates."<sup>5</sup>

Educational level is thought to be another important variable affecting the mate selection process. Most studies in this area have been restricted to college age level samples. The following conclusion is characteristic of the relevant research.

A number of studies have shown that education and intelligence are important factors in mate selection. This study of 330 former students at the State College of Washington who are now married confirms previous findings that women are likely to marry above themselves in education and men to marry below themselves. It also shows that, in spite of this disparity in educational level between spouses, as the education of the youth increases the education of his or her spouse increases and that the more highly educated the young person the more likely he or she is to choose a mate who also has reached a higher than average educational level.<sup>6</sup>

Without detailed study and depth analysis, it could be speculated

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<sup>4</sup>Ruby Jo Reeves Kennedy, "Single or Triple Melting-Pot? Inter-marriage Trends in New Haven, 1870-1940," American Journal of Sociology, 1944, 39:332.

<sup>5</sup>John L. Thomas, "The Factor of Religion in the Selection of Marriage Mates," American Sociological Review, 1951, 16:491.

<sup>6</sup>Paul H. Landis and Katherine H. Day, "Education as a Factor in Mate Selection," American Sociological Review, 1945, 10:558.

that interethnic marriages are of a heterogamous nature. However, a recent and meaningful study illustrated the homogamous components in such marriages.

In their attempts to escape from their groups, persons sought members of other groups as mates but succeeded in attracting only those who were rebels from those other groups. Both were rebels and both were rejectees. They had similar experiential backgrounds as rejectees, similar basic attitudes as rebels, and similar patterns of social adjustment through interethnic mate selection. As individuals they had much in common; and, since they were representatives of different ethnic groups, each was able to satisfy the rebellious needs of the other. Thus, these dating and marriage pairs exhibited a pattern of selection which was ethnically heterogamous but homogamous with reference to mode of social adjustment and psychological background.<sup>7</sup>

Hollingshead's classical study on the relationship of cultural factors to the mate selection process is comprehensive in nature, and, as such, seems appropriate for purposes of terminating this aspect of the discussion.

In conclusion, I think the data we have presented strongly support the proposition that one's subculture, and one's race, age, and class positions in the society effectively determine the kind of a person one will marry but not the exact individual. In a highly significant number of cases the person one marries is very similar culturally to one's self. Our data clearly support the theory of homogamy, but a generalized theory of the precise influence of cultural and individual factors on the selection of marriage mates remains to be formulated.<sup>8</sup>

The evidence suggests that the process of mate selection is homogamous in that persons with, among other factors, similar backgrounds,

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<sup>7</sup>Linton Freeman, "Homogamy in Interethnic Mate Selection," Sociology and Social Research, 1955, 39:376.

<sup>8</sup>August B. Hollingshead, "Cultural Factors in the Selection of Marriage Mates," American Sociological Review, 1950, 15:627.

religious affiliations, educational levels and occupational levels tend to choose each other as marital partners. However, many of the studies in this area were conducted prior to 1950 and in view of the social and physical mobility of the population today, as merely two facets of change, one could surmise that because a given individual may be exposed to others who possess a variety of backgrounds, "personality appears to be perhaps the single most important factor in selecting a mate."<sup>9</sup>

#### Psychological Variables in Mate Selection

In contrast to the tendency toward conclusiveness of results found in the sociological area of endeavour, a perusal of the pertinent psychological literature reveals 1) a dearth of empirical research and 2) a lack of consistency of findings. In general, there are two basic and opposing schools of thought related to the question of personality types. Some authors suggest that those individuals who select each other as mates tend to be similar in personality structure.<sup>10</sup> In contrast, there are those who believe that persons of different personality structure tend to be attracted to each other.<sup>11</sup> Proponents of the former school adhere to the proposition that "like is attracted to like" (homogamy) whereas those who represent the latter school believe in

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<sup>9</sup>E. W. Burgess, Paul Wallin and Gladys Schultz, Courtship, Engagement, and Marriage, New York: Lippincott, 1953, 115.

<sup>10</sup>E. W. Burgess and Paul Wallin, "Homogamy in Personality Characteristics," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1944, 39:475-481.

<sup>11</sup>R. F. Winch, V. Ktsanes and T. Ktsanes, "Empirical Elaboration of the Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate Selection," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1955, 51:508-513.

the notion that "opposites attract" (heterogamy) in a way such that there is reciprocity or complementarity of need satisfaction. The latter writers agree generally with the research on propinquity, educational level, religious affiliation and homogamy in general to the extent that these factors define the field of eligible mates from which individual choice is made. However, it is the contention of the heterogamy proponents that precise choice of mate is made on the basis of complementary needs which arise in the discrete personality experience of the individual. Winch's central hypothesis is that "in mate selection the need patterns of each spouse will be complementary rather than similar to the need patterns of the spouse".<sup>12</sup>

In order to support his thesis, Winch analyzed the individual experiences of twenty-five homogeneous married couples from the undergraduate population at Northwestern University. The data were derived from responses to "need interviews" and Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) cards. From this analysis Winch and his associates constructed a series of variables in personality needs and several combinations of these, based primarily on H. A. Murray's framework. The task, then, was to determine whether the matched couples would manifest complementary or homogenous need patterns. Generally, Winch found in using a correlational approach that mates either have different needs or if the need patterns are the same they are different in intensity which makes them complementary in this sense.<sup>13</sup> He labels the latter type I

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<sup>12</sup>Robert F. Winch, Mate-Selection, New York: Harper and Bros., 1958, 96.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., 127-130.

complementariness and the former type II complementariness.

Using Winch's hypotheses for a general framework, and correlating male and female scores as derived from the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) needs, Bowerman and Day attempted a similar project with sixty courtship couples and found no evidence to support Winch's conclusions.<sup>14</sup> This discrepancy led Schellenberg to test the same hypotheses, again running interspousal correlations on the EPPS needs in order to obtain a convergence score, with the result that his findings were quite similar to those of Bowerman and Day.<sup>15</sup>

Outside of the problems encountered due to methodological differences, it becomes apparent that the mate selection process is seemingly a more complex phenomenon than most theorists and researchers heretofore have been willing to grant. Bolton studied the process from the viewpoint of the development of a relationship as he suggested that a simple "variables" approach is presumably futile in any attempt toward a fuller understanding of mate selection.<sup>16</sup> He described five developmental processes which were derived from case studies with the suggestion that identity problems play a significant part in ultimate choice of partner. Further evidence of complexity is offered by Martinson who found, in

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<sup>14</sup>Charles E. Bowerman and Barbara R. Day, "A Test of the Theory of Complementary Needs as Applied to Couples During Courtship," American Sociological Review, 1956, 21:602-605.

<sup>15</sup>James A. Schellenberg, "Personality Patterns in Mate-Selection: A Study of Complementary Needs and Homogamy," Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Kansas, 1959.

<sup>16</sup>Charles D. Bolton, "Mate Selection as the Development of a Relationship", Marriage and Family Living, 1961, 23:234-240.

his study using a high school sample, that "other things being equal (sex, age, intelligence, position in family, nationality, father's occupation, community and amount of education), persons who marry demonstrate greater feelings of ego deficiency than do persons who remain single."<sup>17</sup>

### The Interpersonal Theory of Behavior

During the last decade there has been a growing tendency within the behavioral sciences toward interpersonal frame-of-reference theory and research. The interpersonal theory of personality, as derived from the work of Harry Stack Sullivan, focusses upon the psychological processes occurring between individuals.<sup>18</sup> Additional and related theories have been formulated dealing primarily with perception, aspects of the self and related phenomena.<sup>19</sup> Within this framework, behavior is viewed as functional and purposive, motivated by the desire to satisfy needs, albeit the latter may be vaguely perceived, and to avoid anxiety.

Leary has formulated nine working principles for his interpersonal theory of personality. The levels of personality to which he refers range from unconscious to manifest expressions. These principles have guided a voluminous amount of research. They are summarized as follows in view of their relevance for the present study.

1. Personality is the multilevel pattern of interpersonal responses (overt, conscious or private) expressed by the individual. Interpersonal behavior is aimed at reducing anxiety. All the social, emotional, interpersonal activities

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<sup>17</sup>Floyd M. Martinson, "Ego Deficiency as a Factor in Marriage," American Sociological Review, 1955, 20:164.

<sup>18</sup>Harry S. Sullivan, The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry, New York: Norton, 1953, 111.

<sup>19</sup>Calvin Hall and Gardner Lindzey, Theories of Personality, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1957, Chapters 8 and 12.



of an individual can be understood as attempts to avoid anxiety or to establish and maintain self-esteem.

2. The variables of a personality system should be designed to measure-on the same continuum-the normal or "adjustive" aspects of behavior as well as abnormal or pathological extremes.
3. Measurement of interpersonal behavior requires a broad collection of simple, specific variables which are systematically related to each other and which are applicable to the study of adjustive or maladjustive responses.
4. For each variable or variable system by which we measure the subject's behavior (at all levels of personality) we must include an equivalent set for measuring the behavior of specified "others" with whom the subject interacts.
5. Any statement about personality must indicate the level of personality to which it refers.
6. The levels of personality employed in any theoretical system must be specifically listed and defined. The formal relationships which exist among the levels must be outlined. Once the logical system of levels and relationships among levels is defined it cannot be changed without revising all previous references to levels.
7. The same variable system should be employed to measure interpersonal behavior at all levels of personality.
8. Our measurements of interpersonal behavior must be public and verifiable operations; the variables must be capable of operational definition. Our conclusions about human nature cannot be presented as absolute facts but as probability statements.
9. The system of personality should be designed to measure behavior in a functional context (e.g., the psychiatric clinic). Its language, variables, and diagnostic categories should relate directly to the behavior expressed or to the practical decisions to be made in this functional situation. The system, when used as a clinical instrument, should yield predictions about interpersonal behavior to be expected in the psychiatric clinic (e.g., in future psychotherapy).<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>20</sup>Timothy Leary, Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality, New York: The Ronald Press, 1957, 59-60.

Using a related approach, Heider has done extensive study on interpersonal relations in general and on the dyadic relationship in particular. His contributions are particularly pertinent because partial aspects of his theory are related to questions of affinity of "like for like" versus "attraction of opposites for each other".<sup>21</sup>

A third general approach is taken by William Schutz who makes the assumption that people need people. He then proceeds to answer the next logical question which is: "In what ways do people need people?" Using factor analytic procedures he has determined that people need people for three kinds of relations. He has built a three-dimensional theory of interpersonal behavior, namely, inclusion, control and affection. His contention is that every individual has these three interpersonal needs, to be both expressed and wanted, and that they constitute a sufficient set of areas of interpersonal behavior for the prediction and explanation of interpersonal phenomena.<sup>22</sup>

A specific reference is chosen to complete this section of the discussion particularly as it is illustrative of a clinical approach which employs an interpersonal orientation. Using Leary's system as a background, Romano obtained a variety of data on marital partners, specifically for diagnostic purposes. He concludes:

A theoretical approach emphasizing the interpersonal aspects of personality, and a methodology for the analysis of personality in interactional terms was presented. It is believed

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<sup>21</sup>Fritz Heider, The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958, 184.

<sup>22</sup>William C. Schutz, FIRO, A Three-Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958, 1-2.

that the method has particular relevance in the marriage counseling situation where the focus of the treatment endeavor is on the interaction between husband and wife. Marital dynamics are a function of the psychodynamics of the marital participants, since in the final analysis, any structured human interaction has its psychological origins in the intrapsychic processes of the individuals involved. This does not deny the reality of external considerations but insists that the interpretation of these factors depends upon the person's unique internal organization. The diagnostic methodology described here deals systematically with this intrapersonal aspect of the marriage partners also.<sup>23</sup>

It is evident that the general interpersonal approach and orientation has meaningful potential for purposes of studying mate selection.

#### The Purpose of the Study

In an extensive review of psychologically oriented research on mate selection, with particular reference to the research of Winch and his colleagues, Rosow presented some problems that, to date, have been generally ignored. The essence of his discussion is quoted at length because of its relevance to the present concern.

The failure to locate needs in depth may seriously prejudice the apparent relationship between need organization and behavior (that is, mate selection). From Freudian theory and clinical practice, it is evident that behavior may reflect either manifest or latent needs, regardless of the person's awareness or the overtness of the need's expression. Some fundamental needs are concealed by sublimation or "denied" by reaction formations. As a result, people with the same basic needs can show either similar or drastically different behavior (that is, choose different kinds of spouses).

There is little difficulty when manifest and latent needs are the same, but any difference between them presents a

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<sup>23</sup>Robert Romano, "The Use of the Interpersonal System of Diagnosis in Marital Counseling," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1960, 7:17-18.

problem. The uncertain level of a need drastically limits our ability to interpret any findings with confidence. If we do not know the level of need we are dealing with, we do not know which level is shaping the behavior we are trying to explain. We do not know when we are using superficial and when basic needs in our explanations. For in judging the complement of a need, we do not know when we are matching it with a spouse's need on the same level and when with its opposite on a different level. One person's manifest needs can be inadvertently compared with the latent needs of the spouse. In one case, the needs might seem complementary, and in another, they would not. But there is no principle to distinguish them. This becomes a major source of possible error, both in increasing spurious complementarity and in concealing genuine complementarity. There is no reason to expect these errors to cancel each other out.

Some significant variable intervenes between need organization and behavior. This is the person's adjustment to his basic need structure, whether his accommodation is conscious or not. We may call this intervening variable "self-acceptance."<sup>24</sup>

In view of the lack of consistency of findings, as well as the fact that no control has previously been exerted over the problem of latent versus manifest needs, the main purpose of this study was to ascertain the relationship, if any, between degree of expressed self-acceptance and couple need structure in the mate selection process.

The dominance-submissive and nurturance-receptive dimensions of interspousal behavior were chosen to represent need structure because of their importance as stressed by previous researchers.<sup>25</sup> Furthermore, these dimensions derive greatest support from Winch's data.<sup>26</sup> The

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<sup>24</sup>Irving Rosow, "Issues in the Concept of Need-Complementarity," Sociometry, 1957, 20:219-220.

<sup>25</sup>Timothy Leary, op.cit., 107.

<sup>26</sup>Robert F. Winch, op.cit., 213-214.

element of self-acceptance was used as a form of qualification of need structure with the postulate that an individual who is more accepting of self will not seek to derive a completion of self from external sources, viz., the mate, to the extent that an individual will who is lower in degree of self-acceptance. For example, Colvin has presented evidence to support the hypothesis that "opposites attract" when self-acceptance is lacking, and that "birds of a feather flock together" when self-acceptance is present.<sup>27</sup>

One of the traditional problems in marriage relations research is related to the populations that have been selected for purposes of obtaining data. If one is to accurately study the process of mate selection, ideally it would seem desirable to derive information from couples who are contemplating marriage, usually in the engagement period. It is conceivable that the nature of the relationship may change after the actual marriage occurs. However, researchers have been faced with the problem that many engagements do not, in fact, culminate in marriage and, as such, the data obtained are irrelevant for the purposes of study. Some researchers have ignored this aspect and have studied samples of engaged couples whereas others have derived data from marital pairs, the latter approach tending to be rather indiscriminate with respect to length of marriage. In addition, no attempts have been made to screen those couples wherein pregnancy occurred prior to marriage, many of these marriages conceivably being of a non "free choice" variety.

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<sup>27</sup>R. W. Colvin, "Friendship Selections as a Defense of the Self-Concept," Paper read at American Psychological Association Meeting, New York, September, 1957, (mimeographed), 3.

Finally, it is presumed that the presence of a child or children in a marriage would tend to alter the interpersonal dynamics of the couple, thus suggesting that couples who fit into this category would not be suitable for the purpose of mate selection studies. Some attempt has been made in this study to control the above-mentioned contaminating variables. In order to be eligible a couple had to be married less than one year. They further had to be without children at the time of the collection of data. Finally, a deliberate effort was made in order to screen couples who could have been pregnant prior to the time of marriage, assuming less freedom in mate selection under these conditions. These three factors in themselves seem to provide an improvement over previous efforts in this area.

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the above degree of relationship and to determine the differences in need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples using the following measurable criteria:

1. Degree of expressed self-acceptance (independent variable).
2. Interspousal need structure (dependent variable).

This study may be seen as an attempt toward clarification and further elaboration of existing theory. Many textbooks used in marriage and family living courses, only one of which is cited, espouse the notion that mate selection occurs on the basis of complementary need satisfaction.<sup>28</sup> If this theory is not readily verifiable, it then becomes

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<sup>28</sup>Thomas Ktsanes and Virginia Ktsanes, "Do 'Opposites Attract' or Does 'Like Marry Like'?", in Ruth Cavan, (ed.), Marriage and Family in the Modern World, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1960, 139-157.

obvious that lack of definitive statements is preferable to the advocacy of half truths. Finally, it was hoped that implications in terms of the practice of marriage counseling might be derived.

### Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study were derived from the previously cited work of Winch and Colvin and their respective associates. In addition, Rosow's provocative paper evolved the germination of an interesting speculation that the qualifying variable of self-acceptance might prove to be an important consideration.

There were three basic questions that this study was directed toward answering:

1. Do those spouses who are high in self-acceptance indicate similar need patterns?
2. Do those spouses who are low in self-acceptance indicate complementary or reciprocal need patterns?
3. Is there a difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples?

The major and the subsidiary hypotheses were as follows:

- A. Those mates who compose high self-acceptance couples are similar in their respective need structures.
  - A.1. There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need dominance.
  - A.2. There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need abasement.
  - A.3. There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need deference.
  - A.4. There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need nurturance.
  - A.5. There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need succorance.

- B. Those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples are complementary in their respective need structures.
  - B.1. There is a negative correlation between mates who compose low self-acceptance couples on the need dominance.
  - B.2. There is a positive correlation between male's need dominance and female's need abasement in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.
  - B.3. There is a positive correlation between male's need abasement and female's need dominance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.
  - B.4. There is a positive correlation between male's need dominance and female's need deference in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.
  - B.5. There is a positive correlation between male's need deference and female's need dominance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.
  - B.6. There is a negative correlation between mates who compose low self-acceptance couples on the need nurturance.
  - B.7. There is a positive correlation between male's need nurturance and female's need succorance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.
  - B.8. There is a positive correlation between male's need succorance and female's need nurturance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.
- C. There is a difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples.
  - C.1. There is a difference between high and low self-acceptance couples in interspousal need structure on the need dominance.
  - C.2. There is a difference between high and low self-acceptance couples in interspousal need structure on the need nurturance.

Numbers 1 and 6 under major hypothesis B are considered as representing the above-mentioned type I complementariness whereas 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8 are representative of type II complementariness. One, 2, 3, 4 and 5 may be considered as testing the dominance-submissive axis of complementary patterns and 6, 7 and 8 as testing the nurturant-receptive



axis of complementary patterns.

#### Overview of Thesis

A more comprehensive and detailed description of the research and literature pertinent to the current study will be presented in Chapter II. In Chapter III the design of the study will be examined with reference to independent and dependent variables, control of extraneous variance, instrumentation, the null hypotheses, alternate hypotheses and the statistical analysis. The latter will include methodological delineation of sub-samples. The selection of the subjects and administration of the instruments used in data collection for the study will be discussed in Chapter IV. Specific sample characteristics will be presented also in Chapter IV. In Chapter V the accumulated data will be presented and analyzed.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In Chapter I an overview of sociological research was presented, specifically with the intent of assisting the development of a research rationale. Related directly pertinent sociologically based materials will be presented in this chapter because they are seen as sources of extraneous variance to the study of mate selection.

The order of presentation is: 1) a review and critique of psychologically oriented literature and research on mate selection; 2) a section devoted to a discussion of associated matters; and 3) a review and critique of the literature and research concerned with self-acceptance and related self phenomena.

#### Studies of Psychological Aspects of Mate Selection

Generally, students of the behavioral sciences are unwilling to accept explanations about human activity which are based upon "rational" factors. The notion that all is not what it appears to be is expressed in the following.

The real reasons we choose a mate usually remain secret and are supplanted by plausible rationalizations. Many believe in marrying for security. There is no security obtainable through marriage. There is no security in life at all. Marriage does not solve any problem; it remains a problem in itself, which has to be solved, and merely adds a new task to the others with which life confronts us. Some marry for social or financial improvement. Of course, a spouse, especially a wife, may grow into the status of the partner, and men sometimes enjoy their wives' money. But even these tendencies to take advantage of the position or wealth of the mate indicate a more personal and general aim, reaching far beyond the apparent social or economic objectives.

But the real reason why people marry, regardless of their conscious reason, is a deep desire for association, the fundamental human need to "belong", a social drive which is part of human nature.

As personality has developed in the efforts of the child to integrate himself with others, so our resulting life style attracts us to persons who fit in with our personal method of social interrelation. Sexuality and the social institution of marriage make the marital choice more intimate than any other human relationship; hence the fundamental structure of the individual personality is evinced more decisively in the choice of a mate than in any other human affiliation.<sup>1</sup>

Most students of human behavior subscribe to the thesis that all human behavior is meaningful. In addition, superficial nuances of daily living are thought to be symptomatic of more basic needs, wants and strivings. It would seem logical, then, that the kinds of persons with whom one chooses to associate, let alone the more permanent affiliation of a husband and wife, are indicative of the kind of person a given individual happens to be.

Richardson reviewed the literature on homogamy or assortative mating from 1928 to 1939.<sup>2</sup> Much of the material constituted quantification of physical characteristics. However, these studies were subjective and speculative of mental traits, particularly in the matter of personality resemblances. The area of temperament was the only one in which negative correlations were found, the latter being slightly suggestive of a tendency toward complementarity of selection in mate choice. Furthermore,

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<sup>1</sup>Rudolph Dreikurs, The Challenge of Marriage, New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1946, 86-87.

<sup>2</sup>Helen M. Richardson, "Studies of Mental Resemblance Between Husbands and Wives and Between Friends," Psychological Bulletin, 1939, 36:104-120.



there were a variety of methodological problems and weaknesses that characterized these studies. There seemed to be little control, if any, over the length of time married of the samples. No reports are given of the reliability and validity of instruments that were employed. Sampling procedures also were haphazard with the result that replication would be impossible.<sup>3</sup> Generally, it was assumed that if attitudes, values and opinions were similar, these characteristics provided evidence of homogamy. However, a beginning suggestion of complementarity is found in the following:

It may not be, therefore, too futile a speculation to suppose that to some degree potential spouses are attracted to each other through empathetic appreciation of and identification with each other's outlook and problems. Special studies directed to the determination of this point would be of great interest.<sup>4</sup>

Another early example which is illustrative of a definite improvement in methodology was initiated by Kelly in 1934 and completed in 1938. He administered, to his sample of 300 engaged couples, anthropometric, blood grouping and a battery of psychological tests, as well as a thirty-six variable personality rating scale and a biographical questionnaire. The obtained correlations were practically all positive, thus seemingly offering support for a theory of homogamy.<sup>5</sup> It is important to note,

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<sup>3</sup>An example of these studies is: Mary Schooley, "Personality Resemblances Among Married Couples," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1936, 31:340-347.

<sup>4</sup>R. R. Willoughby, "Neuroticism in Marriage, IV, Homogamy; V, Summary and Conclusions," Journal of Social Psychology, 1936, 7:30.

<sup>5</sup>E. L. Kelly, "A Preliminary Report on Psychological Factors in Assortative Mating," Psychological Bulletin, 1937, 34:749 (Abstract).

however, that the personality variables did not include any measures of needs.

Burgess and Wallin<sup>6</sup> tested one thousand engaged couples using the Thurstone Neurotic Inventory as the primary instrument of investigation as well as a self-reporting chart on twenty-three personality traits. The results were consistent with those of Kelly. However, there were at least two major problems in this study. There was no control over deliberate "faking" on the self-rating sheet and the tendency to generalize was unwarranted in view of the lack of cross validation. Furthermore, it is improbable that personality variables were actually derived, thus suggesting a lack of validity of findings.

It could be assumed that the manner in which one deals with affect or feelings would be pertinent in relation to the mate selection process. Because Carl Jung's psychological types, namely introversion and extroversion, sensation and intuition and thinking and valuing are polar opposites, this kind of framework presents some possibilities for the study of complementariness. In Gray's study of 271 married couples, a Jungian approach was employed with the result, that evidence was offered in support of heterogamy, assuming that spouses are unconsciously attracted to each other.<sup>7</sup> Although Gray's study is of interest, particularly because of the unique approach taken, Winch's analysis of Gray's data did not reveal statistical significance in support of the theory.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>E. W. Burgess and Paul Wallin, "Homogamy in Personality Characteristics," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1944, 37:475-481.

<sup>7</sup>Horace Gray, "Psychological Types in Married People," Journal of Social Psychology, 1949, 29:189-200.

<sup>8</sup>Robert Winch, Mate-Selection, New York: Harper and Bros., 1958, 131-132.

### Winch's Theory of Complementary Needs

Currently, the foremost advocate of the theory of complementary needs in mate selection is Robert Winch. As early as 1943<sup>9</sup> and culminating in a volume published in 1958<sup>10</sup>, Winch has contributed much to the study of this area of interest. In a 1950 study on the Oedipus hypothesis, he concludes as follows:

We may state our revised hypothesis concerning the culturalized expression of the Oedipus Complex: to achieve their sex-roles, males must achieve independence which involves loosening their Oedipal attachments to their mothers; females on the other hand, need do neither but rather they need only to transfer their dependency from father to husband.<sup>11</sup>

Using the hypotheses of psychoanalytically oriented theorists, with a specific acknowledgement to Freud, as well as much of the previously cited research also as points of departure, Winch began his extensive writings by defining love in terms of needs:

Love is the positive emotion experienced by one person (the person loving or the lover) in an interpersonal relationship in which the second person (the person loved, or love-object) either (a) meets certain important needs to the first, or (b) manifests or appears (to the first) to manifest personal attributes (e.g., beauty, skills, or status) highly prized by the first, or both.<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>Robert Winch, "The Relation Between Courtship Behavior and Attitudes Towards Parents Among College Men," American Sociological Review, 1943, 8:164-174.

<sup>10</sup>Robert Winch, Mate Selection, op.cit.

<sup>11</sup>Robert Winch, "Some Data Bearing on the Oedipus Hypothesis," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1950, 45:488.

<sup>12</sup>Robert Winch, The Modern Family, New York: Holt, 1951, 333.

Winch then hypothesized that mate selection would occur according to what he termed the theory of complementary needs:

In mate-selection each individual seeks within his or her field of eligibles for that person who gives the greatest promise of providing him or her with maximum need gratification.<sup>13</sup>

The theory, as of 1953, was elaborated upon with the use of a case study by Thomas and Virginia Ktsanes.<sup>14</sup> Since that date Winch and his associates have attempted to test the theory which they report in a number of published articles.<sup>15</sup> The primary hypothesis of the theory is that "In mate-selection the need-pattern of each spouse will be complementary rather than similar to the need-pattern of the other spouse."<sup>16</sup> It is to be noted that there are two major aspects to the complementary patterns hypothesis; type I and type II complementariness. In the former, the assumption is made that those individuals who compose recently married couples or those individuals who are to be married to each other

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., 406. The phrase "field of eligibles" includes, according to Winch, the previously cited homogamy with respect to such sociological variables as race, religion and social class.

<sup>14</sup>Thomas Ktsanes and Virginia Ktsanes, "The Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate-Selection," in Robert Winch and Robert McGinnis, (eds.), Selected Studies in Marriage and the Family, New York: Holt, 1953, 435-453.

<sup>15</sup>Robert Winch, "The Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate-Selection: Final Results on the Test of the General Hypothesis," American Sociological Review, 1955, 20:552-555; Robert Winch, Thomas Ktsanes and Virginia Ktsanes, "Empirical Elaboration of the Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate-Selection," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1955, 51:508-514. Additional publications by Winch and his associates will be cited in later footnotes.

<sup>16</sup>Robert Winch, Mate-Selection, op.cit., 96.



are dissimilar rather than similar in their respective need patterns in the sense that they differ in level of intensity on the same need. In the latter, it is assumed that there is regularity of matching of certain need variables between prospective mates. As an example of this arrangement, it is speculated that a dominant person will be attracted to a submissive person and vice versa.

In order to test his hypotheses, Winch drew a sample of twenty-five married persons and their spouses from the undergraduate population at Northwestern University. All the students were white, middle-class, native born, married less than two years and childless. "Need interviews" were conducted, these consisting of a series of forty-five open-ended questions. A content analysis of the interviews was performed independently by two judges who rated the existence of variables on a five-point basis. Because the rating used for each subject on every sub-variable was the sum of the scores assigned by the two raters, inter-rater reliabilities were obtained by the correlation between their ratings, adjusted by means of the Spearman-Brown formula for double length. The median "corrected" correlation of the raters for all sub-variables was .75.<sup>17</sup>

Case-history interviews were then held followed by the administration of an eight-card Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) to each subject.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>17</sup>Robert Winch and Douglas More, "Quantitative Analysis of Qualitative Data in the Assessment of Motivation: Reliability, Congruence, and Validity," American Journal of Sociology, 1956, 61:445-452.

<sup>18</sup>Robert Winch, Mate-Selection, op.cit., 110.

The analysis of the TAT data was similar to that of the need-interview data. Five judges then met and determined a final set of ratings on each subject's needs.<sup>19</sup>

The variables used included twelve needs (abasement, achievement, approach, autonomy, deference, dominance, hostility, nurturance, recognition, status aspiration, status striving, and succorance) and three general traits (anxiety, emotionality and vicariousness). All of these variables were then subdivided for the most part into overt or covert and within or without-marriage dichotomies. Thus, fifteen variables were converted into forty-four variables. Because thirty-five of the forty-four variables correlated negatively, in addition to the fact that eight of these were both negatively correlated and statistically significant, the hypothesis of complementary patterns was, in Winch's estimation, supported.<sup>20</sup> Another method of testing the contrasting needs pattern was through comparing correlations between mates with correlations between randomly matched pairs of men and women.<sup>21</sup> The latter approach was taken, in part, as a result of criticism by Corsini who suggested that the validity of Winch's results could be questioned

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<sup>19</sup>Robert Winch and Douglas More, op.cit.

<sup>20</sup>Robert Winch, Thomas Ktsanes and Virginia Ktsanes, "The Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate-Selection: An Analytic and Descriptive Study," American Sociological Review, 1954, 19:241-249.

<sup>21</sup>Robert Winch, "The Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate-Selection: A Test of One Kind of Complementariness," American Sociological Review, 1955, 20:52-56.

because of the lack of a control group.<sup>22</sup>

Rosow was critical of Winch's using many different need ratings of a given subject as if they were discrete and independent variables. He recommended also that need complementarity be analyzed within a framework of global personality types.<sup>23</sup> An example of the kind of result that led to this suggestion is Winch's finding of significant positive correlations between husband's need succorance and wife's need nurturance, but not the reverse, i.e., husband's nurturance and wife's succorance.<sup>24</sup> However, from a Q-type factor analysis, using Thurstone's centroid method of factoring, and based upon Winch's subjects and variables, Ktsanes derived four factors which he labeled:

- A. yielding (submissive) dependency
- B. hostile dominance
- C. mature nurturance
- D. neurotic self-deprecation.<sup>25</sup>

In spite of the general support for dissimilar need patterns of spouses offered by Ktsanes, he concludes as follows:

According to the findings of this study, however, the principle of polar attraction operates systematically only in the

<sup>22</sup>Raymond Corsini, "Understanding and Similarity in Marriage," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1956, 52:331.

<sup>23</sup>Irving Rosow, "Issues in the Concept of Need-Complementarity," Sociometry, 1957, 20:216-233.

<sup>24</sup>Robert Winch, Thomas Ktsanes and Virginia Ktsanes, "The Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate-Selection: An Analytic and Descriptive Study," op.cit., 241-249.

<sup>25</sup>Thomas Ktsanes, "Mate Selection on the Basis of Personality Type: A Study Utilizing an Empirical Typology of Personality," American Sociological Review, 1955, 20:550.

case of some specified need patterns. This suggests that the complementary need hypothesis is a more complicated principle than the mere principle of "opposites attract".<sup>26</sup>

Another comprehensive approach was taken by Roos, again with the result that general support was offered for the theory. Roos carried out an R-type factor analysis on ratings of Winch's fifty subjects on the above-mentioned forty-four sub-variables. The following six basic dimensions or factors emerged:

- A. achievement-oriented independence vs. succorance
- B. anxious succorance vs. secure nurturance
- C. strong need approval
- D. submissiveness vs. dominance
- E. instrumental deference
- F. neurotic self-deprecation vs. status oriented dominance.<sup>27</sup>

Additional support is offered by Winch in his most recent work through the development of an extended qualitative analysis of contrasting patterns of needs of his original twenty-five couples. Four relatively distinct types of marital complementariness were described. The most apparent type was the "Mother-Son" relationship in which the wife is dominant and maternal, while the husband is passive and non-aggressive. A second type was the "Ibsenian" couple where the male is the dominant, nurturant mate, and the female is childishly dependent. The third type was the "Master-Servant Girl" pair. These males were overtly dominant and covertly dependent. Their preference was for women who were subservient and strong. These wives had a traditional view of the status

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<sup>26</sup> Ibid., 551.

<sup>27</sup> Donald Roos, "Complementary Needs in Mate-Selection: A Study Based on R-Type Factor Analysis," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, 1956.

of women. The forth type was described as the "Thurberian" type of marriage in which husbands tended to be inhibited in the expression of their feelings. These men were attracted to spouses who were highly expressive. As a result of the analysis, Winch tentatively hypothesized three types of complementariness, because he was neither certain that the types are mutually exclusive nor that they represent a fullness of possibilities.<sup>28</sup>

Another question related to Winch's methodology is that pertaining to the ability and objectivity of the observers, or judges. Relative to this question, Bowman made some pertinent comments.

Somehow or other "need interviews" were conducted and analyzed. And just what are "need interviews?" How many hours were devoted to each? What is the scientific competence in the area of human dynamics of those who gathered and analyzed these data? The reader is left completely in the dark in regard to these fundamental matters. Are we to accept the statistical conclusions of these two articles entirely on faith? Studies like these can rise no higher than their original sources. How adequate are the original data? An answer to this basic question is conspicuously absent.<sup>29</sup>

While Bowman's criticisms were made prior to publication of some of the articles which deal with methodology, and to which reference has already been made, the question of competence and objectivity is answered in meagre fashion. Limited evidence is available of the qualifications of interviewers or judges. There is no guarantee that vested interest on the part of the judges did not affect the ratings.

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<sup>28</sup> Robert Winch, Mate-Selection, op.cit., 135-233.

<sup>29</sup> Claude Bowman, "Uncomplimentary Remarks on Complementary Needs," American Sociological Review, 1955, 20:466.

Richardson, another reviewer, raises some questions about Winch's research and offers a note of optimism at the same time.

Two areas of criticism are revealed in this study. One, there is doubt whether Winch had adequate data on the unconscious or covert elements of the marriages of his couples. To gain full perspective on the emotional needs of spouses necessitates depth interviews. These Winch did not have. The other criticism concerns the dangers inherent in using a small sample of twenty-five couples. Relationships which may exist between a pair of variables could be obscured by a small sample but would appear in a large sample. Possibly both of these criticisms will be rectified in succeeding studies. Considering these limitations, Winch's study has much merit both for those interested in probing into the realm of emotional needs in marriage and for functional application such as in marital counseling.<sup>30</sup>

Kernodle takes a dim view of studies on mate selection which are based on personality needs, specifically when there is question of the competence of researchers to manipulate specific kinds of data. His attack seemed to be indirectly aimed at Winch.

To some it is tempting and it also may very well be instructive to study the discrete life histories of a given number of individuals who shared residential propinquity and who chose each other as a marriage partner. The entire psychological and/or psychoanalytic history of each individual could be obtained. These data could then be analyzed to determine what psychological variables have operated to influence Male A to choose Female B as a mate. Such a task calls for a type of professional training which most sociologists do not have and concerns itself with phenomena which the field of sociology does not ordinarily encompass, and further suggests that a described type of social interaction (here mate choice) is explainable in terms of discrete psychological factors rather than in terms of the context of social facts which define the conditions under which nearness may or may not operate as an influencing factor.<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>30</sup>Arthur Richardson, "Review of Mate-Selection, by Robert Winch," Marriage and Family Living, 1959 21:97.

<sup>31</sup>Wayne Kernodle, "Some Implications of the Homogamy-Complementary Needs Theories of Mate Selection for Sociological Research," Social Forces, 1959, 38:147-148.



In addition to these criticisms already raised about the research of Winch and his associates, there are several other areas of weakness that become readily apparent, some pertaining to theoretical matters and others to methodology.

The question of covert versus manifest needs has already been discussed in detail (See Chapter I). Another theoretical problem arises, however, when consideration is given to the fact that an individual may seek sources for need gratification outside of marriage. The male who is a "task master" at the office and an "obedient servant" at home is a common phenomenon. It would obviously be fallacious to assume that one's mate must be the essential reservoir of need satisfaction. Coincidentally, western society seems to place a premium upon high degree of emotional proximity within the marital pair. It is evident that this is a difficult problem to resolve in any research endeavour.

Inherent also in Winch's work is the operational assumption that people have segregated needs in contrast to general personality needs. Needs are segregated according to diverse social roles, thereby deriving gratification in some roles in contrast to others. When certain roles tend to activate needs selectively there is no problem. However, difficulty arises in those roles which offer opportunity of satisfaction to a wide range of needs. A classical example of this situation is found in the neurotic. His behavior is inappropriate to specific circumstances precisely because he does not conform to role expectations and seeks gratification which is more in keeping with other socially prescribed roles. The general problem is one which permeates much research on human behavior.



Methodologically, there are also additional problems. One wonders about the approximate size of the parent population from which the sample was drawn. Aside from the fact that all the couples were married less than two years, no data are given about specific length of time married. While the sample is purported to be homogeneous, no criteria of homogeneity are reported. Likewise, no criterion is offered for purposes of establishing social class background. No reference to non "free choice" marriage or control over it is made, thereby affording limited control over a potential source of extraneous variance. Furthermore, the tendency to generalize findings is not justified because of the lack of cross validation.

Finally, the hypotheses included Murray's needs and the TAT was the primary instrument for measuring these needs. However, the TAT ratings were the least favorable of the three sources for testing the hypotheses. These data were more often than chance in opposition to Winch's postulates. It is noteworthy also that only approximately half of the correlations derived from case-history data were in the hypothesized direction. As a result of the above "global analysis", many permutations were found to be in the direction as hypothesized. The number of significant correlations, however, was only 71 out of 388.

Two other studies, both of which were almost wholly derived from Winch's theory and research need careful consideration. Bowerman and Day<sup>32</sup> were the first to test Winch's hypotheses. Because they were

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<sup>32</sup>Charles Bowerman and Barbara Day, "A Test of the Theory of Complementary Needs as Applied to Couples During Courtship," American Sociological Review, 1956, 21:602-605.

concerned with possible need pattern changes in married couples after a period of time, their sample consisted of sixty college couples who were engaged or viewed themselves as regular dating partners. The EPPS was the primary instrument of data collection. Ten of the variables in the EPPS are similar in definition and meaning to ten of those used by Winch. These were: abasement, achievement, approach (affiliation), autonomy, deference, dominance, hostility (aggression), nurturance, recognition (exhibition), and succorance. The other five EPPS variables (order, intraception, change, endurance, and heterosexuality) were not directly comparable to the remaining five variables used by Winch (status aspiration, status striving, anxiety, emotionality, and vicariousness). Furthermore, the EPPS gives one score for each person on each variable, whereas Winch "double dichotomized" many of his need variables, scoring the variables as overt or covert and within the marriage and outside the marriage, giving four scores on the need for each individual. Although the methods of measurement in the two studies differed, Bowerman and Day assumed that the assessment of variables was similar, thereby allowing a comparison of obtained results. Their results are summarized in the following table.

Table 2.1. Summary of Intercouple Correlations<sup>33</sup>

Kind of Inter- couple Correla- tion	Number of r's		Number of r's Significant at .05 level			
	Tested	In Hypothesized Direction	Hypothesized Direction		Opposite Direction	
			Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected
Different Needs	210	100	5	10.50	10	10.50
Same Need	15	2	0	.75	4*	.75
Total	225	102	5	11.25	14	11.25

\*Significant at .01 level

Since the number of correlations which they found to be in the hypothesized direction was less than would be expected by chance, they concluded that their results were not in accord with the general theory of complementary needs. The evidence in Table 2.1 also indicates little support for homogamy of needs. The total number of correlations in the direction opposite to the hypothesis is barely higher than that expected by chance. Furthermore, not only were most of the correlations between needs of couples quite small, but also it is of particular interest to note that those which were large enough to be significant offer no reliable support for either homogamy or heterogamy.

Although the Bowerman and Day study is generally sound in a methodological sense, at least three weaknesses are apparent. First, there is ambiguity over the population from which the sample was derived. Second, they hypothesized that every variable should correlate interspously with every other variable in a positive direction. The latter assumption is not justified on the basis of complementarity at least as described by Winch. Bowerman and Day stated that they were, in fact, testing Winch's hypotheses. The study cannot be viewed, however, as a valid replication of Winch's research. Third, the study lacks cross validation; a weakness that seems to exist in many studies of this nature. The conclusion of the study, however, includes some interesting comments on the problem:

It is very unlikely that any theory of mate selection which is stated in terms of a uniform direction of relationship between needs in general will be substantiated. Of all the needs which could be listed, we might expect only a few to be highly relevant to mate selection and marital adjustment. Furthermore, there is no reason to believe that all needs should be either homogamous or complementary. This depends on the kind of need

relationship required to bring satisfaction, and the findings of both studies discussed here would support our doubt that any uniform directionality of relationship can be found.

In view of these results, we would suggest that further efforts in this research area would be most effective if one started not with a theory of needs, but with a general theory of mate selection and marital adjustment. This theory should specify the personality variables which are theoretically relevant to the situations being studied, not limiting the variables to a needs formulation. This theory would also indicate the kind of relationships which we would expect to find among our variables. These relationships might be complementary in some instances and homogamous in others, and would probably be in terms of patterns of personality characteristics rather than single variables. And finally, such a theory would include consideration of background and situational variables which must be taken into account in explaining the operation of the personality variables. Since there has been comparatively little research on the influence of personality variables on mate selection and marital adjustment, Winch and his associates have made an important contribution by focusing attention on this problem.<sup>34</sup>

It was the need to reconcile the contrasting findings of Winch and those of Bowerman and Day that led Schellenberg to attempt a similar project.<sup>35</sup> In order to allow for any difference in results in the two former studies which may have been due to differences in marital status, Schellenberg used both married and premarried couples as subjects. The data obtained from these two groups were analyzed separately. The married sample was composed of sixty-four couples, all married less than ten years, with the median length of marriage less than two years. There

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<sup>34</sup>Ibid., 605.

<sup>35</sup>James Schellenberg, "Personality Patterns in Mate-Selection: A Study of Complementary Needs and Homogamy," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, 1959; James Schellenberg and Lawrence Bee, "A Re-Examination of the Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate Selection," Marriage and Family Living, 1960, 22:227-232.

were thirty-six premarried couples; half were engaged and the other half were in the "going steady" category. Characteristics of the total sample were: most of the subjects were between twenty and twenty-five years of age; over 85 per cent were affiliated with the Protestant church; all were of the white race; and over 75 per cent were of urban, middle-class backgrounds.

The instrument used for the study of needs was the EPPS. The basic hypothesis of the initial part of the study was that the need patterns of the couples are more dissimilar than would be expected by chance. In order to approach the study of the relationship between partners in an holistic manner, Schellenberg developed a measure for similarity or dissimilarity. The measure was termed a "convergence score" and it was assumed that the latter assessed the extent to which patterns of manifest needs of the two members of a couple were similar. The potential range of scores was from perfect negative correlation at 0 to perfect positive correlation at 200, with 100 the expected chance average. Thus, all convergence scores above 100 were interpreted as showing homogamy, whereas all scores below 100 were indicative of heterogamy. The steps used to obtain the convergence scores for the study were as follows:

1. The original scores were corrected for differences which vary systematically with sex; this was to insure that the average of chance convergence for members of opposite sexes would be 100 rather than skewed in one direction.
2. The different variables for each person were ranked in order of his scores on them.
3. A coefficient of rank correlation was computed to measure the extent of convergence between the profiles of the two persons of a couple (in this study Spearman's coefficient was used).

4. Negative scores were eliminated by adding one to each score thus obtained.
5. Decimal points were eliminated by multiplying each score by 100.<sup>36</sup>

The hypothesis was not supported and, in fact, the results tended in the direction of homogamy. Sixty-nine of the 100 couples revealed positive correlations of need patterns, including 73 per cent of the married sub-sample and 61 per cent of the premarried sub-sample. The average of need convergence scores for the married group was 112.4 and for the premarried group it was 106.9. If the total sample is considered together, the average convergence score is 110.4, the latter being statistically significant in the direction opposite to that predicted.<sup>37</sup>

While the evidence did not support the theory of complementary needs, it occurred to Schellenberg that particular need patterns of couples may illustrate some consistency. He then turned to a consideration of the dominant-submissive and nurturant-receptive axes which yielded particularly significant results to Winch (see Hypotheses in Chapter I). Within this framework, five hypotheses were formulated with the result that none of the correlations were statistically significant. However, ten of the sixteen correlations were in the predicted direction. The results are tabulated as follows:

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<sup>36</sup>Ibid., 229.

<sup>37</sup>Ibid.

Table 2.2. Correlations of Particular Patterns of Needs<sup>38</sup>

Hypothesis Tested	Variables Matched	Predicted Direction of Correlation*	Married (N=64)	Premarried (N=36)
(a)	Male Dominance and Female Dominance	-	-.06	+.02
(b)	Male Dominance and Female Abasement	+	+.05	+.01
(b)	Male Abasement and Female Dominance	+	-.11	+.12
(c)	Male Dominance and Female Deference	+	+.05	+.13
(c)	Male Deference and Female Dominance	+	-.06	-.19
(d)	Male Nurturance and Female Nurturance	-	+.23	+.12
(e)	Male Nurturance and Female Succorance	+	+.08	+.08
(f)	Male Succorance and Female Nurturance	+	+.07	+.31

\*Product-moment correlations

In discussing differences in findings between his results and those of previous researchers, Schellenberg noted that the methods for measuring strength of needs differed and this factor, in itself, could account for different results. Accordingly, he compared seven variables (deference, autonomy, succorance, dominance, abasement, nurturance and aggression) which the EPPS has in common with Winch's list. The results were still in opposition to the theory of complementarity, but the differences from chance were no longer statistically significant.<sup>39</sup>

The next area of disparity examined by Schellenberg was related to the fact that in Winch's data, ratings were made by judges whereas the

<sup>38</sup>Ibid., 230.

<sup>39</sup>Schellenberg, op.cit., 74-76.



EPPS used in his study allows for the individual's own judgement of himself. This basic difference could conceivably have led to variation in results. It was particularly in this endeavour, which is described in the following, that Schellenberg made a major contribution with respect to methodology in mate selection research.

The above seven variables which were used in Winch's research and which are part of the EPPS were used for the analysis. A rank order of the strength of associations of all possible pairs of these variables for 1509 subjects taking the EPPS was compared with the rank order of the same pairs of variables used with Winch's sample. The rank order correlations between the set of intercorrelations for the EPPS and the sets of intercorrelations from Winch's data (EPPS and overt-within need ratings) ranged from .78 to .70 (EPPS and overt-without ratings). In addition, approximately half of the difference between the two sets of intercorrelations were traced to the single variable nurturance. The latter was more closely related to succorance in the EPPS than in Winch's scores and more closely related to autonomy in Winch's scores. Schellenberg concluded that the EPPS and Winch's instruments tended, in fact, to measure essentially the same phenomena.<sup>40</sup>

It is necessary to indicate several shortcomings of Schellenberg's research. No claim is made for randomness of his sample or sub-samples. The length of time married for the already-married sample was less than ten years and the median was less than two years. It is certain, therefore, that some of the couples were married for over two years, thus

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<sup>40</sup>Ibid., 77-81 and 85-97.

raising questions about the feasibility of using a sample of this kind for mate selection research. A further aspect related to sampling is the afore-mentioned criticism pertaining to the lack of guarantee that the premarried couples would inevitably be married. While social class background is referred to in conjunction with homogeneity of the sample, no criterion is stated for this particular characteristic. An additional lack of concordance is evidenced in the absence of provision for control over the presence or absence of children within the married group. Finally, an element of confounding was present in the arrangement of calculating correlations for each couple on all needs. It is improbable that complementarity founded upon all needs would exist, if only on the basis of following the dictates of reason.

#### Literature and Studies of the Mate Selection Process

It is almost redundant to note that vast array of changes that have taken place in the United States within the last half century, almost in direct relationship to urbanization and industrialization. The resulting modifications are of particular consequence for youth. The automobile and expanded resources for transportation in general have enlarged the area of potential social contacts from a radius of several blocks to one of hundreds of miles. The outside world is now within the home as a result of television. Familial control in general seems to have been undermined and lessened. The closeness of living units has made the problem of privacy more acute. Thus, public parks, automobiles and theatres become the loci of courting in contrast to earlier days in western society. Furthermore, the art of love is depicted by screen

stars and becomes a pattern for purposes of emulation.

A current philosophy is portrayed in popular songs, among other media, that love between two persons is a sufficient basis for the establishment of a marriage, notwithstanding a family. In marriage can be found supreme happiness, yet only with a specific loved one. The latter or "soul-mate" theory was expanded to include "love at first sight". There is little doubt that current societal conditions and mores have great impact upon the mate selection process. There is great freedom of choice, but there is also a greater bond with romantic influences.

There are specific situations within the broader context of cultural homogamy that are tainted with elements of heterogamy. One example of this kind of arrangement is where a girl has been overprotected by her parents, particularly her mother. The young person, upon reaching the freedom that is akin to college life, becomes deeply involved with almost the first male with whom she has contact. He too may be compensating for an earlier lack of freedom. Even a superficial glance affords the observer of college campus life a picture of these two "lost souls" in a bond of mutual sympathy and understanding. This kind of selection is homogamous only with respect to probable neuroticism, whereas, in fact, their needs may be almost in violent opposition.

An additional example of heterogamous mating is one that is a result of the social environment. With the current amount of mobility it is not improbable that a young person finds himself, particularly in a large city, restricted in opportunities for having contacts with potential mates. The need to marry, both socially and emotionally, may drive

these individuals into marriage with mates who are also without peer groups containing potential mates. These are merely two examples of situations which may be atypical yet do exist.

A review of several textbooks in marriage and the family reveals the tendency to focus upon what is often described as the "ultimate" or "only real" type of love. The following are illustrative of this approach:

Although one may fall precipitously into a condition of violent infatuation, it takes time for real love to develop.... Genuine love is centered on one person only.<sup>41</sup>

Love at first sight is actually impossible, because love between two individuals is always a product of intimate and complex interaction, which depends upon varied types of experiences.<sup>42</sup>

....love never makes the individual less effective, less fully functioning; rather it promotes growth and increases awareness of meanings, needs and opportunities in the world about one.<sup>43</sup>

We can admit that young couples may be, and usually are, 'terribly infatuated' or 'awfully thrilled' with each other, but we hesitate to apply the word 'love' to such untested relationships. (Untested by many years of marriage.)<sup>44</sup>

Genuine love is possible only when couples know each other well.... Is it actually possible to 'fall in love at first sight'? The answer is 'no'....If a person has serious doubts as to whether or not he is in love, obviously he is not.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>41</sup>Henry Bowman, Marriage for Moderns, New York: T.Y. Crowell, 1953, 32-37.

<sup>42</sup>J. Hirning and A. Hirning, Marriage Adjustment, New York: American Book Company, 1956, 125.

<sup>43</sup>J. Landis and M. Landis, Building a Successful Marriage, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958, 169.

<sup>44</sup>E. LeMasters, Modern Courtship and Marriage, New York: MacMillan Co., 1957, 61.

<sup>45</sup>R. Skidmore and A. Cannon, Building Your Marriage, New York: Harper and Bros., 1951, 57-61.

In quest of an empirical approach and in reaction to certain kinds of statements, of which those illustrated above are representative, Reiss<sup>46</sup> proposed a frame of reference on a sociological level for the study of love. He developed a "Wheel Theory" which encompasses four processes; namely, rapport, self-revelation, mutual dependency and personality need fulfillment. Each process is interrelated with all others and each one occurs constantly in the development of a love relationship. After discussing some of the major researches that have been reported in this chapter, he concludes as follows:

These are representative findings and they all are explainable by the Wheel Theory: e.g., if love does develop through the culturally directed processes of a primary relationship involving rapport, revelation, dependency, and need fulfillment, then one would expect that there would be wide differences in the amount of needs which were fulfilled in any one relationship; that the very common failure to fully satisfy one's needs might well make one have some doubts and conflicts concerning the value of the relationship; and it also follows that although one has fulfilled some of his needs in one love relationship, he may fall simultaneously in love with another person who is capable of fulfilling different combinations of needs.<sup>47</sup>

It is of interest to note, that irrespective of initial approach and orientation, most authors seem inevitably to arrive at some consideration of needs in their discussion.

#### Unconscious Factors in Mate Selection

One could speculate that the criteria for mutual attraction in any dyadic relationship are largely unconscious, having their roots in an

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<sup>46</sup>I. Reiss, "Toward a Sociology of the Heterosexual Love Relationship," Marriage and Family Living, 1960, 22:139-145.

<sup>47</sup>Ibid., 144-145.

earlier period of growth and development and resulting from repressions related to conflicts in lack of satisfaction, among other dynamics. It could be speculated further that if these impulses became conscious, they would tend to colour existing elements of attraction for those with whom mate choices are made. Likes and dislikes, therefore, have their basis in a multitude of experiences, many of which are unrelated to love relationships. Consequently, attraction toward a given human being is not based on singular likes or dislikes, rather it is permeated by a configuration of motives. It follows logically that a conscious rationale offered as the basis for attraction may be, more often than not, in the form of a rationalization. Lack of conscious awareness of factors entering into mate selection then leaves either minimal or no control over the selection.

Human beings, however, also possess some degree of rationality. Mate selection can occur on an apparent rational basis with love, however defined, becoming a subsequent aspect of the process. Currently, courses in marriage and family living, workshops held with young peoples' groups as well as the provision of blueprints for happy marriage in general, tend to be focussing upon the fact that love is not the sole prerequisite for successful matching. Careful and rational scrutiny can thus be a part of the process.

In keeping with the salience of unconscious elements, it seems that an individual's estimate of himself is an important facet of his state of mental health. Personal weaknesses can be masked through association with others who satisfy feelings of inadequacy often by the provision of reassurance that other qualities are held in esteem. Ohmann

speculates that "all love affairs operate on essentially the same principle.. Stated very simply, this principle is that we fall in love with those whom we need to complete ourselves emotionally."<sup>48</sup> In answer to why people marry, Ohmann suggests the following:

1. Biological sexual cravings.
2. Environmental and, more particularly, economic pressures.
3. Cultural and social requirements.
4. Personal or emotional striving, whether consciously recognized or not.<sup>49</sup>

In hypothesizing why a particular individual is chosen, Ohmann further suggests that freedom of choice is more mythical than actual, as is evidenced in the following reasons for specific choice.

1. Rationalized motives.
2. Environmental and cultural situations which determine the supply and demand of marriageable persons.
3. Motives depending on personality.<sup>50</sup>

The basis of importance of unconscious factors, regardless of current source, is traceable to Sigmund Freud.

### Psychoanalytic Hypotheses

According to the Freudian conception, as well as that of Freud's more direct disciples, all love is derived from one great source, namely the libido. The latter is viewed as a kind of reservoir of love energy which is reasonably constant within a given individual. The libido is

<sup>48</sup>Oliver Ohmann, "The Psychology of Attraction," in Helen Jordon, (ed.), You and Marriage, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1942, 15.

<sup>49</sup>Ibid., 17.

<sup>50</sup>Ibid., 18.

channelized toward various objects through a process which is labeled cathexis. The average individual develops through several stages of cathexis in a fairly sequential manner. These are: autoeroticism, narcissism (love of self) and object-cathexis (love of an outside object). The stages of object-cathexis may be generally subdivided into: a love of the parent of one's own sex; a love of the parent of the opposite sex; and the mature love of an outside person of the opposite sex. An individual, however, can have this libido development arrested at any of the stages. He thus becomes fixated upon any object. The narcissistic individual, whose love of others is said to be only a reflection of self-love, the homosexual, and the male who cannot fall in love with a potentially marriageable woman because of emotional ties to his mother, all represent arrests in their development. Coincidentally, an individual's love may become fixated upon a person of the opposite sex who is neither able nor willing to marry him. Normally, the libido will shift to new objects until one is found which tends to provide satisfaction. When the shift is impossible and the object is futile, this kind of love is designated as neurotic.<sup>51</sup>

Impressions that were based upon clinical observations led Freud to believe that there is a tendency for narcissistic persons to mate with anacletic (dependent) persons.<sup>52</sup> Elsewhere, Freud stated that often an individual will fall in love with a specific person because that person

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<sup>51</sup>Sigmund Freud, An Outline of Psychoanalysis, New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1949, 22-24 and 78.

<sup>52</sup>Sigmund Freud, "On Narcissism: An Introduction," Collected Papers, Vol. 4, London: Hogarth Press, 1925, 30-59.



represents a perfection which the lover has striven to attain, though unsuccessfully.<sup>53</sup> In other words, to the narcissistic lover a loved one is essentially an extension of self or stated differently, a projection of the ego-ideal. The anaclitic type of person usually searches for a mate who will be protective.<sup>54</sup> While Freud is not explicit on the point of which type is most characteristic of either sex, he implies that the types of personalities are complementary and that the tendency would be for one to fall in love with the other.<sup>55</sup>

#### Related Formulations and Research

A series of writers have propagated Freudian thinking, particularly with respect to pathological aspects. In a study of neurotic interreactions of individuals who are in frequent and intimate contact, Mittelman categorizes the following types of reactions:

1. Partnerships in which mutual needs are satisfied although the unconscious strivings are essentially neurotic. Even under these circumstances minor conflicts lead to distress, but the main result is that of gratification and security.
2. Those in which the needs of one individual are satisfied and his anxiety kept at a minimum by the behavior of the other who, in turn, is satisfied only in part while many of his cravings remain unsatisfied and his anxiety is aroused. Thus one individual appears well, whereas the other is manifestly sick.

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<sup>53</sup>Sigmund Freud, Group Psychology and the Analysis of the Ego, London: Hogarth Press, 1922, 74.

<sup>54</sup>Sigmund Freud, op.cit., 47.

<sup>55</sup>Ibid., 45-46.

3. Others in which one individual is motivated by marked anxiety and the other evaluates this fear in terms of his own inner conflicts and reacts to it in a manner which immediately or potentially increases the anxiety of the first person.<sup>56</sup>

With specific reference to mate choice based upon some form of neurotic attraction, Mittelman lists some common types, of which the following is a summary.

1. One aggressive and sadistic versus one dependent and submissive.
2. One self-sufficient through emotional detachment versus one demanding love.
3. Mutual attempts at domination.
4. One neurotically ill versus one extremely considerate.
5. One with fluctuating helplessness and assertiveness versus one fluctuating in responsibility and disappointed desires for love.<sup>57</sup>

In a similar vein, Colby<sup>58</sup> borrows the term symbiosis from biology for purposes of description of the basic interpersonal bond in marriage. He begins with the assumption that marriages are attempts to gratify certain wishes, these being instinctual in nature and centering around the erogenous zones. From a dynamic standpoint, those factors which operate in the formation of a symbiosis are the wishes and defenses against wishes in two people. When the wishes and defenses on the part

<sup>56</sup>Bela Mittelman, "Complementary Neurotic Reactions in Intimate Relationships," Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 1944, 13:479.

<sup>57</sup>Bela Mittelman, "Analysis of Reciprocal Neurotic Patterns in Family Relationships," in V. W. Eisenstein, (ed.), Neurotic Interaction in Marriage, New York: Basic Books, 1956, 82-83.

<sup>58</sup>K. Colby, "Human Symbiosis," Psychiatry, 1949, 12:135-139.

of both partners interlock in such a way that allows each to remain in a state of rest, then the relationship is solidified. If the fusion of wishes and defenses results in disturbance, the relationship disintegrates. After citing some case material for purposes of illustration, Colby summarizes as follows:

Since the dynamic forces operating behind a particular character structure drive a person in a specific direction--that is, towards the person able to provide a dynamically suitable dovetail--conscious will has little to do with the choice of a mate. Such vectors preclude also the role of random chance in the unions of men and women.<sup>59</sup>

Similar observations to those cited above, which are either directly or indirectly related to Freudian assumptions and are expressions of psychodynamic complementariness, have been expressed by a number of other writers. Ackerman<sup>60</sup> has studied the problem of marital and the wider family interaction processes. Benedek<sup>61</sup> refers to complementariness in a general treatment of the psychology of individual adjustment. Treatment of marital pairs and divorce form the basis of Bergler's related discussion.<sup>62</sup> Flugel<sup>63</sup> presents essentially the same thinking in studying the family. The analysis of already-married couples is treated

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<sup>59</sup>Ibid., 139.

<sup>60</sup>Nathan Ackerman, "The Diagnosis of Neurotic Marital Interaction," Social Casework, 1954, 35:139-147.

<sup>61</sup>Therese Benedek, Insight and Personality Adjustment, New York: The Ronald Press, 1946, 25.

<sup>62</sup>Edmund Bergler, Unhappy Marriage and Divorce, New York: International Universities Press, 1946, Chapter 1.

<sup>63</sup>J. Flugel, The Psycho-Analytic Study of the Family, London: The Hogarth Press, 1921, Chapter 11.

in a similar vein by both McLean<sup>64</sup> and Oberndorf.<sup>65</sup> In speculating about the dynamics of love, Reik<sup>66</sup> delves into complementariness intermittently through the course of a comprehensive volume.

Much of the literature cited above is based upon observations of psychoanalytic patients. A question could be raised relative to the fact that these patients, because of their predominant neurotic disabilities, are highly unrepresentative in that they tend to possess primarily middle class backgrounds. In a most recent and comprehensive treatment to this effect, differences are emphasized over similarity of marriage partners.<sup>67</sup> However, the authors of one chapter are explicit in stating that complementariness need not include only neurotic phenomena.

Complementation....implies that two people are attracted to each other on the basis of their healthy or neurotic needs for the purpose of maintaining and developing their habitual needs and goals.<sup>68</sup>

Strauss<sup>69</sup> studied male and female mate preferences from the viewpoint of felt personality needs. He found that both groups recognized

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<sup>64</sup>Helen McLean, "The Emotional Background of Marital Difficulties," American Sociological Review, 1941, 6:384-388.

<sup>65</sup>C. Oberndorf, "Psychoanalysis of Married Couples," Psychoanalytic Review, 1938, 25:453-457.

<sup>66</sup>Theodor Reik, A Psychologist Looks at Love, New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1944.

<sup>67</sup>V. W. Eisenstein, op.cit., Neurotic Interaction in Marriage.

<sup>68</sup>Zygmunt Piotrowski and Stephanie Dudek, "Research on Human Movement Response in the Rorschach Examinations of Marital Partners," in V. W. Eisenstein, Ibid., 194-195.

<sup>69</sup>Anselm Strauss, "Personality Needs and Marital Choice," Social Forces, 1947, 25:332-335.

such needs as: being loved, having someone to confide in, being understood and appreciated, and having someone to turn to when making decisions. Certain needs were recognized more by males than by females; "someone who respects my ideals, appreciates what I want to achieve, understands my moods, stimulates my ambition, and gives me self-confidence in my relations with people." The needs that females emphasized more than males were; "someone who loves me, shows a lot of affection, helps me in making important decisions, and someone that I can look up to very much."<sup>70</sup> From this study it appeared that males tend to prefer women who will give them support and stimulation while females prefer men who will give them love and protection. No evidence for reliability and validity of the basic instrument was reported.

The article cited above was based upon the assumption that overt personality needs stem from early childhood relationships, particularly those with one or both parents. It could be speculated also that the mate meets either the same needs for the individual that were previously met by a parent, or that the mate satisfies needs that were previously left unsatisfied by the parent. This formulation can be elaborated to include mate choice based upon an ideal mate conception and parental images. In regard to the former, Strauss demonstrated that the characteristics of the ideal mate were quite related to the preferential value hierarchy of the group or groups to which the individual belongs, and that there was a marked resemblance between mates and ideals.<sup>71</sup>

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<sup>70</sup>Ibid., 333.

<sup>71</sup>Anselm Strauss, "The Ideal and the Chosen Mate," American Journal of Sociology, 1946, 52:204-208.

Relative to the latter, Strauss found similarity in the temperamental traits and value ideals of parents and the mate chosen. However, the similarity was related not to the parent of the opposite sex but to parents of both sexes.<sup>72</sup> There is no evidence to suggest that the findings could not have occurred on the basis of chance, thus suggesting that the findings are worthy of note but that they cannot be viewed within the realm of empirical evidence.

Bee<sup>73</sup> uses a similar framework to that of Winch in explaining mate choice. Each individual is seen as having three components in his basic personality with several variable combinations. The component is almost always dominant, yet none need be dominant. These components are: (1) the socially engaging-affirming, (2) the socially assertive-ascendant, and (3) the socially shy-withdrawing. Bee suggests that each type is distinguishable in temperament, direction of interests and abilities, patterns of values or "path of life" and constitution or physiological characteristics. The specific choice of mate is as a result of the individual's seeking to complement the absence of particular components in his basic personality.

In a study related to similarity and dissimilarity, Corsini<sup>74</sup> hypothesized that: happiness in marriage is a function of the understanding of the mate's self and other; understanding between a husband and a wife is a function of the degree of similarity of the two selves;

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<sup>72</sup>Anselm Strauss, "A Study of Three Psychological Factors Affecting Choice of Mate," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1945.

<sup>73</sup>Lawrence Bee, Marriage and Family Relations, New York: Harper and Bros., 1959, 176-193.

<sup>74</sup>Raymond Corsini, op.cit., 327-332.

and happiness in marriage is related to similarity of the selves of the partners. His conclusions were as follows:

1. There is no evidence that happiness in marriage is a function of understanding the mate.
2. There is no evidence that understanding the mate is a function of similarity of the selves of the mates.
3. The evidence indicates that happiness in marriage is associated with similarity of self-perceptions of the mates.
4. Husbands and wives are no more similar in their self perceptions than randomly paired men and women.
5. Happiness in marriage is related to the conformity of men to self-perceptions of their sex. This relationship does not hold for women.<sup>75</sup>

Corsini considers his results as a refutation of Winch's findings. There are, however, at least two major methodological weaknesses in the study. First, the criterion measure of marital happiness is of dubious validity. Second, a Q sort technique was used for purposes of measuring perception of self and other. The latter technique is limited in validity. As regards the validity of Q sorts, Sundland points out that due to the interrelatedness between items, there is a tendency to obtain spurious results because of an overestimation of the correlation coefficient as well as the number of degrees of freedom.<sup>76</sup>

In another related study, Katz, Glucksberg and Krauss<sup>77</sup> hypothesized interspousal complementarity of needs of mates as well as attempting to determine the relationship between satisfaction in marriage and need

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<sup>75</sup>Ibid., 332.

<sup>76</sup>Donald Sundland, "The Construction of Q Sorts: A Criticism," Psychological Review, 1962, 69:62-64.

<sup>77</sup>Irwin Katz, Sam Glucksberg and Robert Krauss, "Need Satisfaction and Edwards PPS Scores in Married Couples," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1960, 24:205-208.

scores. The results were contradictory to the complementary hypothesis. The degree of total satisfaction of wives was not consistently related to interspousal need complementarity, yet total satisfaction of husbands was positively associated with interspousal complementarity in four need pairings. A shortened version of the EPPS was used. There is no evidence given of how the validity of the instrument may be altered in an abbreviated version. Reliability and validity statements are lacking for the scale which is purported to measure need satisfaction. Finally, because the mean length of time married for the sample was 5 years, there is no justification for considering the study within the realm of mate selection.

Part of the discussion to this point has consisted of suggestions, however tentative, that an important intervening variable in the mate selection process may be related to what has been termed neurotic elements, unsatisfied needs or general problems under the rubric of personality adjustment. The next few studies are cited specifically for purposes of elaboration upon this general area.

Recent concern over the increasing number of early marriages led Moss and Gingles<sup>78</sup> to study and compare characteristics of females who marry early with those who marry late. They hoped to obtain insight into factors involved in early marriages and to follow these marriages for purposes of comparing their respective success. The latter goal is to be achieved at a future date. It was hypothesized that girls who

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<sup>78</sup>J. Moss and R. Gingles, "The Relationship of Personality to the Incidence of Early Marriage," Marriage and Family Living, 1959, 21:373-377.



marry early tend to be less well adjusted than their schoolmates and that the former tend to have less satisfying relationships with their families than do the latter. In this reasonably well controlled study the Mooney Problem Check List, the Minnesota Personality Scale, a questionnaire and interviews were all employed for purposes of data collection. Comparative analyses suggested the following conclusions:

1. Girls who marry early are emotionally less stable than those who marry later.
2. Girls who marry early have less satisfactory relationships with their parental families.
3. Early and steady dating practices are associated with earlier marriages.
4. Socio-economic status, as evidenced by parents' educational level and apparent ability to finance college education, may not be as closely related to age at marriage as has been expected.<sup>79</sup>

In a related study, Martinson<sup>80</sup> matched two groups of girls, single and married, on a number of characteristics in order that ego deficiency might be measured under controlled conditions. The girls were matched on age, position in the family, nationality, father's occupation, high school attended, year of high school graduation, number of years since graduation and intelligence. Although Martinson offered no operational definition of ego deficiency, he used the Adjustment Inventory, the California Test of Personality, Kuder Masculinity-Femininity, high school extra-curricular participation, presumably in order to obtain scores for

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<sup>79</sup>Ibid., 377.

<sup>80</sup>Floyd Martinson, "Ego Deficiency as a Factor in Marriage," American Sociological Review, 1955, 20:161-164.

purposes of comparing the two groups. All mean scores favored the single girls who showed better overall adjustment than did their married counterparts. Martinson concludes:

It may be that it is the immature or not-so-well adjusted person for whom marriage has its strongest appeal.<sup>81</sup>

In a later and duplicate study using male samples, Martinson employed the same instruments as stated above, and in this instance operationally defined ego deficiency "as the relative mean performance of the two groups of males on these indices."<sup>82</sup> The latter were in reference to the instruments of the study. Partial aspects of the conclusions, considering the fact that Martinson made no attempt to generalize due to non randomness of samples, were as follows:

Males who marry within four years after the year of graduation from high school show greater signs of personal and social maladjustment than do males who remain single....Secondly, the level of adjustment for both the married group and the single groups, however, falls within the "normal" range except for emotional adjustment where the score of the early-marrying group approaches the "unsatisfactory" category and the score of the very-early-marrying group (within two years after year of graduation) falls well within the category designated as "unsatisfactory". Thirdly, as more males enter marriage the pre-marriage differences in personal and social adjustment between single and married tend to level off, except for difference in educational achievement.<sup>83</sup>

After detailed criticism of mate selection research and theory, a

<sup>81</sup>Ibid., 164.

<sup>82</sup>Floyd Martinson, "Ego Deficiency as a Factor in Marriage--A Male Sample," Marriage and Family Living, 1959, 21:49.

<sup>83</sup>Ibid., 51-52.

somewhat distinct approach is taken to the area by Bolton.<sup>84</sup> It was suggested that the process be viewed not only according to variables but also relative to transactions between individual in which a relationship is developed. Data on backgrounds and self conceptions were gathered on twenty recently married couples through questionnaires. Material on the development of the relationships was gathered through a series of interviews.. Five types of developmental processes evolved from the data:

- Type I.     Personality meshing developmental processes.
- Type II.    Identity clarification developmental processes.
- Type III.   Relation centered developmental processes.
- Type IV.    Pressure and intrapersonal centered developmental processes.
- Type V.     Expediency centered developmental processes.<sup>85</sup>

Without lengthy description of each type, certain implications were apparent. Expediency seemed to play an important role in the development of many of the relationships. Assuming the latter to be valid, current conceptions about free marital choice demand further examination. In many cases there seemed to be perception of pressure to marry at a particular stage. Another relevant finding was that young people tend to use their love relations as vehicles for dealing with identity problems. The conclusions of the study, however tentative, would have to be seriously challenged. The researcher was the only

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<sup>84</sup>Charles Bolton, "The Development Process in Love Relationships," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1959; Charles Bolton, "Mate Selection as the Development of a Relationship," Marriage and Family Living, 1961, 23:234-240.

<sup>85</sup>Ibid., 237-238.

interviewer. There is no way of knowing the extent to which subjectivity contaminated the data. Neither brief description nor reliability and validity information are given related to the questionnaires used in the study. The only quantitative data reported are the number of couples which approximated the above-mentioned types of developmental processes. Replication of a study of this kind would be impractical, if not impossible.

An example of the extent to which theories of homogamy and heterogamy in mate selection have influenced practical application may be a fitting point of closure for this aspect of the discussion. The extreme of arranged marriages is found in more recent attempts at "scientific matchmaking". In one example<sup>86</sup> of the latter, potential mates are interviewed to determine likes and dislikes, family background and goals in life. Seventy personality traits are then run through an I.B.M. electronic sorter:

"We look for personality factors that complement each other as well as those that are alike," pointed out Dr. Riss. "People don't look for someone just like themselves, but for a partner who can fill their needs. For example, a man with a stern outlook on life might need and want a wife with a more relaxed nature."

"This is not a cold method - but a real ally to romance. Those who fall in love do so head over heels."<sup>87</sup>

Perhaps the days of individual initiative are, in fact, declining.

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<sup>86</sup> Hal Boyle, "Machine-Made Marriages Result in Fewer Divorces," The State Journal, Lansing, Michigan: October 12, 1961, 4.

<sup>87</sup> Ibid.

### Self-Acceptance Literature and Research

Relatively speaking, the area of self-acceptance is unexplored. Self phenomena and concomitants have been emphasized and studied intensively only recently. The literature on various interpretations of the self is now quite extensive. This section of the discussion includes considerations of self-acceptance and related matters only as they pertain to the present endeavour.

In a residential treatment center for emotionally disturbed children and as part of a series of projects on the role of self concept and impulse control in friendship selection,<sup>88</sup> Colvin<sup>89</sup> studied the friendship choices of a sample of thirty-three boys. The research was based upon the psychodynamic theory of projection for relating the above-mentioned three variables. That is, it was hypothesized that individuals defensively select friends of similar or dissimilar level of impulse control on the basis of whether or not they defensively accept themselves. The subjects were tested on self concept ratings and friendship

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<sup>88</sup>A partial list of these studies includes: Ralph Colvin, "Word-Color Matchings as a Research Method for Study of Object Relationships and Self Concept," American Psychologist, 1956, 8:360 (Abstract); Ralph Colvin, "Friendship Patterns as a Function of Self Concept and Impulse Control," Paper read at Interamerican Society of Psychology, San Juan, Puerto Rico, December, 1956, (mimeographed); Sister Mary Finneran, "Friendship Patterns as a Function of Self Concept and Dependency," unpublished master's thesis, Fordham University, 1958; G. Miller, "Aggression and Acceptance: A Study of the Interpersonal Relationships of Four Aggressive Boys in Residential Treatment," unpublished master's thesis, University of Ottawa, 1957.

<sup>89</sup>Ralph Colvin, "Friendship Selections as a Defense of the Self Concept," Paper read at the American Psychological Association Convention, New York, August, 1957, (mimeographed).

selections and impulse control. No reliability data were available. Some evidence for concurrent validity was offered, using seven judges to rank the subjects on each variable. The specific hypotheses and results were as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Subjects presenting a high self concept will select friends similar to themselves in level of impulse control, and subjects presenting a low self concept will select friends dissimilar to themselves in level of impulse control.

Results: The number of friendship selections consistent and inconsistent with this hypothesis were compared. The resulting chi square of 4.20 supports the hypothesis at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 2: Subjects that rate themselves as "well behaved" will select friends similar to themselves in level of impulse control, and subjects that rate themselves as "badly behaved" will select friends dissimilar to themselves in level of impulse control.

Results: Comparison of the number of friendship selections consistent and inconsistent with this hypothesis produces a chi square of 9.56 which supports the hypothesis at the .01 level.

Hypothesis 3: If friendship selections can thus serve as a defense of the self concept, it would follow that subjects who select friends in this manner are, in a general sense, more defensive than subjects who do not.

Results: The boys' ratings of themselves on strength, smartness, good behavior, and popularity were compared with staff and peer ratings on the same variables. Those subjects previously showing the most defensive friendship selections now reveal a significantly greater tendency to over-evaluate themselves in self concept testing, a test of this tendency producing a "t" of 2.85 significant at the .01 level.<sup>90</sup>

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<sup>90</sup>Ibid., 2-3.

Related to these results, Colvin concludes:

Present findings thus support the hypothesis that friendship selections have significant defensive characteristics. Our results suggest that 'opposites attract' when self acceptance is lacking, and that 'birds of a feather flock together' when self acceptance is present.<sup>91</sup>

As was stated above, the interpretation of behavior in general as regards self theory has been given considerable attention in recent years. This emphasis can be traced almost wholly to the work of Carl Rogers.<sup>92</sup> The well-adjusted individual, for Rogers, is one who is able to accept all perceptions, including those about self, into his personality organization. He describes this situation as follows:

It would appear that when all of the ways in which the individual perceives himself - all perceptions of the qualities, abilities, impulses, and attitudes of the person, and all perceptions of himself in relation to others - are accepted into the organized conscious concept of the self, then this achievement is accompanied by feelings of comfort and freedom from tension which are experienced as psychological adjustment.<sup>93</sup>

This relationship between self-acceptance and adjustment is further emphasized by Snygg and Combs<sup>94</sup> who have adapted Rogers' definition to

<sup>91</sup>Ibid., 3.

<sup>92</sup>Only a few examples of Rogers' work are cited: Carl Rogers, The Clinical Treatment of the Problem Child, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939; Carl Rogers, Counseling and Psychotherapy; Newer Concepts in Practice, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942; Carl Rogers, Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951.

<sup>93</sup>Carl Rogers, "The Organization of Personality," American Psychologist, 1947, 2:364.

<sup>94</sup>D. Snygg and A. Combs, Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology, New York: Harper and Bros., 1949.

their phenomenological interpretation.

A phenomenal self is adequate in the degree to which it is capable of accepting into its organization any and all aspects of reality.<sup>95</sup>

These authors suggest further that the individual who feels inadequate to cope with his perceptions of reality, feels threatened by such perceptions and is likely to reject or distort them. The maladjusted person is then characterized by many threatening perceptions, and his maladjusted behavior occurs largely as a result of his attempts to deal with the threats to which he feels himself subjected. In this sense a maladjusted person is synonymous with a threatened one and degree of self-acceptance is related to degree of adequacy.

In a study designed to test this formulation, Taylor and Combs<sup>96</sup> used a sample of 205 school children and administered the California Test of Personality and a list of damaging statements. The former was used to assess degree of adjustment. The latter was used in order to obtain a measure of self-acceptance. No evidence for reliability and validity of the list of statements was offered. The hypothesis was supported.

Zimmer<sup>97</sup> attempted a study in order to check the value of self-acceptance as a measure of conflict. He used the Index of Adjustment and Values to measure self-acceptance by computing the discrepancy between self and ideal-self concept scores and a twenty-five personality

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<sup>95</sup>Ibid., 136.

<sup>96</sup>C. Taylor and A. Combs, "Self-Acceptance and Adjustment," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1952, 16:89-91.

<sup>97</sup>H. Zimmer, "Self-Acceptance and Its Relation to Conflict," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1954, 18:447-449.





trait list for purposes of measuring conflict. The results were that the discrepancy scores were not indicative of conflict. However, the design of the study leaves much to be desired. The sample was inadequate, the validity of the trait list as a measure of conflict is questionable and the groups that were used were not matched. In another study, in which a superior design was used, evidence was found to support the same hypothesis.<sup>98</sup>

Because of the previously stated Rogersian hypothesis that a self-accepting person will have better interpersonal relationships than his counterpart, a number of research studies have been generated. These studies vary in nature, scope and consideration of specific variables. However, each can be seen as a facet of the self-acceptance complex and thus are relevant to the problem under consideration, namely the relationship of self-acceptance phenomena to variations within the realm of interpersonal behavior.

Logically, one would suppose that an individual's self-acceptance would alter during the course of therapy, assuming that the therapeutic process is of a helping and growth providing nature. It was on this premise as well as its relationship to increased acceptance of others that Sheerer<sup>99</sup> posited several hypotheses relative to these dynamics. Definitions of acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others were formulated. These were applied to statements made

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<sup>98</sup>G. Roberts, "A Study of the Validity of the Index of Adjustment and Values," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1952, 16:302-304.

<sup>99</sup>E. Sheerer, "An Analysis of the Relationship Between Acceptance of and Respect for Self Acceptance of and Respect for Others in Ten Counseling Cases," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13:169-175.

by clients during the course of counseling. Without reference to the extensive methodology, yet noting the fact that the design was of superior quality, only the conclusions of the study are stated:

1. It was found that acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others can be operationally defined and objectively rated with a satisfactory degree of reliability.
2. In roughly three-fourths of the units of client response in the ten cases the clients are occupied with self evaluation while less than one-fifth of the units deal with evaluation of others.
3. In general there is a marked and fairly regular increase in the measured acceptance of and respect for self from the beginning to the end of the cases. There is also a marked but more uneven rise in the acceptance of others from the beginning to end.
4. There is definite and substantial correlation between attitudes of acceptance of and respect for self and attitudes of acceptance of and respect for self and attitudes of acceptance of and respect for others.
5. Acceptance of self and acceptance of others is, on the average, higher in the second half of the counseling interviews than in the first.
6. There is a closer correlation between the "Self" and "Others" ratings in the second half of the cases than occurs in the first half.<sup>100</sup>

Another study in the same vein, yet with specific emphasis upon the relationship between self-acceptance and interpersonal relations, concludes as follows with appropriate notation relative to design:

The results are ambiguous with respect to Rogers' hypothesis that better attitudes toward self and others are positively related to better interpersonal relations inasmuch as the results might be attributed at least as easily to the method

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<sup>100</sup>Ibid., 175.

of the experiment as to the incorrectness of the hypothesis.<sup>101</sup>

Stock<sup>102</sup> attempted a slightly different though directly related study. Ten counseling cases, conducted according to the principles of nondirective therapy, were used as the sample for the study. Although no reference was made to validity of instruments, inter-rater reliability based only on two judges was quite high. Stock concludes her study as follows:

1. The total results of this study indicate that a definite relationship exists between the way an individual feels about himself and the way he feels about other persons. An individual who holds negative feelings toward himself tends to hold negative feelings toward other people in general. As his feelings about himself change to objective or positive, feelings about others change in a similar direction.
2. It is impossible from the results of this study to identify a sequential relationship between feelings about the self and feelings about others. Each type of relationship, when tested, showed a low positive correlation, not on a significant level.
3. Separate and rather specific factors can be identified within the general area of feelings about others. Feelings toward the self are shown to be correlated in varying degrees with these different aspects of feelings toward others. It was found in this study that attitudes toward individuals in a social relationship correlated more highly with self attitudes than did feelings in the area of family relationships or more impersonal relationships. It was also indicated that there is a close correspondence between self attitudes and the emotions directed toward others and the feelings about the relationships with others.<sup>103</sup>

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<sup>101</sup>C. McIntyre, "Acceptance of Others and Its Relation to Acceptance of Self and Others," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1952, 47:625.

<sup>102</sup>D. Stock, "An Investigation Into the Interrelations Between The Self Concept and Feelings Directed Toward Other Persons and Groups," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13:176-180.

<sup>103</sup>Ibid., 180.

In the process of developing an instrument for the measurement of acceptance of self and acceptance of others (an extensive description follows in Chapter IV), Berger<sup>104</sup> attempted also to test the relationship between these variables in a variety of groups, using his instrument. Seven different groups comprised the sub-samples and the individuals were asked simply to respond to the two scales. Pearson product-moment correlations between expressed acceptance of self and expressed acceptance of others were significant at the .01 level of confidence with the exception of one group, the latter having been significant at the .05 level of confidence. Berger assumes that self-acceptance is the more basic variable in the relationship although he points out that the data and analysis cannot lead to conclusions with reference to cause and effect relationships.

In a later study by the same author, an attempt was made to relate the two above-mentioned variables to scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) for purposes of increasing the diagnostic value of the latter.<sup>105</sup> The subjects, 109 males and 76 females, were unselected testees at the Student Counseling Bureau of the University of Minnesota. The mean scores on the MMPI were no more deviant than those for a larger group of men and women freshmen, with the indication that

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<sup>104</sup>E. Berger, "The Relation Between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1952, 47:778-782.

<sup>105</sup>E. Berger, "Relationships Among Acceptance of Self, Acceptance of Others, and MMPI Scores," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1955, 2:279-283.

the former were in no respect more deviant in the direction of maladjustment. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed among self-acceptance, acceptance of others and scales of the MMPI. The fairly high and positive correlations between K and self-acceptance for both men and women seemed to suggest that K may function as more than a measure of test-taking attitude, and reflects to an appreciative extent an expressed acceptance of self. Likewise, it is possible to consider self-acceptance as representing defensiveness in the sense of denial of self-rejecting attitudes. Thus, the validity of the scores may be questionable. On the other hand, low K scores may be considered as self-rejection. By the same token, normal K scores can be considered normal self-acceptance or social security. The problem that is presented is obviously a difficult one to resolve.

Logically, there is some question related to the use of the self concept as a measurable variable for empirical study. The researcher in this area is confronted with similar problems to the researcher who attempts to study abstractions such as "ego", "ego strength", "sublimation" and so on. A partial resolution to this problem has been to offer operational definitions of variables to be studied. A study which exemplifies this approach, as well as having relevance for the present study, was done by Brownfain.<sup>106</sup> Stability of the self concept was measured according to

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<sup>106</sup>John Brownfain, "Stability of the Self-Concept as a Dimension of Personality," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1952, 47:597-606.

the discrepancy between two definitions of the self: the self as it is "positively" conceived and the self as it is "negatively" conceived. The latter were operationally defined according to an instrument developed by the researcher. It was hypothesized that individuals whose self concepts are comparatively stable are happier, more adequate members of the group that was studied and the reverse was hypothesized for individuals with less stable self concepts. The measure of stability had an estimated reliability of .93. It seemed that the self concept was an employable variable for the study and understanding of behavior. The more salient findings were summarized relative to subjects who had more stable self concepts.

1. They have a higher level of self-esteem as manifested by a higher mean rating and also by a higher self-rating on the inventory item defining self-acceptance. The inter-trait variability of their self-ratings is lower, indicating that their self-esteem is generalized.
2. They are freer of inferiority feelings and nervousness as measured by the Guilford and Martin Inventory of Factors.
3. They are better liked and considered more popular by the group.
4. They see themselves more as they believe other people see them.
5. They know more people in the group, indicating more active social participation.
6. They show less evidence of compensatory behavior of a defensive kind.<sup>107</sup>

A description of a study concerned with self concepts related to marital adjustment, and is therefore indirectly relevant, will be used

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<sup>107</sup>Ibid., 606.





to conclude this aspect of the discussion. Personal adjustment, with particular reference to self and ideal-self concepts, was considered in Luckey's study.<sup>108</sup> It was assumed that if congruence of self and ideal-self concept is a valid measure of self-acceptance, it could be expected that the individual with congruent concepts would be more satisfied in the marital relationship. The Modification of the Marital Adjustment Scale was used to determine satisfactorily and less satisfactorily married couples. As an adjunct measure, Terman's self-rating happiness scale was used and the extreme scores on the distribution on this instrument were taken such that the uppermost and lowermost quartiles were deemed to represent satisfactorily and less satisfactorily married persons. The instrument for measuring the self concept variables was Leary's Interpersonal Check List. The scores from four scales of the latter were used to compare degree of congruity of self and ideal-self, ideal-self and spouse. It was concluded that agreement between the concept a wife holds of herself and her ideal-self is related positively to satisfaction in marriage. Second, satisfaction in marriage was found to be associated positively with congruence of ideal-self and concept held of spouse. Finally, congruence of husband's concept of self and ideal-self was positively associated with marital satisfaction. There is some evidence then, if only fragmentary, that wives tend to offer some degree of complementarity to their husbands. The findings of this study must be considered tentative, however, in view of the uncertain validity of

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<sup>108</sup>Eleanore Luckey, "Implications for Marriage Counseling of Self Perceptions and Spouse Perceptions," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1960, 7:3-9.



the instruments that were employed to measure marital adjustment. It could be assumed that social desirability would play an important role in instruments like the latter. No rationale was presented for using quartiles as cutting off points and while these were used for purposes of operational definitions, the latter must be derived from a more logical base than was evident.

### Summary

The importance of mate choice as being one expression of underlying personality traits was discussed as a preface to general psychologically oriented literature and research pertinent to the mate selection process. The earlier studies in this area yielded results which were consistent with homogamy. Many methodological and statistical problems associated with these studies were noted.

More recent attempts to study mate selection were illustrative of the fact that personality attributes may well serve as important variables to be explored. A major portion of the chapter was devoted to an extensive review of the work of Robert Winch and his associates, the foremost advocates of complementary need satisfaction in mate selection. A variety of criticisms were raised relative to their research. A detailed description and critique of two related though independent studies revealed that the findings related to Winch's hypotheses have been inconsistent.

Psychoanalytic theory and interpersonal relations were discussed, specifically because current research has tended to draw heavily upon the formulations of these schools of thought. Starting with Freud and

concluding with more recent psychoanalytically oriented students of marriage, the unconscious factors in selecting a mate were elaborated upon, with specific emphasis extended to neurotic interaction and related phenomena. Complementarity, however, was not restricted only to the maladjusted segment of the population. The act of mate choice was explored further to include selection based upon the notion of complementarity, yet as derived from specific sources. Two of these were related to choice as a consequence of parental image and ego-ideal. In each concept unsatisfied need was an important concomitant. The latter thesis was enlarged to include literature and research which could be described under the rubric of ego inadequacy.

In the last part of the chapter self-acceptance literature and research were discussed. The relationship of self acceptance to other variables is a matter which is no less settled than that of mate selection. It was noted that this area has received limited attention and, in fact, the current study is the first to attempt to relate self-acceptance to the mate selection process. The role of Carl Rogers as a contributor to self theory was evident. The construct of the self-accepting person as described by Rogers was seen to be somewhat analogous to Freudian and neo-Freudian formulations, in that degree of self-acceptance could be seen as an indicator of individual conflict. Studies relating acceptance of self to acceptance of others were then described and the chapter was concluded with reference to a study on the self concept as related to marital adjustment and maladjustment.

## CHAPTER III

### THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

#### The Design

The present study is designed to evaluate specific psychological variables which are hypothesized to be pertinent to the mate selection process. The assumptions underlying the independent and dependent variables are stated. There follows a discussion of identification and control of extraneous variables. After an overview of the sample is presented, the instruments used in the study are described. The null hypotheses and their respective alternates are then stated and the chapter is concluded with a description of the statistical analysis of the data.

#### The Independent Variables

High expressed self-acceptance and low expressed self-acceptance in marital pairs are the two independent variables of the current study. These variables are deemed to be expressions of the extent to which individuals accept or reject themselves relative to their needs, wants and general level of functioning. Self-acceptance is seen also as a tentative indicator of psychological adjustment, the latter having particular relevance for the nature of one's interpersonal relationships. The general assumption is that a self-accepting person is sufficiently complete and adequate in his daily living that he does not require constant satisfaction of his needs, particularly when gratification must be derived from external sources. A further distinction may be seen in the individual's internal resources for dealing with both intrapsychic and environmental



pressures. If the two extremes of self-acceptance represent these differences in personal organization and mode of functioning, it is postulated that they are reference categories for purposes of understanding the nature of interpersonal relationships in general and the expression of need interrelationships and satisfaction in particular. A primary assumption in this study is that a person who is self-accepting will be attracted to a person or persons who are similar to him, whereas a non self-accepting person will be attracted to others who are quite opposite in personality structure. This study is unique in that it is the first empirical attempt to relate self-acceptance to other variables which have been considered in the mate selection process.

#### The Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in the study is interspousal need structure. This term is used to define the relationship between given pairs of needs as manifested by the individuals who constitute a marital pair. More precisely, a correlational approach is taken for purposes of relating specific need pairs.

The notion of interspousal needs is derived from the Freudian formulation of complementary neurotic interaction between individuals and specifically between marital partners. Elaboration of this thesis has included the idea that one chooses to interact and be with persons who represent those qualities that the individual is lacking. In this sense, person choice is based upon the ideal-self of the individual who initiates the choice. A further extension of the original premise is found in the inference that some people are attracted to others who are like themselves

whereas other persons are attracted to those who are quite opposite, thus allowing for reciprocity to occur within the latter arrangement.

Because intensity of needs is relative, a comparison and contrast of the need patterns of two persons can be accomplished. While Robert Winch<sup>1</sup> was first in using this particular approach, subsequent researchers have employed either the identification method or variations based upon it. All of the attempts, however, have been with an aim toward assessing some aspect of the interrelationship between two people. Because this study is an extension of some of Winch's hypotheses, interspousal need structure as a variable is in keeping with realistic hypothesis testing.

#### Control of Extraneous Variables

Some of the primary sources of extraneous variance in this study are sociological in nature. It is conceivable that the motivations which send people into marriage are many and varied. One example is what might be termed a "marriage of practicality" wherein one or both partners marry for purposes of enhancing their social status. The girl who is reared in a slum area and marries a millionaire's son is an example of the latter. Another example is found in the situation where a striving young executive in the business world marries a woman who is a good hostess and his primary motivation in the selection of a mate is to add to his potential resources for climbing the ladder of success. It was assumed, however, that these kinds of marriages did not exist or were in small proportion in the population that was considered in this study.

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<sup>1</sup>Robert Winch, Mate Selection, New York: Harper and Bros., 1958, 111-116.





Another source of extraneous variance is found in a marriage where at least one of the mates is either foreign born or is the product of a cultural background where elements that enter the selection process are atypical, at least with respect to western society. This problem was easily controlled and the procedure is described under the heading of "Instrumentation" which follows.

Population selection is an additional source of variance in mate selection research. Through the discussion in Chapter II it was evident that some researchers have been extremely deliberate in this respect whereas others have been apparently unconcerned. It is probably best to study selection using samples of engaged couples. The basic problem inherent in this approach is that couples who do not culminate their engagement status in marriage are obviously not suitable candidates for studies in which the assumption is made that a mate is, in reality, selected. An approach toward resolution of this problem is to sample couples who have been recently married. This study, in fact, is the first to consider only couples who have been married for a short period of time, thereby suggesting that these couples are as close to the time of marriage as is possible, as well as the fact that they have entered into the state of marriage. The couples in this study were married for a period of less than one year, the delineation thus being the most specific heretofore reported in the literature.

Another problem related to population selection is that of marriages wherein a child or children exist as a result of the union. Speculation affords the premise that a child, however young, would tend to alter the interpersonal relationship between husband and wife. It was for this



reason that only childless couples were included in the sample. A related problem is the situation where a marriage is of the non "free choice" variety, with specific reference to pregnancy occurring out-of-wedlock. The latter would undoubtedly affect the element of mate choice. It was, therefore, decided to omit any marriages that fit into this category and the means by which this was attempted is described subsequently.

Distortion of responses is an additional source of extraneous variance. This is a problem, however, which is common to all tests of personality, attitudes and interests. "Faking", "lying", unconscious self-deception and the tendency to acquiesce are all aspects of the general trend toward distortion. Only limited control over these matters is possible. Error variance is contributed when subjects make errors in recording responses, have reading difficulties, do not understand what is requested or are confused in their thinking. A final related problem is the tendency to "fake good" or "fake bad" in order to give a specific impression, for whatever reasons, to the test administrator. An attempt is made to control some of these sources of extraneous variance and the controlling elements will be elaborated upon under the general heading of "Instrumentation".

### The Sample

The sample consisted of childless couples who had been married less than one year. It was derived from the married student population at Michigan State University and the couples in the sample were all living in campus housing provided by the institution. The males were all enrolled as students at Michigan State University in the Spring quarter of

1962. The individuals included were all caucasian and were born in the United States. In Chapter IV the selection and characteristics of the sample are described in further detail.

### Instrumentation

Four instruments are described and discussed in the following section. The first is the Background Information Questionnaire which was employed for purposes of obtaining relevant personal data about the individuals who were studied. The second and third instruments were the independent variable instruments and were used to measure self-acceptance. The fourth instrument was employed in order to derive measures of needs for purposes of obtaining the dependent variable.

### Background Data

The Background Information Questionnaire (see Appendix A) was designed by the researcher with the expressed purpose of eliciting pertinent information about the subjects. It is of a check list, circle or fill in the blanks variety and can be completed within a few minutes. In the choosing and wording of items, a deliberate attempt was made to eliminate material that could be threatening to the respondents, regardless of the fact that the latter remained anonymous. It seemed that the only potentially threatening item was that which sought information about expectancy date if a wife happened to be pregnant at the data collection time. This item, however, was an important one to include in order that expectancy date could be compared with date of marriage with the result that if pregnancy had occurred prior to marriage, the situation could be detected. The latter was the only method of eliciting marriages of



the "forced choice" variety because it is obvious that a direct verbalized question to this effect is not a desirable approach. A sample of five married couples, all of whom were acquaintances of the researcher, were asked to independently read and label all those items which, in their opinion, were threatening or ambiguous. On the final form of the questionnaire there was complete agreement among these couples that none of the items were felt to be either threatening or ambiguous.

An overview of the content of the other items is as follows. Age, age at marriage and religious affiliation were listed. Educational level, both at time of marriage and time of the study, were sought. An item was used for determining the number of working wives in the sample. Furthermore, other items were listed to obtain specific information about length of courtship, engagement and marriage. Another item elicited data about whether the subject was employed or going to school at the time of decision to marry. This item was specifically chosen for the purpose of identifying the above-mentioned "marriages of practicality". Other items pertain to parental approval of the marriage, home state, type of home community and father's occupation. Some of the items were used to obtain measures of homogeneity of the sample whereas others were designed to gather information about homogamy as it pertains to characteristic sociological variables.

#### The Independent Variable Instruments

The Index of Adjustment and Values<sup>2</sup> (hereafter referred to as the

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<sup>2</sup>R. E. Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values, Manual, Auburn, Alabama: Alabama Polytechnic Institute, undated, (mimeographed).





IAV) was the basic instrument to measure self-acceptance in the study. There are several instruments which purport to measure self-acceptance through the use of a self minus ideal-self discrepancy score.<sup>3</sup> However, there are many problems with these measures. To begin with, the process of summing across items implies that the items are comparable in their perceived salience for the subject's self-regard. Evidence is not usually available to support this assumption. A second difficulty arises in the treatment of signs when summing. It is assumed, in these instruments, that it would be unlikely for a subject to rate his self more favorably than he rates his ideal-self. In this connection some authors contend that amount of discrepancy is important, regardless of sign. However, it is not known whether discrepancies in an atypical direction denote the same psychological meaning as do discrepancies in the more usual direction. It is for these reasons, among several others that are accurately described by Wylie<sup>4</sup> and results that were obtained by Palermo and Martire<sup>5</sup>, that it seemed desirable to employ an instrument that is purported to give a direct measure of self-acceptance.

The IAV was developed to measure variables of importance to client-

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<sup>3</sup>Some examples of these are: P. Worchel, "Adaptability Screening of Flying Personnel, Development of a Self-Concept Inventory for Predicting Maladjustment," School of Aviation Medicine, U.S.A.F., Report No. 56-62, 1957; R. LaForge and R. Suczek, "The Interpersonal Dimension of Personality: III, An Interpersonal Checklist," Journal of Personality, 1955, 24: 94-112; and J. Brownfain, "Stability of the Self-Concept as a Dimension of Personality," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1952, 47:597-606.

<sup>4</sup>Ruth Wylie, The Self Concept, Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1961, 79-82, 91, 97, 106-107, 133, 145 and 212.

<sup>5</sup>D. Palermo and J. Martire, "The Influence of Order of Administration on Self-Concept Measures," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1960, 20:372.



centered therapists and to perceptual theorists. These self-concept theorists hold that behavior is consistent with a behavior's perceptions of the world in which he lives. Accordingly, perception is influenced by needs, values, beliefs about self and other people, among several different variables. It is these important beliefs and values that the IAV is designed to measure.

One hundred and twenty-four trait names were selected from Allport's list of 17,953 traits as representative, in the opinion of the test's designer, of items which occur frequently in client-centered interviews. Forty-nine items showing greatest test-retest stability on pretesting were retained in the final form.<sup>6</sup>

The data on norms for this instrument are quite extensive. To determine the relative meaning of a subject's scores, comparisons may be made with the norms which have been established for high school and college students. The high school norms were obtained from the records of 1599 high school seniors located in 16 high schools in eight states. All of the available seniors in these schools were included in the sample. Of the 1599 seniors, 46 per cent were males and 54 per cent were females. The 1728 subjects included in the college normative group were tested at the University of Florida, the University of Louisville, the University of Minnesota and the University of Kentucky.<sup>7</sup>

A subject is asked to give three answers to each item: Column I:

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<sup>6</sup>R. E. Bills, E. Vance and O. McLean, "An Index of Adjustment and Values," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1951, 15:257-261.

<sup>7</sup>R. E. Bills, op.cit., 14.

"How often are you this sort of person?" (to be marked on a five-point scale from "most of the time" to "seldom"). Column II: "How do you feel about being this way?" (to be marked on a five-point scale from "very much like" to "very much dislike"). Column III: "How much of the time would you like this trait to be characteristic of you?" (to be marked on a five-point scale from "seldom" to "most of the time"). The sum of Column I (with negative traits reversed) is equal to the self score. The sum of Column II is taken as a direct measure of self-acceptance. The sum of the discrepancies between Columns I and III is taken as the self minus ideal discrepancy, from which self-satisfaction is inferred. The subject also answers these same questions about other people, defined in terms of a relevant peer group.<sup>8</sup> Because this study necessitated the obtaining of measures of self-acceptance only, an abbreviated form of the IAV was used (see Appendix B), employing only the directions, Columns I and II and the scoring procedure from the original instrument.

Much reliability data are available and the following is offered only for representative purposes. Split-half (corrected) reliabilities for 100 college students ranged from .53 for self scores (Column I) to .87 for self minus ideal discrepancies (Column I minus Column III). Six-week test-retest correlations, with varying sizes of samples, ranged from .83 for self-acceptance (Column II) to .90 for self (Column I). Sixteen-week test-retest correlations for varying sizes of samples ranged from .52 for self minus ideal discrepancies (Column I minus

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid., 9-12.

Column III), to .86 for self scores (Column I).<sup>9</sup>

Although the IAV has not been validated as a predictive instrument, evidence is available for purposes of content, concurrent and construct validity. Again, only a summary of these data are presented and because indirect reference has already been made to content validity in the description of instrument design, the following statements are in reference to the latter two types of validity. Three groups of students at the University of Kentucky completed the "self" index and were tested with the Phillips Attitudes Toward Self and Others Questionnaire, the California Test of Personality and the Washburne S-A Inventory. Although the coefficients are small, statistically significant relationships appeared between the acceptance of self measure of the IAV and both the Phillips self score and the total scores on the California Test of Personality.<sup>10</sup>

Omwake<sup>11</sup> tested 113 students and found several relationships between the IAV, the Berger scales for measuring self-acceptance and acceptance of others and the Phillips scale that was referred to above. Again, the coefficients varied from medium to low but most were statistically significant. Omwake summarized her study by stating that "the three measures of self-acceptance agree closely; those for attitudes toward others agree less well."<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>Ibid., 53-62.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., 66.

<sup>11</sup>K. Omwake, "The Relation Between Acceptance of Self and Acceptance of Others Shown by Three Personality Inventories," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1954, 18:443-446.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid., 446.



Fink reported that at statistically significant levels, people who are high in acceptance of self, as measured by the IAV, have higher group status, are more responsible, are more efficient intellectually, are more dominant, participate in social events, have fewer psychosomatic complaints, have less anxiety, have fewer contacts with student-affairs counselors and many other "positive" attributes than people who are lower in acceptance of self, as measured by the IAV.<sup>13</sup>

Thirteen people participated in thirty minute, open-ended interviews, from which verbatim transcriptions were recorded. Two judges working independently of each other scored the interviews for acceptance of self and obtained satisfactory percentages of agreement.

Subjects were ranked according to acceptance of self shown by the interview material and the Index of Adjustment and Values, and the ranks were correlated to give a rho of .84, which is significantly different from zero at less than the .01 level and which permits the conclusion that what a subject says about himself in an interview corresponds highly with the ratings he gives himself on the Index of Adjustment and Values.<sup>14</sup>

Roberts<sup>15</sup> studied the validity of the self ratings given on the IAV as measures of the emotionality of the IAV traits for his sample of fifty college students. He used reaction time for free association as measured by a chronoscope and voice key to show that traits that showed a discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal-self, and

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<sup>13</sup>R. E. Bills, op.cit., 64-65.

<sup>14</sup>R. E. Bills, "Acceptance of Self as Measured by Interviews and the Index of Adjustment and Values," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1954, 18:22.

<sup>15</sup>G. E. Roberts, "A Study of the Validity of the Index of Adjustment and Values," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1952, 16:302-304.

traits which were given low ratings on acceptance of self had significantly longer reaction times than did their counterparts. He stated in summary:

The results indicate that the self-ratings of the Index are valid indices of emotionality. Reaction time was significantly longer for trait words on which the subjects indicated discrepancy between concept of self and concept of the ideal-self. A significantly longer reaction time was also found for words in which the subjects disclosed a rejection of self in their present condition. In addition, the results reveal that the concept of self is not an index of emotionality unless a rejection or discrepancy is indicated upon the same personality trait.<sup>16</sup>

A final study on the validity of the IAV is cited in order to conclude the discussion on this instrument. Renzaglia<sup>17</sup> did an extensive study using the IAV as the primary instrument administered to 329 freshmen at the University of Minnesota. He had a variety of hypotheses, all dealing with "low and high self-describing types" and self-structure in general. Renzaglia concluded from the data that the high self-scorers on self-acceptance when contrasted with the low self-scorers showed:

1. More optimism with respect to future success in college;
2. Greater satisfaction with immediate periods in their life;
3. Much less feelings of tension and anxiety;
4. A greater tendency to externalize their conflicts;
5. A more favorable appraisal of their self-characteristics;
6. That they value certain personal traits considerably more;

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<sup>16</sup>Ibid., 304

<sup>17</sup>G. Renzaglia, "Some Correlates of the Self Structure as Measured by an Index of Adjustment and Values," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1952.



7. That they conceive others to possess more favorable personal attributes;
8. Less experience of a negative sort;
9. Less intense feelings toward these punishing experiences;
10. More favorable attitudes toward their parents;
11. That fewer people punished them;
12. And, that they are more certain about what they are willing to say about themselves.<sup>18</sup>

A second instrument was used in this study to assess self-acceptance. It was employed primarily as a check on the validity of the instrument that was described above. The Berger Scales of Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others<sup>19</sup> is another instrument which is purported to assess self-acceptance through the use of a direct measure. This instrument will be described in the following paragraphs.

The Berger instrument was developed on essentially the same basis as the IAV. Part of the design, however, was to lead to a measure of acceptance of others in order that the latter could be related to self-acceptance. Some of Berger's research was reported under the heading "Self-Acceptance Literature and Research" in Chapter II and will therefore not be elaborated upon in this part of the discussion.

Prior to the development of the Berger instrument, Sheerer<sup>20</sup> found

<sup>18</sup>Ibid., 182.

<sup>19</sup>E. M. Berger, "The Relation Between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburg, 1952.

<sup>20</sup>E. Sheerer, "An Analysis of the Relationship Between Acceptance of and Respect for the Self and Acceptance of and Respect for Others in Ten Counseling Cases," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13:169-175.

a "definite and substantial correlation between attitudes of acceptance of and respect for the self and attitudes of acceptance and respect for others." Part of a study by Stock<sup>21</sup> confirmed the results obtained by Sheerer. Berger then attempted to develop a group instrument as well as test the relationship between the two variables.

The definitions used by Sheerer were abridged and slightly modified by Berger. Only those pertaining to self-acceptance are stated because of their relevance to the current study.

The self-accepting person:

1. Relies primarily upon internalized values and standards rather than external pressure for a guide for his behavior.
2. Has faith in his capacity to cope with life.
3. Assumes responsibility for and accepts the consequences of his own behavior.
4. Accepts praise or criticism from others objectively.
5. Does not attempt to deny or distort any feelings, motives, limitations, abilities or favorable qualities which he sees in himself, but rather accepts all without self-condemnation.
6. Considers himself a person of worth on an equal plane with other persons.
7. Does not expect others to reject him whether he gives them any reason to reject him or not.
8. Does not regard himself as totally different from others, "queer", or generally abnormal in his reactions.
9. Is not shy or self-conscious.<sup>22</sup>

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<sup>21</sup>D. stock, "An Investigation Into the Interrelations Between the Self Concepts and Feelings Directed Toward Other Persons and Groups," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13:176-180.

<sup>22</sup>E. M. Berger, "The Relation Between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," University of Pittsburgh Bulletin, 1951, 47:2.

Using the various elements that make up the definitions as a guide, statements about the self and others were selected or constructed which were in accord with these elements. Four items were required for each element. The preliminary scales consisted of 47 statements on self-acceptance and 40 on acceptance of others. A five-point scale was used for scores on all the items, ranging from "not at all true of myself" to "true of myself". I.B.M. answer sheets are used with the instrument. An individual's score is his total score for all the items on the particular scale.

The preliminary scales were administered to 200 students who ranged in age from 17 to 30 years. In the item analysis, those subjects whose total scores were in the top 25 per cent were compared on each item with those whose total scores were in the bottom 25 per cent. The difference between the mean scores of the criterion groups was computed for each item. This difference was then used as an index of the discriminating power of the item. The final selection of items was made on the basis of appropriateness of the items to the element of the definition and discriminating ability. Thirty-six items were selected for the self-acceptance scale and 28 were selected for the acceptance of others scale. The present study is concerned only with a measure of self-acceptance. Only 36 items are used in an abbreviated version (see Appendix C) and the scale is labelled as the Berger Scale of Expressed Acceptance of Self (hereafter referred to as EAOS).

The final form of the scales was administered to seven different samples which consisted of: 183 day session college students; 33 evening session college students; 33 prisoners; 38 stutterers; 18 adults in a



class at the Y.M.C.A.; 7 speech problem cases; and 3 counselees.

Pearson product-moment correlations between expressed acceptance of self and expressed acceptance of others were, with one exception significantly greater than zero, the exception being significant at the .06 level. Matched-half reliabilities, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, were all .89 or greater for the self-acceptance scale except for one group for which it was .746. For the acceptance of others scale reliabilities ranged from .776 to .884.

Three approaches were used to establish validity of the scales. The first consisted of having a sample of 20 subjects write freely about their attitudes toward themselves, and a second group write freely about their attitudes toward others. Both groups used the elements of the definitions as a guide. The paragraphs were rated by four judges and the mean ratings for each individual were correlated with their scores on the corresponding scale. The Pearson product-moment correlation between scores and ratings was .897 for self-acceptance, and .727 for acceptance of others, both significantly greater than zero. The average of the intercorrelations among judges' ratings was .869 for self-acceptance and .769 for acceptance of others.

The second approach was to compare groups. For example, it was expected that stutterers would score lower on self-acceptance than other groups. Several group comparisons based upon a priori factors were made by matching mean scores. All indicate significant differences, with the counselee group having the lowest mean score on both self-acceptance and acceptance of others.

The third approach was to compare average rankings of seven members

of the speech problems sample with self-acceptance scores for the remainder of the group. A rho of .59 was obtained and was not any higher than might have been obtained by chance. Further evidence of validity has been cited in relation to the discussion of the validity of the IAV, with particular reference to Omwake's study.<sup>23</sup>

One point is worthy of note prior to concluding the discussion on the EAOS. The term "expressed" is used in the current study in the same manner in which it was intended by Berger in the development of his instrument. Expressed self-acceptance is purported to mean the extent to which an individual accepts himself as expressed by himself, not by external judges who are providing an "objective" rating. Although this issue is not clarified by Bills with respect to the IAV, the same assumption is made in the current study for purposes of measures of self-acceptance as derived from the IAV.

#### The Dependent Variable Instrument

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (hereafter referred to as EPPS) was the instrument used in this study to provide measures of various needs. The rationale for its use and equivalence to the TAT has been described (*supra*, page 39). The EPPS has been used and studied extensively. Only pertinent matters about the instrument will be referred to in this discussion. A complete description is found in the EPPS Manual.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>23</sup>K. Omwake, op.cit., 443-446.

<sup>24</sup>Allen Edwards, Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, Manual, revised edition, New York: The Psychological Corporation. 1959.

The EPPS was designed to elicit scores on a number of relatively independent personality variables. The statements in the instrument and the variables that these statements purport to measure had their origin in a list of manifest needs as described by H. A. Murray<sup>25</sup> The EPPS provides a measure of fifteen personality variables, a measure of test consistency and a measure of profile stability.

Normative data were obtained on 1509 college students and 8963 adults in the general population. Scores on each of the fifteen variables range from 0 to 28 and are fairly symmetrically distributed around their respective means. The variables are relatively independent of each other, with the mean of their intercorrelations being  $-.07$ . Only twelve of the 105 correlations are plus or minus  $.30$  or higher.<sup>26</sup>

The inventory consists of 225 pairs of statements from which the respondent is asked to choose the statement in each pair which he believes to be most characteristic of himself. An I.B.M. answer sheet is provided. Scores on the consistency variable are based upon a comparison of the number of identical choices made in two sets of the same fifteen items. By correlating the partial scores in each row and column on the answer sheet over the fifteen personality variables for a single subject, a measure of profile stability is obtained. The average profile correlation obtained from a random sample of 279 cases drawn from the college normative group of 1509 records, based upon the  $z$  transformation,

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<sup>25</sup>H. A. Murray, et.al., Explorations in Personality, New York: Oxford University Press, 1938.

<sup>26</sup>Allen Edwards, op.cit., 20.

was .74.<sup>27</sup>

Coefficients of internal consistency were determined on the sample of 1509 for the fifteen personality variables. The coefficients, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, range from .60 to .87. Further data on reliability are available and are derived from coefficients of stability. These data were based on the responses of 89 students with a one week interval between testing and retesting. The coefficients ranged from .74 to .88.<sup>28</sup>

Validity data on the EPPS include matching scores with self-rankings and correlating Q sorts with scores on the EPPS.<sup>29</sup> Furthermore, there has been some investigation of the relationships between the variables of the inventory and other variables which should theoretically be related in specified ways. The latter procedure was carried out using the Guilford-Martin Personnel Inventory and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale. The correlations were, in general, in the expected directions.<sup>30</sup> An interesting study, particularly in terms of the present endeavour, was done using EPPS variables and self-ratings on these same variables. It was concluded not only that the EPPS "has satisfactory test-retest reliability" but also that the EPPS "correlates with self-ratings on the variables which it purports to measure."<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>Ibid., 16.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., 19.

<sup>29</sup>W. Stephenson, The Study of Behavior, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953, 17-18.

<sup>30</sup>Allen Edwards, op.cit., 22.

<sup>31</sup>J. Mann, "Self-Ratings and the EPPS," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1958, 42:268.



Two further studies that are pertinent to validity will be noted in order to conclude this aspect of the discussion of the EPPS. First, an attempt was made to correlate the autonomy and deference subscales with a criterion measure of conformity behavior.<sup>32</sup> A sample of fifty students was used and a group situation was developed for measuring conformity behavior. The results are quoted as follows:

The correlation between the conformity scores on the Autonomy subscale was found to be  $-.54$ , significant at the  $.02$  level of confidence. Therefore, the Autonomy subscale of the EPPS as described by Edwards is empirically valid with respect to the criterion of conformity behavior as developed in this study.

The correlation between the conformity scores and the scores on the Deference subscale was not significant. On the basis of the criterion measure, conformity behavior, the Deference subscale does not predict an individual's conformity behavior. These findings indicate that a person who has a need for Deference does not necessarily exhibit an equal need to conform to group situations.<sup>33</sup>

A final study by Phares and Adams<sup>34</sup> was essentially an attempt at construct validation of the heterosexuality subscale with males. The regular scale plus twenty-two buffer items were administered to 170 males at Kansas State University. A series of photographs were classified as sexual or nonsexual and subjects were asked to rate these on a five-point scale as to esthetic value. A brief passage dealing with sexual matters was administered in order to determine the amount of retention of the material. The authors concluded:

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<sup>32</sup>D. Gisvold, "A Validity Study of the Autonomy and Deference Subscales of the EPPS," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1958, 22:445-447.

<sup>33</sup>Ibid., 447.

<sup>34</sup>E. Phares and C. Adams, "The Construct Validity of the Edwards PPS Heterosexuality Scale," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1961, 25:341-344.

In the first case it was found that high PPS males placed a significantly higher esthetic value on sexual photographs than did low subjects. In the second study suggestive evidence was found that high subjects exhibit better retention of sexual material than do low subjects.

Generally, the evidence appears supportive of the construct validity of the Edwards PPS Heterosexuality Scale.<sup>35</sup>

One of the unique features of the EPPS is that the pairs of statements comprising the items have been matched according to their social desirability scale values. The statements were scaled for social desirability using the scaling method of successive intervals described by Edwards and Thurstone.<sup>36</sup> The statements from two different variables which make up an item were selected such that their social desirability scale values would be comparable. An interclass correlation of .85 between the social desirability scale values of the paired statements was found, thus indicating some promise of minimizing social desirability as a factor influencing responses to the items.<sup>37</sup>

Only five need scales, namely dominance, abasement, deference, nurturance and succorance, as well as the measure of test consistency were used in the present study. It seemed reasonable, therefore, to use an abbreviated version of the EPPS including only those items which were relevant, and thereby lessen the time required for administration. There were two basic reasons why the total profile was retained. First, there is evidence that removing items from the context of a standardized test

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<sup>35</sup>Ibid., 343-344.

<sup>36</sup>A. Edwards and L. Thurstone, "An Internal Consistency Check for Scale Values Determined by the Method of Successive Intervals," Psychometrika, 1953, 17:169-180.

<sup>37</sup>A. Edwards, op.cit., 22-23.

like the EPPS may alter the nature of the items and responses to them.<sup>38</sup> Second, a measure of test consistency is not available when the format of the test is abbreviated and only certain items are retained. In this instance, the latter measure was deemed to be an important variable in making decisions about the acceptability of profiles for inclusion in the analysis of data.

### The Hypotheses

The null hypotheses are formulated with their respective alternates.

The major hypotheses and the subsidiary hypotheses are as follows:

#### Null Hypothesis A: High Self-Acceptance Couples

Those mates who compose high self-acceptance couples are not different in their respective need structures.

Alternate A: Those mates who compose high self-acceptance couples are similar in their respective need structures.

#### Null Hypothesis A.1:

There is a zero correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need dominance.

Alternate A.1: There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need dominance.

#### Null Hypothesis A.2:

There is a zero correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need abasement.

Alternate A.2: There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need abasement.

#### Null Hypothesis A.3:

There is a zero correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need deference.

Alternate A.3: There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need deference.

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<sup>38</sup>A. Edwards, C. Wright and C. Lunneborg, "A Note on Social Desirability as a Variable in the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1959, 23:558.

Null Hypothesis A.4:

There is a zero correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need nurturance.

Alternate A.4: There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need nurturance.

Null Hypothesis A.5:

There is a zero correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need succorance.

Alternate A.5: There is a positive correlation between mates who compose high self-acceptance couples on the need succorance.

Null Hypothesis B: Low Self-Acceptance Couples

Those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples are not different in their respective need structures.

Alternate B: Those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples are complementary in their respective need structures.

Null Hypothesis B.1:

There is a zero correlation between mates who compose low self-acceptance couples on the need dominance.

Alternate B.1: There is a negative correlation between mates who compose low self-acceptance couples on the need dominance.

Null Hypothesis B.2:

There is a zero correlation between male's need dominance and female's need abasement in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate B.2: There is a positive correlation between male's need dominance and female's need abasement in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Null Hypothesis B.3:

There is a zero correlation between male's need abasement and female's need dominance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate B.3: There is a positive correlation between male's need abasement and female's need dominance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Null Hypothesis B.4:

There is a zero correlation between male's need dominance and female's need deference in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate B.4: There is a positive correlation between male's need dominance and female's need deference in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Null Hypothesis B.5:

There is a zero correlation between male's need deference and female's need dominance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate B.5: There is a positive correlation between male's need deference and female's need dominance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Null Hypothesis B.6:

There is a zero correlation between mates who compose low self-acceptance couples on the need nurturance.

Alternate B.6: There is a negative correlation between mates who compose low self-acceptance couples on the need nurturance.

Null Hypothesis B.7:

There is a zero correlation between male's need nurturance and female's need succorance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate B.7: There is a positive correlation between male's need nurturance and female's need succorance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Null Hypothesis B.8:

There is a zero correlation between male's need succorance and female's need nurturance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate B.8: There is a positive correlation between male's need succorance and female's need nurturance in those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples.

Null Hypothesis C: High and Low Self-Acceptance Couples

There is no difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate C: There is a difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples.

Null Hypothesis C.1:

There is no difference between high and low self-acceptance couples in interspousal need structure on the need dominance.

Alternate C.1: There is a difference between high and low self-acceptance couples in interspousal need structure on the need dominance.

Null Hypothesis C.2:

There is no difference between high and low self-acceptance couples in interspousal need structure on the need nurturance.

Alternate C.2: There is a difference between high and low self-acceptance couples in interspousal need structure on the need nurturance.

### The Statistical Analysis

The basic statistic used in this experiment is the product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson  $r$ ).<sup>39</sup> It is used consistently throughout to test the hypotheses as well as in the attempt to qualify the validity of the IAV, the basic independent variable instrument. Furthermore, it is used for secondary analysis purposes related to questions of attraction based upon degree of expressed self-acceptance. All the correlations, means and standard deviations in this study, with the exception of measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion derived from sample background data, were obtained through the use of the MISTIC Digital Computer Program K2.<sup>40</sup>

#### Determination of Couple Self-Acceptance

As the theory relating to self-acceptance provides no stipulation about dyadic relationships and is essentially a singular based one, as well as the fact that the present study deals only with extremes of the range of self-acceptance, the following procedure is used for purposes of obtaining a measure of a given couple's degree of expressed self-acceptance.

Discrepancy scores will be obtained by subtracting the female's score on the IAV from the male's score on the IAV. All the couples will then be ranked according to discrepancy scores from positive high

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<sup>39</sup>Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1955, 118.

<sup>40</sup>MISTIC Digital Computer Program K2 available upon request: MISTIC Office; Fifth Floor, Electrical Engineering Building, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

discrepancy through zero discrepancy to negative high discrepancy. Twelve per cent of the couples who compose the two extremes will then be displaced for purposes of further analysis and study. The remainder of the sample will then be ranked, again according to the male's score, from highest to lowest IAV score. The median of this distribution will then be determined and the total sample will be split at the median. All couples <sup>??</sup> falling above the median will be considered as high self-acceptance couples while all couples below the median will be considered as low self-acceptance couples. The procedure described above is adapted from Farquhar<sup>41</sup> who had a similar problem in selection under- and over-achievers. A comparison of several techniques indicated, within the limitations of sample size, that this approach was most expedient and beneficial. In this instance, two sub-samples are then derived, one of high self-acceptance couples and the other of low self-acceptance couples.

#### Determination of Interspousal Need Structure

All the EPPS profiles will be scored first on the consistency variable. Scores on the latter <sup>??</sup> are based upon a comparison of the number of identical choices made in two sets of the same fifteen items. If a subject obtains a low consistency score, his profile may be questioned and thus, his profile as well as that of his spouse are omitted for purposes of further analysis in the study. A low consistency score is one that is less than nine in this study and is in accord with that

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<sup>41</sup>William W. Farquhar, "A Comparison of Techniques Used in Selecting Under- and Over-Achievers," Michigan State University, undated, (mimeographed), 25 pages.

recommended by Edwards.<sup>42</sup>

Couples will be arranged on the need scores as stated in the hypotheses and "interspousal correlations" will be calculated for both high and low self-acceptance couples. It is important to recognize that this is essentially a Pearson  $r$ . The latter is calculated on mates' scores and not on the basis of combining at least two scores derived on two different variables for the same individual. The "interspousal correlation" was used by Winch<sup>43</sup> and is in keeping with previous research in this area.

The high and low self-acceptance couples will then be compared and contrasted, as dictated by major hypothesis C. This will be done by converting the obtained correlations to  $z$ 's in the manner described by McNemar.<sup>44</sup> This procedure is essentially a test for significance between two  $r$ 's.

It was decided that a  $p$  of .05 was necessary for rejection of the null hypotheses.

#### Qualification of Validity

In order to qualify the validity of the IAV as an instrument for measuring self-acceptance, comparable scores obtained from the EAOS will be correlated with those obtained on the IAV. The correlating will be done on the basis of the total sample as well as the two sub-samples.

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<sup>42</sup>Allen Edwards, op.cit., 15-16.

<sup>43</sup>Robert Winch, Mate Selection, New York: Harper and Bros., 1958, 111-116.

<sup>44</sup>Quinn McNemar, op.cit., 148.



Pearson  $r$ 's will be the statistic used in each test.

### Operational Definitions

For purposes of both clarity and measurement, the following are the operational definitions of this study:

Degree of expressed self-acceptance: score obtained on column II measuring self-acceptance on the IAV.

High self-acceptance couple: a couple who are not widely discrepant in self-acceptance scores and in whom the male's self-acceptance score lies above the median of the total sample distribution after the removal of twenty-four per cent of the most discrepant couples.

Low self-acceptance couple: a couple who are not widely discrepant in self-acceptance scores and in whom the male's self-acceptance score lies below the median of the total sample distribution after the removal of twenty-four per cent of the most discrepant couples.

Interspousal need structure: the product-moment correlation coefficient of males' and females' scores on pairs of needs.

The needs to be examined in this study are:

Dominance (dom): to argue for one's point of view, to be a leader in groups to which one belongs, to be regarded by others as a leader, to be elected or appointed chairman of committees, to make group decisions, to settle arguments and disputes between others, to persuade and influence others to do what one wants, to supervise and direct the actions of others, to tell others how to do their jobs.

Abasement (aba): to feel guilty when one does something wrong, to accept blame when things do not go right, to feel that personal pain and misery suffered does more good than harm, to feel the need for punishment for wrong doing, to feel better when giving in and avoiding a fight than when having one's own way, to feel the need for confession of errors, to feel depressed by inability to handle situations, to feel timid in the presence of superiors, to feel inferior to others in most respects.

Deference (def): to get suggestions from others, to find out what others think, to follow instructions and do what is expected, to praise others, to tell others that they have done a good job, to accept the leadership of others, to read about great men, to conform to custom and avoid the unconventional, to let others make decisions.

Nurturance (nur): to help friends when they are in trouble, to assist others less fortunate, to treat others with kindness and sympathy, to forgive others, to do small favors for others, to be generous with others, to sympathize with others who are hurt or sick, to show a great deal of affection toward others, to have others confide in one about personal problems.

Succorance (suc): to have others provide help when in trouble, to seek encouragement from others, to have others be kindly, to have others be sympathetic and understanding about personal problems, to receive a great deal of affection from others, to have others do favors cheerfully, to be helped by others when depressed, to have others feel sorry when one is sick, to have a fuss made over one when hurt.<sup>45</sup>

#### Summary

The independent variables of the study are high and low self-acceptance and the dependent variable is interspousal need structure. Several sources of extraneous variance were cited as well as attempts to control these through specific procedures in sampling and the collection of data.

The instruments of the study were then listed and described in detail with reference to development, normative data, administration, reliability and validity. The Index of Adjustment and Values is the basic instrument for the measurement of self-acceptance. The Berger Scale of Expressed Acceptance of Self was also described as it is to be used for the purpose of qualifying the validity of the former instrument. Problems associated with the use of discrepancy scores in self-acceptance instruments were discussed. Both of the instruments in this study are purported to measure self-acceptance directly. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, which is used to assess manifest needs,

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<sup>45</sup>Allen Edwards, op.cit., 11.

was then described.

The null hypotheses and their alternates were stated. The statistical analysis of the data was elaborated upon to include the determination of couple self-acceptance, interspousal need structure and qualification of the validity of the self-acceptance measure. A  $p$  of .05 was required to reject the null hypotheses and this level was chosen prior to analysis of results.

## CHAPTER IV

### PROCEDURES AND DATA COLLECTION

The selection of the subjects is described in this chapter. There follows a discussion of the administration of instruments used in data collection and a detailed outline of the sample characteristics.

#### The Selection of Subjects

Michigan State University owns and operates married housing facilities for students. The male must be a student in order that a couple can reside in these facilities. Both one and two bedroom apartments are available. A couple must have at least one child to be eligible for the latter. Because the population of this study was childless couples only, locating potential couples for research included obtaining the names of students dwelling in one bedroom units. This was accomplished by checking the card files in the Housing Assignment Office.

There are 1052 one bedroom apartments which are distributed among three general living areas; the latter are referred to as villages. The card file provided no information about the length of time a couple had been married or whether or not they had a child. However, in certain cases individuals could be deleted from the sample because it was apparent that a couple had been married for more than one year because of the date of assignment of the apartment. Furthermore, information regarding home address was available on the file cards and 63 couples were not placed on the list of potential couples where it was obvious, from the home address, that at least one of the mates was foreign born. The

listing was begun as of March 26, 1962 and was completed on May 1, 1962 in order to allow for the inclusion of couples who had moved into married housing in the interim. The final list, after ignoring couples who had obviously been married over one year as well as those where at least one mate was foreign born, consisted of 614 couples who became the potential population of the study. It is to be noted that many married students live in houses, cooperatively and privately owned apartments, and trailer courts. However, the task of locating and contacting these couples within the Spring term would have been insurmountable.

From the population list of 614 couples, 210 were then selected as the sample for purposes of research according to the table of random numbers. The smaller total may seem arbitrary, but at least two basic factors were taken into account in establishing a manageable figure. First, the length of time during which data could be obtained was limited to approximately one month. There were two basic reasons for this restriction. It was assumed that toward the end of the school quarter, students would become involved with studying for and writing final exams and would not be inclined to cooperate in the provision of data. Furthermore, once the quarter is over, many students leave for summer vacation and the source of potential respondents is thereby lessened. Secondly, because the scheduling of appointments and the administration of instruments were all done by the researcher, and these processes were extremely time consuming, the 210 size sample was within a reasonable range of closure.

A letter (see Appendix D) was then mailed to each of the 210 couples in order to enlist their cooperation. The letter stated that the purpose

of the study was to obtain information about the kinds of people who had been married recently. Furthermore, the promise was made that a summary of the conclusions (see Abstract of thesis) would be forwarded at a later date to those couples who were willing to cooperate. Telephone calls were made to each of the couples within two days after the mailing of the letters. The statements of the letter were reinforced, particularly with reference to anonymity, and appointments were scheduled. As a result of the latter process, it was determined that 54 couples had been married more than one year, 14 couples had a child although they had been married less than one year and 23 couples refused to cooperate in the study. There remained 119 of the 142 couples who met the restrictions placed on the sample (83.8%).

#### The Administration of Instruments

Appointments were scheduled for the 119 couples. The researcher was present during the administration of instruments to the first six couples. However, the time required to respond to the instruments was approximately two hours, and because the instruments were of the self-administering variety, it appeared logical to leave the forms with couples while other couples could be seen simultaneously. The procedure then was to deliver the instruments, request that the couple complete the forms independently of each other and then return to collect the completed forms within a period of two hours after delivery. The average time required to respond was approximately two and one-quarter hours. Cross consultation was quite improbable, if only from the viewpoint of the time factor alone. Because every male was a student and

was thus occupied during the day, all the data collection took place during evenings and weekends. A complete unit of material was delivered to each couple. The package contained one copy of each of the Background Information Questionnaire, the IAV, the EAOS and the EPPS for every husband and every wife, plus some machine scoring pencils.

### The Sample Characteristics

After initial screening of answer sheets, it was apparent that some of the data would have to be omitted for purposes of further study. By comparing date of marriage with expectancy date because of pregnancy, as derived from the Background Information Questionnaire, it was found that six couples acknowledged the fact that the female was pregnant prior to the time of marriage. Furthermore, the profiles obtained from three couples were incomplete. In these cases, there was evidence of deliberate distortion, exemplified by responding in a sarcastic manner to the questions pertaining to background information, or merely by not responding to all of the items. Finally, after all the EPPS profiles were scored for the consistency variable, there were eight couples wherein one or both of the individuals obtained a consistency score of less than nine. It was because of these reasons that the profiles of the above 17 couples were considered inappropriate for inclusion in further analysis. Thus the sample, prior to further delineation, consisted of 102 couples (71.83%).

### Sample Identification

Starting with the sample of 102 couples, each wife's score on the IAV was subtracted from her husband's. The mates' discrepancy scores

were then ranked for the 102 couples and rank difference scores were listed. Because the procedure for further delineation is described in Chapter V, it will suffice at this point to note that the most discrepant couples were then omitted. As a result of this procedure, 75 couples were left for purposes of hypothesis testing. These couples were then further divided into two sub-samples of high and low self-acceptance couples. The former consisted of 38 couples and the latter of 37 couples. The description that follows is based upon the background data that were obtained from the 75 couples.

The mean age for males was 23.147 and the mean age for females was 21.333 at the time of data collection. The mean age was 22.52 and 20.693 for males and females respectively at the time of marriage. A further elaboration of these data is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Age and Age at Marriage for the Sample

	<u>Age</u>		<u>Age at Marriage</u>	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Range	19-30	17-29	19-29	17-28
Mean	23.147	21.333	22.520	20.693
SD	2.296	2.081	2.283	2.033
Median	23.000	21.000	22.000	21.000
Mode	22.000	22.000	21.000	21.000
N	75	75	75	75

In reference to religious affiliation, the most frequent choice for males was Methodist, with 21 per cent of the male sample indicating this preference. Forty per cent of the female sample were equally divided between Catholic and Methodist. When the couples were compared on religious affiliation, 23 or almost 31 per cent of the sample, were



composed of husbands and wives who indicated different religious preferences. This figure would seem to exceed the logic of chance, if only from a cultural point of view, and raises some question in regard to homogamy of religious affiliation. A more concise distribution of religious affiliation is indicated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Distribution According to Religious Affiliation

Preference	Male	Per Cent	Female	Per Cent
Presbyterian	11	14.67	13	17.33
Catholic	15	20.00	15	20.00
Methodist	16	21.33	15	20.00
Jewish	2	2.67	2	2.67
Baptist	2	2.67	2	2.67
Episcopalian	4	5.33	2	2.67
Lutheran	8	10.67	10	13.33
Congregational	7	9.33	7	9.33
Evangelical United	1	1.33	4	5.33
Christian Reform	1	1.33	1	1.33
Unitarian	1	1.33	0	0.00
Atheist	1	1.33	0	0.00
Agnostic	4	5.33	2	2.67
No preference	2	2.67	2	2.67
Total	75	100.00	75	100.00

As was previously noted, all the males in the sample were students. Twenty-six of the men were graduate students. The next highest frequency for any academic level was the 24 seniors. The various academic levels for the males and the 17 females who were students are summarized in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Academic Levels of Male and Female Students

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Freshman	1	1.33	2	11.76
Sophomore	7	9.33	0	0.00
Junior	17	22.67	3	17.65
Senior	24	32.00	11	64.71
Graduate	26	34.67	1	5.88
Total	75	100.00	17	100.00

A total of 58 of the wives, or 77 per cent of the sample, were employed. Under this category are included 15 housewives, 15 secretaries, 13 clerical workers, 10 teachers and 5 nurses. The distribution of last school grade completed for these women is found in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Last School Grade Completed of Employed Wives

<u>Grade Level</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Grade ten	1	1.72
Grade eleven	1	1.72
Grade twelve	21	36.20
College freshmen	12	20.69
College sophomore	2	3.45
College junior	2	3.45
College senior	18	31.03
Graduate school	1	1.72
Total	58	100.00

In Table 4.5 is found a distribution according to major field of study for the males and the females who were students at the time of the study.

Table 4.5. Major Field of Study

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Business	16	21.33	1	5.89
Education	13	17.33	9	52.94
Social Work	1	1.33	-	-
Veterinary Medicine	1	1.33	-	-
Social Science	7	9.33	-	-
Mathematics	1	1.33	-	-
Science	14	18.67	3	17.65
Industrial Arts	1	1.33	-	-
Agriculture	5	6.67	-	-
Radio and TV	4	5.33	-	-
Engineering	7	9.33	-	-
Psychology	3	4.00	-	-
Restaurant Management	2	2.66	-	-
Home Economics	-	-	2	11.67
No preference	-	-	1	5.89
Music	-	-	1	5.89
Total	75	100.00	17	100.00

There was large variation found when the length of courtship was analyzed. Some spouses had obviously known each other even prior to high school days whereas others had met while at least one of the spouses was at the college level. In reporting the place where one had first met his spouse, there was one hundred per cent agreement between spouses' responses. The distribution of first meeting place is found in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Distribution According to First Meeting Place

<u>Meeting Place</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
School	39	52.00
Blind date	12	16.00
Party	5	6.67
Church	7	9.33
Home town	6	8.00
Vacation	6	8.00
Total	75	100.00

The distribution of length of courtship, engagement and marriage is given in Table 4.7. It is evident that most of these couples did not rush into marriage.

Table 4.7. Length of Courtship, Engagement and Marriage in Months

	<u>Courtship</u>	<u>Engagement</u>	<u>Marriage</u>
Range	1-84	0-36	1-11
Mean	21.253	7.253	7.667
SD	16.695	6.171	2.729
Median	18.000	6.000	8.000
Mode	36.000	9.000	8.000
N	75	75	75

One of the items on the Background Information Questionnaire was designed to elicit information about whether or not parental approval of the marriage existed. It could be speculated that parental approval is not forthcoming when a couple have known each other only for a brief period of time. Seventy of the 75 males reported that either one or both parents sanctioned their marriage prior to the actual time of marriage. Sixty-eight of the females reported a similar situation relative to their parents. However, after the marriages had taken place, 74 couples, or 99 per cent of the sample, reported that both parents of both husband and wife had given their approval to these marriages.

In most cases both parents of the sample subjects were native to the United States. Sixty-five of the male respondents indicated that both of their parents were born in the United States. This figure represents approximately 87 per cent of the male sample. In approximately nine per cent and four per cent of the cases one parent and neither parent respectively were born in this country. The corresponding

distribution for females was: approximately 85 per cent of the parents were both born in the United States; in approximately 11 per cent of the sample one parent was native born; and in four per cent of the cases neither parent was born in this country. Although these figures represent an approximate indication, it could be speculated that mate selection practices, at least as derived from general parental influence, were in keeping with normative behavioral concomitants of western society.

The breakdown of the sample according to home state affords the indication that whereas most of the respondents came from the state of Michigan, the remainder were spread, in this respect, across the country. When the couples were matched according to home state, it was found that 59 or almost 79 per cent of the sample had the same home state. The distribution relative to home state is summarized in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. Distribution of Sample According to Home State

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Michigan	48	64.00	54	72.00
New York	7	9.33	4	5.33
Ohio	3	4.00	4	5.33
North Carolina	2	2.67	1	1.33
Minnesota	1	1.33	1	1.33
Pennsylvania	1	1.33	1	1.33
Massachusetts	2	2.67	2	2.67
Texas	1	1.33	2	2.67
Indiana	1	1.33	2	2.67
Iowa	1	1.33	1	1.33
Illinois	2	2.67	1	1.33
Kansas	1	1.33	-	-
Wisconsin	2	2.67	-	-
New Jersey	1	1.33	-	-
Washington	1	1.33	-	-
Oregon	-	-	1	1.33
Idaho	1	1.33	-	-
Montana	-	-	1	1.33
Total	75	100.00	75	100.00

Two further characteristics of the sample were analyzed. These were type of home community and father's occupation. The highest percentage of both males and females came from large cities, these defined as having a population of more than fifty thousand. The next highest corresponding percentage came from small cities. The specific distribution is illustrated in Table 4.9. The differences between males and

Table 4.9. Sample Distribution According to Type of Home Community

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Large city (more than 50,000)	32	42.67	28	37.33
Small city (less than 50,000)	20	26.67	25	33.33
Small town (less than 2,500)	14	18.67	13	17.33
Country (farm)	9	12.00	9	12.00
Total	75	100.00	75	100.00

females were greater, however, when comparisons were made between respective fathers' occupations. In Table 4.10 the classification according to occupations is presented. There seems to be a slight tendency toward upward mobility of females, if occupational level of the father is used as a criterion of socio-economic class.

Table 4.10. Sample Distribution According to Father's Occupation

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Business owner	16	21.33	12	16.00
Professional	5	6.67	3	4.00
White collar	7	9.33	12	16.00
Farm owner	8	10.67	9	12.00
Teacher	3	4.00	2	2.67
Skilled labor	7	9.33	14	18.67
Semi-skilled	13	17.33	7	9.33
Public service	2	2.67	3	4.00
Executive or managerial	13	17.33	10	13.33
Deceased	1	1.33	3	4.00
Total	75	100.00	75	100.00

Several additional discernable features are apparent as a result of the analysis of background information. All the males were students at the time of their decision to marry. This factor would then dispel the existence of extraneous variance as derived from "marriages of practicality", notwithstanding the notion of choosing a wife for purposes of assisting the male with the completion of his studies, if only from a financial point of view. In addition, these couples seem to indicate homogamous trends when sociological variables are examined. Most spouses knew each other for almost two years prior to the time of marriage. There was no great dispersion also in type of home community. Furthermore, the concept of propinquity seems to be supported as the majority of the individuals who composed the couples had the same home state. The only possible exception for homogamy was that of religious affiliation and since almost 31 per cent of the couples indicated mixed religious choice, the trend is not a strong one.

#### Summary

The procedure for selection of subjects was outlined. Married couples residing in housing facilities provided by Michigan State University were considered eligible for study purposes if they were childless, married less than one year and born in the United States. There were 614 couples who fit these criteria on the basis of the initial information that was available. Two hundred and ten of this group were selected as the study sample according to the table of random numbers. However, as a result of telephone calls made to these couples, it was determined that 119 of those who had met the restrictions placed on the

sample were willing to cooperate in the study. Additional sample reduction then followed due to incomplete profiles, low scores on the EPPS consistency variable and acknowledgement of pregnancy prior to marriage. The remaining 102 couples consisted of spouses who were widely discrepant in self-acceptance scores and the omission of the latter resulted in 75 couples for purposes of hypothesis testing.

The major portion of Chapter IV consisted of a description of sample characteristics. The males and females were approximately 23 and 21 years old respectively. Although the 75 couples represented many different religious affiliations, a comparison revealed that almost 31 per cent of the sample was composed of spouses who indicated different religious preferences. All the males and 17 of the females were students, whereas the other 58 females functioned as housewives or were employed. The range of last school grade completed for the latter was limited in contrast to that for males. The distribution according to major field of study was consequently a broader one for males than for females and the highest frequency in this respect was found in business for males and education for females.

Large variation was found again when length of courtship was analyzed. The mean length of time for courtship, engagement and marriage was 21.253, 7.253 and 7.667 months respectively. Although parental approval of these marriages did not exist in all cases prior to the time of marriage, 99 per cent of the sample reported that both parents of both spouses had subsequently condoned the marriages. Most parents of the sample subjects were native to the United States. The sample was predominantly from the state of Michigan whereas the remainder came from a variety of states across the country. Almost 79 per cent of



the spouses had the same home state. The highest percentage of both sexes came from large cities. A final sample characteristic was father's occupation. As a result of the distribution according to the latter, it was evident that 1) wide variation existed and 2) there was a slight tendency toward upward mobility of females. With the possible exception of religious affiliation, when all the above variables are examined, there is a tendency toward homogamy.

## CHAPTER V

### ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

In the first section of Chapter V the sub-samples are delineated. There follows an elaboration of the analysis of the data, with specific reference to interspousal need structure. The chapter is concluded with the secondary analysis of the data as derived from measures of self-acceptance, their distributions, their relationship pertaining to males and females, and the validity of the independent variables' instrument.

#### Delineation of Sub-Samples

A total of 119 couples cooperated in the study. After 17 couples had been omitted for purposes of further study because of incomplete profiles, pregnancy prior to the time of marriage and low consistency scores on the EPPS, 102 remained. Using the male's score on the IAV as a base, the wives' scores were subtracted from their husbands' with the result that discrepancy scores were obtained for every couple. The latter scores ranged from 81 to -76. The mean IAV score for males was not significantly different from the mean score of the normative IAV sample. The mean IAV score for females was also not significantly different from the mean score of the normative IAV sample. The distribution of scores is illustrated in Table 5.1. It is to be noted, however, that the normative sample scores are combined to include both sexes.

Table 5.1. Analysis of IAV Scores Based on Initial Sample

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Discrepancy</u>	<u>Normative Sample</u> <sup>1</sup>
Range	112 to 235	91 to 224	81 to -76	81 to 245
Mean	184.890	177.740	20.873	171.86
SD	21.644	23.368	17.630	24.77
Median	184.738	179.000	16.167	-
Mode	184.000	174.000	1.000	-
N	102	102	102	1728

The discrepancy scores were ranked according to the manner in which the process was described in the design of the study. Because there was a three-way tie for the rank of 12 in positive high discrepancy on the rank difference scores, the top 14 couples were identified and their profiles omitted for further study. In identifying the bottom 12 couples on the rank difference scores, it was found that there was a tie for the rank of 90 and thus the bottom 13 couples were noted and their profiles were likewise omitted. The result of this process was that 75 couples were left after the first delineation and these couples composed the basic sample of the study.

The IAV scores for the 75 couples were then tabulated and analyzed. Some interesting features of these data, in contrast to the analysis of the original sample of 102 couples, were that the male mean score had not appreciably altered, whereas there was a sharp increase in the female mean score. The variability of the scores had altered also to the extent that there was little distinction between that of the male and female distributions. Furthermore, and as was expected because of

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<sup>1</sup>R. E. Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values, Manual, Auburn, Alabama: Alabama Polytechnic Institute, undated, (mimeographed), 36-37.

the delineation process, the mean and variance of the discrepancy scores were reduced by almost one-half when contrasted to the sample of 102 couples. In Table 5.2 are illustrated the respective distributions.

Table 5.2. Analysis of IAV Scores After Delineation

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Discrepancy</u>
Range	155 to 227	134 to 218	34 to -20
Mean	185.700	183.033	12.120
SD	17.347	16.874	8.392
Median	185.330	181.700	11.530
Mode	184.000	191 and 175	1.000
N	75	75	75

As outlined in the design of the study, a final delineation was then necessary. Because the median of the male IAV scores was 185.33, the split was made at that point in the distribution where the score was 185. The number of couples above and below the median was 38 and 37 respectively. These were accordingly defined as high and low self-acceptance couples. The analysis of the IAV data from the sub-samples is illustrated in Tables 5.3 and 5.4. Notably there is a minimal

Table 5.3. Analysis of IAV Scores for High Self-Acceptance Couples

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Discrepancy</u>
Range	187 to 227	167 to 218	34 to -13
Mean	199.632	189.634	12.842
SD	10.627	7.210	8.604
Median	198.250	189.500	12.000
Mode	187 and 191	182.000	12.000
N	38	38	38

Table 5.4. Analysis of IAV Scores for Low Self-Acceptance Couples

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Discrepancy</u>
Range	155 to 185	134 to 204	34 to -20
Mean	171.514	170.987	11.378
SD	8.930	15.713	8.220
Median	173.417	170.060	11.063
Mode	178.000	164.000	2.000
N	37	37	37

difference in mean discrepancy scores for the high and low self-acceptance couples and, in fact, the mean scores are highly similar to the mean score for the combined 75 couples. The mean IAV scores for males and females in high self-acceptance couples represent at least a ten point difference. When the same statistics are compared for low self-acceptance couples, the difference is found to be minimal. This point and concomitant matters, however, will be elaborated upon under the heading "Secondary Analysis", as they are not directly pertinent to the testing of hypotheses.

#### Analysis of the Data

A restatement of the hypotheses in both the null and alternate forms is found prior to each of the three major tests.

#### High Self-Acceptance Data

##### Null Hypothesis A: High Self-Acceptance Couples

Those mates who compose high self-acceptance couples are not different in their respective need structures.

Alternate A: Those mates who compose high self-acceptance couples are similar in their respective need structures.

In order to test this hypothesis, the need scores obtained by mates who compose high self-acceptance couples are correlated in the following manner:

1. male's need dominance - female's need dominance.
2. male's need abasement - female's need abasement.
3. male's need deference - female's need deference.
4. male's need nurturance - female's need nurturance.
5. male's need succorance - female's need succorance.

All the interspousal correlations were in the predicted direction. Furthermore, three of the five correlations are statistically significant, two at the .05 level and one at the .01 level. The variables that were correlated and the resulting correlations are found in Table 5.5. The only correlations that resulted in acceptance of the null hypotheses were those obtained from the needs abasement and deference. Otherwise, the null hypotheses are rejected when scores on the other three pairs of variables are correlated. Thus, it appears that although mates who composed high self-acceptance couples tended to be generally similar in their respective need structures, the evidence as found in this pilot study is not conclusive to this effect.

Table 5.5. Interspousal Correlations for Various Sub-Scales on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule for High Self-Acceptance Couples

<u>Variables Correlated</u>	<u>Predicted direction</u>	<u>r</u>
Male dominance-female dominance	+	+.323*
Male abasement-female abasement	+	+.293
Male deference-female deference	+	+.301
Male nurturance-female nurturance	+	+.459**
Male succorance-female succorance	+	+.325*

\*Significant at .05 level

\*\*Significant at .01 level

When a comparison is made using the male and female scores on the various needs, it is apparent that there are significant mean score

differences on two of the five need variables. However, it is to be noted that significant differences exist also when the male and female EPPS normative group scores are compared and, in fact, these differences were found on all five variables. In the sub-sample women scored higher on succorance and abasement. There were no differences between men and women on the needs deference, dominance and nurturance. In Table 5.6 are illustrated these comparisons.

Table 5.6. A Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations Between Males and Females in High Self-Acceptance Couples for Various Sub-Scales on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

<u>Variable</u>	<u>SD</u>		<u>Means</u>		<u>t</u>
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	
Deference	3.63	3.91	12.01	12.95	1.08
Succorance	4.68	4.87	10.63	13.60*	2.71
Dominance	5.17	4.34	15.02	14.01	.92
Abasement	4.52	5.10	12.04	15.98*	3.56
Nurturance	4.12	5.21	13.98	15.08	1.02
N			38	38	

\*This mean is significantly larger at p .01 than the corresponding mean for the opposite sex.

#### Low Self-Acceptance Data

##### Null Hypothesis B: Low Self-Acceptance Couples

Those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples are not different in their respective need structures.

Alternate B: Those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples are complementary in their respective need structures.

In order to test this hypothesis, the need scores obtained by mates who compose low self-acceptance couples are correlated in the following manner.

1. male's need dominance - female's need dominance.

2. male's need dominance - female's need abasement.
3. male's need abasement - female's need dominance.
4. male's need dominance - female's need deference.
5. male's need deference - female's need dominance.
6. male's need nurturance - female's need nurturance.
7. male's need nurturance - female's need succorance.
8. male's need succorance - female's need nurturance.

All the interspousal correlations were in the predicted direction. Furthermore, six of the eight correlations are statistically significant, three at the .05 level and three at the .01 level. The variables that were correlated and the resulting correlations are found in Table 5.7. The only correlations that resulted in acceptance of the null hypotheses were those obtained from spouses' scores on the needs dominance and deference.

Table 5.7. Interspousal Correlations for Various Sub-Scales on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule for Low Self-Acceptance Couples.

<u>Variables Correlated</u>	<u>Predicted direction</u>	<u>r</u>
Male dominance-female dominance	-	-.330*
Male dominance-female abasement	+	+.318
Female dominance-male abasement	+	+.312
Male deference-female dominance	+	+.338*
Female deference-male dominance	+	+.327*
Male nurturance-female nurturance	-	-.501**
Male nurturance-female succorance	+	+.453**
Female nurturance-male succorance	+	+.512**

\*Significant at .05 level.

\*\*Significant at .01 level.

Both type I complementariness hypotheses were supported. Four of the six type II complementariness hypotheses were supported. Thus,



from this pilot study it appeared that mates who composed low self-acceptance couples were complementary in their respective need structures.

It is interesting to note that of the obtained correlations, both for high and low self-acceptance couples, those based upon the needs nurturance and succorance are highest in the degree of relationship between spouses. Relative to low self-acceptance couples and indications of complementarity in particular, these findings suggested that the nurturant-receptive dimension may be even more important than the dominant-submissive components in interspousal need satisfaction.

When a comparison is made using the male and female scores on the various needs, it is apparent that there is a significant mean score difference on one of the five need variables. Again, however, significant differences between male and female scores are found on all five variables when the respective comparisons are made with the EPPS normative sample. In the sub-sample, women scored higher on nurturance. No differences are discernable between mean scores for females and males on the needs deference, succorance, dominance and abasement. In Table 5.8 are illustrated these comparisons.

Table 5.8. A Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations Between Males and Females in Low Self-Acceptance Couples for Various Sub-Scales on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

<u>Variable</u>	<u>SD</u>		<u>Means</u>		<u>t</u>
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	
Deference	3.98	3.98	11.92	13.62	1.29
Succorance	5.19	3.89	11.46	11.98	1.54
Dominance	5.51	3.93	18.64	13.01	1.60
Abasement	4.01	5.14	11.62	12.34	.21
Nurturance	3.94	4.96	13.49	17.83*	4.25

\*This mean is significantly larger at p .001 than the corresponding mean for the opposite sex.

#### High and Low Self-Acceptance Data

##### Null Hypothesis C: High and Low Self-Acceptance Couples.

There is no difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples.

Alternate C: There is a difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples.

In order to test this hypothesis, the differences in interspousal correlations between high and low self-acceptance couples are obtained in the following manner:

1. high self-acceptance couples' interspousal need dominance - low self-acceptance couples' interspousal need dominance.
2. high self-acceptance couples' interspousal need nurturance - low self-acceptance couples' interspousal need nurturance.

The correlation for high self-acceptance couples on dominance was .323; the same correlation obtained from low self-acceptance couples was -.330. The null hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded that there is no difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples on the need dominance.

The correlation for high self-acceptance couples on nurturance was .459; the same correlation obtained from low self-acceptance couples was -.501. The difference between the correlations when transformed to  $z$ 's and taken relative to the standard error of the difference between the two  $z$ 's provided a  $z$  of 1.76. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. It was concluded from this pilot study that there was a difference in interspousal need structure between high and low self-acceptance couples on the need nurturance.

### Secondary Analysis

In order to qualify the validity of the IAV as an instrument for measuring self-acceptance, comparable scores were obtained on the EAOS. The analyses of the scores obtained by the various samples are found in Table 5.9. When the male and female mean scores are compared according

Table 5.9. Comparison of Distributions of EAOS Scores

<u>Sample</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>
Initial male sample of 102	151.27	14.55
Initial female sample of 102	145.87	18.04
Delineated male sample of 75	152.10	13.04
Delineated female sample of 75	148.50	14.78
Male sub-sample of 38	156.87	10.26
Female sub-sample of 38	154.11	12.07
Male sub-sample of 37	146.87	14.27
Female sub-sample of 37	143.42	15.47

to respective sample sizes, the only significant difference between scores is for that obtained between the initial male sample of 102 and the female counterpart, this difference being significant at the .05 level of confidence. It appears that mean score differences are not apparent once the initial sample is delineated with the omission of

highly discrepant couples and sub-divided into sub-samples of high and low self-acceptance couples.

When the same procedure is employed, only using the scores obtained on the IAV, a somewhat different picture is in evidence. The comparisons are illustrated in Table 5.10. Not only is there a difference in mean scores between males and females in the initial sample which is significant at the .05 level of confidence, but also there is a difference between male and female scores in high self-acceptance couples, this difference being significant at the .0001 level of confidence. In

Table 5.10. Comparison of Distributions of IAV Scores

<u>Sample</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>
Initial male sample of 102	184.89	21.64
Initial female sample of 102	177.74	23.37
Delineated male sample of 75	185.70	17.35
Delineated female sample of 75	183.03	16.87
Male sub-sample of 38	199.63	10.63
Female sub-sample of 38	189.63	7.21
Male sub-sample of 37	171.51	8.93
Female sub-sample of 37	170.99	15.71

contrast, the most negligible difference between male and female mean scores is found between those persons who compose low self-acceptance couples. ~~It~~ It could be inferred, then, that there may be mutual attraction between low self-acceptance persons whereas this comparison is not evidenced in high self-acceptance couples. In addition, since these findings suggest the fact that low self-acceptance persons are married to low self-acceptance spouses, as well as the fact that couples seem to indicate complementary need structures, the interaction patterns of these couples may indeed be neurotic in nature, as has been

hypothesized in some of the mate selection theory. Furthermore, it is of interest to note, regardless of sample considered, that the mean male scores as derived from both the IAV and the EAOS are all higher than the corresponding mean scores for females. It does not seem unreasonable to deduce that males were more self-accepting than females, granting the defensive possibilities which are inherent in these expressions. Coincidentally, the latter finding is of particular importance in view of a basic theoretical premise that was stated at the onset. It was suggested that persons who are high in acceptance of self could indicate much variation in their choices of mates, peers and the like whereas those who are low in self-acceptance would tend to make person choices on the basis of how the latter would presumably provide sources of completion of self for the former.

The tendency for attraction based upon degree of expressed self-acceptance can be viewed also by determining the degree of relationship between mates by correlating their respective scores. This procedure was conducted on the initial sample as well as the sample after delineation and the correlations based upon the IAV and the EAOS scores are reported in Tables 5.11 and 5.12 respectively.

Table 5.11. The Relationship of Male and Female IAV Scores

<u>Sample</u>	<u>r</u>
Initial sample of 102	.082
Delineated sample of 75	.230
Sub-sample of 38	.220
Sub-sample of 37	.434*

\*Significant at .01 level

Table 5.12. The Relationship of Male and Female EAOS Scores

<u>Sample</u>	<u>r</u>
Initial sample of 102	.103
Delineated sample of 75	.223
Sub-sample of 38	.314
Sub-sample of 37	.502*

\*Significant at .01 level

✓ Again, it is to be noted that there is a high degree of relationship between males and females who composed low self-acceptance couples, as evidenced by correlating spouses' scores obtained both on the IAV and the EAOS. Otherwise, no significant relationships are found. The results are as would be expected for the initial sample of 102 couples, particularly because of the fact that this sample consisted of couples within whom the mates were widely discrepant in their scores on self-acceptance. Additional evidence is found in that the correlations tend to increase when the latter are obtained on the delineated sample of 75 couples. The correlation between spouses who composed high self-acceptance couples was higher when the EAOS scores were used in contrast to those obtained on the IAV. Neither of the correlations, however, are large enough to have occurred beyond chance expectation. ✕ The latter analysis provides an additional indication that high self-acceptance individuals make person choices on an inconsistent basis. However, these findings too must be considered tentative until cross validation is possible and present conclusions are therefore drawn within the restrictions of a pilot study.

Scores on the IAV and the EAOS were correlated. The latter instrument served as a check on the validity of the former. Reference to

Table 5.13 indicates, irrespective of sample size, that correlating individuals' scores on both instruments provides correlations which are

Table 5.13. The Relationship of IAV to EAOS Scores

<u>Variables correlated</u>	<u>r</u>
Males' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 102	.243*
Females' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 102	.239*
Males' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 75	.389**
Females' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 75	.378**
Males' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 38	.423**
Females' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 38	.421**
Males' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 37	.422**
Females' scores on IAV and EAOS for sample of 37	.419**

\*Significant at .05 level

\*\*Significant at .01 level

all beyond the level of chance expectation. Since six of the eight correlations are significant at the .01 level or better, and the remaining two correlations are significant at the .05 level, it is concluded that the IAV provides a valid measure of self-acceptance. The conclusion, however, must be based on the assumption that the EAOS too is an instrument which, in fact, measures self-acceptance.

#### Summary

The results of the study were analyzed and reported in Chapter V. The data relevant to the delineation of sub-samples were indicated after the procedure for culmination of the sample of 102 couples was described. Omission of couples who were most discrepant on their self-acceptance scores led to the sample of 75 couples. The data which were used for hypothesis testing were considered after this group was further subdivided into 38 couples who were defined as high self-acceptance couples and 37 couples who were defined as low self-acceptance couples.

The results of analysis for high self-acceptance couples were all in the predicted direction and three of the five correlations were significant at  $p .05$ . The latter provided tentative evidence to the effect that high self-acceptance couples were similar in their respective need structures. Furthermore, when mean scores on the EPPS needs for males and females were compared, females were found to score significantly higher at  $p .01$  on the needs succorance and abasement in contrast to the differences between mean scores for the sexes on the normative EPPS data. In the latter, there were significant differences on all five need variables.

The analysis of the data for low self-acceptance couples indicated correlations which were all in the predicted direction. Three of the eight correlations were significant at  $p .05$  and three were significant at  $p .01$ . These statistics provided evidence to the effect that low self-acceptance couples were complementary in their respective need structures. The nurturance-receptive axis of complementarity was the most heavily supported by the data. In addition, it was found that females in the low self-acceptance couples had a mean score which was significantly higher ( $p .001$ ) than their spouses on the EPPS need nurturance. In contrast, all five needs that were derived from the EPPS indicated differences between males and females in the standardization sample.

Correlations were converted to  $z$ 's and the differences between the correlations were tested using interspousal scores on the needs dominance and nurturance for high and low self-acceptance couples. It was concluded that the differences in these respects were not significant



when the need dominance was considered but were significant ( $p = .05$ ) when the need nurturance was analyzed.

Secondary analysis of the data was performed. One of the most interesting findings was that although there is much variation in degree of expressed self-acceptance in those individuals who are defined as composing high self-acceptance couples, the differences between spouses who compose low self-acceptance couples are negligible.\* A tentative conclusion was that low self-acceptance individuals tend to be attracted to persons who are similar to themselves in degree of expressed self-acceptance. Furthermore, it seemed that because of the need complementarity indicated by these couples, there was beginning evidence to suggest that mate choice may be an attempt toward completion of self. An additional approach to this area was taken by calculating correlations between male and respective female scores both on the IAV and the EAOS for all sample sizes. The only significant correlations were those for low self-acceptance couples, thus providing similar evidence to that already stated above in this connection.

The chapter was concluded with a brief discussion of the qualification of the validity of the IAV as a measure of self-acceptance. Comparable scores derived from the EAOS were correlated for both sexes on all sample sizes. All correlations were significant at  $p = .05$  or  $p = .01$ , thus suggesting that the IAV is a valid instrument for purposes of assessing self-acceptance.

## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The initial part of Chapter VI consists of a summary of the problem, design, methods and procedures, results, and limitations of the study. The conclusions of this pilot study are then stated followed by a discussion of implications for marriage counseling and future research.

#### Summary

##### The Problem

The study of the relationship of personality types to mate selection indicates the existence of two basic schools of thought. Some authors suggest that individuals of similar personality structure (homogamy) are attracted to each other. Others adhere to the heterogamy theory in which it is hypothesized that "opposites attract" in a way that there is reciprocity of need satisfaction between mates.

The main purpose of this study was to ascertain the relationship, if any, between degree of expressed self-acceptance and interspousal need structure in the mate selection process. The focus was on the dominance-submissive and nurturance-receptive dimensions of interspousal behavior. It was hypothesized that couples who are high in self-acceptance would be similar in their respective need structures, primarily because of the assumption that a high self-accepting person would not choose a partner on the basis of a need to have an external reservoir for the provision of need satisfaction. The reverse was

hypothesized for low self-accepting couples; they would be complementary in their respective need structures. The latter hypothesis was formulated on the opposite assumption to that of the former.

### The Design

The independent variables of the study were high and low expressed self-acceptance. The instrument used for measuring these variables was the IAV<sup>1</sup> which is purported to provide a direct measure of self-acceptance. The EAOS<sup>2</sup> scale, another measure of self-acceptance, was also administered in order to qualify the validity of the IAV.

The dependent variable of the study was interspousal need structure. This variable is simply the product-moment correlation between a variety of pairs of needs as manifested by marital pairs. The instrument used for the measurement of needs was the EPPS.<sup>3</sup>

There were several means by which control of extraneous variance was attempted. Couples consisting only of native born subjects were included in the study because it was assumed that a person of foreign birth would select a mate outside of the traditional framework as found in western society. Population selection in general is seen as an additional source of variance in mate choice research. Although one would ideally attempt to study couples who are in the midst of the actual

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<sup>1</sup>R. E. Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values, Manual, Auburn, Alabama: Alabama Polytechnic Institute, undated, (mimeographed).

<sup>2</sup>E. M. Berger, "The Relation Between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," University of Pittsburgh Bulletin, 1951, 47:1-8.

<sup>3</sup>Allen Edwards, Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, Manual, New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1959.

selection process, an inherent problem is the fact that there is no guarantee that the relationships will culminate in marriage. It was, therefore, decided to select a sample of married subjects, all of whom had been married less than one year, in order to specifically study couples as close as possible to the actual time of marriage.

Only childless couples were included in this study because it is probable that the presence of a child would tend to alter the nature of the interpersonal relationship between husband and wife. Furthermore, marriages of the non "free choice" variety, with specific reference to pregnancy occurring out-of-wedlock, would presumably affect the nature of the selection process. A Background Information Information Questionnaire was designed to elicit the above-described information for further sample refinement as well as other pertinent material about the subjects.

The basic statistic used in the experiment was the product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson  $r$ ). It was used not only for hypothesis testing but also for purposes of qualifying the validity of the IAV. Because the theory relating to self-acceptance provides no stipulation about dyadic relationships and is essentially a singular based one, a specific procedure was employed for purposes of obtaining a measure of a couple's degree of expressed self-acceptance. Using the male's score on the IAV as a base, the respective female scores were subtracted and discrepancy scores were obtained for every couple. These ranged from 81 to -76. The discrepancy scores were ranked from high positive discrepancy through zero discrepancy to high negative discrepancy. Twelve per cent of the most discrepant couples at both ends of the distribution

were then omitted from further analysis. The result of this procedure was that 75 couples were left who were statistically similar. These individuals were the final sample of the study. After ranking according to male's score, the median of the males' IAV scores was calculated and those couples falling above the median were considered high self-acceptance couples whereas those below the median were considered low self-acceptance couples. These sample sizes were 38 and 37 couples respectively.

#### Methods and Procedures

The couples of this pilot study all resided in married housing facilities provided by Michigan State University. The potential population of the study consisted of 614 couples. However, because of the nature of the information that was available, there was a limitation in knowing how many couples may have been married for over one year or had a child, irrespective of the fact that they resided in one bedroom apartments. The latter are generally assigned to couples who have no children.

A sample of 210 couples was selected from the above group according to the table of random numbers. A letter was mailed and was followed by a telephone contact to each of the couples in order to enlist their cooperation. The result of these steps was that 23 couples refused to cooperate, 14 couples had a child although they had been married less than one year and 54 couples had been married more than one year. There remained 119 couples for purposes of data collection.

The respondents were given no more information than the fact that

they were being asked to participate in a study in order that insight might be gained about the kinds of people who get married. Pending their cooperation, they were provided information about the findings and a summary of the conclusions.

After appointments were scheduled, a complete unit of material was delivered to each couple. The package contained one copy of each of the Background Information Questionnaire, the IAV, the EAOS and the EPPS for every husband and wife. Couples were asked to respond independently to the instruments within a two hour time limit. At least this amount of time was required for completion of the instruments. As a result, it is suggested that cross consultation between husbands and wives was either non-existent or minimal.

Upon completion of data collection the sample was delineated to 102 couples because of incomplete responses and other similar factors. After removing the extreme scoring couples, as described above, the sample consisted of 75 couples. As a group, these males were approximately two years older than the females. A similar difference was found in age at the time of marriage. Wide variation in religious affiliation was found and almost 31 per cent of the sample consisted of husbands and wives who professed different religious preferences.

All the males in the sample were students both at the time of data collection as well as the time of their decision to marry. The latter is a tentative indication that these couples did not enter into "marriages of practicality", at least as derived from the usual definition of the term. The academic levels for males and the 17 females who had not left the academic ranks to become employed ranged from freshman to graduate

school. Approximately 77 per cent of the female sample were employed, with the last school grade completed for these women ranging from grade 10 to graduate school. The males represented 13 different major fields of study and the females represented six major fields of study.

Length of courtship ranged from one to 84 months. The couples had met under a variety of circumstances. The mean length in months for courtship, engagement and marriage was 21.253, 7.253 and 7.667 respectively. Some couples entered marriage shortly after they first met whereas more of the couples consisted of persons who knew each other for as much as almost two years. Parental approval of these marriages existed prior to the time of marriage for most couples and after the marriage had occurred for almost all couples.

Most parents of the sample subjects were born in the United States, a factor which presumably would affect mate selection practices to the extent that the latter would be influenced by normative behavior which is in keeping with western society. Although most of the respondents came from the state of Michigan, the remainder of the sample ranged across the country in home state. Almost 79 per cent of the couples were composed of individuals who had the same home state.

When fathers' occupations were used as a basis for comparison, the highest percentage of both males and females had fathers who were business owners. If father's occupation is used as a criterion of socio-economic level, there is a slight tendency for upward mobility of females as a result of their marriages. Generally, however, the overall tendency is toward homogamy of sociological variables and characteristics.

## Results

In the high self-acceptance couples women were found to score higher on the needs succorance and abasement ( $p .01$ ). All the interspousal correlations were in the predicted direction. When males' and females' scores were correlated on the need dominance, the correlation was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. The same result was found when males and females were correlated on the need succorance scores. Similar analysis on the need nurturance resulted in a correlation which is significant at the .01 level of confidence. The hypotheses in reference to these needs were accepted. However, the hypotheses based upon the needs abasement and deference were rejected.

In the low self-acceptance couples, women scored higher on the needs deference and nurturance ( $p .01$ ). However, men scored higher on dominance ( $p .01$ ) whereas there were no discernable differences for males and females on the needs succorance and abasement. All the interspousal correlations were in the predicted direction. Six of the eight correlations are statistically significant. When spouses' scores were correlated on the need dominance and the needs dominance and deference, the resulting correlations are significant at the .05 level of confidence. When spouses' scores were correlated on the need nurturance and the needs nurturance and succorance, the resulting correlations are significant at the .01 level of confidence. Thus, six of the eight hypotheses for low self-acceptance couples were accepted. Both type I complementariness hypotheses and four of the six type II complementariness hypotheses were supported.

The test for significance of the difference between interspousal



correlations indicated that there was no difference between high and low self-acceptance couples on the need dominance. In contrast, when the need nurturance was considered, the finding was slightly different. The difference between the correlations was transformed to  $z$ 's and taken relative to the standard error of the difference between two  $z$ 's. A  $z$  of 1.76 was obtained. The latter is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Several features of interest were apparent as a result of the secondary analysis of the data. The difference in mean scores between males and females on the IAV in high self-acceptance couples was significant at the .0001 level of confidence. In contrast, when the respective means were compared for males and females in low self-acceptance couples, the difference was negligible. Another finding was that, regardless of sample considered, the mean male scores as derived from both the IAV and the EAOS were all higher than the corresponding mean scores for females. A tentative conclusion is that males were more self-accepting than females, granting the defensive possibilities inherent in these expressions. An equally reasonable conclusion is that males tended to be more defensive in responding to instruments which measure such variables as self-acceptance.

Another approach was taken to the data referred to above. An attempt was made to determine the degree of relationship between mates through correlating respective self-acceptance scores. Correlations were calculated in this manner on all sample sizes. The result was that, in the case of both the IAV and the EAOS, the only significant correlations were obtained when the males and females in low self-

acceptance couples were considered.

Scores on the IAV and the EAOS were correlated, the latter instrument serving as a check on the validity of the former. This procedure was carried out on all sample sizes. All of the correlations were significant at the .05 level or better. Granting the assumption that the EAOS measures self-acceptance, the IAV was found to be a valid instrument for purposes of assessing self-acceptance.

#### Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations of this study, some of which are considerable whereas others are relatively minor.

First, criticism can be raised about the method by which the variety of needs was assessed. The EPPS provides ipsative scores on the need variables. The implication is that, because of the forced-choice technique, if an individual scores very low on some of the variables, the scores on the other variables will tend to be high. However, there is no way of determining the effect of the specific instrument design, particularly because only five of the EPPS need scales were used in this study. An alternative approach for the assessment of needs would have been to use one or more of the projective techniques which are purported to measure needs. However, the validity of such instruments is highly questionable with the effect that the risk resulting from their use would be increased many times over that taken with the EPPS. A second alternative would be to derive need ratings through interviews.

However, Ellis<sup>4</sup> has shown that the questionnaire method of gathering data seems to be as satisfactory as the interview method, particularly because the former tends to produce more self-revelatory information than the latter. The same argument can be applied toward a rationale for using a questionnaire in contrast to interviews for purposes of obtaining relevant background information from the subjects.

The degree of relationship between variables has been emphasized in this study because of the statistical approach taken to the analysis of the data. Presumably cause and effect factors would be of interest in enlightened understanding of the mate selection process. However, no claim to the latter effect can be made. Furthermore, it is recognized that variables other than self-acceptance affect the process of mate choice, yet these are not within the scope of this study.

In the process of screening couples in order to control for non "free choice" types of marriages as a source of extraneous variance, it is possible that some couples deliberately provided a distorted impression over expectancy date due to pregnancy. There was no way, however, through which control of this factor could be increased beyond that taken in the items of the Background Information Questionnaire. A related problem is that pertaining to the possibility of cross consultation between spouses. However, this source of variance was

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<sup>4</sup>Albert Ellis, "Questionnaire versus Interview Methods in the Study of Human Love Relationships. II. Uncategorized Responses," American Sociological Review, 1948, 13:61-65; Albert Ellis, "Questionnaire versus Interview Methods in the Study of Human Love Relationships," American Sociological Review, 1947, 12:541-553.

reasonably controlled as subjects were given a limited amount of time in which to respond to the instruments, thereby lessening the possibility of mutual referral.

Another weakness of this study is due to the instruments used to measure expressed self-acceptance. The latter contain no control over "faking good" or "faking bad" in order to provide a specific impression. For example, some high self-accepting persons may not be, in fact, too accepting of self. The element of social desirability may have an unknown effect upon responses with the result that defensive expressions may occur, particularly those related to rationalization. The defensiveness to which reference has been made may be either deliberate or unconscious.

An additional limitation arises from the select nature of the sample used in this study. All the males and many of the females were college students and, as such, any application of findings must be considered relative only to the married college population. It is conceivable that the sample of this study possessed many characteristics which are unique to the population from which it was drawn. However, Christopherson, et al.<sup>5</sup> have shown that the married college student may not be radically different from other young married people.

The original sample selection was carried out on a random basis. However, the nature of the delineation process and the lack of willingness to cooperate on the part of some couples tended toward a non

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<sup>5</sup>V. Christopherson; J. Vandiver and M. Krueger, "The Married College Student, 1959," Marriage and Family Living, 1960, 22:122-128.

random group. In addition, in the process of original sample selection, there was no evidence for these couples of length of time married or number of dependents. Thus the latter was another source of delimiting possibilities of having a completely random sample. The combined lack of a random sample and cross validation both restrict the possibilities of generalization of findings from this study.

### Conclusions

The major conclusions of the study are:

1. Those mates who compose high self-acceptance couples were similar in their respective need structures. This conclusion held specifically when the needs dominance, nurturance and succorance were considered but did not include the needs abasement and deference. In the latter, the degree of relationship did not exceed the level of chance expectation.
2. Those mates who compose low self-acceptance couples were complementary in their respective need structures. This conclusion held specifically when spouses' scores were correlated on the needs dominance, dominance and deference, nurturance, and nurturance and succorance. The needs dominance and abasement for husbands and wives did not correlate beyond the level of chance expectation. When the same need was compared for both husband and wife, a variation in intensity was noted such that when one spouse had a high need, the other had a low one and vice versa. Furthermore, different needs as expressed by spouses were found to complement one another.
3. The highest degree of relationship between needs as expressed

by husbands and wives was found when the needs nurturance and succorance were considered for both high and low self-acceptance couples. The nurturant-receptive dimension of complementarity was probably more important than the dominant-submissive dimension in the understanding of interspousal need structure. Furthermore, the traditional interpretation of complementarity based upon all needs provides a misleading framework within which mate selection can be studied.

4. The high self-acceptance couples were composed of individuals who indicated much variation between degree of expressed self-acceptance on the part of males and females. In contrast, mates who composed low self-acceptance couples were similar in their degree of expressed self-acceptance. Low self-acceptance males tended to be attracted to low self-acceptance females and vice versa. Finally, and as a result of both the latter and the fact that low self-acceptance couples were complementary in their respective need structures, it was concluded that the individual who was low in self-acceptance was attracted to persons who presumably provide sources of completion of self for this individual. His need gratification was heavily dependent upon external sources.

#### Implications for Marriage Counseling

Marriage counseling is unique in that its focus is placed upon the relationship that exists between two people. The marriage, rather than the individuals, is first viewed as the patient. It is apparent, therefore, that understanding of the interpersonal dynamics of marital pairs is perhaps of even greater significance than in other professionally therapeutic endeavors. The understanding of how individuals relate to

and affect each other is of no less importance in the practice of premarital counseling.

Is it possible that self-acceptance, when considered as an indicator of personal adjustment, is an important variable for purposes of gaining insight into how an individual sees himself in contrast to the kind of person he would like to be in an ideal sense? Is it not probable that satisfaction of needs is sought from external sources when certain qualities are lacking in the self? In this sense, the individual may be seeking a completion of self. The extreme of stable marginal adjustment in this respect may be found in complementary neuroses where there is reciprocity of need satisfaction, yet only in an inconsistent and self-defeating manner.

In contrast to the above, is one's interpersonal competence adequate when he can function primarily within the framework of his own emotional resources? This individual seeks satisfaction of his needs as provided by others only occasionally. He may be described as an adjusted person to the extent that there is minimal discrepancy between that which he wants to be in contrast to how he sees himself. As a result, his interpersonal associations can be varied both in intensity and quality.

Personal satisfaction is one of the goals of marriage counseling. Are couples more satisfied with marriages in which there is reciprocity of need satisfaction? The counseling process theoretically can be directed toward this end. However, there are certain qualifying conditions, at least as derived from this pilot study. If an individual grows, develops and changes in the course of time and if the selection

of the mate occurred originally on a reciprocal need basis, it is probable that the premise upon which the choice was made becomes altered. A possible result is that at least one of the spouses is no longer willing, whether consciously or not, to act as an emotional provider, at least to the same extent that was possible earlier in the marriage. Insight, the primary goal of all counseling, is needed on the part of spouses with the result that they are able to realize how much and in what ways they support each other emotionally. Whether the instruments of this study or others are employed by the marriage counselor with the purpose of assessing self-acceptance, some indication of the latter could act as a guide for formulation of both counseling method and process. When changes in self-acceptance evolve as a result of the process, the progress of counseling effectiveness could be estimated.

Gratification may be sought outside of marriage to balance satisfactions or frustrations which the partners experience in the family. The notion of need satisfaction from only one source is too restrictive. The reverse situation, of course, may also hold true. In these marriages the tendency may be toward grandiose expectations of one's partner. The resulting implication for the counselor is the provision of guidance toward increased mutuality extramaritally and within the marriage, depending upon the nature of the extreme that exists. In short, interpersonal need-fits can be extended to a variety of contexts.

Is the complementary needs theory in particular of help in understanding why certain marriages are contracted when, on the surface, there is neither "rhyme nor reason" for specific mate selection? The theory may be an adjunct also toward comprehension about the maintenance



of certain marriages, even as the latter seem to provide minimal sources of personal gratification and happiness to the partners. It behooves the marriage counselor to detect the need pattern of each spouse as well as the meaning held by each spouse for the other. What kinds of gratifications are both demanded and offered? The answer to this question may indicate the kinds of influences both within and outside of the marriage as described above. In analogy with all approaches to counseling, it is the total human being that is studied and helped.

#### Implications for Future Research

The relationship of expressed self-acceptance to need structure seems to provide a meaningful framework within which the mate selection process can be studied. However, the complexity of the area to be researched suggests that other variables pertinent to mate selection exist. These must be identified and researched. Furthermore, once cross validation is accomplished, the theory should be expanded to include populations of persons of diverse backgrounds. Both the sample and population of the present study are highly select and because one quality of adequate theory is its comprehensiveness, the latter procedure as suggested provides an added rationale for increased theory testing. Research on a larger scale should include not only subjects of varying socio-economic backgrounds but also samples of greater magnitude.

The pursuit of increased understanding of interpersonal attraction and choice should be expanded. Associated studies, however, need not be limited solely to mate choice. They should be expanded to include

all areas wherein persons interact and particularly where positive growth is seen as a desired outcome. Teacher-pupil, pupil-pupil, parent-child, and work-partner relationships are merely a few examples of these areas. The already established field of sociometry and its contributions could serve as an adjunct to both research design and process. Group therapists have long been plagued by the dearth of information relative to the problems of adequate grouping. Similar issues exist in student personnel work in general and in classroom grouping in particular. Knowledge could both be gained from and contributed to more effective practices in these areas.

A final problem area is adjustment and maladjustment in marriage and its relationship to interspousal need structure. Although some of the criteria of marital adjustment have been explored more recently, these studies have focussed upon values, attitudes and congruence of self concepts. Minimal evidence is available about marital relationships and the needs involved in these, particularly with reference to successful marriage. It could be speculated that the prediction of marriage outcome based upon interspousal needs is as fruitful an area of exploration as that of mate selection. Both the preventive and curative potential would provide implications of decided value.

Considering the suggestions as outlined above, further research on mate selection should include large samples of subjects of diverse backgrounds. In addition to self-acceptance, other variables that are pertinent to the process should be identified. The framework of the present study should be elaborated upon to include many areas wherein interpersonal attraction and choice occur. Future research should be expanded

also in order that insight may be gained into the prediction and establishment of successful marriage. There is potential in these areas of inquiry for both theory testing and creative practice.

APPENDIX A

BACKGROUND INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Sex        2. Birthdate        3. Age         
M or F Month Day Year
4. Age at time of marriage
5. Religious affiliation: (Check one)  
Presbyterian        Catholic        Methodist        Jewish         
Baptist        Episcopalian        Christian Science        Lutheran         
Atheist        Agnostic        Others: (Please specify)
6. Circle the last school grade you completed:  
(Grade School) (High School) (College) (Grad. School)  
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 Fr. So. Jr. Sr. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. If you are a student presently, circle accordingly:  
(High School) (College) (Grad. School)  
9 10 11 12 Fr. So. Jr. Sr. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. If you are a student presently, what is your major?
9. If no longer a student but were in the past, state your major
10. If you are not a student now, state your occupation
11. Where did you first meet your husband/wife? (Be specific)         
      . When you met, you were a student         
employed        other       .
12. The date you first met your husband/wife was       .
13. How long did you date your husband/wife prior to marriage and no one  
else?        years,        months
14. Length of your engagement (ring or official announcement to marriage  
date).        years,        months
15. At the time of your decision to marry:  
(a) If you were a student, circle accordingly:  
(High School) (College) (Grad. School)  
9 10 11 12 Fr. So. Jr. Sr. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
(b) If you were employed, state your employment
16. Is this your first marriage?         
Yes or No

17. Date of marriage \_\_\_\_\_  
                                    Month           Day           Year
18. Length of marriage \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months
19. Did your parents approve of your marriage?  
    Father: Before \_\_\_\_\_ Later \_\_\_\_\_ Mother: Before \_\_\_\_\_ Later \_\_\_\_\_
20. If you are presently pregnant, what is your expectancy date? \_\_\_\_\_
21. Were your parents born in the U.S.A.? (Check) Yes \_\_\_\_\_ One was \_\_\_\_\_  
    neither was \_\_\_\_\_
22. Your home state is \_\_\_\_\_
23. Type of home community (check)
- \_\_\_\_\_ country (farm)
  - \_\_\_\_\_ small town (less than 2,500 population)
  - \_\_\_\_\_ small city (less than 50,000 population)
  - \_\_\_\_\_ large city (more than 50,000 population)
24. Father's occupation: (check one)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Business Owner
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Professional
  - \_\_\_\_\_ White Collar
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Farm Owner
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Teacher
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Skilled Labor
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Semi-Skilled
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Public Service
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Executive or Managerial

APPENDIX B

INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES

## INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES

### The IAV

Robert E. Bills, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama

#### DIRECTIONS (Adult Form)

This device is a way of helping you to state some of your beliefs about yourself. It tells nothing more than what you want it to say - there are no hidden scores or tricks. It will have value only if you are careful and do your best to give an accurate description of yourself.

On the answer sheet is a list of 49 trait words. You will be asked to answer two questions about yourself for each of these traits. The questions are:

1. How often are you this sort of person?
2. How do you feel about being this way?

On the answer sheet are two lists of 49 trait words and an example. Take each word separately and apply it to yourself by completing the following sentence:

I am a (an) \_\_\_\_\_ person.

The first word in the list is academic, so you would substitute this term in the above sentence. It would read:

I am an academic person.

Then decide how much of the time this statement is like you, that is, is typical or characteristic of you as an individual, and rate yourself on a scale from one to five according to the following key:

1. Seldom, is this like me.
2. Occasionally, is this like me.
3. About half of the time, this is like me.



4. A good deal of the time, this is like me.

5. Most of the time, this is like me.

Select the number beside the phrase that tells how much of the time the statement is like you and insert it in Column I on the answer sheet.

EXAMPLE: beside the term ACADEMIC, a number two is inserted to indicate that, "Occasionally, I am an academic person."

Now go to Column II. Use one of the statements given below to tell how you feel about yourself as described in Column I.

1. I very much dislike being as I am in this respect.

2. I dislike being as I am in this respect.

3. I neither dislike being as I am nor like being as I am in this respect.

4. I like being as I am in this respect.

5. I like very much being as I am in this respect.

You will select the number beside the statement that tells how you feel about the way you are and insert the number in Column II.

EXAMPLE: In Column II beside the term ACADEMIC, number one is inserted to indicate that I dislike very much being as I am in respect to the term, academic. Note that being as I am always refers to the way you described yourself in Column I.

Start with the word ACCEPTABLE and fill in Columns I and II before going on to the next word. There is no time limit. Be honest with yourself so that your description will be a true measure of how you see yourself.

Please fill in the blanks with your age, sex, and date of marriage.

# The IAV Answer Sheet

Sex	_____		Age	_____		Date of Marriage	_____	
	I	II		I	II		I	II
a. academic								
1. acceptable	_____	_____	25. meddlesome	_____	_____			
2. accurate	_____	_____	26. merry	_____	_____			
3. alert	_____	_____	27. mature	_____	_____			
4. ambitious	_____	_____	28. nervous	_____	_____			
5. annoying	_____	_____	29. normal	_____	_____			
6. busy	_____	_____	30. optimistic	_____	_____			
7. calm	_____	_____	31. poised	_____	_____			
8. charming	_____	_____	32. purposeful	_____	_____			
9. clever	_____	_____	33. reasonable	_____	_____			
10. competent	_____	_____	34. reckless	_____	_____			
11. confident	_____	_____	35. responsible	_____	_____			
12. considerate	_____	_____	36. sarcastic	_____	_____			
13. cruel	_____	_____	37. sincere	_____	_____			
14. democratic	_____	_____	38. stable	_____	_____			
15. dependable	_____	_____	39. studious	_____	_____			
16. economical	_____	_____	40. successful	_____	_____			
17. efficient	_____	_____	41. stubborn	_____	_____			
18. fearful	_____	_____	42. tactful	_____	_____			
19. friendly	_____	_____	43. teachable	_____	_____			
20. fashionable	_____	_____	44. useful	_____	_____			
21. helpful	_____	_____	45. worthy	_____	_____			
22. intellectual	_____	_____	46. broad-minded	_____	_____			
23. kind	_____	_____	47. businesslike	_____	_____			
24. logical	_____	_____	48. competitive	_____	_____			
			49. fault-finding	_____	_____			



APPENDIX C

BERGER SCALE OF EXPRESSED ACCEPTANCE OF SELF

## BERGER SCALE OF EXPRESSED ACCEPTANCE OF SELF

### Berger Scale EAOS

Before responding to this instrument, fill in only the following on the answer sheet: Date, Date of birth, Age, Sex.

This is a study of some of your attitudes. Of course, there is no right answer for any statement. The best answer is what you feel is true of yourself.

You are to respond to each question on the answer sheet according to the following scheme:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all true of my- self	Slightly true of myself	About half- way true of myself	Mostly true of myself	True of myself

Remember, the best answer is the one which applies to you.

1. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
2. I don't question my worth as a person, even if I think others do.
3. When people say nice things about me, I find it difficult to believe they really mean it. I think maybe they're kidding me or just aren't being sincere.
4. If there is any criticism or anyone says anything about me, I just can't take it.
5. I don't say much at social affairs because I'm afraid that people will criticize me or laugh if I say the wrong thing.
6. I realize that I'm not living very effectively but I just don't believe I've got it in me to use my energies in better ways.
7. I look on most of the feelings and impulses I have toward people as being quite natural and acceptable.
8. Something inside me just won't let me be satisfied with any job I've done--if it turns out well, I get a very smug feeling that this is beneath me, I shouldn't be satisfied with this, this isn't a fair test.
9. I feel different from other people. I'd like to have the feeling of security that comes from knowing I'm not too different from others.

10. I'm afraid for people that I like to find out what I'm really like, for fear they'd be disappointed in me.
11. I am frequently bothered by feelings of inferiority.
12. Because of other people, I haven't been able to achieve as much as I should have.
13. I am quite shy and self-conscious in social situations.
14. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.
15. I seem to have a real inner strength in handling things. I'm on a pretty solid foundation and it makes me pretty sure of myself.
16. I feel self-conscious when I'm with people who have a superior position to mine in business or at school.
17. I think I'm neurotic or something.
18. Very often I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they won't like me.
19. I feel that I'm a person of worth, on an equal plane with others.
20. I can't avoid feeling guilty about the way I feel toward certain people in my life.
21. I'm not afraid of meeting new people. I feel that I'm a worthwhile person and there's no reason why they should dislike me.
22. I sort of only half-believe in myself.
23. I'm very sensitive. People say things and I have a tendency to think they're criticizing me or insulting me in some way and later when I think of it, they may not have meant anything like that at all.
24. I think I have certain abilities and other people say so too but I wonder if I'm not giving them an importance way beyond what they deserve.
25. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future.
26. I guess I put on a show to impress people. I know I'm not the person I pretend to be.
27. I do not worry or condemn myself if other people pass judgment against me.
28. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal.

29. When I'm in a group I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong things.
30. I have a tendency to sidestep my problems.
31. Even when people do think well of me, I feel sort of guilty because I know I must be fooling them--that if I were really to be myself, they wouldn't think well of me.
32. I feel that I'm on the same level as other people and that helps to establish good relations with them.
33. I feel that people are apt to react differently to me than they would normally react to other people.
34. I live too much by other peoples' standards.
35. When I have to address a group, I get self-conscious and have difficulty in saying things well.
36. If I didn't always have such hard luck, I'd accomplish much more than I have.

APPENDIX D  
LETTER TO RESPONDENTS



LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY East Lansing  
College of Education

May, 1962

Dear Mr. and Mrs.

I am writing to you to seek your cooperation in participating in a study that is currently being carried out with married couples at Michigan State University. The focus of this study is to obtain information about the kinds of people who have been married recently. It is therefore important to have the assistance of both the husband and wife.

I am mindful of the fact that persons are often participants in a study without later being given the findings of the study to which they have contributed. It is, however, my intention to share the results with you when they are available in the summer of 1962. At that time I will mail a summary of the conclusions to you.

The total time required to respond to some brief questionnaires will not exceed 90 minutes per couple. The forms can be delivered to you at your home at your convenience. A member of our research team, Mr. Marvin Goodman, will be contacting you on the telephone shortly in order to arrange a time that is appropriate to your weekly schedule. Please be assured of the fact that participants will remain completely anonymous and to insure the latter you will be asked not to indicate your name, address, telephone, etc., on any of the written material.

Your contribution to this project is both welcomed and sincerely appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

William W. Farquhar  
Associate Professor

WWF/ml



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