

A PILOT STUDY OF PREDICTION OF MARRIAGE
FOR ENGAGED COUPLES

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ABSTRACT

A PILOT STUDY OF PREDICTION OF MARRIAGE FOR ENGAGED COUPLES

by Leighton E. Harrell, Jr.

The purpose of this study was to attempt to determine if at the time of engagement it could be predicted that a couple would actually become married.

A total of 346 couples agreed to participate in the study and they were mailed the test instruments. One hundred and eighty-six couples returned the test instruments. Of this total, 11 couples were dropped from the study which made the final sample total 175 couples.

A follow-up was done on the couples who did not return the instruments to determine if any had broken their engagements. Sixty-six couples responded to the follow-up with only 3 couples reporting broken engagements. The other couples reported that they had married as they had originally planned.

The Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory and Carson's Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment were the instruments used in this study. The instruments were mailed to the couples and they returned the instruments by mail. The couples were instructed to take the tests independently of each other.

A 2 x 4 cell was constructed for the comparison of the high and low scores on both instruments. The chi-square statistic was used to make these comparisons. Secondly, the scores of each instrument were grouped according to whether the couples married or broke their engagement. The differences were studied through the use of the t-test.

The Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory did not prove to be a predictor of marriage. It was constructed on an expectancy table basis and apparently does not adequately deal with the problem of interpersonal relationships. Carson's Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment did indicate that it has a possibility for prediction purposes. The items in this scale are based on interpersonal relationships and provide a better measure of the dynamics that exist in interpersonal relations.

A second finding indicated that the relationships between couples who are students and couples who are separated by military service are apt to be unstable. The highest rate of broken engagements were in these two groups.

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ENGAGED COUPLES

By
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	
LIST OF FIGURES	
LIST OF APPENDICES	
Chapter	
I. THE PROBLEM.	1
Background of Engagement	2
Assumption of Romantic Love.	3
Marriage in Non-American Cultures	3
Definition of Engagement	6
Going Steady	7
Church Views on Engagement.	10
Length of Engagement.	10
Class and Engagement.	11
Functions of Engagement.	12
Problems of Engagement	14
Broken Engagements	15
Prediction of Marriage	16
Definitions of Terms.	18
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.	20
Problems of Prediction	20
Problems of Adjustment	22
Problems of Success or Failure	24
Studies of Marital Prediction.	28
Burgess and Cottrell's Study	31
Terman's Studies	36
Terman and Oden's Study.	40
Locke's Study	42
Karlssen's Study	44
Burgess and Wallin Study	45
Summary	48
III. DESIGN OF THE STUDY	49
Purpose of the Study.	49
Variables	49

Chapter	Page
Limitation of the Study.	50
Selection of the Original Sample. .	50
Selection of the Final Sample. . .	52
Follow-up of the Non-returned Inventories	52
Determination of Marital Status . . .	52
The Hypotheses.	53
Statistical Analysis.	55
Summary	55
IV. METHODS AND PROCEDURES	57
Instrumentation	57
Description of the Final Sample . . .	60
Original Sample	60
Final Sample	62
Source for the Final Sample . . .	63
Occupations of the Sample . . .	64
Follow-up	64
Administration of the Instruments . .	67
Summary	67
V. ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS	69
Analysis of Primary Null Hypothesis. .	69
Hypothesis I	70
Hypothesis II	71
Hypothesis III.	72
Courtship Patterns	72
Additional Analysis	74
Age Distribution	77
Summary	77
VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	79
Summary	79
The Problem.	79
The Design	80
Methods and Procedures	81
Limitations of the Study	82
Conclusions.	82
Recommendations for Future Research. .	84
APPENDICES.	85
REFERENCES.	117

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Relationship Between the Prediction Scores and Marriage Adjustment Scores . . .	29
2. Geographical Composition of the Original Sample	53
3. Geographical Composition of the Final Sample	54
4. Sources of Sample	54
5. Occupations of Couples in Broken Engagements	55
6. Occupations of Couples Who Married . . .	56
7. Reasons Tests Were Returned.	57
8. Analysis of Primary Null Hypothesis . . .	60
9. Courtship Patterns.	62
10. Comparison of Engagement Success Scores. .	62
11. Total Agreement Scores	63
12. Configural Score Scores	63
13. Significant Total Agreement Scores . . .	64
14. Significant Configural Scoring Scores . .	64

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Design for Analysis of Data,	46

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Page
A. Formula and Statistics for Courtship Patterns, Null Hypothesis and Selection of Data for Null Hypothesis	86
B. Statistical Summary of Comparison of Engagement Success Inventory Scales	89
C. Statistical Summary of Comparison of Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment Scores. .	91
D. Distribution of Ages	95
E. Instruction Sheet for Instruments, Copies of Instruments, Copies of Letters Sent to Sample	96

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Marriage is a major concern of every engaged couple. Yet when an engaged couple attempts to find a test for the prediction of marriage actually occurring, they only find tests which predict marital happiness. There are none for marriage prediction. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to determine if the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory (Burgess and Wallin, 1954) can be used at the time of engagement or shortly thereafter to predict accurately whether or not marriage will take place. This is a new approach, as the past work done with engaged couples has focused on predicting marital happiness. Previous approaches have been channeled in two directions. The first approach attempted to predict marital happiness from the time of engagement. The second approach started with married couples and looked backward from the marriage into the prior engagement period. These approaches, which began with the engagement and attempted to predict marital happiness, made it possible to rule out many of the extraneous factors that may have affected prior studies. Some of the factors that could have influenced the studies,

are age, education, location of samples, financial status, parental roles and parental expectations, and the personality interaction during the engagement. In the present study it is proposed that a prediction of the occurrence of marriage can be made at the time of the engagement by the use of the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory. The only factor used will be the score of the Inventory.

A second purpose of this study is to determine if Carson's Issues of Marital Adjustment (Carson, 1961) can be used also at the time of engagement as a predictor of the occurrence of marriage. Since this scale focuses on the various areas of interaction within a marriage, another portion will be concerned with determining if potential trouble spots in the couple's relationship can be located prior to the marriage. If this can be achieved, pre-marital counseling can be made more effective.

Background of Engagement

To understand engagement, it is necessary to understand its background as it applies to the American culture. In order to facilitate this understanding, contrasting views of engagement and its purposes will be presented from other cultures. The term engagement which is used throughout the study will be defined. The length of an engagement period and its functions will be discussed. The relationship of social class to engagement will be explored.

Assumption of Romantic Love

It is assumed that the engagements to be studied are based upon romantic love and individual choice. The American middle-class view of engagement often overlooks the fact that this assumption does not hold true in other cultures. Truxal and Merrill maintain this viewpoint as stated in the following quotation:

Americans are not the first people in history faced with the necessity of getting along with each other in marriage. But Americans are unique in the excessive attention which they give to the hedonistic satisfaction deriving from courtship and marriage...Romance is also an inescapable element in courtship and the search for a mate is conducted in an atmosphere heavily impregnated with romantic expectations. The search for happiness, which is the principal motive for courtship and marriage, is itself defined in terms of criteria that are essentially romantic. Courtship that is not based upon romance is considered undesirable and even faintly immoral, as if the prospective spouses were motivated by sordid considerations (Truxal and Merrill, 1953, pp. 129-134).

Marriage in Non-American Cultures

The attitude of worship-like awe of romantic love is absent from most of the other cultures around the world (Winch, 1958, Chs. 2 and 14). For example, the traditional Japanese culture does not allow the couple to voice any opinion in the entire matter of the marriage arrangement. The following quotations illustrate this. The first quotation presents a view of the marriage from the standpoint of the young bride.

I had no thought of asking, 'Who is it?' I did not think of my engagement as a personal matter at all. It was a family affair. Like every Japanese girl I had known from babyhood that sometime, as a matter of course, I should marry, but that was a far necessity to be considered when the time came. I did not look forward to it. I did not dread it. I did not think of it at all. The fact that I was thirteen had nothing to do with it. That was the attitude of all girls (Winch and McGinnis, 1954, pp. 45-46).

The second quotation presents an overview of the way the Japanese marriage viewed and how the engagements begins.

Marriage in Japan, as in France, is primarily a family matter and marriages are made on earth to insure the family in its proper social class. . . . In accordance with this situation whereby the social and economic functions of marriage so far outweigh matters of mere personal fancy, the individual does not take the initiative but rather waits his family's decision as to a proper spouse. Since the joining of two families in marriage involves many delicate status, great reliance is placed on a go-between or nakado (Winch and McGinnis, 1954, p. 55).

A result of this system is to prohibit those engaged in clandestine affairs from marrying, since it is difficult to obtain a nakado¹ to function for the couple. This difficulty occurs because the role of the nakado has been superceded to a larger extent by the affair. Thus it is found that love is inconsistent with the Japanese form of marriage. Since World War II this attitude has begun to change, and now there exists more opportunity for freedom of expression in mate selection. The marriage that took place between the Crown Prince and a commoner is an example of this change.

¹A go-between for families in selection of mates for children.

Queen and Adams (1952) studied families in eleven cultural and historical settings and found that romantic love as a basis for marriage was found only in the United States and Canada. They further pointed out that the marriages of the early New England culture and the old traditional Southern culture followed the old patterns of England, in which the family selected the mate. They also found that the idea of romantic love is still not a clearcut basis for marriage in much of the present-day American culture. Their work would indicate that what is generally considered to be a traditional part of the American culture is not so in reality.

As it has been pointed out earlier, engagement has not always been as meaningful as in present day American culture. In the early Roman culture formal betrothal was not required but was considered good form. This betrothal was an agreement between the fathers of the couple but not an agreement between the bride and groom. The early Hebrew society considered betrothal to be the time that the marriage actually began. A ceremony of betrothal was held, and the wedding ceremony that followed at a later time was either omitted or considered to be anti-climatic. As time passed, this custom changed, and the betrothal was followed immediately by the nuptial ceremony. Later the

importance of the betrothal declined and the wedding gained importance. The concept of a specific time limit set up by law originated in early New England when the Connecticut law of 1640 declared there must be an eight-day waiting period between engagement and marriage. Another law stated that there must be publication of intentions to marry (Queen and Adams, 1952). The plymouth colony required that "banns" be read three times in meetings or posted at least fifteen days in a public place.

Definition of Engagement

With romantic love seemingly so well integrated into the American way of life and almost becoming its symbol, it should be a fairly easy task to define engagement, its limits, and its functions. However, the literature on engagement provides confusing definitions as well as confusing attitudes. For example, West (1956) in his study of Plainville, U.S.A., discovered that the engagement period was kept secret until the marriage. The reasons for the secrecy are obscure and no one seems to be able to give its origin. One possible explanation lies in the almost total isolation of the town from the rest of the country. In present day America it is rather suprising to find this attitude.

Confusion arises when definitions of courtship and engagement are attempted. Courtship seems to lead into engagement, but there is no prescribed time interval for either period. Also the functions of each period are not clearly defined. Lowrie (1951) attempted to bring order out of chaos as far as terms and concepts were concerned. He discussed the then-current theories of dating and their relationship to the whole pattern of courtship as it was actually practiced. He pointed out that confusion existed because of the use of ambiguous terms. He showed further that confusion arose because the periods of time for a specific phase of courtship and engagement vary from couple to couple. Lowrie suggested that new definitions for courtship, engagement, and time intervals were necessary.

Going Steady

Today it is generally accepted that in courtship development the couple has a period of going steady before the engagement is announced. Recently it seems that the period of going steady has to some extent taken over some of the engagement functions. The result has caused engagement, a separate entity, to lose some of its importance. Kohn, as quoted in Becker and Hill, states the dilemma caused by such ambiguity.

From the foregoing it is obvious that a great deal of ambiguity and haziness surrounds not only the act of becoming engaged, but the very state of becoming engaged: what does it mean to be engaged? Perhaps no situation in any society is ever completely defined by the symbols which related to it, but the engagement situation in our society is one which is left almost completely undefined by its symbols. The symbols are commonly the wearing of a ring, or a fraternity pin, the announcement of engagement at a party, and in the newspaper, exclusive courtship over a long period of time, the words I love you. Will you marry me? and so on. The significance or meaning of engagement however, is not at all standardized or universal (Becker and Hill, 1955, p. 276).

A young man in a college town diner had this to say about engagement:

All an engagement ring does is to let you qualify for the finals. It's like a learner's permit...They ought to be standardized and be all alike. They all mean the same thing. An engagement is just the first round. Or maybe the second (Bossard, 1958).

A study of two thousand Catholic couples in the Chicago area indicated this general problem. Thirty-six percent of the couples stated that they had no engagement at all. The author of the study also stated that he had trouble with the definition of engagement (Thomas, 1956, Ch. 7).

This confusion has been further compounded by the new emphasis placed on going steady at the high school level and even, as recent surveys show, at the lower school levels. One of the results of this going steady at an earlier age has been to bring about earlier marriages.

This is undoubtedly partially due to pre-marital pregnancy. These early marriages eliminate the engagement period entirely. The new shift in behavior has caused such concern that some schools, mainly Roman Catholic, have issued bans against going steady in high school.

A new trend on the college campus has been added to that of going steady. This new trend is the growing practice of replacing the engagement ring with the fraternity pin. Without a doubt, this practice has underlying economic factors, because it is easier to return a fraternity pin and terminate this kind of relationship. Returning a fraternity pin does not cause the emotional impact that is caused by returning the engagement ring. Two separate surveys were conducted by this author to verify the use of the fraternity pin as a substitute for the engagement ring. The first survey, conducted at the Merrill-Palmer Institute in Detroit, Michigan, was made of girls from about sixty colleges and universities in the United States. The second survey of about two hundred girls was conducted on the campus of Indiana State College, Pennsylvania. Both surveys indicated that the trend of substituting a fraternity pin for an engagement ring was becoming a collegiate trend.

Church Views on Engagement

Both the Protestant and the Roman Catholic Churches have taken the stand that engagement is usually morally binding on the couple. Several denominations have gone further than this. In the beginning of the Twentieth Century, the Lutheran Church made it clear that rightful engagement was tantamount to a consummated marriage. This view was carried to such an extent that it was not uncommon to dismiss from Lutheran seminaries ministerial candidates who had broken an engagement. Breaking of the engagement was considered to be the same as getting a divorce. The Roman Catholic Church has not gone to such an extreme although it treats engagement seriously. It feels that an engagement should be broken only for grave reasons, such as unfaithfulness and physical cruelty. The views of other churches lie between the idea of total commitment and the idea that engagement is a testing period of adjustment (Martinson, 1950, p. 192).

Length of Engagement

Where formal engagement is still observed, the length of the engagement period is by no means standard. It varies from two weeks or less to two years or more. Even those who have written in the field of courtship and marriage cannot agree on a desirable standard length of the engagement period. One author (Martinson, 1960, p. 184) suggests that the engagement period should be very brief. He would

not have any engagement over a year in duration because he feels that long engagements will probably be broken owing to strain and stress. In contrast to his view, Burgess and Wallin (1954) state that they favor a longer period of time because it is necessary for the process of becoming acquainted. Their study shows that those who had longer periods of acquaintanceship during the engagement had more successful marriages.

Class and Engagement

Engagement seems to be a practice of the middle and upper classes. Sociologist Earl Koos has found that marked differences in the accepted meaning of the engagement period exist from one social class to another. Gathering his facts from 200 newlywed couples, 100 of whom were middle-class and 100 of working-class status, he found that, in two out of every three cases among his middle class couples, both understood that the engagement could be broken if the relationship proved unsatisfactory, while one out of every seven of the working class couples did so (Bossard, 1958). The lower class of the American culture does not seem to become engaged. Through a social agency in Detroit, a limited survey was conducted in a lower-economic Negro area to test this statement.

The general conclusion appears to verify a trend of non-engagement at least in the lower class Negro segment of our society.

More confusion appears when engagement before re-marriage is studied because patterns here are even less consistent.

Then it can be asked, "Is romantic love with its accompanying engagement a valid symbol of the total American culture?" On the basis of the evidence presented, the answer would be, "No." If one class does not consistently use engagement and other classes are confused as to its purpose, then the phenomena of the engagement period is not typical of the total American culture. This would indicate that the American culture has taken a false position concerning the assumption that the engagement period is a requisite part of the romantic pattern. This is not to deny the assumed need for engagement and the function that it serves, but rather to say that it should be viewed in its proper perspective.

Functions of Engagement

If engagement is so vague in meaning the question arises, "Why get engaged?" The answer is that those who become engaged find that it has very definite functions, as the following quotation suggests.

Not that its importance is any less today, for nearly all authorities in the field of marriage agree that the personal and matrimonial significance of the engagement period has increased in recent years and may increase even further. But its purpose has changed. Instead of being a formal waiting period to permit the completion of certain final necessary arrangements before the performance of the marriage ceremony, the present engagement is more a trying-out or preparatory period for the realities and responsibilities of life (Bossard, 1958).

Following this statement Bossard lists a number of problems that may be met within this preparatory period.

Becker and Hill (1955, pp. 280-281) suggest that the purpose of engagement is to meet several basic human needs which they have traced through a group of societies ranging from the Manu of New Guinea to groups in China, Germany and the United States. These needs are the following: group sanction and approval in the process of moving from youth to adulthood and helping the individual to move from single irresponsibility to married responsibility.

In America, most books on marriage and the family tend to look at the functions of engagement and its relationship to marriage from the middle-class point of view. Engagement is viewed as the final stepping-stone to marriage as it signifies a mutual understanding of intent to marry. Its general functions are to pair

the couple off in the eyes of the public, to provide additional time for the deepening of understanding each other, to provide an opportunity to learn to share all phases of life, to further establish patterns of giving and taking and to provide more time for the more serious planning of the future. In general it can be stated that the engagement period provides both partners the opportunity to explore, in a deeper sense, the meaning of marriage.

Problems of Engagement

Engagement, a period of compromise and adjustment can have many problems. One of the main problems is caused by the increased closeness of the couple. This problem brings about the question of how much intimacy should be allowed at this time in the relationship. Kinsey (1953, Ch. 8) reports that 46 per cent of the women in his sample had pre-marital coitus only with their intended husband. It usually took place with a relatively short period (a year or less) before marriage. He further stated that about 92 per cent of the male sample had experienced promiscuous pre-marital coitus. He makes the following generalizations.

If for no other reason, it is worth holding the sexual interest in partial abeyance until they are sure that they have explored together the many other important areas of life, coming to understand how each other feels and some of the whys, as well as developing techniques of problem solving which come to their rescue in later marital conflicts. (Rutledge, 1959).

Sexual maturity depends not only on freedom to respond but on the ability to interact with another person on an adult level. The process of facing up to the challenge which this complex area presents can do much to strengthen the total partnership. So crux of the matter is the couple's willingness to share their thoughts and to arrive at a mutual agreement about the physical expression of their love (Blood, 1955, p. 146).

Other problems which seem to vary in intensity from couple to couple include the following: methods of dealing with in-laws; feelings of doubt about the choice of the mate selected; questions about conventionality; economic planning; personal friendships; plans for the wedding; and the final confessions of the past life (Blood, 1955, pp. 179-182). Additional problems that may beset the couple are recreational matters, philosophies of life, plans for marriage, the length of the engagement, inability to compromise, and problems arising from previous engagements (Burgess and Wallin, 1954, pp. 150-153).

Broken Engagements

Not all engagements lead to marriage. Some are broken for a number of reasons. Various studies indicate that from one-third to one-half of all engagements are broken in the United States.

One inevitable result of this, of course, is a goodly number of broken engagements, a fact that recent investigations have clearly shown. In research covering 1,000 engaged couples, Ernest Burgess and Paul Wallin found, that at the time of their participation in their study, 24% of the

men and 36% of the women reported earlier engagements that had been broken. In addition, 15% of the couples subsequently broke their engagements, so that by the close of the study, almost 2/5 of the men and more than 1/2 of the women reported broken engagements (Bossard, 1958).

Reasons for broken engagements are many: long separations of the couple, slight emotional attachments, parental opposition, differences in background and viewpoints, personality factors and interests in careers. It is generally concluded that broken engagements can serve a useful function in spite of the stress and strain that usually accompany the breaking-up.

Our general conclusion was that broken engagements, which drew strong disapproval in the past, perform a useful function in this modern day... The freedom of young people to end unsatisfactory betrothal prevents marriages which almost certainly end in divorce. Further increase in broken engagements might well result in a decrease in the divorce rate (Burgess and Wallin, 1954, p. 224).

It should be noted that no systematic studies of factors or variables involved in broken engagements were found during a search of the literature.

Prediction of Marriage

In studying the relationship of the engagement period to marriage, the question arises, "Can the event of marriage, marital adjustment, or marital success be predicted at the time of engagement?" Many studies can be found that deal with predictions of marital success and marital adjustment, but none deal with the prediction of the occurrence of

marriage. Studies by Burgess and Cottrell and Terman show that the best adjusted couples were those who had been engaged two years or more (Becker and Hill, 1955, p. 294). A later study by Burgess and Wallin (1954, pp. 244-249) lowered this period to nine months. They also stated that the score on their Engagement Success Inventory had the highest correlation with the actual success of the marriage than any of the other pre-marital factors that were studied. They state that this instrument is the best single instrument for the prediction of success in marriage.

Ellis (1948, pp. 710-718) stated that there were no adequate tests available for this purpose. He analyzed the early Terman Scale, the Burgess and Cottrell work, and the Adam's work showing their weakness and unsuitability for predicting marital happiness.

Winch used a portion of the Terman study and a part of the Burgess and Wallin study to see if any relationship existed between adjustment in marriages and responses of a "neurotic order" (Landis and Landis, 1952, pp. 121-127). His general conclusion was that personality factors play an important part in marital happiness and success. Furthermore, he stated that this factor can be determined in the engagement period.

All authors agree that the prediction of marital success at the time of engagement is possible although the precise method to be used is not certain. These predictions are based upon the assumption that marriage will take place. This is not a valid assumption. It cannot be assumed that marriage will occur until it actually takes place. Therefore, any prediction must begin by first determining the probability of the marriage occurring. It is for this reason that this study has been undertaken. Some type of test must be developed that will aid in predicting the probability of the marriage actually occurring. Also, a test must be developed that can help locate potential trouble areas that could eventually lead to divorce once the marriage has occurred. The purpose of this research is to investigate both areas.

Definition of Terms

Engagement period	The period between the official announcement of the engagement by a newspaper or parties and the wearing of a ring and the actual occurrence of the marriage.
Marriage	The period of time following the actual marriage ceremony.
Nakado	A go-between for Japanese families in selection of proper mates for children.

Romantic love

Idealistic concept of the relationship between man and woman based on the glorification of strengths and the denial of the weakness of the loved object.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Problems of Prediction

The question of prediction and inference about marital adjustment and marital success from the time of engagement has been one of much study. Bruggess and Locke (1945) listed ten studies that have been done in this area prior to 1945. Luckey (1964) in the Journal of Home Economics listed a bibliography of thirty references dealing with various studies about the measurement of marital satisfaction. As these above references are examined, no study pertaining to the prediction of marriage can be found. A further search of the literature did not reveal any studies in the area of prediction of marriage.

Kirkpatrick (1963, pp. 394-398) raised a pertinent question in regard to an evaluation of these studies. He stated that a distinction must be made between prediction, inference, and forecasting.

Inference and forecasting are often confused when the term "prediction" is employed. Some "prediction" research in the marriage field tends to ignore goals and applications. A coefficient of correlation is not an end in itself, but rather a means to understanding, to precise inference, to forecasting, and



perhaps to control of human behavior to some useful end (Kirkpatrick, 1963, p. 397).

It is not easy to be judicious in regard to the present reality and the future prospect. Couples should not be counseled in terms of present forecasting scores unless they are able to take the evidence with full awareness of the limitations of the scores, especially in the middle of the score range. If marriage is recognized as still a gamble, it is proper to peek at the cards dimly lightened by present scientific knowledge (Kirkpatrick, 1963, pp. 404-405).

He states further that some needed distinctions should be made if future studies of marital success are to have meaning in terms of scientific maturity.

3. There is a difference between a success and a profile of success.

7. Above all, there should be a distinction between the adjustment of the individual in marriages and the adjustment inherent in a relationship involving two particular persons in a process of dynamic interaction (Kirkpatrick, 1963, p. 403).

Charles Bowerman in his introduction of the prediction studies as quoted in the Handbook of Marriage and the Family (Christensen, 1964, pp. 215-217) discusses the entire nature and the problem of prediction in the studies of marital adjustment.

It is assumed that if relationships can be found such (independent) variable and later success in marriage, the variables can be used to predict success. Ideally, the investigator would like to find predictive variables that helped him explain why some marriages turned out more successfully

than others. It has been much easier, however, to find relationships than to be able to explain why they occur (Christensen, 1964, p. 216).

Simpson (1960, pp. 213-228) criticized the total approach used in attempting to predict marital success or marital adjustment. He stated that "such tests as have been given are being given, with their lack of probing in depth and their avoidance of or inability to include unconscious factors, offer no hope that this is a promising field of investigation." He further stated that correlation scores or expectancy tables such as those used by Burgess and Wallin failed to consider the dynamic relationship between individuals. Therefore they were of no value in the prediction of marital success or marital adjustment.

Therefore estimates of marital success based on premarital scores are so broad as to be practically worthless on their own terms. (Simpson, 1960, p. 220).

Problems of Adjustment

A second problem is the determination of marital adjustment. Burgess and Locke (1945, p. 451) stated that the attempt to predict success or failure in marital adjustment followed the attempt to predict personal adjustment in other areas of human behavior. The emphasis was placed on individual predictive items which are based upon certain factors present in the individual prior to his marriage.

The basic assumption in predicting human adjustment is that the personality characteristics and past behavior of the person control his future conduct. The unique feature of the prediction is, therefore, the organization and analysis of past experiences of persons in a particular field and the use of this organized information to predict the probable future behavior of others. The outstanding conclusion of marital adjustment studies already completed or now in progress is that success or failure in marriage may be predicted before marriage with some degree of probability (Burgess and Locke, 1945, p. 451).

Waller (1951, p. 362) suggested that the concept of adjustment used today is a normative concept. This concept of adjustment implies that the individual has a working relationship with reality, adulthood, and the expectations of others as well as fulfilling the prevailing moral concepts of the culture. Current studies of this concept of adjustment are varied and one can make his choice of variables according to the particular study that he may have at hand.

Waller further suggested that a theory of developmental adjustment might have more meaning. By this he meant that the individual grows both within the marriage and within his relationship to the partner of the marriage. When the approach based upon the dynamic interaction of the marriage partners with individual growth being an active factor is used, adjustment as a concept has a real meaning when it is discussed. Certainly it offers more than a concept of adjustment based on expectancy tables or the effects of environmental factors upon either the individual or the couple.

Luckey (1964) also pointed out the same problem. She stated that permanence was only criterion with a clear, operational definition. In contrast to this, the term adjustment is broad and is used as a vague classification.

Most studies choosing the term adjustment have not used a single, undefined standard but have combined a variety of factors which when taken together make for 'adjustment'. (Luckey, 1964, p. 593).

In an attempt to overcome this vagueness, the term satisfaction has been introduced. Hamilton in 1929 was the first to use this term. Others who have used the term satisfaction in their work in prediction of marital satisfaction have been Jesse Barnard, Burgess and Cottrell, Terman, and later Burgess and Wallin.

Problems of Success or Failure

A third problem in the prediction of marital success is the determination of what is a successful marriage. This is generally studied under the term "marital happiness." A large number of variables pertaining to marital happiness have been studied. Still present is the previously raised problem of how one can predict the success of a venture involving interaction between two persons when the prediction is based upon predictive items of individual behavior.

Eastmen (1958) in a study on the relationship between marital happiness and self-acceptance based his concept on the theory that affective and behavioral consequences are a function of one's perceptions. His main findings was self-acceptance of husbands, wives, and both mates was

significantly correlated ($p = .01$) with marital happiness. Secondly, he found that wives influence their husband's marital happiness regardless of their own marital happiness. This second finding raises the question, "Is self-acceptance the only variable working in this study?" The study suggests that the interaction between husband and wife is at work. Self-acceptance prior to marriage cannot determine the result of marital interaction between husband and wife.

Corsini (1956, pp. 327-332) theorized that marriage is a function of behavioral interaction of couples which in turn is determined by social perceptions. If the perception can be understood, then behavioral and affective consequences may be predicted. He postulated the following three hypotheses:

Hypothesis I: Happiness in marriage is a function of the understanding of the mate's self and other: It is tested by the correlation between self and mate's self; self and mate's other, mate's self and mate's other.

Hypothesis II: Understanding between husband and wife is a function of the degree of similarity between the selves: It is tested by the determination of whether understanding of mate's self and understanding of mate's other are functions of similarity of self perception.

Hypothesis III: Happiness in marriage is related to the similarity of the selves of the partners: It is tested by the difference in the correlation of husband's self perception and wife's self perception.

In the study based upon these hypotheses, Corsini found that hypothesis I and II were not supported. Hypothesis III was found to be significant at the .01 level.

He, therefore, made the following interpretations:

(1) people who are similar are more likely to be happier in marriage than people who are dissimilar and (2) people who are happily married tend to become similar with respect to self-perception.

Corsini's study was conducted with a sample of twenty married students at the University of Chicago. Questions that arose concerning this study were (1) Since this study was conducted after the couple was married, was there any halo effect present? (2) How can predictive objective items and theory be formulated from a subjective answer type of study? (3) What was done to rule out socially acceptable answers? (4) How much do one's own needs influence the perception of one's mate, thereby introducing an uncontrolled variable into the study?



Waller (1951) pointed out five distinct limitations that can be found in most of the studies that have been done:

- (1) Because of the criteria used, the studies "stack the cards" in favor of conventionality and conservatism.
- (2) The factors asserted to be the most highly associated with success in marriage are unconfirmed for the most by more than two or three studies and are questioned by other studies.
- (3) The factors, if valid, are probably valid only for the early years of marriage.
- (4) The findings are limited in application to the white, urban, middle class from which they are drawn.
- (5) Roughly 75 per cent of the factors that count for marital success are left unaccounted for (p. 369).

He further states:

A remediable limitation of the marriage studies to date is that they have been actuarially focused, reaching prematurely into the realm of prediction, to the net detriment of understanding how actual marriage pairs, who succeed in marriage, achieve success. They fail to translate traits and factors into mechanisms and processes of marriage adjustment to show how these operate in a given marriage situation (Waller and Hill, 1951, p. 369).

Kirkpatrick (1963, pp. 398-401) discussed marital success at great length and pointed out many ways in which it may be determined. Kirkpatrick and Waller both pointed out that a criteria which might be successful in prediction of early marital success does not necessarily hold true after a marriage has been developed over a period

of time. The interaction between marriage partners changes the accuracy of the prediction as it is impossible to predict the status of the marriage after a period of compromise and adjustment has taken place.

Studies of Marital Prediction

Burgess and Locke (1945, pp. 451-480) listed ten studies which have investigated predictions of marital happiness or marital success from engagement. They are as follows:

1. Hornell Hart and Wilmer Shields (1926, pp. 403-407) investigated the relationship of age at marriage to happiness in marriage. On the basis of comparing records in the Marriage License Bureau with those of cases in Domestic Relations Court in Philadelphia, they concluded that a high proportion of marriages in which the men were under twenty-four and the women were under twenty-one turned out to be unhappy. The optimum age for marriage was twenty-nine for men and twenty-four for women.

These conclusions were attacked by Paul Popenoe on a number of grounds, the most important one being the question of whether or not a fair comparison could be made between a sample of all marriages as represented by the marriage license group and a highly selected group from the Domestic Relations Court (Burgess and Locke, 1954, p. 456).

2. Katharine Davis (1929) studied one thousand married women. She found the marriages to be happier where the wife had more than a high school education, was healthy

at the time of marriage, and had no sexual relations or petting before marriage.

3. Gilbert Hamilton (1929) found the following four items to be significant for marital satisfaction: (a) the wife has a brother or brothers, (b) the spouses have equal education, (c) the wife physically resembles the husband's mother, (d) there have been no pre-marital relations.

4. Jesse Bernard (1934, p. 58) found that marriages are more satisfactory to husbands when they are older than the wife by zero to ten years and to the wife when she is younger than the husband by zero to five years.

The above finding has been duplicated in recent studies on age at the time of marriage. The Bureau of Census and the National Life Institute of Insurance found that in the United States husbands on the average are three years older than their wives at the time of marriage.

5. Kirkpatrick (1937) found in his study that the wife is better adjusted in marriage if she has had no greater intimacy with one parent than the other. The husband is happier if before the marriage he has had neither excess nor deficiency of women friends.

6. Paul Popenoe (1938) discovered that couples who do not elope are happier than the couples who do elope.

7. Paul Popenoe (1937) found that couples who rate their parents' marriages as happy are happier than those who rate their parents' marriages as unhappy.

8. Clarence Schroeder (1963) found seven items that had positive statistical correlation with marital success. These are as follows: (a) parent's marriage reported happier than the average, (b) parents not divorced or separated, (c) sex instructions from mother or from books, (d) education beyond high school, (e) attendance at church three or more times a month, (f) attendance at Sunday School beyond eighteen years of age, (g) reared in country or small town.

9. Lewis Symthe (1936) located twenty background items indicative of marital adjustment.

10. Edith Williams (1938) in an unpublished doctoral thesis at Cornell University found that such items as similar cultural background, happiness of parent's marriage, and approval of marriage by the parents were important factors in the marital success. Her findings are similar to those of Burgess and Cottrell (1939) which will be discussed later.

The above studies represent pioneer efforts in the field of marital success prediction. Most were concerned with one or two variables which might provide some insight into marital adjustment. The results provided a few guide lines for prediction, but these studies did not provide a large range of variables from which to predict marital adjustment or success.

The six major studies which have contributed to the prediction of marital adjustment and success will now be reviewed. These are summarized quite extensively in the Handbook of Marriage and the Family, (Christensen, 1964) and this will be used as the basis for this section of the review.

Burgess and Cottrell's Study

The first study was conducted by Burgess and Cottrell (1939). They stated that the idea for this study came from an earlier prediction study. An attempt had been made in 1929 to determine whether or not a man released from prison would succeed or fail when placed on parole. Burgess and Cottrell conceived the idea of applying similar methods to other fields of human conduct. Thus the idea of predicting success or failure in marriage was begun. It was realized that this test would be more difficult since the study involved not only one person but rather the interaction of two persons. Another problem that was realized was that there was no method to set the pattern for the research. The method had to be devised before the investigation could be begun.

The sample used in this study was narrowed to 526 persons. They were described as "a roughly homogeneous,

young, preponderantly non-neurotic, middle-class, native white American, urban group" (Burgess and Cottrell, 1939, p. 29). The criterion of success in marriage for this study was the Index of Marital Adjustment. This Index was constructed by the investigators with this basic assumption:

Common-sense estimates of how well or how poorly people are adjusted are made on the basis of certain symptoms or indications of their feelings and attitudes towards their mates and their marriages (Burgess and Cottrell, 1939, p. 47).

The researchers developed 27 individual items classified under five headings, "agreements and disagreements," "common interests and activities," "demonstration of affection and mutual confiding," "dissatisfaction with marriage," and "feelings of isolation and unhappiness" (Burgess and Cottrell, 1939, p. 57). The items were scored on the basis of every possible response. From a contingency table scores of each item were then weighed in regard to their relationship to a question which asked for an appraisal of the marriage as happy or unhappy.

At this point some question could be raised about the validity of using happiness as a criterion scale. The authors stated that this question had been recognized and that they had checked its reliability and found that happiness could be used reliably as a criterion.

The mean adjustment score of the 526 couples was 140.8 and the standard deviation was 38.8. The curve was skewed in the direction of unhappiness. The tetrachoric correlation between adjustment scores and happiness was .92. It was tested on a new sample of 68 cases and this correlation was .95.

Kirkpatrick (1963, p. 379) states that this relationship is not surprising in that the total scores of the subjects correlated highly with self-ratings of marital happiness and the item weights were assigned on the basis of such correlation.

In checking validity, it was found that the mean of the scores of the 61 couples who were divorced plus 65 separated couples was 91 as contrasted to the mean of 116 for 60 couples who had only contemplated divorce and 151 for the remainder of the sample who had contemplated neither divorce nor separation.

After the above part of the study had been completed, an attempt was made to find items or areas which could be used for prediction of marital adjustment. Five factors were accounted for:

1. Impress of cultural background
2. Psychogenic background
3. Social type
4. Economic Role
5. Response patterns

The prediction score was derived from weighted items under each of these areas. It was then correlated with marital adjustment scores and a product-moment correlation of .51 was obtained. This is significant at the .01 level. This relationship is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.--Relation between the prediction scores and marriage adjustment scores (percentage distribution)
(Burgess and Cottrell, 1939, p. 284).

Premarital Prediction Score	Marital Adjustment Score				Number of Cases
	Low	Low	High	High	
700-799	0.0	10.0	10.0	80.0	10
620-699	1.5	12.1	25.8	60.0	66
540-619	5.8	21.9	29.2	43.1	137
460-539	27.6	29.4	25.9	17.1	170
380-459	39.8	31.1	15.1	14.0	93
300-379	57.2	25.7	11.4	5.7	35
220-299	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	8
Total					519*

*Seven cases were thrown out because subjects failed to answer a sufficient number of background questions for computation of their scores.
Mean prediction score - 516.0 Standard Deviation - 98.8

In analyzing their research, Burgess and Cottrell (1939, pp. 313-340) pointed out several needed corrections. They stated that the items that were used were simple and at times crudely constructed. The items measured some basic factors but left out some important ones, such as the patterns of relationships and personality shifts within

the patterns. Their own factor analysis also pointed out this weakness. They further found that the cultural background and the economic role did not have as an important effect as had been assumed. Problems that arose from the case-study type of approach were presented. The main problem was that the study became subjective and the reliability and validity of this type of study can be questioned at times. It was suggested that a better method of relating statistical inferences and data with the case-study should be found.

Groves and Groves (1947, p. 37) also pointed out the weakness of the case-study approach. The possible bias of the study is seen when it is recognized that the findings are based on the subjective self-appraisal of those who were willing to participate with researchers.

Burgess and Cottrell (1939, pp. 341-349) did make several important discoveries which were to provide a new understanding of the relationship in marriage and which must be considered in prediction:

1. Wives make the major adjustment in marriage.
2. The affectional relationships of childhood condition the love life of the adult.
3. Socialization of the person is significant for adjustment in marriage.
4. The economic factor, in itself, is not significant for adjustment in marriage.
5. Sexual adjustment in marriage is not the result of a biological factor or the result of psychogenic development but of cultural conditioning of attitudes toward sex.
6. It is possible to predict marital adjustment before marriage.

Terman's Studies

At about the same time that Burgess and Cottell were involved in their investigations, Louis M. Terman and his associates (1938) were doing a similar type of investigation. Terman used the term "happiness in marriage" rather than "marital adjustment". A major difference in Terman's study was that he dealt only with the psychological factors that contribute to marital happiness. He did an early exploratory study of 341 married couples and 109 divorced couples. He used mainly items from the Bernreuter Personality Inventory and the Strong Interest Test (Christensen, 1964, p. 221). Winch and McGinnis (1954, p. 456) point out that the major contribution of the first study by Terman was that "personality traits" as measured by the Bernreuter and Strong Inventories show little correlation with marital happiness but that particular attitudes expressed by the person responding to the items are significantly related to happiness scores.

In his second study, Terman included these items with items from the Burgess and Cottrell tests to construct the Index of Marital Happiness.

A second study was accordingly planned which would investigate for a larger number of subjects the relationship between happiness scores and a great variety of possible factors, including not only personality factors, but also background factors and factors having to do with sexual adjustments in marriage. By the use of an improved technique for

assuring anonymity of response, data were secured on these three sets of variables from 792 married couples who filled out the information schedules in the presence of a field assistant. The group studied represents a reasonably good sampling of the urban and semi-urban married population of California at the middle and upper-middle cultural levels, though the sampling appears to be somewhat biased in the direction of superior marital happiness (Winch and McGinnis, 1954, p. 456).

The Index of Marital Happiness in the second study had similar items to those used in the Burgess and Cottrell Index of Marital Adjustment. Scores ranged from 2 to the maximum of 87, with mean of 68.40 for the husbands and 69.25 for the wives. The standard deviation for the husbands was 17.35 and for the wives was 18.75. A skewed result was obtained similar to that of Burgess and Cottrell. The correlation between the happiness score of the husband and wife was .59. This was between the happiness score of the husband and wife was .59. This was about as Terman had expected since there must be a correlation between two scores if the test is to be reliable. Winch (1954, p. 457) pointed out the significance of this finding. It was the first time that any data had suggested that the degree of satisfaction that one finds in a marriage depends partly on one's own characteristic attitudes and temperament and does not necessarily parallel the happiness of one's marital partner.



In the second part of his study, which searched for personality items to be used for prediction, Terman drew 71 items from the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, 128 items from the Strong Interest Test and added 34 items of opinion about the ideal marriage, which resulted in a total of 233 personality items. It was found that 101 items from the husband's schedule and 97 from the wife's schedule were significant enough to be retained for the prediction scale. Twenty-six background items were found to have a high enough relationship with marital happiness to be included in the scale.

A subsample of 200 couples was chosen for the correlation of the marital happiness scores with the personality and the background items. This was done to give a better control over the sample so that the skewness of the sample could be eliminated as well as to provide control for other factors. The correlation of the personality items with the Index of Marital Happiness was .47 for the husbands and .46 for the wives. The correlation between the background items and the Index was .35 for the husbands and .29 for the wives. This last correlation was considerably lower than that of the Burgess and Cottrell study. The multiple correlation of the background and the personality items with marital happiness was .54 for the husbands and .47 for the wives. This suggests that the attitude and emotional

responses that were touched by the personality items cannot be over-looked when it is sought to determine marital happiness.

By noting and classifying the individual items that differentiate between subjects of low and high happiness, it has been possible to piece together descriptive composite pictures of the happy and unhappy temperaments. For example, it is especially characteristic of unhappy subjects to be touchy and grouchy; to lose their tempers easily; to fight to get their own way; to be critical of other; to be careless of others feelings; to chafe under discipline or to rebel against orders; to show any dislike that they may happen to feel; to be easily affected by praise or blame; to lack self-confidence; to be dominating in their relations with the opposite sex; to be little interested in older people, children, teaching, charity, or up-lift activities; to be unconventional in their attitudes toward religion, drinking, and sexual ethics; to be bothered by useless thought; to be often in a state of excitement; and to alternate between happiness and sadness without apparent cause (Winch and McGinnis, 1954, pp. 457-458).

Terman found that the following ten items of background circumstances are most predictive of marital happiness:

1. Superior happiness of parents
2. Childhood happiness
3. Lack of conflict with mother
4. Home discipline that was firm, not harsh
5. Strong attachment to mother
6. Strong attachment to father
7. Lack of conflict with father
8. Parental frankness about sex
9. Infrequency and mildness of childhood punishment
10. Premarital attitude towards sex that was free from disgust or aversion.

The criticisms of the Terman study are fairly similar to those of the Burgess and Cottrell study. It was not a

representative sample, geographically or economically; it was not representative of all marriages as the mean time of marriage of the couple studied was 11.4 with 11 per cent of the sample having been married over 20 years. Anastasi (1959) discussed some weaknesses of the Bernreuter and pointed out that one of its major weaknesses was that it is subject to faking responses so that the subject would appear in a better light. Terman did not seem to have controlled for this possibility.

Terman and Oden's Study

In 1940 Terman and Oden (1947) did a study of gifted children and used this opportunity to do a longitudinal study to determine marital adjustment. Using a number of gifted husbands and their wives and gifted wives and their husbands, Terman conducted testing with the marital happiness index. The correlations that were obtained were very similar in nature to those obtained in his earlier study.

In 1946 he did a follow-up study of these same people and found that 41 men and 45 women who had taken this test were either separated or divorced. It was found that those marriages which were still intact in 1946 had a significantly higher mean score in 1940 than those whose marriages were broken in 1946. The mean score of husbands of the intact marriages was 4.10 as compared to



3.04 for the husbands of the broken marriages. The mean score for the wives of the intact marriages was 5.39 as compared to 5.03 for the wives of the broken marriages.

Terman and Oden interpreted these findings to mean that the marital aptitude test revealed a "general tendency" existing before and after marriage and that this affected the probability of adaption to the necessities of marriage. He also offered further evidence of data collected in 1928 showing that women who had been identified as having "some" or "marked" nervous symptoms had a significantly lower marital aptitude score 12 years later (Christensen, 1964, p. 224).

Winch pointed out that some 200 unmarried persons in Terman and Oden's group were given this marital adjustment prediction test under another name and that eleven of these had been divorced by 1948. All but one of these eleven had lower scores than the mean of the subjects who took the tests. The seven men averaged .93 standard deviations and the four women averaged 1.5 standard deviations below the men. It is true that this is a small sample, but it could be suggestive of possible predictive value (Winch and McGinnis, 1954, p. 514).

It would seem that perhaps this study might be repeated to locate the tendency that Terman and Oden found.

To date, so far as this researcher is able to determine, this study has not been replicated.

Locke's Study

This study (1951) differed from the previous studies in two ways. It was based on a divorce group and a group identified as happily married. Secondly, an attempt was made to draw a truly representative random sample of these two groups from an entire county. This method produced a sample that was fairly representative of the area from which it was drawn.

Locke constructed a marital adjustment test which included items from Burgess and Cottrell, Terman, and eight new items that he felt would be predictive. His pre-marital background items included courtship and engagement, parental influences, sexual behavior, and occupational status.

He attempted to determine the effect of the following personality traits and patterns in the individual: directional ability, adaptability, affectionateness, sociability, and conventionality. He included a final group of items that dealt with the marital interaction expected in the companionship type of family. These were to be modified later for pre-marital prediction.

The correlations that Locke found were very low. For instance, the correlation score of marital adjustment between

husband and wives still married was .36 and for the divorced was .04.

Several criticisms could be made of Locke's study. There is some possibility of a negative halo existing on the part of the divorced people as they answer the questions about their marriage. Another criticism was that part of his divorced sample had remarried and this development was not adequately covered in the research design. It was felt that this made some of the correlation scores of the divorced people unreliable. Locke discussed prediction scores in detail but did not follow this up with a statistical analysis of relationships. He did not develop any prediction scores between his items and the marital adjustment scores and he did not develop the difference in prediction scores between the happily married and divorced people. In addition to this, he did not modify his items so that they might be used for pre-marital prediction although he had stated that this was one of his purposes (Christensen, 1964, p. 226). This was a research project that had a good beginning, but tailed off as it was completed and fell far short of its intended goal. Its unique beginning promised far more than it produced.

Karlssen's Study

In a unique cross-cultural study done in Sweden George Karlssen (Christensen, 1964) did a companion study to the work that Locke was doing in this country. The method of selection of the sample and the Index of Marital Satisfaction were almost identical to those used by Locke. Karlssen determined that his groups had a husband and wife correlation of .70 for the husbands and .73 for the wives. The correlation of the scores between husband and wife was .72. This cannot be compared with the low scores of Locke's sample as Locke's correlations were worked out for each group, divorced and married, where Karlssen's were done on a total group basis.

Karlssen also hoped to be able to do pre-marital prediction from his results and therefore included items which would apply to both pre-marital post-marital situations. He saw prediction in terms of a relationship with satisfaction, rather than using it to predict from one period of time to another of the seventy-seven times that had been significant in Locke's study, Karlssen found fifty to be significant for the husbands and forty-seven to be significant for the wives.

For the purpose of analysis of the relationship of the predictive items adjustment, he grouped the former under the following headings:

1. General Background
2. Adaptability I-items of adjustment plus items from Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.
3. Adaptability II-self and mate ratings on personality.
4. Communication I-amount of the husband-wife communication.
5. Communication II-index of how much was known about spouses's wishes.

The multiple correlation of all six prediction scores with the marital scores and with the marital satisfaction scale was .84 for husbands and .91 for wives.

These correlations are high, and Karlssen explained them by stating that a number of his items dealt with the marital process and some of these items may be another way of measuring satisfaction.

Bowerman (Christensen, 1964, p. 228) pointed out that the contribution of this research lies not only in its cross-cultural uniqueness, but also in the work on adaptability and communication. It is certainly possible that this work may be modified for premarital prediction.

Burgess and Wallin Study

In 1953 Burgess and Wallin started with data from 1,000 engaged couples and followed them up for at least three years after marriage. Their sample, restricted to the Chicago area, was predominantly middle class, with higher than average education, income, and occupational status.

Of the original 1,000 couples, approximately 150 broke their engagement, 33 were divorced or separated, 10 had their marriage broken by death, 42 refused to participate in the follow-up, and others were lost, so that the final sample was composed of 666 couples.

In the construction of the criteria of marital success, Burgess and Wallin used several criteria rather than a single composite index. They developed nine different components for their multiple criteria of marital success. Three were of a general nature: permanence, happiness of the marriage, and general satisfaction with the marriage. The other six components were specific in nature: specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions with a number of aspects about marriage and spouse; consensus, or degree of agreement about family matters; love for mate and preception of reciprocation; sexual satisfaction; companionship; and compatibility of personaltiy and temperament. A scoring key was devised for each index.

In their treatment of predictive items Burgess and Wallin distinguished between pre-marital and post-marital items. An index of Engagement Success was constructed. In the follow-up they found that those who had broken their engagements had lower scores on this engagement success index than those who had married. The test-retest

reliability was .75 for 81 men and .71 for 81 women. The retest was done after a six-month interval.

Prediction scores for engagement items were correlated with the marital success scores from the questionnaire, and they were found to be .39 for men and .36 for women.

Although this research presents a new wealth of data and is very comprehensive in nature, it has a number of defects which must be corrected before the work can attain its promise.

There is no report of the prediction scores for the couples who broke their engagements. At the time this study was begun, this researcher wrote to Burgess and asked for additional information about the couples who had broken their engagement but did not receive an answer. Another weakness is that the authors did not make clear what measure of marital success was being used when correlations indicated some bias about the pre-marital period or at least some halo effect about the relationship during that time. This apparently was not controlled during the investigation. No multiple correlation is given for women between the five groups of prediction scores and the multiple criteria of success.

It would be difficult at the present time to replicate this fine research because of the limitations of data analysis and the lack of reporting at crucial points in the measurement and prediction.

Summary

A search of the literature did not reveal any studies in the prediction of marriage from engagement. Therefore, a study was made of the literature on the prediction of marital adjustment and marital success.

The problems of prediction, the problem of marital adjustment and the problem of prediction of marital success or marital failure were discussed.

The major part of the chapter was devoted to a review and critique of various studies of marital prediction. Ten early studies were reviewed in terms of the particular variable studied. Since all of these efforts were unique in the field, they provided only a few guidelines for prediction purposes.

Six major studies in the area of marital adjustment and success were reviewed and critiqued. In several ways these later studies were improved over the pioneer efforts. First, a larger number of variables were included in the experimental designs. Secondly, for the first time, background items became a part of the research. Another important difference found in the later studies was the comparison of divorced couples with happily married couples. The final major improvement was a longitudinal study which began with engagement and continued into the marriage of the couples studied. The last study was examined in detail.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to analyze the interpersonal relationship which existed between the potential husband and wife at the time of the announcement of their engagement. An inherent assumption was that the period of courtship preceding the engagement had been sufficient to allow for an objective evaluation of the relationship by each partner. Specifically, this investigation was designed to test the effectiveness of the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory as a predictor of marriage at the time of the formal engagement. It was also designed to determine if the Carson Issue Of Marital Adjustment could be related to the problem of prediction of marriage.

Variables

When formal engagement occurs, it is assumed that any significant factors which would preclude actual marriage have been resolved in one manner or another. For example, if religious differences existed, it is assumed that they have been resolved in some manner or the

engagement would not have taken place. Therefore, it was assumed that all significant intervening variables except these measured by the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory had been resolved by the time that the engagement was formally announced. Potential factors such as difference in age, difference in education, difference in socioeconomic status, difference arising from prior engagements, differences arising from family relationships either were non-existent, had been eliminated, or at least had been reduced below significance by the process of compromise and adjustment prior to the formal announcement of the engagement. It was assumed that had such a compromise and adjustment not taken place, the engagement would not have occurred. Perhaps other intervening variables may have been significant, but because of the prior study by Burgess and Wallin, it was decided not to use them.

The problem of the length of the engagement was considered, and those couples who indicated an engagement exceeding eighteen months were eliminated. This was done in order that the specific and possibly different problems of the long engagement would not affect the research.

Limitation of the Study

Selection of the Original Sample

The sample consisted of couples who had formally announced their engagements in one of the methods evident

in middle and upper class American culture. This included announcement in the local newspaper, announcement at a party, or by some other similar method.

The main source of information in collecting the sample was newspapers. Some newspapers that were consulted could not be used as they gave only names of the engaged couples. The main newspapers consulted were Pittsburgh Post Gazette, the Lansing (Michigan) State Journal, the Indiana (Pennsylvania) Gazette, and the Detroit Free Press. About 13% of the sample came from the Cumberland, Maryland, area where the names were furnished by the brother of the researcher, and who, incidentally, is a minister. About 10% of the sample came from individual contacts, and some names were furnished by friends. Initially, one thousand and ninety-three (1,093) couples were identified and contacted to determine if they were willing to participate in this investigation. The geographical distribution of this sample is included in Chapter IV.

Each couple was contacted by a letter which stated the purpose of the study and solicited their participation in the study. A postcard was enclosed for them to return which indicated their willingness to participate in the research. A copy of this letter is found in Appendix E.

Selection of the Final Sample

When the postcards were returned, they were studied to see if the couple fitted into the design of the study. The following were ruled out: (a) couples who indicated the probability of an engagement period exceeding eighteen months, (b) couples that had been engaged longer than two months as it was felt that they might have increased the probability of marriage, (c) couples where the lapse of time between the time of engagement and time of marriage was so short that testing could not be done.

After the postcards were studied the instruments used in the research were mailed to the couples who met the criteria for the study.

Follow-up the non-returned inventories

A follow-up was made of those couples who did not return the instruments after they had agreed to participate in the research. They were asked to indicate if they had been married as they had originally planned and to state the reason for not returning the tests. This was done to determine how many of this group had broken their engagements.

Determination of Marital Status

The data obtained had no meaning until it was known whether or not the couple had been married. This information

was obtained in several ways: (a) following instructions, couples notified the researcher that marriage had taken place, (b) newspapers were watched for announcements of weddings, (c) friends were contacted to determine if marriage had occurred. If none of these methods proved successful, the couple was contacted by letter and asked if the marriage had taken place. By use of these various methods, all of the data in the study have been varified as to the correct marital status.

The Hypotheses

The primary null hypothesis states that there is no significant difference between the couples who obtain high scores on the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment and the couples who obtained low scores on the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment. This is correlated with their scores on the Engagement Success Inventory. This hypothesis will be tested in the 2 x 4 design shown in Figure 1.

	HIGH	LOW	TOTAL
High Engagement Success Inventory and Marry			
High Engagement Success Inventory and Break Engagement			
Low Engagement Success Inventory and Marry			
Low Engagement Success Inventory and Break Engagement			
Total			

Figure 1.--Design for analysis of data.

Three additional null hypotheses and their respective alternates are stated. Null Hypothesis I is stated in reference to the relationship between the score on the Engagement Success Inventory and the breaking of engagement. Null Hypothesis II is stated in reference to the scoring on the Issue of Marital Adjustment Scale. Null Hypothesis III is stated in reference to age and marriage.

Null Hypothesis I.--Engagement Success Inventory

There is no significant difference between the group who score high on the Engagement Success Inventory and the group who score low on the Engagement Success Inventory and break their engagement.

Alternate I: The high scores on the Engagement Success Inventory for the couples who marry show a significant difference over those who score low on the Engagement Success Inventory and do not marry.

Null Hypothesis II.--Issues of Marital Adjustment Scale

There is no significant difference between the group who score high on the Issue Scale and the group who score low on the Issue Scale.

Alternate II: Couples who score high on the Issue Scale will score more significantly than the couples who score low on the Issue Scale.

Null Hypothesis III.--Age and Marriage

Age of the couples who score high on the Engagement Success Inventory and marry will show no significant difference from the age of those who score low on the Engagement Success Inventory and do not marry.

Alternate III: There is a significant difference between those who score high and marry and those who score low on the Engagement Success and do not marry.

Statistical Analysis

The basic inferential statistical techniques utilized in this study were derived from Edwards (1958) and Seigel (1956). Basic techniques involved the non-parametric chi-square test and the parametric t-test. Formulas for these techniques as well as for determination of descriptive statistics utilized herein will be found in the Appendix.

Summary

The purpose of this study is to determine if the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory and Carson's Issue of Marital Adjustment could be used to predict the occurrence of marriage from the time of formal engagement. Possible variables were discussed and it was pointed out that only those variables found in the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory were considered. The original sample was collected from newspapers, friends, and individual contacts. The final sample was selected after a study was made of the couples who had agreed to participate in the research. This study was made to determine if the couples fitted into the design of the study.

A follow-up was made of non-returned inventories to determine how many couples had broken their engagements.

The data was verified by checking newspapers for wedding announcements, contacting friends, being notified

by the couple that marriage had occurred, and corresponding with the couples.

The various hypotheses were listed. The primary null hypothesis states that there is no significant difference between the couples who score high on the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment and the couples who score low on the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment. Three additional hypotheses were stated: Null Hypothesis I is stated in reference to the relationship between the score on the Engagement Success Inventory and the breaking of the engagement. Null Hypothesis II is stated in reference to the scoring on the Issue of Marital Adjustment Scale. Null Hypothesis III is stated in reference to age and marriage.

Basic statistical techniques to be used involved the chi-square test and the t-test.



CHAPTER IV

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In Chapter III the design for the study was detailed. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods and procedures used in the research.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used. The first instrument used was the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory (1953; 1954). This instrument is composed of twenty-four items which questioned the areas of relationships between the couples. The scales were similar to the Burgess and Cottrell Marriage Adjustment Scale.

These questions and the scores given the possible responses are roughly similar to those of the Burgess-Cottrell marriage adjustment scale from which they were adapted. The questions making up the latter were used because they appear equally relevant for measuring adjustment in engagement. The corresponding scores were employed as a matter of convenience, since arbitrary or more rigorously derived weights would in all likelihood have yielded similar results (Burgess and Wallin, 1944, p. 327).

Burgess and Wallin's sample for the testing was 505 couples. These couples had known each other for an average of forty-five months, kept company for an average of thirty-one and five-tenths months, and had been engaged for an average of three and two-tenths months.



The reliability of this instrument was established by having 81 couples fill out an abbreviated schedule containing adjustment questions some time after they had answered the original schedule. These scores were then correlated with the original scores, and a coefficient of $.75 \pm .05$ was found for the men and a correlation of $.71 \pm .06$ was found for the women.

The validity of the testing was investigated by comparing the scores of 100 couples who broke their engagements to the scores of 887 couples who were married. It was anticipated and found that the couples who broke their engagements had a lower adjustment score than those who continued their engagement and were married.

The second instrument used is the Issues of Marital Scale constructed by Carson (1961) in his doctoral dissertation. This scale is composed of 140 items selected from seven spousal agreement areas which according to Carson (1961) were known to be correlated with marital adjustment. These areas are (a) dealing with in-laws, (b) intimate relations, (c) friends, (d) recreation, (e) philosophy of life, (f) handling finances, and (g) demonstrations of affection.

Two scoring systems were constructed for the scale: the first measured "mates agreement" on the items and was labeled straight agreement scoring; the second scoring system was configural and measured the "mate's consensus"

on the preceived importance of the items as well as their agreement of these items. For the latter, six differing combinations of agreement in perceptions of items and agreements on items were tallied. These tallies were "condensed into "1"- "0" dichotomies which were inferred from the personal construct and straight agreement formulations" (Carson, 1961).

Carson's sample was composed of two sets of married couples. Fifty-eight couples were persuaded by their clergyman to participate, and 47 of these scored high enough on the Locke-Wallace Marital Scale to be used. These couples were contrasted with a sample of 47 maritally maladjusted couples. Thirty-one of these maladjusted couples comprised the entire group of mates filing for divorce or on probation pending divorce at the Detroit Recorder Court over a designated period of time. The 8 remaining maritally maladjusted couples were in the beginning stages of marital counseling at the Catholic Social Service Agency in Lansing, Michigan.

Utilizing chi-square it was found that 34 of the items in the personal construct area were significant at the .10 level of significance and 46 items of straight agreement were significant at .10 level of significance.

The reliability was estimated to be .559 for the maritally adjusted couples and .551 for the maritally maladjusted couples. Cross-validation showed a result of .447 for the maritally adjusted couples and .779 for the maladjusted couples.

Description of Final Sample

Original Sample

The original sample that was contacted totaled 1,093 couples. This sample represents a rather diverse geographic parameter the dispersion of which is indicated in Table 2.

Forty letters mailed to the original sample were returned due to incorrect addresses. No further attempt was then made to contact these individuals, because the lapse of time between the announcement of the engagement and the return of letters was too long. These returned letters reduced the total of the original sample to 1,053 contacts. Three hundred and seventy-nine couples of the original sample agreed to participate in the research. This represented a 36 per cent return of the original population. Thirty-three couples of the agreeing sample were unusable, due to immediate marriage or an indefinite engagement period. These two factors narrowed the final sample down to 346 couples. The testing instruments were then mailed to the final sample.



TABLE 2.--Geographical composition of the original sample.

State	Number	Percentage
Alabama	1	.0940
California	2	.18
Connecticut	3	.27
District of Columbia	5	.46
Florida	3	.27
Illinois	4	.3740
Indiana	22	.1870
Iowa	1	.0970
Kansas	1	.094
Louisiana	1	.0970
Maine	146**	.0970
Maryland	8	13.3
Massachusetts	118*	.1870
Michigan	16	10.8
Missouri	1	1.5
Nebraska	5	.09
New Jersey	15	.46
New York	6	1.4
North Carolina	1	.55
Nova Scotia	27	.09
Ohio	1	2.5
Oklahoma	687***	.09
Pennsylvania	6	62.8
Tennessee	1	.55
Vermont	4	.09
Virginia	22	.37
West Virginia	4	.02
Wisconsin	1	.38
New Mexico	1	.09
Total	1093	100.0

*Majority came from Detroit and Lansing Area

**Majority came from Cumberland, Maryland Area

***Majority came from Pittsburgh Area and from about
100 mile radius around the city.

Soon after the instruments were mailed, a letter was received from one couple stating that they could not participate in the research. Their objection was based upon the fact that the tests were numbered and that the numbers would destroy their privacy. This reduced the sample to 345 couples.

Final Sample

A total of 186 tests were returned for use in the final analysis. This was a fifty-four per cent return. Two couples were eliminated because they had not correctly answered the items in the instruments used; eight couples were eliminated because their marital status could not be determined; and one couple was eliminated from the sample because the fiance was killed in an automobile accident. The final sample for analysis totaled 175 couples.

The final geographical composition for the couples is shown in Table 3.

Source for Final Sample

An analysis of the sources for the final sample is shown Table 4.

TABLE 3.--Geographical composition of the final sample.

State	Number	Percentage
California	1	.5
Indiana	1	.5
Maine	1	.5
Maryland	10	65.0
Michigan	17	9.7
Minnesota	1	.5
Missouri	2	11.1
New Jersey	1	.5
New Mexico	1	.5
New York	4	2.3
North Carolina	2	1.0
Ohio	5	2.8
Pennsylvania	115	65.0
Tennessee	2	1.1
Virginia	5	2.8
West Virginia	3	1.0
Wisconsin	4	2.3
Total	175	100.0

TABLE 4.--Sources of sample.

Source	Number	Percentage
Friends	25	14.3
Personal Contact	45	25.0
Pittsburgh Post Gazette	68	38.9
Minister (Maryland Area)	14	.8
Indiana Gazette	13	7.4
Detroit Free Press	3	1.7
St. Louis Newspaper	6	3.4
Total	175	100.0



Occupations of Sample

An analysis of the occupations of the sample showed that most of the female partners of the broken engagements were students. Most of the male partners of the broken engagements were either in the military service or were students. Table 5 indicates the occupations of the males and of the females who broke their engagements.

TABLE 5.--Occupations of couples in broken engagements.

Female	Number	Percentage
Student	14	87.5
Teacher	1	6.25
Receptionist	1	6.25
Total	16	100.0
Male	Number	Percentage
Student	7	43.8
Military service	4	25.0
Teacher	2	12.5
Clerk	1	6.25
Mechanic	1	6.25
Machinist	1	6.25
Total	16	100.0

In contrast to the couples who had broken engagements, those couples who married had a wide and varied range of occupations. These are summarized in Table 6.

Follow-up

One hundred and fifty-nine couples who had previously stated their willingness to participate in the research failed to return the test instruments. A letter was sent

TABLE 6.--Occupations of couples who married.

Female	Number	Percentage
Student	75	47.2
Teacher	22	13.9
Secretary	27	17.0
None	6	3.8
Beautician	3	1.9
Clerk	4	2.5
Investigator-Reynolds Aluminum	1	6.0
Nurse	6	3.8
Receptionist	6	3.8
Travel Agent	1	6.0
Bank Teller	1	6.0
Bookkeeper	1	6.0
Chemist	1	6.0
Airline Hostess	1	6.0
Social Worker	1	6.0
Medical Technician	1	6.0
Statistician	1	6.0
Telephone Service Representative	1	6.0
TOTAL	159	100.0

Male	Number	Percentage
Student	67	42.1
Teacher	19	11.9
Military	14	8.8
Laborer	5	3.1
Bank Teller	2	1.3
Draftsman	4	2.5
Engineer	8	5.0
Surveyor	1	.6
Electric Technician	2	1.3
Mechanic	2	1.3
Lab Technician	2	1.3
Insurance Agent	1	.6
Minister	2	1.3
Field Manager	1	.6
Jeweler	1	.6
Farmer	1	.6
Vice-President	1	.6
Doctor	1	.6
Manager	1	.6
Molder Apprentice	1	.6
Psychologist	1	.6
Salesman	4	2.5
Foreign Service Officer	1	.6
Banker	1	.6
Electrician	1	.6
Clerk	1	.6
Tire Dealer	1	.6
Repairman	1	.6
Golf Professional	1	.6
Builder	1	.6
Lawyer	2	1.3
Postal Clerk	1	.6
Television Director	1	.6
Physicist	1	.6
None	1	.6
Chemist	1	.6
Accountant	1	.6
Mortgage Servicer	1	.6
Carpenter	1	.6
Total	159	100.0

to each couple requesting specific reasons as to why they did not return the instruments. A copy of this letter is found in Appendix E. Sixty-six couples responded to the follow-up letter. Three had broken their engagements. Eight letters were returned because the couples had moved and no forwarding address had been left. The remaining couples had married. The reasons given in addition to the broken engagements are summarized in Table 7.

TABLE 7.--Reasons given by responders for not returning the test.

Reason	Number	Percentage
Lack of time to answer	20	31.7
Lost at home	17	26.9
Lost in mail	4	6.4
No reason	1	1.7
Questions too personal	2	3.17
Questions too long and difficult	2	3.17
Put off	7	11.11
Earlier marriage than planned	2	3.17
Forgot to mail	2	3.17
Fiance unwilling	2	3.17
Felt test were for married people	2	3.17
Considered questions to be ridiculous	2	3.17
Total	63	100.0

Administration of the Instruments

The instruments were mailed to the female partner of the engagement since she was the one who was originally contacted. In each case the partners of the engagement were instructed to respond to the instruments without communication with one another. It was likely that some of the couples compared their instruments after responding to them. It has been assumed that the couples met the requirement of non-communication in order that valid results might be obtained. All instruments were filled out anonymously and were returned by mail.

There was no time limit set for the completion of the instruments. The couples were promised a summary of the research upon its completion.

Summary

Both the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory and Carson's Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment were described in detail. The Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory had a reliability of .75 for men and .71 for women. Its validity was determined by a comparison of the scores of the couples who broke their engagement with the couples who married. The Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment had a reliability of .559 for the adjusted couples and .551 for the maladjusted couples. Cross-validation showed a result of .477 for adjusted couples and .779 for maladjusted couples.

The geographical distribution of the original sample was described. The final sample was described in terms of geographic location, its source, and its occupations. The occupations of those couples who broke their engagement were compared to those couples who were married. Couples who were in school or who were separated by military service seemed to have a more unstable relationship.

The instruments were mailed to the couples and were returned by mail.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

The first section of Chapter V is a discussion of the analysis of the primary Null Hypothesis. The results of a study of Hypotheses I, II, III are reported. Additional analyses of various scores are reported.

Analysis of Primary Null Hypothesis

The primary Null Hypothesis stated that there was no significant difference between the scores of the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment and the scores of the Engagement Success Inventory. Analysis of the data indicated that there were no significant difference between the two scores. Table 8 indicates the results of the analysis.

The first step in determining the sample to be used in the various cells was to select the couples from the Issues of Marital Scale who scored at or beyond one standard deviation beyond the mean. This was done separately for both the broken engagements and the married couples. The mean for the broken engagements was 99.75 with a standard deviation of 12.23. This indicates that the significant scores lie beyond the limits indicated by the scores of 87 and 112. The married couples had a mean of



104.08 with a standard deviation of 9.49. This indicates that the significant scores lie beyond the range of 95-114.

The same process was repeated for the scores of the Engagement Success Inventory. The broken engagements had a mean of 137.56 with a standard deviation of 18.34. This indicates that the significant scores lie outside the range of 119-156. The married couples had a mean of 143.92 with a standard deviation of 18.85. This means that the significant scores lie outside the range of 125-162.

When these statistical analyses had been completed the scores were separated. The significant high and low scores for the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment were first determined. When this was done, these significant scores were separated in terms of the significant scores of the Engagement Success Inventory. The broken engagement scores were separated in terms of high and low significant scores. The married couples were also separated in the same way. These scores were cast into a 2×4 chi-square distribution (Table 8), and chi-square was applied.

Hypothesis I

The Null Hypothesis cannot be rejected. The group that showed any difference was so small that it was impossible to do the statistical analysis proposed under this hypothesis. See Table 8 for this group. (See



Siegel, 1956, Ch. 8). However, inspection reveals no identifiable difference in distribution.

TABLE 8.--Analysis of primary null hypothesis.

	Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment		
	High	Low	Total
High Engagement Success Inventory and Marry	1	3	4
High Engagement Success Inventory and Break Engagement	1	0	1
Low Engagement Success Inventory and Marry	1	3	4
Low Engagement Success Inventory and Break Engagement	1	1	2
Total	4	7	11

The chi-square value for the above 2 x 4 table was 6.213. With 3 degrees of freedom chi-square must equal or exceed the following values to be significant:

.01 =	11.341
.05 =	7.815
.10 =	6.251

See Appendix A for computations.

Hypothesis II

The Null Hypothesis cannot be rejected. The group that showed any difference was so small that it was impossible to do the statistical analysis proposed under

this hypothesis. See Table 8 for this group. (See Siegel, 1956, Ch. 8). However, inspection reveals no identifiable difference in distribution.

Hypothesis III

The group that showed any difference was so small that it was impossible to do the statistical analysis proposed under this hypothesis. See Table 8 for this group. (See Siegel, 1956, Ch. 8). However, inspection reveals no identifiable difference in distribution.

Courtship Patterns

As stated in Chapter I it appears that in today's culture the period courtship includes some of the former functions of the engagement period. To determine if there was a significant difference between the pattern of courtship for the entire population and the sample of the broken engagements, a chi-square statistical analysis was done. It was found that there was no significant difference between the two groups. The results are summarized in Table 9. Chi-square is significant at 4.29 with 10df. Chi-square is significant at the following levels:

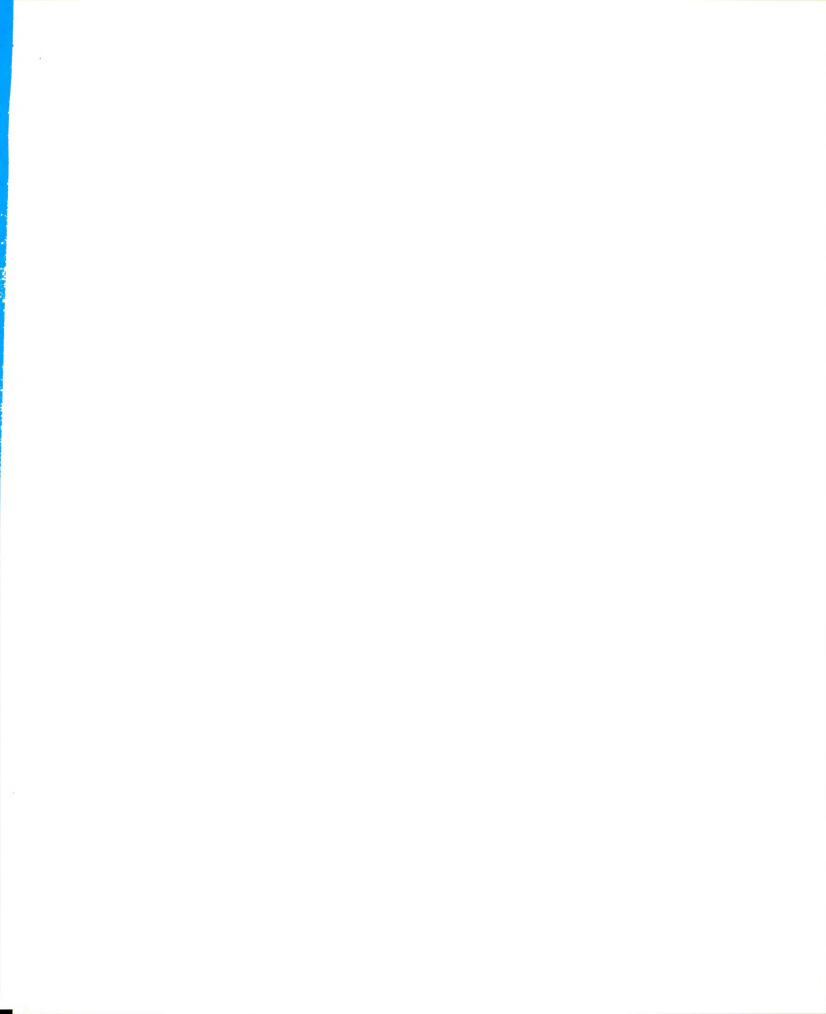
.05 = 18.307
.01 = 23.209

There is no difference at either the .01 or .05 level of significance. The broken engagements were compared with the total population instead of those who married sample constituted a different population. Appendix A contains the computations for this table.



TABLE 9.--Courtship patterns.

Years	0-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10	10-11	Total
Total Population	64	34	31	15	14	9	2	2	0	0	1	172
Broken Engagements	4	4	2	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	16



Additional Analyses

First, the Engagement Success Scores of the married couples and the broken engagement couples were compared. A t-test was utilized to determine if there was any significant difference between the two groups. A t-value of .743 was found and it was determined that this was not a significant difference. This summary is found in Table 10.

TABLE 10.--Comparison of engagement success scores.

Marital Status	N	ΣX	ΣX^2	\bar{X}
Married	159	1863	41085	117.2
Broken	16	163	25.7	101.875
Total	175	2026	43602	115.77

The t-value of these scores is .743. At 60df the difference is significant at the following levels:

$$.01 = 2.617$$

The computations will be found in Appendix B. $.05 = 1.98$

Secondly, the Issues Scale of Marital Adjustment scores of the couples were compared. This comparison was done in several ways. Initially, by utilizing the t-test, the total agreement scores of married couples were compared against those couples who broke their agreement. This t-value was

found to be significant at the .001 level. The summary of these scores is found in Table 11. Computations for this table will be found in Appendix C.

TABLE 11.--Total agreement scores.

Marital Status	N	ΣX	ΣX^2	\bar{X}
Married	159	16543	1750228	104.044
Broken	16	805	50701	50.3125

The t -value is 8.14. At 60df the difference between the means at the .001 level is 3.460.

Secondly, a comparison made was on the basis of the total score obtained in the configural scoring section of the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment. A significant difference was found at the .001 level. This is indicated in Table 12. Computations for this will be found in Appendix C.

TABLE 12.--Configural score scores.

Marital Status	N	ΣX	ΣX^2	\bar{X}
Married	159	7509	433823	47.226
Broken	16	263	7379	16.4375

The t -value is 7.7725. At 60df the difference between the means at the .001 level is 3.460.

Thirdly, a comparison of scores obtained from the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment was made between scores of the couples of the items that were found to be significant on the total agreement side of Carson's scale.

Carson determined that 46 items showed significant difference between happily married couples and divorced couples. This t-test found that there was no significant difference between the scores of the two groups. This is indicated in Table 13. Computations for this table will be found in Appendix C.

TABLE 13.--Significant total agreement scores.

Marital Status	N	ΣX	ΣX^2	\bar{X}
Married	159	5613	206629	35.302
Broken	16	586	21724	36.625

The t-value is 1.11. This difference is non significant with 60df.

Finally a comparison made was based on the items of significant difference from the configural scoring side of the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment. Thirty-five items had been found to show significant differences between the married couples and divorced couples. The t-test found no significant difference. These results are shown in Table 14. Computations for this table will be found in Appendix C.

TABLE 14.--Significant configural scoring scores.

Marital Status	N	ΣX	ΣX^2	\bar{X}
Married	159	2179	37223	13.704
Broken	16	202	2996	12.625

The t-value is .738. This difference is not significant at 60df.

Age Distribution

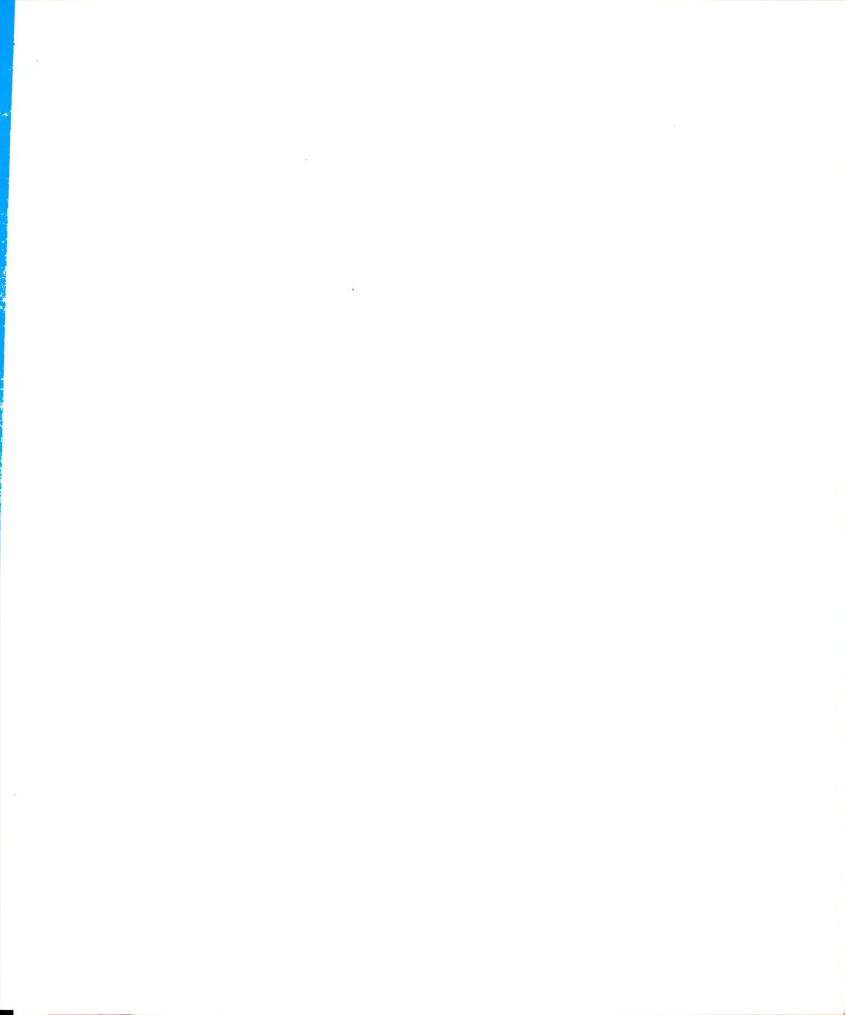
The next comparison made was to determine if there were any significant differences between the ages of these couples who married and those couples who broke their engagements. The ages were cast upon a distribution chart and analyzed. A chi-square value of 15.06 was obtained. This non-significant chi-square finding indicated that the male-female age distribution of couples in the broken engagement sample does not differ significantly from the male-female age distribution of the married sample.

The charts will be found in Appendix D.

Summary

The results of the study were reported in Chapter V. The primary Null Hypotheses would not be rejected. Hypotheses I, II, and III could not be analyzed as the group that showed any significant difference was too small; therefore, they could not be rejected. Inspection supported this conclusion. Additional analyses were done by comparing the various scores of the married couples against the various scores of the couples who broke their engagements. The only significant difference was found on Carson's Issue of Marital Adjustment. Both the total agreement scores and the configural score scores were

found to be significant at the .001 level of probability. A chi-square study of age distribution was found to be non-significant.



CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The first 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 suggestions for future research.

Summary

The Problem

It has been a long recognized fact that more research on the prediction of marital success needs to be done. Burgess and Wallin set the trend for new studies with their longitudinal study of 1,000 engaged couples, yet they followed the seemingly standard pattern of predicting marital success or marital adjustment. This overlooks the obvious fact that marriage must occur before marital success can be predicted.

The purpose of this research was to attempt to determine if current instruments which are used to predict marital happiness could be used to predict the occurrence of marriage. It was hypothesized that it is possible to predict at the time of engagement the actual occurrence of marriage.

The Design

The only variable studied was the scores obtained on the two instruments. Burgess and Wallin (1954) had stated that the score on the Engagement Success Inventory had the highest correlation of any variable studied with marital success. Because of their statement, it was decided to use the scores as the only variable.

The sample was limited to couples who had formally announced their engagement. The main source of the sample was newspapers. The final sample was selected after couples had agreed by mail to participate in the research. Those who had immediate marriage plans, those who had been engaged for some time, and those who had long term engagement plans were ruled out of the study.

A follow-up study was planned to determine why these who agreed to participate in the research did not return the instruments. They were contacted by mail.

A close check was planned for the determination of marital status. The research could not be interpreted until the marital status of the couples had been determined.

The primary Null Hypothesis stated that there was no significant difference between the couples who scored high and the couples who scored low on the Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment. These scores were correlated with the scores of the Engagement Success Inventory. Three additional Null Hypotheses were taken from the framework of the 2 X 4 cell design.



The chi-square and t-test statistical inference techniques were used to test the significant differences between the scores of the couples.

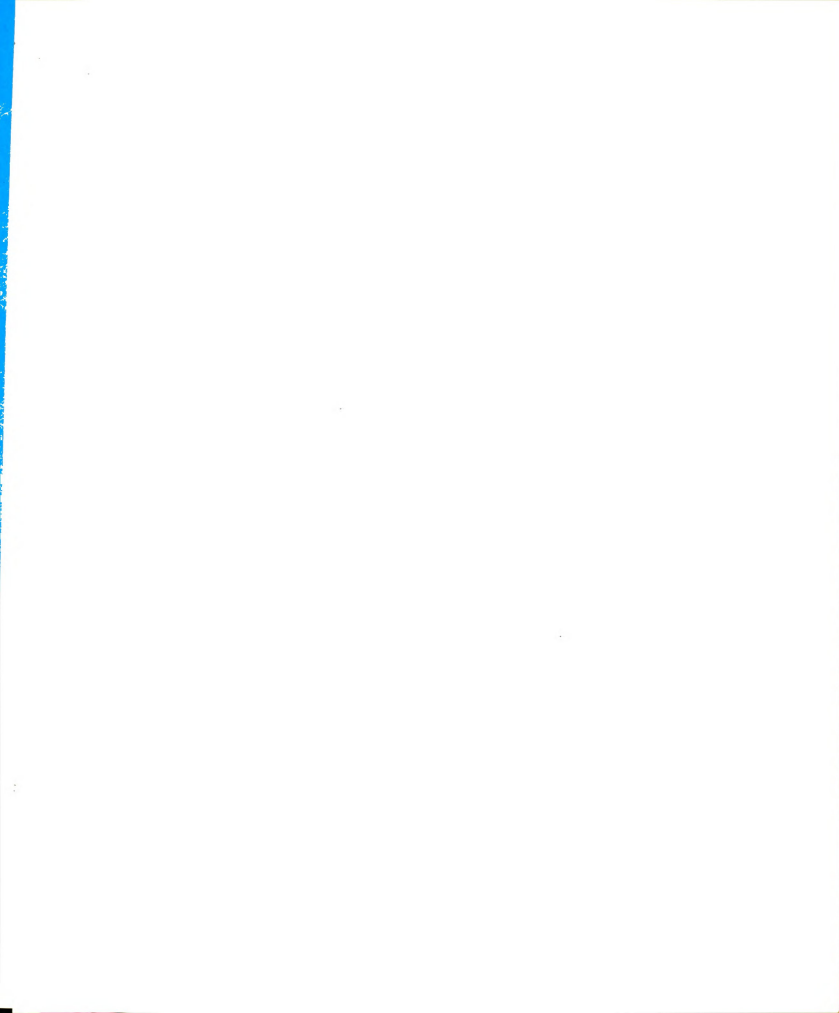
Methods and Procedures

Two instruments were used in this research. They were the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory and Carson's Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment.

The final sample for testing in the research consisted of three hundred and forty-six couples. One couple objected to the method of testing and dropped out of the research. This left three hundred and forty-five couples in the final sample. Of this total, one hundred and eighty-six couples returned the instruments mailed to them. Since eleven couples of this sample could not be used, the sample for final analysis totaled one hundred and seventy-five couples.

The analysis showed no significant difference between the scores of those who scored high and those who scored low on the Issue of Marital Adjustment Scale. The additional hypotheses could not be analyzed as the sample obtained for each cell was too small.

A t-test analysis was done. It was found that there was a significant difference between the scores of the married couples and the scores of the broken engagement couples on Carson's Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment. This was the only place a significant difference was found.



A follow-up of the couples who did not return the instruments was done. This follow-up was done to determine if any of these couples has broken their engagement. Sixty-six of the couples responded. Only three had broken their engagements.

In summary, the results desired were not achieved. Carson's Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment did show some evidence of providing a test that could be used for prediction. The results from the Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory bear evidence to the fact that the prediction of marriage cannot be done from scales built on expectancy tables.

Limitations of the Study

It is felt that although a two and one-half year period of time was spent in collecting the sample, the number of broken engagements is not large enough to make an adequate sample for study. If possible, this number should be increased. The sample is not as random as possible. It contains a high number of students which helps to confine the breadth of the study. The educational level of the sample was fairly high which again limits the randomness of the sample.

Conclusions

Within the limitations of this study, the following conclusions may be drawn:

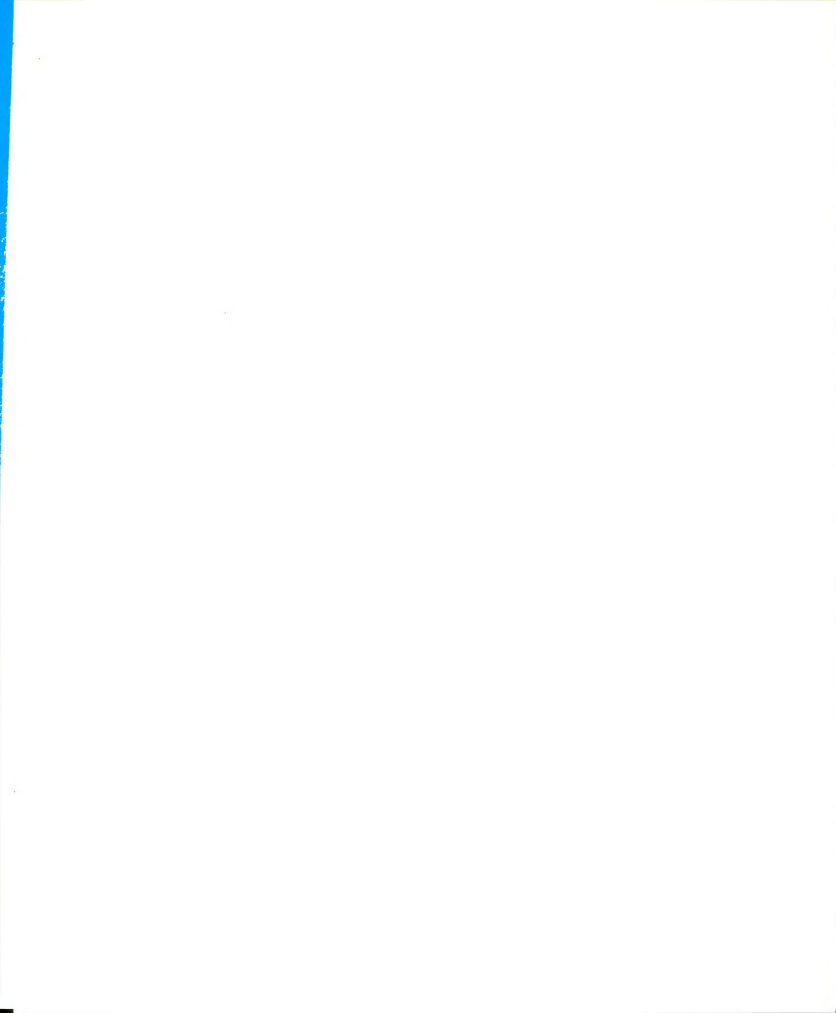
1. The primary null hypothesis could not be rejected. There was no significant difference between the high and low scores. This indicates that test scores alone are not sufficient in the determination of the occurrence of marriage.

2. The Burgess and Wallin Engagement Success Inventory is not a predictor of the occurrence of marriage. As Burgess and Wallin pointed out this scale can be used to predict, on an expectancy table basis, successful marital adjustment. However, it does not seem to deal adequately with interpersonal relationships which apparently are significant in the occurrence of marriage. The kind of items used are subjective in nature and the result is to remove the element of objectivity that is necessary in valid testing.

3. Carson's Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment indicated that it has some possibility for the prediction of marriage. Although the sample was inadequate for chi-square analysis in terms of prediction, the t-test score gave an indication that there is a possibility for prediction present in this scale.

4. It has been generally assumed that age at the time of marriage could be an influencing factor in the occurrence of marriage. However, this limited study seems to indicate that age may not be as important a factor as has been previously considered.

5. There are some indications that the relationships between students and between couples separated by service are unstable in regards to engagements.



Recommendations for Future Research

1. This study needs to be replicated with a wider base of a random sample. A large number of students were included in the final sample and this is not representative of the entire population.

2. Couples in lower educational levels need to be studied. Most of the couples in the final sample are in the higher educational levels. This raises the question of whether or not the couples in the lower educational levels interact in the same manner as those in the higher levels.

3. Lower socio-economic populations levels need to be studied to determine how their courtship patterns parallel the courtship and engagement patterns of the upper socio-economic levels of the American culture. The study indicates that there are some differences.

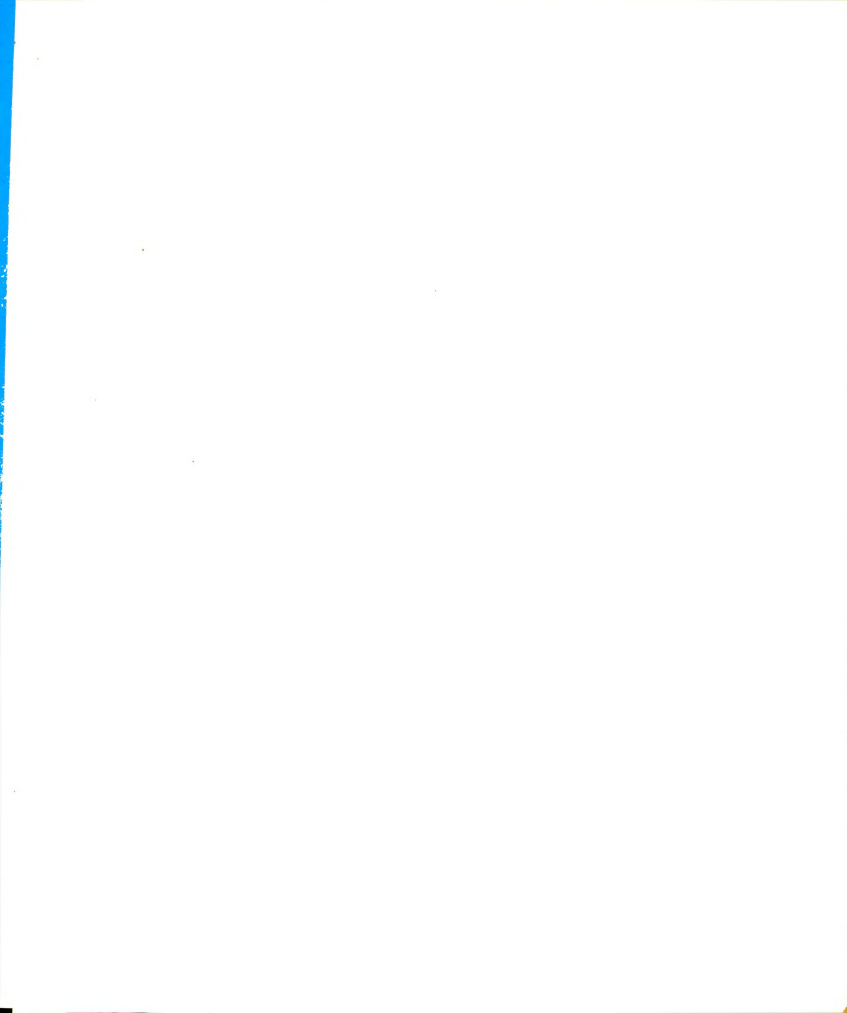
Additional study needs to be done on the relationship of courtship period prior to engagement and the courtship period following engagement. How does the courtship pattern prior to engagement influence the success of engagement?

APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

- I. Formula and Statistics for Courtship Patterns
- II. Formula and Statistics for Null Hypothesis
- III. Formula for Selection of Data for Null Hypothesis



APPENDIX A

1. FORMULA AND STATISTICS FOR COURTSHIP PATTERNS

$$\chi^2 = \text{Sum of } \left(\frac{\text{expected frequency} - \text{actual frequency}}{\text{each cell}} \right)^2 \text{ for}$$

$$\chi^2 = 4.29$$

$$df = (c-1) (r-1) \quad \begin{array}{l} 10df \text{ at } .05 = 18.307 \\ \text{at } .01 = 23.209 \end{array}$$

$$df = 10$$

¹Siegel, Sidney, NonParametric Statistics for The Behavioral Sciences.

2. FORMULA AND STATISTICS FOR NULL HYPOTHESIS

$$\chi^2 = \text{Sum of } \left(\frac{\text{expected frequency} - \text{actual frequency}}{\text{cell}} \right)^2 \text{ for each}$$

$$\chi^2 = 6.213$$

$$df = (r-1) (c-1) \quad \begin{array}{l} 3df \text{ at } .10 = 6.251 \\ \text{at } .05 = 7.815 \\ .01 = 11.341 \end{array}$$

$$df = (3) (1)$$

$$df = 3$$

¹Siegel, Sidney, NonParametric Statistics for The Behavioral Sciences.

3. FORMULAS FOR SELECTION OF DATA FOR NULL HYPOTHESIS

Engagement Success InventoryBroken Engagements

$N=16$
 $\Sigma X=2201$
 $\Sigma X^2=308151$
 $X = 137.56$
 $SD= 336.34$
 $SD= 18.34$

CENTER RANGE = 119.156

Married

$N=158$
 $\Sigma X=22740$
 $\Sigma X^2=3328866$
 $X = 143.92$
 $SD= 355.22$
 $SD= 18.85$

CENTER RANGE = 125.162

Issues of Marital ScaleBroken Engagements

$N=16$
 $X=1596$
 $\Sigma X^2=161594$
 $\Sigma X = 99.75$
 $SD= 149.562$
 $SD= 12.23$

CENTER RANGE = 87-112

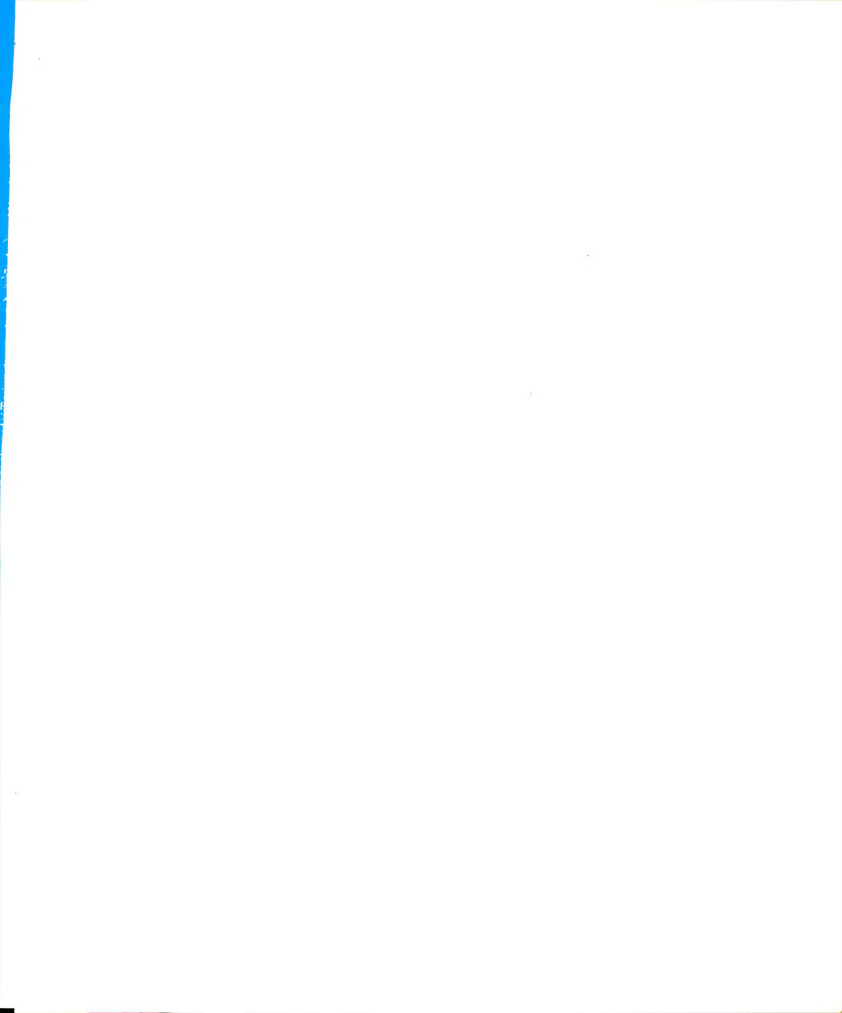
Married

$N=158$
 $\Sigma X=16445$
 $\Sigma X^2=1729723$
 $X= 104.08$
 $SD= 89.983$
 $SD= 9.49$

CENTER RANGE = 95-114

APPENDIX B

Statistical Summary of Comparison of Engagement Success Inventory Scales



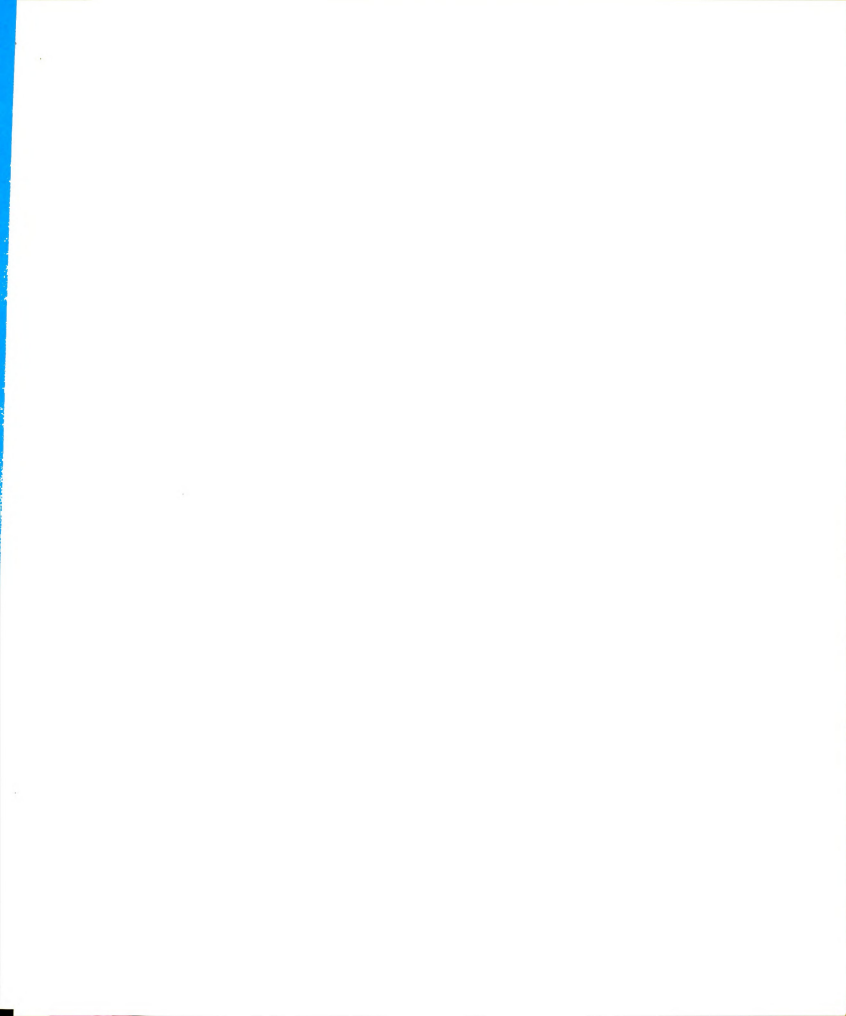
APPENDIX B

Statistical summary of comparison of Engagement
Success Inventory Scales.

Marital Status	N	ΣX	ΣX^2	S.D.	\bar{X}
Married	159	1863	41085	11.00	11.7.2
Broken	16	163	2517	7.316	10.1.875
Total	75	2026	53602	-	11.5.77

$$M_1 - M_2$$

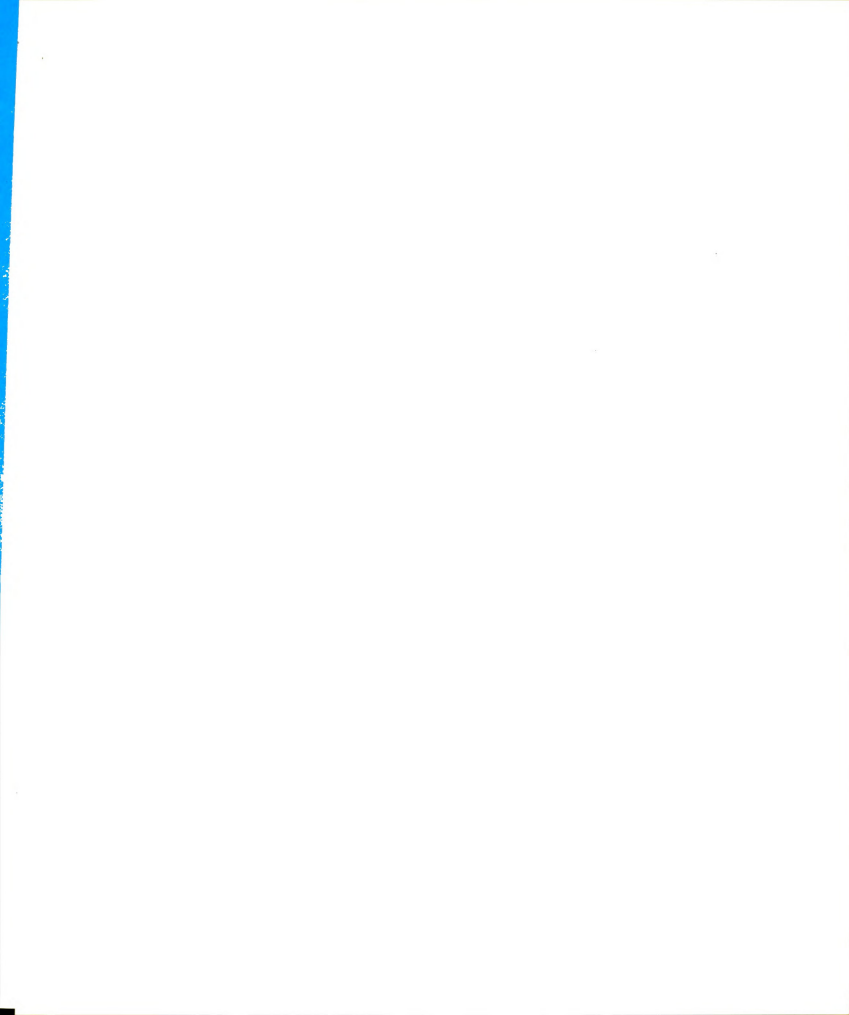
$$\begin{aligned}
 t &= \frac{\Sigma X^2}{N_1 (N_1 - 1)} + \frac{\Sigma X^2}{N_2 (N_2 - 1)} = \frac{1.529}{.734} + \frac{3.56848}{2.081} \\
 &= \frac{1.529}{2.081} - .734 \quad \text{with df} = 60 \quad \text{at } .05 = 1.98 \\
 &\quad \text{at } .01 = 2.617
 \end{aligned}$$



APPENDIX C

Statistical Summary of Comparison of Issue Scales of Marital Adjustment Scores

1. Total Agreement Scores
2. Total Configural Scoring Scores
3. Significant Total Agreement Scores
4. Significant Configural Scoring Scores



APPENDIX C

Statistical summary of comparison of Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment.

1. Formula for the t-test

$$t = \frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{\frac{X^2 - (\sum X)^2}{N_1} + \frac{\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}{N_2}}}$$

t = with 60 df

$N_1 - 1$	$N_2 - 1$.10 = 1.67
		.05 = 2.00
		.01 = 2.66
		.001 = 3.460

1. Total Agreement Scores

	N	$\sum X$	$\sum X^2$	\bar{X}	SD
Married	159	16543	1750228	104.044	13.51
Broken	16	805	50701	50.3125	25.25
t =	8.14	sign .001 level			

2. Total Configural Scoring Scores

	N	$\sum X$	$\sum X^2$	\bar{X}	SD
Married	159	7509	433823	47.226	22.32
Broken	16	263	7379	16.4375	13.82
t =	7.725	sign .001 level			

3. Significant Total Agreement Scores

	N	$\sum X$	$\sum X^2$	\bar{X}	SD
Married	159	5613	206629	35.302	7.3
Broken	16	586	21724	36.625	4.18
t =	11.1	non significant with 60 df			

4. Significant Configural Scoring Scores

	N	ΣX	ΣX^2	\bar{X}	SD
Married	159	2170	37223	13.704	7.3
Broken	16	202	2996	12.625	4.18
t =	1.11	non significant with 60 df			

APPENDIX D

Distribution of Ages

Appendix D

Distribution of Ages

Age at Engagement and Married

		Male							
Female	16-18	1	6	1	1				
	19-21		41	36	14	2			
	22-24		4	22	10	1	1		
	25-27				5	2	3		
	28-30			1					
	31-33					2		1	
	34-36								1
	38-40								

Age at Engagement and Broken

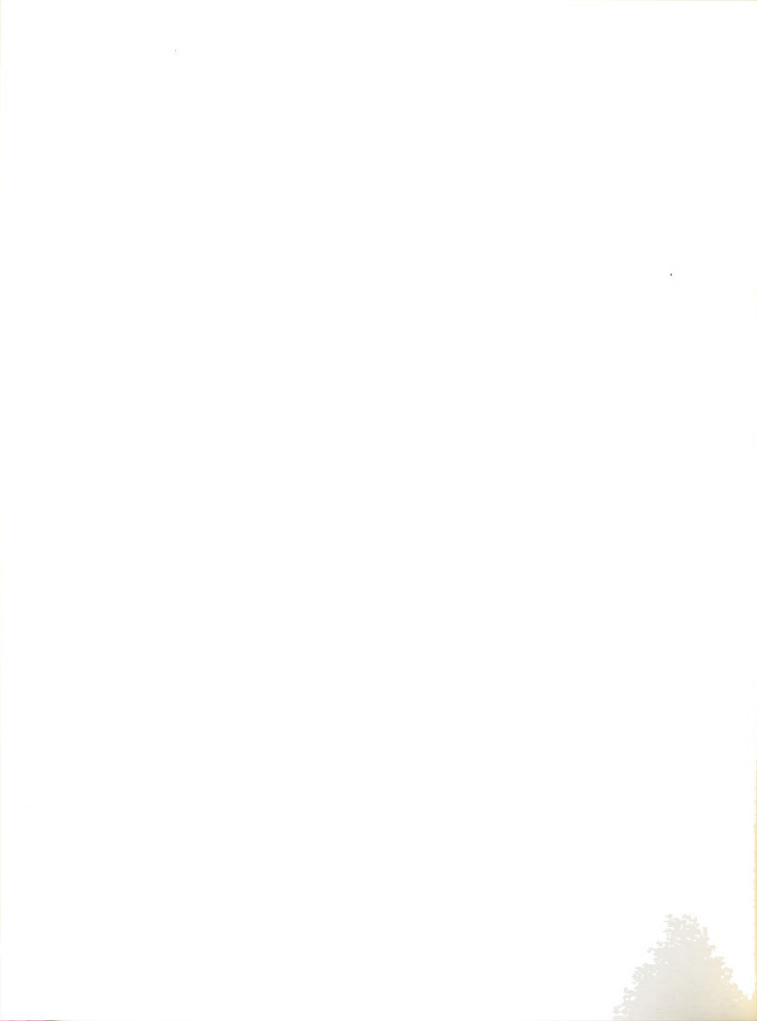
Female	Male		
	16-18	19-21	22-24
16-18			
19-21		2	
22-24		2	8
25-27		1	3

$$df = (r-1)(c-1) = (9-1)(6) = 54$$

$$\chi^2 = \text{Sum of } \frac{(\text{expected frequency} - \text{actual frequency})^2}{\text{expected frequency}}$$

$$\chi^2 = 15.06$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{With 21 df at .05} = 32.671 \\ \text{at .01} = 38.932 \end{array} \right\}$$



APPENDIX E

- I. Instruction Sheet for Responding to the Instruments
- II. Sample Copy of Engagement Success Inventory
- III. Sample Copy of Issue Scale of Marital Adjustment
- IV. Initial Letter sent to Original Sample
- V. Letter used for Follow-up Study



I N S T R U C T I O N S

To each partner of the engagement:

It is requested that you take the tests separately. We want these tests to reflect your own individual thoughts. If you desire to compare your answers after you have finished taking the tests, there is no objection.

The Issues of Marital Scale at points may be difficult for you as an engaged person to answer. This is recognized and it is suggested that you project your answer to answer as if you were already married.

The tests are handled in a confidential matter and will be seen only by those few individuals engaged in this research. You will note that your name is not placed on either of the tests so that there is no way of directly associating you with your answers.

Please remember that the final phase of this research is dependent upon our knowing that you have married. If in the rush you or your family can remember to drop us a card, it would be appreciated. Otherwise, we will contact you shortly after the date given us to determine that the marriage took place.

If you desire to know how this entire project turned out, please indicate this when you return the tests and we will see that you get a summary when the study is completed.

Your help is appreciated more than can be expressed.

Sincerely yours,

LEIGHTON E. HARRELL, JR.
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
FAMILY RELATIONS
Home Economics Department
Indiana State College
Indiana, Pennsylvania

No. _____ Date of Engagement _____ Sex _____

ENGAGEMENT SUCCESS INVENTORY

Directions: Circle the letter that most nearly fits your answer. Answer for yourself and how you think your partner would answer.

- | | Man | Woman |
|--|-----|-------|
| 1.) In leisure time do you prefer | | |
| Stay at home all or most of the time | a | a |
| Fifty-fifty reply or equivalent | b | b |
| Emphasis on stay at home | c | c |
| To be "on the go" all or most of the time | d | d |
| Man and woman differ | e | e |
| 2.) Do you and your fiancé (e) engage in interest and activities together? | | |
| All of them | a | a |
| Some of them | b | b |
| Few of them | c | c |
| Most of them | d | d |
| Few or none | e | e |
| 3.) Do you confide in your fiancé(e) | | |
| About everything | a | a |
| About most things | b | b |
| About some things | c | c |
| All other replies | d | d |
| 4.) Does your fiancé (e) confide in you? | | |
| About everything | a | a |
| About most things | b | b |
| About some things | c | c |
| All other replies | d | d |
| 5.) Frequency of demonstration of affection for fiancé (e). | | |
| Very frequent | a | a |
| Occasional | b | b |
| Practically all the time | c | c |
| All other replies | d | d |
| 6.) Are you satisfied with the amount of demonstration of affection? | | |
| Both satisfies | a | a |
| One satisfied, other desires more | b | b |
| One satisfied, other desires less | c | c |
| Both desire more | d | d |
| One desires less, other more | e | e |
| Both desire less | f | f |

7-17) Questions 7 to 17 all relate to the extent of agreement or disagreement between couple members in a number of areas in their relationship. The answers to these questions are all coded in the manner. The code is shown below. Record your answer to the questions by circling the appropriate code letter in each question.

	Man	Woman
Always agree	a	a
Almost always agree	b	b
Occasionally disagree	c	c
Frequently disagree	d	d
Almost always disagree	e	e
Always disagree	f	f

7.) Money matters

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

8.) Recreation

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

9.) Religion

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

10.) Demonstration of affection:

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

11.) Friends

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

12.) Table Manners

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

13.) Matters of conventionality

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

14. Philosophy of life

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

15.) Ways of dealing with your families

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

16.) Arrangements for marriage

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

17.) Dates

Man: a b c d e f

Woman: a b c d e f

18.) Do you ever wish you had not become engaged? Man Woman

Never	a	a
Once	b	b
Occasionally	c	c
Frequently	d	d

19.) Have you ever contemplated breaking your engagement?

Never	a	a
Once	b	b
Occasionally	c	c
Frequently	d	d

20.) What things annoy you about your engagement?

None, perfectly satisfied, etc.,	a	a
One thing mentioned	b	b
Two things	c	c
Three or more	d	d

	Man	Woman
Its length only	b	b
Being separated only	c	c
Length and one other annoyance	c	c
Separation and one other annoyance	d	d
One annoyance and length and separation	e	e
Two or more annoyances and length and or separation	f	f
21.) What things does fiance(e) do that you do not like?		
Never	a	a
One thing mentioned	b	b
Two things	c	c
Three or more	d	d
22.) Has your relationship ever been broken temporarily?		
Never	a	a
Once	b	b
Twice	c	c
Three or more times	d	d
23.) If you could, what things would you change in your fiance(e)?		
In physical appearance		
In mental, temperamental or personality characteristics		
In ideas		
In personal habits		
In any other way		
24.) If you could, what things would you change in yourself?		
23.24.) The answers to these two questions are coded and and scored as if they constituted a single answer. Your answer to the two questions combined is simply the total of the number of changes desired in your fiance(e) and yourself.		
No changes desired	a	a
One change desired	b	b
Two changes desired	c	c
Three changes desired	d	d
Four changes desired	e	e
Five or more changes desired	f	f



TEST NUMBER _____.

BIRTHDATE _____ month _____ day _____ year _____.

OCCUPATION _____.

SEX _____ M or F _____.

LENGTH OF COURTSHIP _____.

DATE OF ENGAGEMENT _____.

IS THIS YOUR FIRST ENGAGEMENT _____.

yes or no

NUMBER OF YEARS SCHOOLING _____.

HAVE YOU ATTENDED COLLEGE _____.

yes or no

HAVE YOU ATTENDED TRADE SCHOOL _____.

yes or no

PLANNED DATE OF MARRIAGE _____.

"THE ISSUES SCALE"

How to answer:

EACH STATEMENT MUST BE ANSWERED TWICE

- (1) Read each statement and decide how true it is. Is it always true, usually true, rarely true or never true: Put a heavy mark with your pencil between the lines. (2) Then decide if you feel strongly about the statement. If you do, put a heavy mark with your pencil between the lines under the "YES" column. If you do not, put a heavy black mark between the lines under the "NO" column.

Example:

- (a) "Children should be spanked when bad."

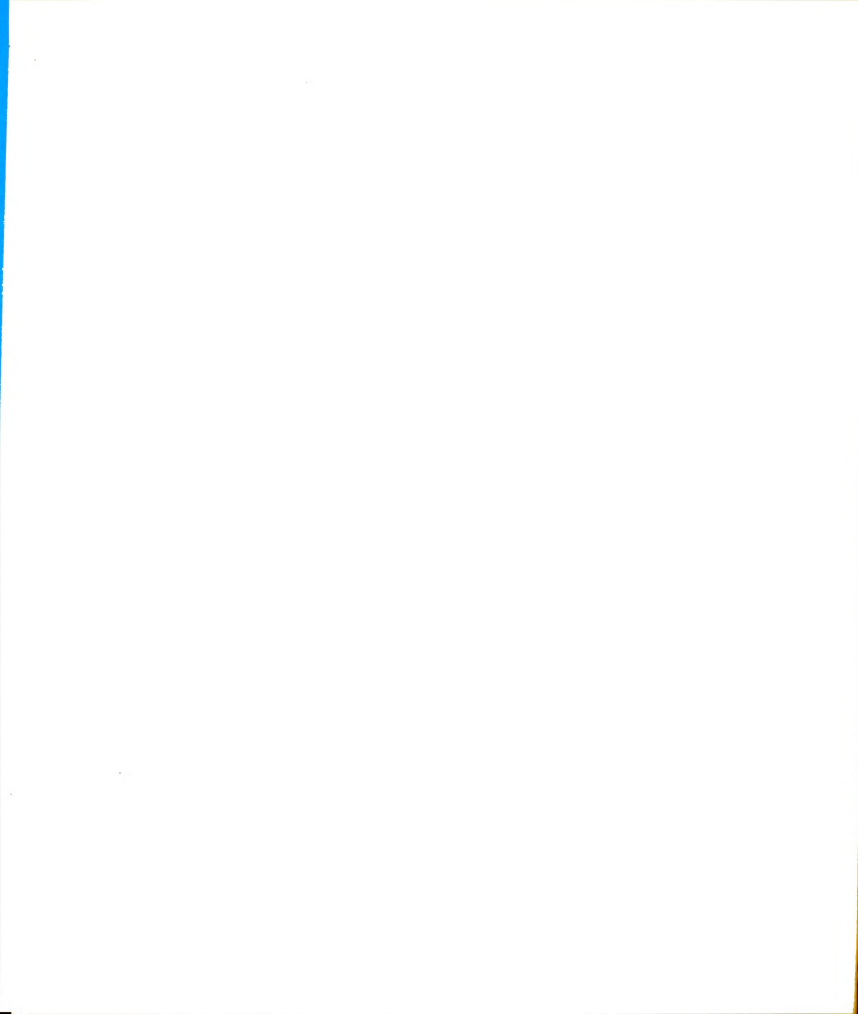
(The person who answered this question never thinks the statement is true so he put a mark between the lines under NEVER, and he feels strongly about the statement so he put a mark between the lines under YES).

How true is the statement?

Always	Usually	Rarely	Never
"	"	"	"

Feel strongly
Yes " "
No " "

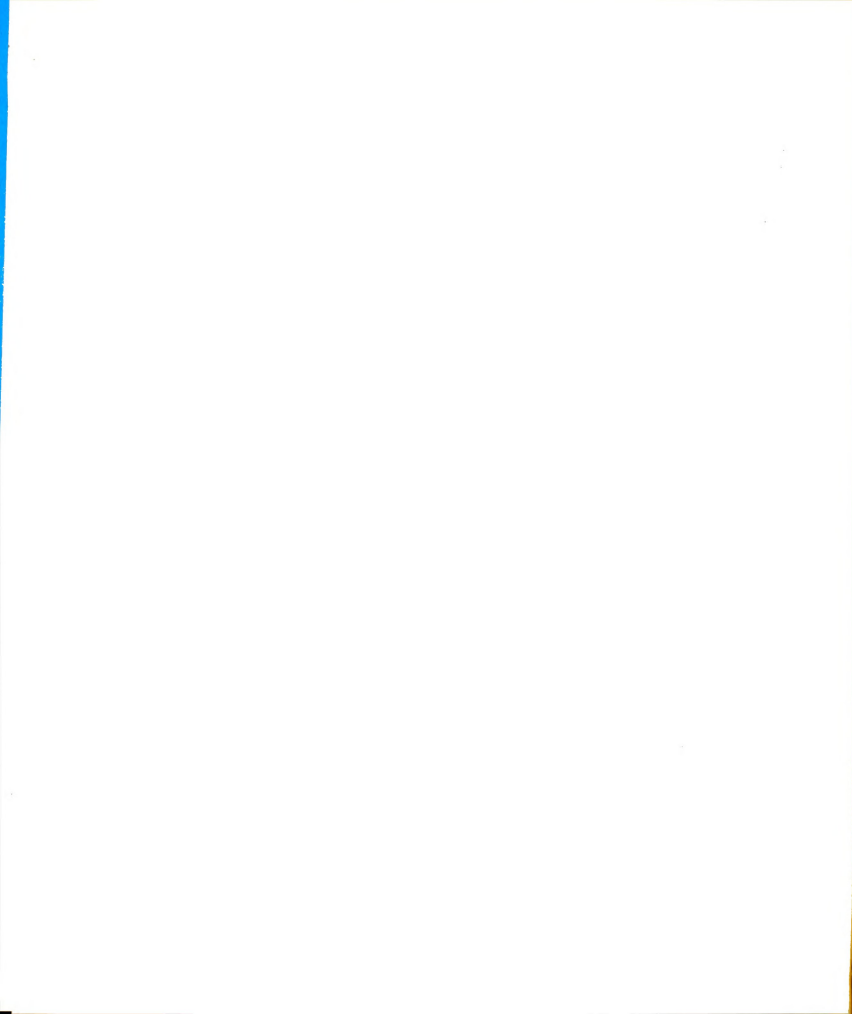
TURN THE PAGE AND BEGIN WORK ACCORDING TO THE INSTRUCTIONS. THERE IS NO TIME LIMIT.



	How true is the statement? Always Usually Rarely Never	Feel Strongly?	
		Yes	No
1. Arguing with in-laws is childish.	" " " "	"	"
2. Sex is made too important in this day and age.	" " " "	"	"
3. Watching television is one of the best ways to have a good time.	" " " "	"	"
4. Men are more practical than women.	" " " "	"	"
5. Kissing is a women's game.	" " " "	"	"
6. The family that prays together stays together.	" " " "	"	"
7. It's annoying when a husband or wife talks about how well friends do.	" " " "	"	"
8. Having sexual intercourse can be a bother.	" " " "	"	"
9. When in-laws give a couple money they should have some say in the couple's plans.	" " " "	"	"
10. Couples should take vacations every year.	" " " "	"	"
11. It's a good idea to hold off paying bills as long as possible so money is handy.	" " " "	"	"
12. A husband or wife who wants lots of affection is childish.	" " " "	"	"
13. A person must be responsible for what he does.	" " " "	"	"
14. Aside from neighbors, a housewife finds it hard to make new friends.	" " " "	"	"



	How true is the statement?		Feel Strongly	
	Always	Usually Rarely Never	Yes	No
15. Is natural to dislike a mother-in-law	"	"	"	"
16. Going for long periods without sexual intercourse is normal.	"	"	"	"
17. Husbands think spare time is only for their own enjoyment.	"	"	"	"
18. Husbands should handle the money in the family	"	"	"	"
19. Affection leads to sexual intercourse in marriage.	"	"	"	"
20. People make their own happiness or sadness.	"	"	"	"
21. A husband and wife should each have their own friends.	"	"	"	"
22. The secret of dealing with in-laws is to watch what you do and say.	"	"	"	"
23. Sexual intercourse is pleasing only when it satisfies both mates.	"	"	"	"
24. Husbands should feel free to spend family money on liquor.	"	"	"	"
25. A marriage is happy when the husband and wife love each other.	"	"	"	"
26. The good things in life are earned by hard work.	"	"	"	"
27. A friend is someone who you can depend on.	"	"	"	"



		How true is the statement?		Feel strongly?	
		Always	Usually	Yes	No
28.	In-laws are the nicest when they don't give advice	"	"	"	"
29.	Women should tell their husbands how they feel about sex.	"	"	"	"
30.	Children should be included in a husbands and wife's plans for a good time.	"	"	"	"
31.	Handling money is the job of both the husband and wife	"	"	"	"
32.	A person can feel affectionate without having sexual intercourse.	"	"	"	"
33.	"I am my brother's keeper".	"	"	"	"
34.	The best friends mind their own business.	"	"	"	"
35.	A person can feel closer to his or her in-laws than his own parents.	"	"	"	"
36.	Women care less about being sexually attractive after they are married.	"	"	"	"
37.	Without having fun a marriage is bound to fall apart.	"	"	"	"
38.	Part of the family paycheck belongs to the wife and part to the husband	"	"	"	"

	How true is the statement?		Feel Strongly?	
	Always	Usually	Rarely	Never
39. Affection in marriage is more important to man than women.	"	"	"	"
40. The important things in life cannot be bought	"	"	"	"
41. Husbands pick friends for different reasons than wives	"	"	"	"
42. In-laws try to run a couple's life.	"	"	"	"
43. Being able to get along sexually is important for a happy marriage	"	"	"	"
44. Husbands and wives should spend their free time together	"	"	"	"
45. A lack of money can destroy love between a couple.	"	"	"	"
46. In marriage little gifts mean more than a thousand words.	"	"	"	"
47. Humans would be animals if they did not know right from wrong.	"	"	"	"
48. A real friend is one who will take your side even against your husband or wife	"	"	"	"
49. In-laws should be made to feel welcome in a couple's home	"	"	"	"



	How true is the statement? Always Usually Rarely Never	Feel Strongly?	
		Yes	No
50. There is only one right way to have sexual intercourse.	" " " "	"	"
51. What a woman considers fun is not fun for a man.	" " " "	"	"
52. When a couple is broke, they should borrow money.	" " " "	"	"
53. There is not enough affection in marriage.	" " " "	"	"
54. Your fate is already decided.	" " " "	"	"
55. You can say anything to a real friend.	" " " "	"	"
56. Your husband's or wife's parents are entitled to the same respect as your own parents.	" " " "	"	"
57. A person's sex life should not be talked about.	" " " "	"	"
58. If a couple would have good times together, they would have fewer problems.	" " " "	"	"
59. Women should spend more on clothes than men.	" " " "	"	"
60. It is silly to be affectionate when you don't feel like it.	" " " "	"	"



	How true is the statement?		Feel Strongly?	
	Always	Usually Rarely Never	Yes	No
61. All men are created equal.	"	"	"	"
62. Having close friends is more important to man than women.	"	"	"	"
63. In-laws are a problem to unhappily married couples.	"	"	"	"
64. Sex play is silly for married couples.	"	"	"	"
65. Husbands and wives should take separate vacations.	"	"	"	"
66. It is useless to try to live on less money than you now make.	"	"	"	"
67. A loving date becomes a loving mate.	"	"	"	"
68. People are born "good".	"	"	"	"
69. One or two good friends are more important than many friends.	"	"	"	"
70. A marriage is in for trouble if a husband or wife is very close to his or her parents.	"	"	"	"
71. Women are unhappy with the way sex is practiced today.	"	"	"	"
72. People would be more relaxed if they would take a drink of liquor.	"	"	"	"



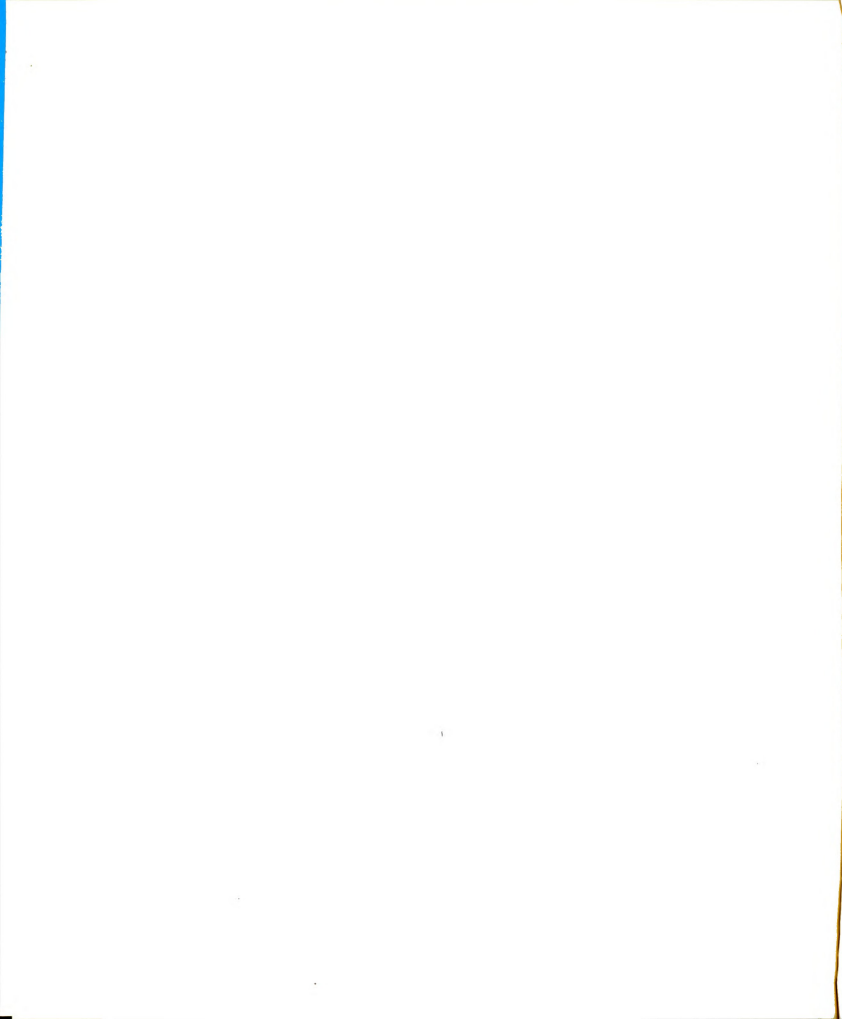
	How true is the statement? Always Usually Rarely Never	Feel Strongly?	
		Yes	No
73. Medical insurance is an essential expense in marriage.	" " " "	"	"
74. Marriage is an agreement between two people to give the other person what he wants.	" " " "	"	"
75. The good life takes the middle road.	" " " "	"	"
76. The husband should go out with the boys once a week.	" " " "	"	"
77. In-laws cause more marriages to break up than the couples themselves.	" " " "	"	"
78. Sexual intercourse should not be practiced outside of marriage.	" " " "	"	"
79. It's harder to have a good time after marriage.	" " " "	"	"
80. The husband should be the bread-winner in the family.	" " " "	"	"
81. Kissing a husband or wife becomes a habit after a while.	" " " "	"	"
82. Experience is the best teacher.	" " " "	"	"
83. You should be able to talk over your marriage problems with your	" " " "	"	"



	How true is the statement? Always Usually Rarely Never	Feel Strongly?	
		Yes	No
84. The best way to handle in-laws is to agree with them and then do what you want to do.	" " " "	"	"
85. Only a husband should make passes leading to sexual intercourse.	" " " "	"	"
86. Men go fishing or hunting to get away from home.	" " " "	"	"
87. Wives spend more money than husbands.	" " " "	"	"
88. Women use affection more than men to get what they want.	" " " "	"	"
89. Society destroys all of us in some ways.	" " " "	"	"
90. After marriage new friends are made through the husband.	" " " "	"	"
91. It is handy to live near your in-laws.	" " " "	"	"
92. Men should be given more sexual freedom than women.	" " " "	"	"
93. Playing cards is fun.	" " " "	"	"
94. The best way to keep a marriage going is to have enough money to buy the things you want.	" " " "	"	"
95. Giving gifts to your husband or wife is a good way to show your love.	" " " "	"	"



	How true is the statement?		Feel Strongly?	
	Always	Usually Rarely Never	Yes	No
96. Being an active member of a church is necessary for a good life...	"	"	"	"
97. If people would stop worrying about how much better off their friends are they would be happier.	"	"	"	"
98. It is wise not to encourage visits by in-laws.	"	"	"	"
99. There's too much fuss over sex today.	"	"	"	"
100. A good time means getting away from the children.	"	"	"	"
101. It is hard to earn a good living today.	"	"	"	"
102. People with cold personalities are bad risks for marriage.	"	"	"	"
103. It is good to find new ways to handle problems.	"	"	"	"
104. After marriage it is hard to find friends like that "old gang of mine".	"	"	"	"
105. When you can't reason with in-laws, you can ignore them.	"	"	"	"
106. Sexual intercourse should be more fun than it is.	"	"	"	"



	How true is the statement? Always Usually Rarely Never	Feel Strongly?	
		Yes	No
107. Marriage restricts a couple to the point where there is little time for fun.	" " " "	"	"
108. Both the husband and wife should handle the money.	" " " "	"	"
109. It takes more than love to hold a marriage together.	" " " "	"	"
110. People get pushed around in life.	" " " "	"	"
111. A real friend will tell you when you are being childish.	" " " "	"	"
112. A person's family should not be an issue in deciding whether to marry him or her.	" " " "	"	"
113. When people are married, any kind of sex act is O.K.	" " " "	"	"
114. Husbands and wives find it hard to talk about things during their free time.	" " " "	"	"
115. A husband should hold down two jobs when he can't make ends meet.	" " " "	"	"
116. Affection in marriage is more important to women than men.	" " " "	"	"
117. The spiritual part of life is important	" " " "	"	"



	How true is the statement?		Feel Strongly?	
	Always	Usually	Yes	No
118. Friends are chosen because they can help you meet the right people.	"	"	"	"
119. There is truth in the saying "You marry your in-laws".	"	"	"	"
120. Sex is dirty.	"	"	"	"
121. One should get away from home to relax.	"	"	"	"
122. Husbands and wives should agree about spending lots of money on something.	"	"	"	"
123. A lack of affection in marriage bothers men more than women.	"	"	"	"
124. True love is hard to find.	"	"	"	"
125. Friends can be trouble makers for marriages.	"	"	"	"
126. In-laws have a couple's best interest at heart.	"	"	"	"
127. It takes more sex to satisfy men than women.	"	"	"	"
128. Dancing is fun.	"	"	"	"
129. Living on a strict budget is worse than owing money.	"	"	"	"

		How true is the statement?		Feel Strongly?	
		Always	Usually	Yes	No
130.	It's annoying when couples neck in public.	"	"	"	"
131.	Having all you want can ruin you.	"	"	"	"
132.	Friends are chosen because they can help you forget your problems.	"	"	"	"
133.	Mother-in-laws should be told off when they are being busy-bodies.	"	"	"	"
134.	The reason for sex is to have children.	"	"	"	"
135.	A husband or wife would be better off if they could spend their spare time away from each other.	"	"	"	"
136.	It's upsetting the way the American wife has taken over the family money.	"	"	"	"
137.	When a husband or wife is loving, the marriage is happy.	"	"	"	"
138.	It is hard to be happy without money.	"	"	"	"
139.	A husband or wife should avoid having unmarried friends.	"	"	"	"



March 16, 1964

Miss Kathryn Blose,
R. D. 1,
Dayton, Ohio.

Dear Miss Blose:

This is a request for assistance from you and your fiancée to participate in some special research on engaged couples. This is being done in coordination with my work in Family Relations at Indiana State College.

In trying to understand the relationships that exist between man and woman, considerable research has been done with married couples. From this has come a better understanding of the whole process of marriage.

However, relatively little work has been done with engaged couples. In an effort to gain more knowledge in this area, a special project has been set up to study couples from engagement to marriage so that a new understanding of the entire process of engagement may be obtained.

Since you have just recently become engaged, we are writing to ask if you will participate in this research. You will be asked to fill out two questionnaires which contain general questions about you and your fiancée. Your fiancée would also be expected to fill out a similar questionnaire. You will be asked to let us know when you marry as a final phase of this research. This will take about an hour of your time.

It may be of interest to you to know that some who have already participated in this research have reported that these tests were quite beneficial to them. The various questions provided many areas for additional discussion which helped to provide a deeper insight into each other.

If you are willing to participate in this research, please sign the enclosed card and return it to me. The tests will be mailed to you and they can be returned the same way.

Your thoughtfulness and help in this research will be appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Leighton E. Harrell, Jr.
Associate Professor, Family Relations
Indiana State College



Dear

Within the past two years you were contacted in connection with a research project on engaged couples. At that time you signed and returned an agreement stating that you would participate in this research. After this agreement was received, you were sent the test material that is being used in this research. This material has not been returned by you.

In order to complete this research we are asking those persons who did not return the material to us to fill out the enclosed card and return it.

I am certain that each person had his own reasons, which are valid, for not returning the tests. In order to help the research staff make an accurate study of all sides of this project, some indication of your reason is needed.

Your help and time in filling out this card is appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Leighton E. Harrell, Jr.
Professor of Psychology
and Family Life Education
Eastern Kentucky, State College



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